Demographic Characteristics of Modern Labour Migration from Montenegro to Denmark

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Abstract: The paper discusses the demographic characteristics of contemporary labour migration from Montenegro in Denmark. In early sixties, slow economic development of the country (former Yugoslavia) triggered the decision of the Yugoslav workers to go abroad. Among these countries, it was definitely Denmark being an important destination. In 1991 there were 1300 Montenegrin emigrants living Denmark, which is 12.9% of the total number of Yugoslavian immigrants (10 039) in this Scandinavian country. The period 1964 - 1969, could be regarded as initial, first stage in the process of emigration from the homeland with its 109 immigrants. In the second phase between 1970 and 1979, number of immigrants was the highest (682). In the third phase (1980 - 1991) it was 509 immigrants, while during the fourth phase (1991-2000), a total of 311 Montenegrin emigrants moved to Denmark.

Key words: Montenegrin emigrants; Denmark; migration; demographic characteristics

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1. Introduction

Migration in Montenegro took place in greater or lesser extent in different time periods and therefore its study and study of emigration as part of the migration process is very important for the socio-economic development of Montenegro, which was as an object of our former study (*The Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark*). General principles demonstrated in this development coincide with those that occurred in the former Yugoslavia. This was mostly contributed since the early sixties by slow economic development of the country, as the most important factor driving migration, that is, dissatisfaction with living and working conditions, which caused the decision of the Yugoslav workers to go abroad. There are no precise data on how many Montenegrin emigrants and their descendants live in the world. According to statistics from 1991 compared to the total number of refugees in Montenegro, most of Montenegrin emigrants live in the United States 44.9% Germany 20.0% Switzerland 7.9%. Then followed: Australia 2.9 %, Canada 1.5%, France 3.2%, Austria 2.2%, Sweden 2.1 %, other European countries 1.9%, UK 1.4%, Luxembourg 1.3%, Italy 1.2% Netherlands 0.8%, 5.7% unknown country. Of the total number of 10 039 Yugoslavs in Denmark in 1991, nearly 1 300 are immigrants from Montenegro.

According to the census of 2003, 54 816 citizens of Montenegro were temporarily working abroad, which is 8.84% compared to the total population of Montenegro: Plav (57.4%) Rožaje (22.2%), Berane (16.9%); Bijelo Polje (14.0%), Ulcinj (30.5%), Bar (13.8%). Followed by: Andrijevica 12.0%, Podgorica 6.1%, Tivat 3.8%, Herceg - Novi 3.4%, Kotor 3.4%, Pljevlja 3.1%, Budva 2.6%, Mojkovac 2.5%, Nikšić 2.0%, Cetinje 1.3%, Šavnik 1.2%, Kolašin 1.0%, Žabljak 0.9%, Danilovgrad 0.7% and Plužine 0.6% (www.cgdijaspora@cg.yu).

Within the limits of own observations, we had a chance to see some disadvantages, which - in an otherwise modest immigration process in Montenegro (i.e. the migration of labour from Montenegro to Denmark) - were paid almost no attention and which will be tackled in the paper.

2. Related work

Although the social need for research of migration (especially its essential component - emigration) in Montenegro is indisputable, the research currently does not meet these needs. Scientific analysis of the problem was, so far, inadequately represented by focus on illegal aspects of the migration. In fact, this doctrinal issue has been so far treated more informative, without sufficient and reliable data.

Previous studies of external migration in Montenegro are generally insufficient and partial, and the requirements for consideration of these social phenomena are common (Stamenkovic 1989). In this regard, we point out clearly formulated position of Rodić (1972), indicating that in addition to statistical data, the best way to study external migration, field surveys, help us to learn more immediate causes and consequences of migrants and to establish the motives and last pulses, which predominantly affect the individual at the start of migration. Given that the existing statistical data, not nearly as complex, does not allow consideration of the Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark, we have adopted a comprehensive and in many ways a hard field surveys, so we tried to look at this issue more specifically. Therefore, we do not rely on geographical literature on the total number, regional origin and structure of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark and prefer a rather sociologic approach.

In fact, there are only a few important papers, dealing with the issue of Montenegro's emigrants. In this regard, the following are the significant ones: Protić and Lalević (1905), Velimirović (1909), Jovićević (1921), Vešović (1935), Pejović (1962), Lutovac (1975), Dašić (1986), Various authors (2006) and Miljić (2007).

The existing archives (although still insufficiently addressed), points to the massive emigration from Montenegro, which, with minor or major fluctuations, so to speak, continued. According to the authors who mentioned the main motive for the removal of the Montenegrin population, it is the economic underdevelopment of Montenegro, and thus its inability to absorb the own people (Kalezić 1976).

The lack of literature can be shown by the fact, that since 18 years ago, there was not a complete text, which treats the complex issue of emigration from the territory of Montenegro to Denmark. It was not until 1993, when the first informative presentation of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark appeared. It was a book by V. Rajovic (1993) "*Montenegrins in Denmark*". The mentioned book gives historical information - sociological view on immigration from Montenegro to Denmark and makes a modest contribution to the understanding of this issue.

The author of these lines while staying in Copenhagen, felt the need to record new information on the residence of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark. This led to the monograph "*The Montenegrin immigrants in Denmark*" (2011). During the research, the questionnaire was carried out for 162 respondents, Montenegrian immigrants having permanent settlement in Copenhagen. As the study went further, we find out new possibilities for the research based on personal contact with emigrants, and finally, respondents expressed an interest in participating in the survey.

3. Methodology

The whole procedure involved the research using the combined method for the observation with the key involvement, and creating and using the following sources: oral (surveys, interviews), written and biographical.

The chosen types of surveys fit into the research because it is in a very short time, in which they enable to collect the opinions of respondents, and then, can be used for deeper analysis of certain cause-effect relationship. With the advantages in the collection, the survey has many advantages in the treatment process. Its data are standardized in a considerable degree, and almost brought to the level of statistical analysis. They are read and entered into the computer, and all this makes the survey the rapid, cost effective and modern method (Mihajlović 1995).

The interview is a dynamic process in which - through conversations between two or more people – we gain the data related to the research. Through this communication, we collect the data through verbal communication, in order to use them for research purposes. The interview is a distinctive social attitude; it is based on the principle of voluntary cooperation. The dynamics of the interview consists of not just in questions and answers, but in many other non-verbal feedbacks and communication characteristics, which are sometimes not necessary for the research. Therefore, the purpose of the interview is only related to new, useful and usable information within the study (Mihajlović 1995).

Furthermore, we studied written sources, including: the existing archives of Montenegrin emigrants abroad, then press and internet.

For biographical method there are several different terms: "a method of personal" or "human document", "life story", "History of the case", which means that it is a procedure, based on personal documents, as appropriate experiential material. It gives information about the subjective experience of participants in certain situations and events, considered from their perspective, their definition of the situation. Finally, it helps to understand the motives of their actions and behaviour (Bogdanović 1993).

Through "life stories" gained during the informal discussion, we acquire the data from the lives of individuals and communities in which individuals are located. Such data cannot be reached only through observation. The biographical method used personal (biographies, diaries, letters, memoirs, notes, films), and institutional documents. Continuously, we restore the database, identify certain regularities, their wording in the analytical register, fill in and illustrate the content of the source data (Bogdanović 1993).

In conclusion, the methods used in this study, are directly a function of explanatory theme, and that as such, an integral part of the research.

4. Results and Discussion

The characteristics of the demographic trends of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark include the following issues: the number of emigrants, the dynamics of migration and regional origin, age and sex structure and qualification structure. For this section, we used data by Lutovac (1975), Rajović (1993), as well as materials collected during field survey.

Table 1: Number of people living in Denmark by citizenship (migrants from the former Yugoslavia, Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Montenegro, in the period 1967 – 2005) (Rajović, 2011)

	1967	1974	1991	2005
Former Yugoslavia	358	6.802	10.039	-
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	-	-	-	≈6.000
Montenegro	-	-	-	≈ 2.000

Data on the number of Yugoslav immigrants in Denmark are shown in the statistics on foreigners in 1991, two volumes in the newsroom Bruun and Hamer. According to the above mentioned statistical records, the total number of Yugoslav immigrants in 1967 were 358, and in 1974 totally 6802. Thus, compared to 1967, the number of Yugoslavs in 1974 increased by 190%, and in 1991 by 280 %. Such intensive growth is the best proof of the expected socio-economic, political and other change, which were considered by the Yugoslav immigrants as a motive to emigrate to Denmark.

Statistics on foreigners do not provide data for the former Yugoslav republics. According to Lutovac (1975) there were 248 Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark in 1974, and according to Rajović (1993), 1300 in 1991. Embassy of the State Union of Serbia and Montenegro in Copenhagen in early 2005 year estimates, that in Denmark there are about 6 000 immigrants from Serbia, and about 2 000 immigrants from Montenegro. By asking the ambassador Vladimir Radulović, "*It's hard to say how many of our people is a citizen of Serbia and Montenegro, as it has since 40-50 percent of them accepted the Danish citizenship, which they had to give up their previous citizenship, as Denmark does not allow dual citizenship*" (www.blic.evropa).

Considering the circumstances of the research, we have conducted interviews on the basis of names recorded by Rajović (1993) in the second half of 2000 and the first half of 2005. The interviews were related to the number, the dynamics of emigration, regional origin and structure of migrants.

According to Lutovac (1975), which is confirmed by our survey, the first citizen of Montenegro, who arrived in Denmark in 1964 was Zora Vulević from around Andrijevica. We have come to the interesting information that no immigrant from Montenegro did arrive to Denmark with the help of the Employment Service (The exception is the 17 of our compatriots from the central and northern part of Montenegro, who arrived at Jutland with the help of the Bureau). Departure sometimes erupted over the "*channel friendly ties*". Specifically, the Montenegrin emigrants are mainly left with relatives and friends in places, where they came first time and live.

Table 2: First eviction from Montenegro to Denmark (Rajović, 2011)

Period	Number
1964 – 1969	109
1970 – 1979	682
1980 – 1991	509
1991 – 2000	311

As can be noted from the **Table 2** the period from 1964 to 1969 could be regarded as initial, i.e. first step in the process of emigration from the homeland (109). In the second phase, 1970-1979, first visit to Denmark was the largest - 682 emigrants. The third phase (1980-1991) included 509 immigrants, while the fourth phase (1991-2000) 311 Montenegrin emigrants, among which we registered a number of second and third generations of our fellow citizens from Bosnia and Herzegovina, the so-called "*refugee wave, whose parents are originally from Montenegro*".

Table 3: Reasons for removal from the country of origin in Denmark (Rajović, 2011)

Reason	Number of answers
with or for family	41
economic	121
political	-
did not answer	-

Before the 1960s the eviction was not possible because the legislation was limited by leaving the country. In this case we can speak of *political immigrants*. Nevertheless, our survey showed no case of this kind in Denmark. Thus, the major factors seem to be represented only by economic migration and family reunification. Using the questionnaire, we surveyed 162 permanently compatriots in Copenhagen and members of the first and second generations. Respondents expressed interest to participate in the survey and provide all available information and answers to all questions.

The questionnaire has shown us that the reasons for eviction during the first generation were exclusively economic (121), while in the second generation the emigration was solely related to family reasons (41).

Our research evidence highlighted in the foreground several important observations:

• Firstly, the first generations of Montenegrin emigrants (mostly men), characterized the planned temporary stay, which in most cases, extended in a manner that was brought to her partner, and then to the whole family in which the children continued their education at home evictions.

"*We were working in two shifts, gradually learned the language and meeting up with the laws of Denmark, and Danish employers we have met all requirements in accordance with the law. After five years we would get a visa stamped in your passport, as well as special cards, called, work visas. Later we are arrive wives, children, and visiting parents, brothers, sisters, cousins*" (fi.gen.-m, 1940).

"*There are two lessons that could create life: to be happy because happiness of others and not be less happy about the happiness of others*" (Jovičić 2001).

Contacts of the first-generation immigrants with Montenegro, as they say, were very common, through visits to the country, investments of saved earnings in the purchase of apartments, cars, farms, building houses in the homeland, visiting relatives, etc.

• Secondly, the situation with members of the second generation is much different. "*They are confronted with two cultures, are increasingly adopting the language and value system of the country where they live, what they ultimately facilitate and enable social progress*" (Davidović 1999).

• Third, in Denmark is formed and the third generation, is much different than the first, more integrated into Danish society than others, so that the phenomenon's birthplace, is unlikely to be decisive for the future, at least in greater numbers, while the only upcoming organized remedial instruction, offers the possibility of learning native language, geography, history and music education.

The survey based on the data Rajović (1993) brings us the interesting information that, by 1300 the total number of Montenegrin emigrants 1991st in Denmark, 1,014 (78%) of them originated from the northern region of Montenegro, 205 (15.8%) from Central and 81 (6.2%) from the southern, or coastal. In general, immigration process is most advanced in the northern region of Montenegro. From which it can be concluded that more immigrants emigrated from poorer areas and with lower incomes.

More than forty years have elapsed since the first arrival in Denmark to date. Montenegrin emigrants and their number of about 2,000 of its life and work, "really proved all, both old and modern sceptics, who doubted any possibility of adapting all the very different conditions from those in terms of climate and soil types, to those in the way in which adjustments and all other manifestations of social life. The most important conclusion to be drawn and expressed in just two words is: have succeeded" (Blagojević 1979).

Naturalization, citizenship of the country taking the eviction, the administrative or legal issue so that other members in Denmark, or third generation have dual citizenship, given that the Danish law on citizenship, by 2003, allowed the privilege. However, the survey questions on dual nationality have not been implemented because the respondents felt that their responses reveal "dual" membership. "*If I have dual citizenship, does not mean that I left her homeland*" (se. gen.-w.1965) says one respondent interviewed.

Stay on the field has shown us that most respondents felt nostalgia and life in the homeland is part of the unrealized dream. When asked whether you intend to return to their homeland and under what conditions, the responses were a check, of course, favourable economic conditions in the stream. Notes from individual interviews and the fact that a first-generation respondents pronounced desire to return, but in the second and third. Also, most respondents considered that the general economic - political situation and living conditions far more favourable in Copenhagen (Denmark), but in the mainstream. Highlight the following answers:

"*Here I have a job; housing, living standards are not comparable, huge unemployment in the mainstream*" (fi.gen.-m.1940)

"*Respect for the law, the rule of law in the true sense of the word here work*" (fi.gen.-w.1944)

"*I delight in Denmark impeccable organization of life*" (se.gen.-m.1963)

"*Social and health care in Denmark, is a far better*" (se.gen.-w.1967)

"Possibility of acquiring quality education in Denmark is much higher “(se.gen.-m.1968).

Previous incomplete study of the Montenegrin Diasporas (Lutovac and Rajovic) shows that the most competent work force is leaving the country. "*Of course this is very unfavourable for us. Leaves us young, healthy, professionally trained work force ... This leaves us older, less skilled workers, which negatively affects the productivity of labour in our country*" (Rodić 1971).

The age structure of Montenegrin emigrants, according to survey research is as follows: in total, 35.1% of immigrants are 19 years old, 36.4% from 20 to 39 years old, 28.1% from 40 to 59 years of age, and 4% over 60 years of age. Such a favourable age structure of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark is the result of natural and mechanical movement. It must be borne in mind that in Denmark settled young Montenegrin immigrants who were employed and reproductive age, i.e. from the homeland they left our most capable compatriots. "*Their departure for our economy is certainly negative. For a country of emigration useful, because they are healthy and very fit for work*" (Rodić 1972).

By tradition in Montenegro is the more mobile male population. Men belonged to the higher concerns about earnings assets for the family. Therefore, it is understandable, that there are more men than women among our immigrants. In fact, this whole process of movement of immigrant families that are preceded by above mentioned singles going. Usually it was a male family member, who was in Denmark to find work quickly and intensively worked and saved money sent to his family in the homeland. Survey data show that in 1991 in Denmark were 697 men and 563 women. A substantial proportion of women together with their husbands began to arrive only after solution of issues ranging from housing to employment. But there are many women and mothers who remained in the mother country and committed to growing and educating children. In the age groups of the population, the group under 19 accounted for 13.4% of men and 11.7% women, 20 to 39 years 18.9% male and 17.5% women, 40 to 59 years 16.8% male and 11.3% female and 60 years and over 2.3% of males and 1.7% of women of Montenegrin emigrants. Given the current level of development of productive forces and the required school qualifications for entry into active economic life, the main source of the active population is in age groups from 20 to 59 years of age. It could be argued that the Montenegrin emigrants 1991st in Denmark had an extremely favourable age structure. Our survey confirms the view ex Rodić that in the migration process, first involving young immigrants up to 25 years of age, and only later some of the older generation.

Often, the educational attainment of our compatriots abroad hears different opinions. Most often it is exaggerated in terms of the number of immigrants with university or higher education and universities (Rodić 1972). According to Baučić (1970) in completing applications for employment workers were often randomly entered their profession. Most often typed occupation "worker" to make it easier to get employment abroad. Our survey eliminates any possibility of manipulating this data, in terms of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark.

Low-skilled workers are 143 or 11.0%. Schools for skilled and highly skilled workers have completed 305 or 23.5%. Dominant position, have workers with secondary education - 438 emigrants, or 33.6%. High school and college completed 7 or 0.5%. We considered the level of education that children are our compatriots acquired in the mother country, and later joining the family, notarized in the country moving. The cause of the relatively small number of our compatriots who have completed higher or university education is certainly the fact that many after completing secondary education are included in the Danish labour market, striving for material independence. No retail presence of low-skilled workers, mostly related to the first generation of Montenegrin emigrants, mostly coming from rural parts of the nut. The high share of qualified and skilled labour force with secondary education "*just shows us that if it once was synonymous with emigrants pain and suffering and hard-won earnings in difficult conditions, far from his home and native land, has been kind of return, with the possibility of expressing personal freedom in selecting sites and dealing with the choice of professions*" (Rudić 1982, 1983).

After the dissolution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the introduction of economic sanctions on the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Denmark tightens the criteria for staying in the country to foreigners, among others, those from Serbia and Montenegro. Specifically, Montenegrin citizens - if they want to come to Denmark - shall be granted a visa does not give the right to work, and usually lasts three months. And for those who want to stay for more than three months, it is necessary to obtain permission to stay.

Montenegrins who have permanent residence in Denmark based on "Law on Foreigners" can invite some close family members to reside in Denmark, if they meet certain conditions. It is so called family reunification. A typical example are the spouses and children. A residence permit, is granted based on marriage, which is not real, but is made with a view to the applicant, provide a residence permit (www.nydanmark.dk).

In order to achieve family reunification, they must meet certain requirements, depending on, which the group belongs, for example, the flat or the economic income of the local population. It can be set and the requirement that both partners are older than 24 years and that their common attachment to Denmark is greater than attachment to another country. The aim of these claims by the Danes, the protection of young people from unwanted marriage, of course, is to ensure the best possible starting point for the integration process (www.nydanmark.dk).

Permission can be obtained particularly for refugees and those who come through family reunification. Those who have a permission and, if they tried to integrate into Danish society and otherwise meet certain requirements may obtain an unlimited residence permission after a certain number of years. This means, among other things, that they have no debt to the social bodies and that they have not committed any crime (www.nydanmark.dk).

Unlimited residence permits Montenegrin emigrants, like the other foreigners, can be seized in a series of cases, for example if the specified grounds for license invalid, or no longer exists. Persons who came to Denmark on the basis of family reunification, and do not live with that spouse also, the residence permit may be revoked, and those who cease to live in Denmark, or go for a long time into the mainstream (www.nydanmark.dk).

As for coming and for staying in Denmark, or to acquire Danish citizenship, you must meet certain criteria determined by the Danish Parliament. Specifically, according to the Danish Constitution, Parliament is the one who decides whether a person can obtain Danish citizenship or not. These criteria are, among other relations, the knowledge of Danish language, documented confirmation of the centre for language learning or belief appropriate educational institution, course and confirmation of the length of stay in Denmark. The starting point for acquiring Danish citizenship is at least 9 years of residence, and for stateless persons and refugees, at least 8 years. Danish citizenship, are not eligible persons who have committed a crime, or those who have debts to the state institutions (www.nydanmark.dk).

Council of Ministers of the European Union lifted the November 30th in 2009 visas to citizens of Montenegro. Minister of Internal Affairs and Justice of the European Union adopted the amendment of Regulation 539/2001, which the citizens of Montenegro, placed on a "positive Schengen list". This means that the citizens of Montenegro are, since 19. 12. 2009, exempted from visas, for European Union countries, except Britain and Ireland. This, the decision of the Council of Ministers of the European Union, has caused immense positive response from Montenegrin citizens, especially those whose families live in this Scandinavian country, as they can now freely visit their relatives in Denmark.

5. Conclusions

The research results, which were presented, allow us to summarize the following major aspects of the issue:

1. Denmark and Montenegro are separated by more than 2000 km. Danes in the north, the Montenegrins in the south of Europe. Danes on the banks of the cold Baltic Sea, the Montenegrins on the shores of the Mediterranean. The ethnic structure of both countries as well as religious structure (Danes Protestant, Orthodox Montenegrins) are different as were the histories of these countries. This led to the lack of studies on relations between these two countries. Little of one another are recorded, with the exception of basic information that is brought together in some reference books, as well as sporadic news inscriptions, mostly of political content. However, the recent trends in political and economic integration of Europe show that such more in-depth studies can be no longer neglected.

2. The total number of Yugoslav immigrants in 1967 was 358, and the 1974 6802. Thus, compared to 1967, the number of Yugoslavs in 1974 increased by 190%, in 1991 to 280%. Such intensive growth, the best proof such as the socio - economic, political and other changes took place in Denmark, the Yugoslav immigrants. In 1991, Denmark was located 1300 Montenegrin emigrants, which is 12.9% of the total number of Yugoslav immigrants in Denmark.

3. The time between 1964 - 1969 year, could be regarded as an initial, i.e. first step in the process of emigration from the homeland (109). In the second phase, 1970 - 1979. The emmigration to Denmark was the largest - 682 emigrants. The third phase, 1980-1991 included 509 immigrants, while the fourth phase 311 Montenegrin emigrants. This implies that the second phase was characterized by intense outgoing Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark. That pace, albeit less pronounced continued.

4. Among the Montenegrin emigrants, we concluded that there are more male than female

migrants. The disproportion of male (697) and female (563) emigrants was influenced by the participation of men in exile in the early stages of post-war industrialization.

5. We affirm that in total 35.1% of immigrants to 19 years of age, 36.4% from 20 to 39 years old, 28.1% from 40 to 59 years of age, 4% over 60 years of age. Such a favorable age structure of Montenegrin emigrants in Denmark is the result of natural and mechanical movement. It must be borne in mind that in Denmark, settled our young immigrants who were employed and reproductive age, it is for work and play the most capable.

6. Qualification structure indicates the educational level of immigrants. Low-skilled workers consists of 143 or 11.0%. Schools for skilled and highly qualified employees have been completed by 305 or 23.5% immigrants. Dominant position have workers with secondary education - 438, or 33.6%, while the high school and college completed only 7 or 0.5% of them.

7. After the dissolution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the introduction of economic sanctions on the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Denmark tightens the criteria for staying in the country to foreigners, among others, those from Serbia and Montenegro. In order to achieve family reunification a number of specific conditions must be met, depending on which group it belongs. These criteria include housing and the economic income of the local expatriates for example. Council of Ministers of the European Union lifted the 30.11 of 2009, visas to citizens of Montenegro. Minister of Internal Affairs and Justice of the European Union adopted the amendment of Regulation 539/2001, which placed the citizens of Montenegro, on a "positive Schengen list". This means that the citizens of Montenegro, 2009 from December 19th. "exempted from visas" for countries of the European Union. This, the decision of the Council of Ministers of the European Union, has caused immense positive response of the citizens of Montenegro.

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Region as a Fundamental Unit in Modern Spatial Economy

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Abstract: The main aim of this article is attempt of defining and short characteristic of the role of region in modern spatial economy. Contemporary mechanisms of social and economic development of space which determinants are technological progress, evolution of informative society and economy` s globalization make new operation` s conditions for territorial units, particularly for regions. Spatial concentration follows related with benefits of creative cities and their peripheral areas but on the other hand connected with expansion of exchange` s innovating networks in world-wide. These connections usually are based on knowledge, information and new technologies.

Key words: spatial economy; region; regional economy

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1. Introduction

The term "spatial economy" ("spatial organization") is used differently in professional literature and in practical application. Such diversity and multi-aspectual character results from the fact that this area applies to various forms of human activities carried out in the space defined by the environment. Hence, in practice, definition of spatial organization is reduced to only one specific aspect of human activities. Since spatial economy covers both organization of space and organization in space, the comprehensive definition must naturally come as too general or too specific, i.e. accounting for all aspects of human activities in space. In generalized approach, it may be stated that spatial economy as positive science applies to cognition and description of human activities in space, while from the viewpoint of normative science it deals with describing viable methods and principles of human activities in space. Consequently, spatial organization covers not only methods of land utilization, but also organization of land (i.e. placement of human activities in space), including any projected and planned undertakings in this respect. In effect, spatial organization covers the whole set of activities related to modification of environment, aimed at rational utilization of environmental resources to improve human life, create foundations for development and protect the fundaments of sustainable development for future generations. This approach is well-manifested in the slogan: "the environment is not the property of present generations, but a deposit left for us to utilize and pass on to future generations in unchanged (if not improved) form and shape". Activities taking place within the confines of spatial economy may be classified into (Korenik, Słodczyk 2005 eds.):

1. coordination and regulation, those are the attributes of local and central administration and involve passing decisions in all matters related to land designation and methods of land utilization,

2. investment – activities of various economic entities and individuals, dictated by own purposes,

3. supervision – carried out by state administration to conform with current legislature.

At the same time, as postulated by W. M. Gaczek, it must be noted that "spatial organization of an economic system is of functional character", hence it may be carried out on different levels, i.e. on global, continental, national, regional and local scale (Gaczek 2003). Spatial economy is invariably associated with the notion of spatial development (Miszczak 2010), generally interpreted as designation of particular functions (in terms of satisfying human needs) to individual elements of space (either on permanent or on temporary basis). At present, the theoretical perspective on spatial economy offers two independent approaches to realization of spatial development:

• right-based – formed on the basis of binding regulations,

• dialogical – of negotiating character, based on social dialogue.

At present, various forms of spatial economy are determined by means of spatial planning, the main instrument covering (in the light of present legislature) all activities aimed at satisfying the requirement of well-balanced development of the regions. Spatial planning involves organization of space to serve human needs, adopting spatial order and sustainable development as fundaments of these activities, while at the same time taking into account all mutual relations between regions as well as the superior interests of the nation. Since spatial planning is addressed in another part of this publication, let us continue with the subject of spatial organization. It must be noted, however, that the planning processes should consider space and elements of the environment as rare commodities, emphasizing the need for their rational utilization.

Spatial organization may be considered as sum of human activities in space, resulting in both negative and positive effects. As aptly put by R. Domański, the scientific dimension of spatial economy should be interpreted as a postulate for supplementing the main trend of economics with spatial aspects, since all earlier approaches in economics were predominantly a-spatial (Domański 2006). In the author's opinion, "any economic theorem that neglects the spatial dimension is incomplete and offers a simplified representation of reality" (Miszczak 2008). Modern spatial economy, both in theoretical and practical dimension, is a multi-aspectual discipline of human life, shaped by premises presented in Fig. 1 below.

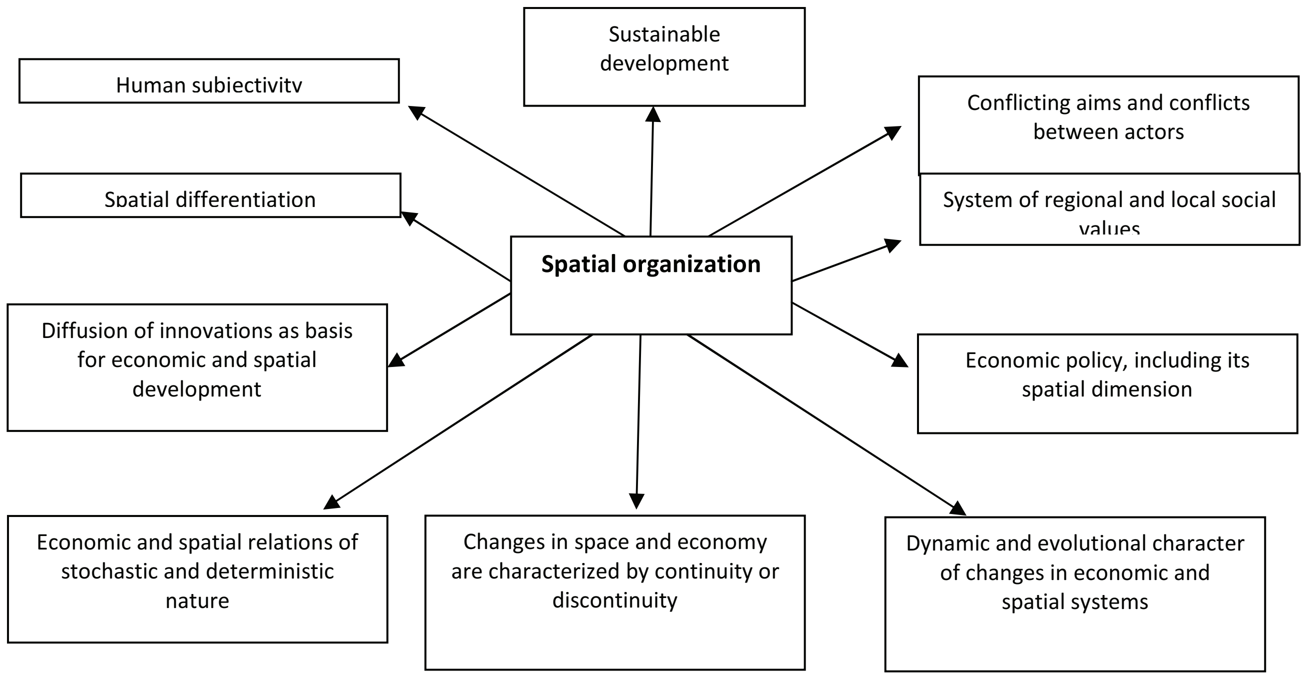

Fig. 1: Premises of the modern approach to spatial economy (Source: Domański 2006; p. 18)

Spatial policy and spatial planning, as concepts closely related to spatial economy, are – to some extent – complementary, since spatial policy sets goals of spatial economy, while spatial planning offers the instrumental base for their realization. On the other hand, organization of space is a term related to the state of space (both natural environment and anthropogenic elements of the environment), which is an effect of human activities (or nonfeasance). Attributes of the organization process include spatial order, preservation of landscape (together with architectural and urban planning elements), eco-development, protection of cultural heritage, etc.

Coming back to spatial policy, it may be defined (after W.M. Gaczek) as deliberate and conscious efforts of public authorities (state and local administration) to organize and utilize the space in a rational manner, resulting in spatial order and proper functioning of socio-economic system of particular territorial unit (Gaczek 2003). The author makes a clear distinction between passive and active spatial policy. In respect to fundamental goals of spatial policy, J. Słodczyk postulates the following distinction (Korenik, Słodczyk 2005 eds.):

1. coordination of spatial dimension of public activities, by correlating them in the aspects of time, space and effect,

2. stimulation of comprehensive development, effected through a wide range of incentives and inspirations,

3. serving as a platform for discussion between various actors of spatial policy, with the aim of reconciling particular interests with those of general public.

The last of the important elements of spatial economy, taking a lot of attention in recent times and manifested in qualitative perspective (also immaterial) is the notion of spatial order. Spatial order is defined as a form of spatial organization that can be perceived as harmonious entity, arranging in ordered fashion all determinants and requirements of space, i.e. functional, socio-economic, environmental, cultural and compositional/aesthetic qualities of space. In effect, spatial order should be manifested in such arrangement of forms and functions of spatial organization that offers, on the one hand, optimization and rationality of relations between individual elements of space, and, on the other hand, preserves landscape and esthetics of the environment, forming a "legible" spatial structure.

On the other hand contemporary mechanisms of social and economic development of space make new operation` s conditions for territorial units, particularly for regions.

The term "region" is loaded with manifold meanings, often representing separate sets of elements and territorial units (both in qualitative and quantitative aspects). The concept is often narrowed down to regions of economic, planning, administrative, urban, landscape, social, demographic and other description. The term has been used to define large areas and tiny zones. The term is also used to describe both uniform areas and those that are characterized by large diversity. Hence the multitude of definitions and various classifications of "region" (Szymla 2000). Such cognitive and methodological chaos observed in professional literature results in many misunderstandings and needless formal disputes, hampering the progress of science in relation to regions and regionalization.

At present, the term "region" is typically defined as a zone subsystem of spatial character[1]. Thus, it may be assumed that region is a set of neighbouring areas, distinguished by certain criteria from other adjoining areas. In this approach, it is clear that we need a clear delineation of criteria used for delimitation of regions. In this aspect, professional literature is rich in content. The term "region" is defined in a number of ways, often strongly contrasting in terms of associated space and its characteristics.

Modern literature on region delimitation provides three fundamental criteria of distinction (Secomski 1982):

1. physical and geographical (Kondracki 1976),

2. economic and spatial,

3. administrative – adopting the existing administrative structure of space.

The procedure of regional delimitation based on the above criteria is shown in Fig. 2.

[1] In this approach, the corresponding system of higher order being the national territory, i.e. the country.

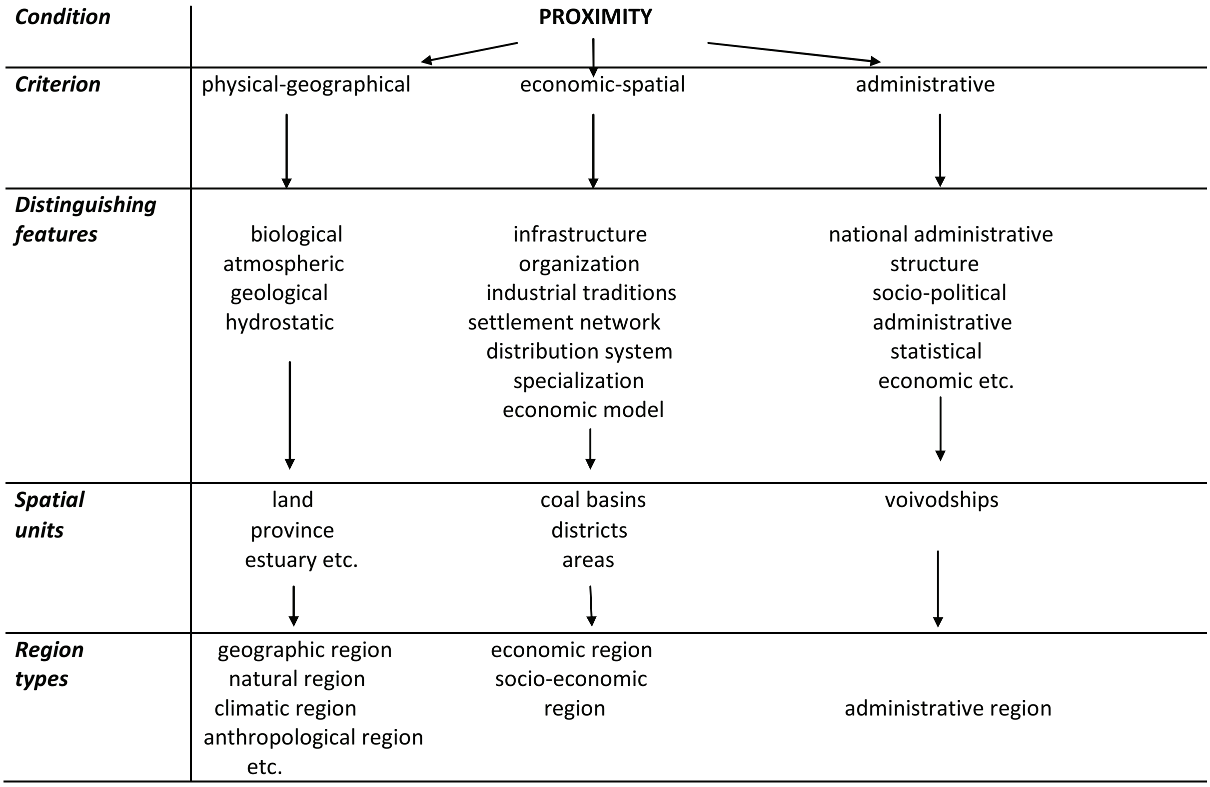

Fig. 2: Region delimitation procedure based on selected criteria (Korenik 1999)

In terms of physical-geographical criterion, delimitation is based on natural qualities and features of the area, such as biological, atmospheric and hydrological. The second criterion takes into account not only natural resource deposits, but also human activities related to organization of space. Lastly, the third criterion deals solely with state administration structure in a given time-frame.

It must also be noted that region is not only an economic and spatial structure, but also a community characterized by certain identity (cultural, ethnic, economic). The community is defined by particular behavioral patterns, customs, tradition, etc., which are, on the one hand, a set of integrating factors, and, on the other hand, a set of elements distinguishing the community from other groups. Hence, it is necessary to introduce two terms to precise the meaning of "local community". The first such term is the "regional scale" (Korenik 1998). It is defined as an area characterized by economic, historic, social and cultural homogeneity, providing the community with its socio-economic identity (expressed in terms of ethnic or cultural distinctions that determine economic attitudes of a given community and contrasting it with other groups; e.g. inhabitants of Poznan region in Poland are a good example of such distinction). The other term is the "region subjectivity" (Klasik 1997), expressed in three dimensions:

• cultural – defining generational continuity both in spiritual and historical aspects (respect for tradition),

• economic – focused on self-financing and self-supporting capabilities,

• political – expressed in subjectivization of regional community (region should be allowed to elect its authorities through democratic election), with preservation of autonomy in decision-making, property and fiscal policy.

Typology of regions may also be based on evaluation of the level of economic growth. Such evaluations reflect present size of resources of individual regions and varied tempo of processes and their development. In this approach, the main point is to indicate socio-economic problems in the area under study.

A good example of comprehensive typology based on those two viewpoints is postulated by B. Winiarski in his Polityka regionalna (Winiarska

1976). Based on the resource availability criterion, regions are divided into developed/developing (those that rationally utilize local resources in their economic processes) and regions of hindered development (characterized by ineffective, irrational or largely reduced utilization of available resources.

Comprehensive characteristics of regions, i.e. description of all phenomena, potential and recommended course of action, is based on the criterion of dynamics of development processes. The dynamics criterion offers extended characterization of regions isolated in the first stage of region delimitation.

The group of developed/developing regions can be further divided into regions of: dynamic and harmonious development, those that offer the potential (conditions and factors) for increased tempo of development and those that require development. Those are, respectively: regions of fast development (as compared with national average), regions of average development and regions with rate of development below the national average. The tempo of development may be assessed using all criteria of delimitation or only selected criteria.

The second group includes two types of regions. Undeveloped regions represent areas of largely marginal scale of economic activities, with dominance of such sectors as forestry, agriculture or mining. Those regions are characterized by low degree of resource utilization, extensive exploitation of already utilized resources, lack or insufficient scale of socio-economic and industrial investments and low per-capita income. Such regions, however, may offer potential for development, e.g. due to rich deposits of natural resources or convenient location. Those are often called “lingering regions”.

Regions of depression are typically referred to as problem regions or regions of structural maladjustment. The maladjustment may manifest itself in a range of features. The most typical manifestations include: lack of adjustment to the overall structure of national economy and spatial/sectoral maladjustment of economic structure within the region.

The term regional economic structure needs clarification. In general, it refers to all economic activity within the region, i.e. regionally specific construction expressed in economic relations typical for the region (Klasik 1971). The structure (both in qualitative and quantitative dimension) is shaped by the intermediary factor of transformation (modernization) of final demand, and the direct factor of investments (Klasik 1971). Structural disproportions in depression regions overlap, magnifying the problems that limit further development and transformation in economy, ecology and sociology.

The existence of regions characterized by maladjustment to modern economic requirements and challenges of growth is a testimony to the overall growth imbalances on national scale. Socio-economic spatial problems of those regions (e.g. Polish regions of Walbrzych, Katowice and Koszalin) are often the result of poor structure. In this aspect, the following typology may be postulated:

• backward regions with predominance of primitive agriculture,

• industrial regions with degraded natural environment,

• industrial regions with predominance of aged industry,

• derivative backwardness regions, where growth stimulation activities were undertaken on short-term and fragmentary scale, bringing no changes to the economic structure,

• potentially problematic regions, with economic structure showing no apparent pathologies, but – by anticipating the present growth trends – some negative phenomena are to be expected in the near future,

• regions of mono-functional economy, thus subject to potential depression.

Regions of the highest risk are those that face imminent irregularities within the dominant branch of local economy (such as the old industrial districts). The irregularities come as a result of difficulties in the process of structural adjustment of economic structure to changes within spatial economy, brought about by dynamic structural transformations. This may lead to increase and accumulation of various deficiencies that result from depression phenomena in the region. The phenomena include (among other factors):

• decreased significance of the predominant industrial sector,

• slow tempo of technological changes in main sectors,

• negative agglomeration problems, resulting in sub-optimal concentration of production, with detrimental effects on the environment,

• outdated socio-economic infrastructure, unsuitable both for the requirements of modern industrial production and the potential of social needs (resulting in growth restriction),

• steep level of depreciation of industrial equipment and infrastructure,

• low competitiveness of products (outdated or burdened with steep production cost).

Symptoms and manifestations of depression in the region's economic structure include: low assimilation of technological and economic innovations, reduced or ineffective utilization of natural resources and labor, decreased rate of industrial production, low demand for products and services of the region, reduced share of the region in the structure of national income, drop of work effectiveness, increased unemployment, increase of overall cost of economic activities, deterioration of living conditions, weakening of the economic ties with other regions, population outflow, ageing population and drop of birthrate within the region.

Another approach to region delimitation is based on the criterion of internal structure. From this viewpoint, regions are divided into nodular (polarized) and zonal (uniform, homogeneous). Nodular region is characterized by high level of socio-economic development, plays an important role in national economy, sets the level of concentration of modern production factors and economic activities. Typically, it is divided into central areas (large urban agglomerations) with main center, and peripheral areas, serving as base of socio-economic activities. The center is not only characterized by economic dominance, but also plays a main role in administration, culture, education and science.

Professional literature emphasizes also complex regional structure and many types of economic activities serving as main force of development of spatial economy. The basis for delimitation of nodular regions is the existence of particular types of relations – manifestations of mutual influence between the center and its peripheral base. The delimitation is done based on analyses of various types of correlations, influences and significance of the center in relation to its base, etc.

Uniform region, also referred to as zonal, covers areas of uniform or largely unified economic structure, e.g. with one, clearly dominant function (agriculture, forestry, fishing, etc.). Such region is characterized by prevalence of a single main type of economic activities. The uniform character of economic activity is the base for defining and classifying the region as, e.g. agricultural, tourist-recreational, forestry, etc. In the case of uniform regions, delimitation involves establishing the degree of variability or similarity of individual spatial units from the viewpoint of delineating features, as well as creation of large uniform areas. Delineation of those regions is based on dominant economic activity of the area. Basis for classification is the existence or non-existence of particular features, both in terms of overall structure of their occurrence and their value.

The above typology of regions does not exhaust the potential for region classification and characteristic of the role of region in modern spatial economy, but, from the viewpoint of further deliberations and literature references, it addresses the most essential problems and issues.

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New paradigm of development in terms of global economic crisis

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Abstract: During the persistent crisis in the financial markets the global economy as a whole and its individual elements encountered a difficult situation. The dominance of financial markets and their rapid internalization led to the lack of control and possible speculative behaviour. Also the effects of the crisis became apparent in the space of forcing its individual elements to explore new ways of development. New paradigm of development stresses the ability to adapt in new and rapidly changing business conditions. In the case of spatial units, these adaptation skills should be developed of a unit to attract creative capital. Personalized business units and people with high adaptability are able to exploit opportunities in all conditions (even during the collapse of the balance or imbalance of the financial system and macroeconomic equilibrium).

Key words: globalisation; economic crisis; creative capital; creative industries

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1. Introduction

In the economy, its development and general progress of civilization, as emphasized by many researchers, optimism, hope for the better tomorrow and desire to forget failures and setbacks plays the vital role. Every time people expect that the current phase of the cycle (boom) will be different and it will last for a very long time. Economists know perfectly well that the socio-economic development is conditioned by the occurrence of fluctuations in its level of growth in different sectors of the economy (these fluctuations have different course and duration), which enables to distinguish in this process both long-term cycles and short-term conditioned by the first one (Sonis 1995), and they often reflect excessive optimism. Consequently, new solutions in the economy that accompany the development of civilization create illusion that the current level of development is so high that it allows to create the ideal economic system that is free of fluctuations and crises. Unfortunately, such a regularity has already occurred in the history of a man, e.g. at the beginning of the twentieth century, it was assumed that the development of humanity will reach a level of stability and prosperity, therefore, this period was called *la belle époque* - it was presumed that it will last forever.

All economic units, including spatial ones must act in a environment of uncertainty that is bigger than in earlier periods of our civilization. Periods of economic stability are highly uncertain, the society becomes more strongly exposed to frequent loss of balance of the financial system and in the economic balance in the absence thereof in a short time (though probably at a different level of stability has - as is clear from the principles of network economy), even to crises worldwide.

Uncertainty and risk can take the form of opportunities or threats. Their usage and preventing them take place in conditions of increased volatility in the macroeconomic dimension and on the regional and local scale. Uncertainty management and susceptibility to systemic risk is impossible to control completely, the level of a single household unit, becomes part of a reality. This applies to each individual household, whether occurring in space or spatial units as the subject. Foremostly, the ability to adapt is important in new and rapidly changing business conditions. In the case of spatial units, these adaptation skills should be developed of a unit to attract creative capital. Personalized business units and people with high adaptability are able to exploit opportunities in all conditions (even during the collapse of the balance or imbalance of the financial system and macroeconomic equilibrium) With regard to spatial units as the subject it is all about the ability to quickly restore public confidence in capital tarnished or lost in a crisis (financial, economic).

2. Conditions of emergence of the global crisis

The first decade of the 21st century, and especially its early years represents the undisputed triumph of the knowledge economy and globalization. According to M. Castells new economy stems from two key sectors, i.e. information technology and finance. It turned out that it was finance, that was supposed to bring through new products and solutions as a base of prosperity, became the source of the greatest economic collapse in the history.

Their novelty consisted not only in the fact that they created new products or technologies. They also which resulted in an increase in both their productivity and development of new forms of organization which were then introduced as a model into other areas of socio-economic life (Castells 2008). S.L Parente and E.C. Prescott in the evolution of international income levels from 2003 indicate that the factor that differentiates economies, represents the efficient use of available knowledge (Parente, Prescott 2009).

It should be mentioned that the crisis itself is a natural phenomenon, and reoccurs in a market economy. The crisis and sometimes just slowing in economic processes plays specific, often very important role. First of all, the corrective function, which "cleans" the economy of inefficient operators. It also eliminates the negative phenomena that appear during the phase of "overheating", e.g. too high commodity prices, oversupply of certain goods and services, etc. The crisis also manifests itself through other undesirable phenomena, such as increase in the unemployment rate, but also occurs during this period of capital accumulation, which in subsequent periods can enter the path of a more stable growth. In a market economy, people always dreamt to close this phase of development, but despite multiple successful attempts it has not been made. Of course its negative effects can be diminished, its duration can be shortened to prolong the period of prosperity, but it seems impossible to eliminate it entirely from economic life, in conditions of market economy and commodity-money economy. However, what has already "successfully" been done in a negative sense was to induce a crisis sooner or to deepen its course.

The diagnosis of the latest global economic crisis that initiated in 2007, in the first place leads to a fuller understanding of the nature of the modern economy and its state in the near future. The reference to this particular crisis not others chronologically earlier, is justified by the fact that it is the latter clearly showed its new face, associated with globalization in both spheres of the economy, the financial and real economy. Bearing in mind that even though you specify it as a worldwide crisis, it occurs only in highly developed countries.

The global economic crisis, triggered bursting bubble (meaning the waste of excess funds) in the property market in the United States in 2007, commonly assessed as the deepest global economic recession since the Great Depression of the late 20s and 30s of twentieth century. Among the causes of turmoil in global financial markets and, consequently, the transfer of these disturbances on the real economies, lie both the phenomenon of a macro-and microeconomic levels[1].

The the most important causes of these first include increasing over the decade scale of global imbalances and the problems that were the result of long-term persistence of (real) interest rates on a low level. In the most general terms, although the causes of the phenomenon of global imbalances were not a universal explanation, it is generally indicated on one hand - a serious surplus of savings in emerging economies (Asian

[1] These reasons have been diagnosed and described in various positions in finance literature and reports, including in the annual report BIS in 2009 r., NBP report Polska wobec światowego kryzysu gospodarczego, Warszawa 2009.

countries, oil exporters), and poorly developed financial intermediation system impeding their efficient investment in these countries, on the other hand - too low saving rate in developed countries, and particularly in the United States. An important catalyst for global imbalances has been accelerating in the last decade the process of integrating China into the global economy. Today we know that the assessment of the burden of these imbalances was wrong, because it was not taken into account that in case of sudden behavioral adjustments that relate to the whole stock of assets held by foreign entities, which became evident during the crisis (and too often focused on the non-zero account balances capital flows between developed and emerging economies). Accordingly, success in controlling inflation (measured by Consumer Price Index) led to a relatively long period of persistence of real interest rates at low levels in both the U.S. and other developed countries. This has contributed very significantly to the rapid growth of credit granted in those countries and the significant increase in asset prices (especially stocks and real estate, it also involved some raw materials). From today's perspective, there is no doubt that in some markets speculative bubbles appeared. To highlight the problems that was the result of long-term persistence of (real) interest rates low, the following picture can be drawn. Operators, and especially in the U.S. population has invested into property to protect their cash resources from inflation. In addition, incentives for such projects were the low interest rate banks on mortgages. As a result of growing demand for property their prices has been increased. This in turn led to the effect of speculation in the property market, a purchase and a quick sale in order to obtain additional income, and consequently it triggered the rotation mechanism of real estate market. Many individuals and businessmen purchased property even if they could not afford it (no actual credit), they were often motivated by a desire to gain quickly and easily. Sources of funding such transactions existed and were readily available, i.e., bank subprime loans (for borrowers with credit). The market of financial services played the important role in creating the dramatic situation. Firstly, the loan was granted by bank customers who could not afford it (although many borrowers did not have this awareness, and thought that have a large estate, since property prices were rising), the second loan amount exceeded the actual value of the property, which also had a collateral legal liabilities of the bank, and thirdly those assets were converted to the so-called securities. Mortgage-backed securities, which were above the average interest rate on the financial market and at the same time had high ratings (a potentially highly profitable value), attracted many investors. In addition, CDS's (credit default swaps) were introduced on the international market which in practice were insurance payments for real estate loans in the U.S. The increase in interest rates noted in 2004 and the accompanying increase in interest rates meant that some borrowers were unable to repay the loan debt, debt service ceased, and banks began to take over the property to satisfy his claim. The increase in real estate sales listings in a natural manner caused the decrease in their prices (it was already clear signal heralds the real estate crisis, despite the ongoing boom on it). When real estate prices continued to rise during the boom, there was the increase in the number of banks loans secured with real estate acquisitions. It was assumed at the same time the further increase in their value (as reflected in the very liberal credit policy of banks). But real estate prices have declined sharply, especially in places like Las Vegas, Phoenix and Florida, where the phenomenon of bad loans spread quickly. Many homeowners found themselves in a hopeless situation, when they had to pay off the mortgage in the amount that substantially exceeded the value of the purchased property. To enforce their credit claims banks began to receive those houses that did not support the loan, leaving them with the burden of debt much greater than the time of receipt of the credit for the purchase (and equipment) property.

This phenomenon was reflected in the prices of homes, compared to 2008 in 2009 in 20 U.S. cities, these prices fell by 19%. However, this decline was uneven, the highest was in Phoenix about 35%, in Las Vegas by 32.5%, while in New York, which is considered the starting place of the crisis only by 9.6% (Białek, Oleksiuk 2009). Despite this significant fall in property prices, it was difficult for banks to find buyers - sell-off of real estate and the lack of willing to buy them, that meant that banks began to suffer big loss on defaulted loans. 15 September 2008 represents the breaking date when a bank Lehman Brothers declared bankruptcy. Since then the spiral of the financial crisis has began to gradually spread in all areas of life and the entire world economy. In the case of the euro area the real economy they have been affected by the crisis relatively late - the main factors leading to the collapse of economic growth in the second half of 2008 in the euro area were primarily declining investment demand and net exports. Negative demand shocks that hit during that period the euro area economy also led to a rapid weakening of the labor market, including rapid increase in unemployment. In addition, it turned out that some member countries have practiced creative accounting.

So all these phenomena - the boom in the property market and the credit market, the rapid growth of household consumption financed a substantial part of debt particularly in the United States and the active search by various financial institutions, high rates of return (by accepting a significantly higher risk investments) - led to serious imbalances, and hence the macroeconomic and structural disorder in many countries.

Moreover, it revealed that the crisis was also the cause of a more microeconomic level, associated primarily with the functioning of the financial system - most of them are faulty incentive structure (i.e. the preference of financial institutions and credit rating institutions and favoring short-term goals for sales by neglecting the assessment of the risk inherent in a financial product), errors in measurement techniques and measurement of risk and its management, poor corporate governance structure and the shortcomings of the regulatory system (including external oversight policy): micro-prudential regulatory failures, too narrow limits the impact of the regulatory system and a relatively low the degree of macro-prudential regulation.

The diagnosis and evaluation of crisis, its consequences for the economies of different countries provides a basis to draw any further conclusions, also relevant for the socio-economic processes in space.

3. New paradigm – creative economy

Creativity is strongly associated with the category of knowledge and innovation. According to R. Florida economy is driven not only by knowledge and information but human creativity. Creativity means the ability to create original, new forms. It can be also understood as in the broadest sense as a creative attitude, mental process entailing the creation of new ideas, concepts or associations linkages with existing ideas and concept.[www.sjp.pl] It is related with originality, imagination, inspiration, ingenuity, inventiveness. In the industrial era creativeness of engineers, and scientists were needed. They used it to solve complex problems with just a few casual information. In the 21st Century there is a need for completely different kind of creativity because we know more but understand less. It is important especially to synthesize and better understand the occurring changes (Landry, Bianchini 1998).

In the new condition of development the increasing importance of creative industries can be noticed. Creative industries can be understood as a specific types of human activity isolated from the processing sector and service sector on the basis of intellectual property. In the broader sense it means any activity that generates any kind of intellectual property. This includes cultural industries, which can be defined as a individual creativity combined with manufacturing and commercialization, distribution and sales of cultural products. There are various forms of design, art including high culture, media, advertising, crafts, cultural tourism (Klasik 2009). In other words creative industries are diverse sectors of the economy producing goods and services of artistic and creative content for a wide audience. Its influence includes the quality of life, sense of identity, the development of tourism (Matusik 2009).

Department of Culture, Media and Sport created in 1997 (Great Britain) common definition of creative industries and it is usually 13 branches of industry such as (DCMS 2009): advertisement, architecture, art and antiques, computer games, handicraft, design, fashion design, film and videos, music, theaters, publications, software, and radio and television.

Enterprises and different human activity from above branches are creative economy. In the literature there is no unique definition of that category. It is still shaping. For some people it is holistic concept dealing with complex interaction between culture, economics and technology. According to UNCTAD definition creative economy can be define in several points (Creative Economy Report 2008):

• it based on creative assets, potentially generating economic growth and development,

• it can foster income generation, job creation, and export earnings while promoting social inclusion, cultural diversity and human development,

• it embraces economic, cultural and social aspects interacting with technology, intellectual property and tourism,

• it is a set of knowledge-based economy activities,

• it is a feasible development option, calling for innovative, multidisciplinary policy, especial on regional level.

Table 1: Definition of creative industries and culture industries (Source: The Economy of Culture in Europe 2006, 3)

	Sectors	Sub-Sectors
Cultural sector	Core arts field	Visual arts (Crafts, Paintings, Sculpture, Photography) Performing arts (Theatre, Dance, Circus, Festivals) Heritage (Museums, Libraries, Archaeological sites, Archives)
	Cultural industries	Film and Video, Television and radio, Video games, Music (Recorded music market, Live music performances, revenues of collecting societies in the music sector), Books and press (Book publishing - Magazine and press publishing)
Creative sector	Creative industries and activities	Design (Fashion design, graphic design, interior design, product design), Architecture, Advertising
	Related industries	PC manufacturers, MP3 player manufacturers, mobile industry, others

Cultural industries are also very important and related to creative industries. This term is related with industries that combine the creation, production and commercialisation of intangible and cultural in nature assets. These assets are typically protected by copyright and they can take the form of goods or services. They are also central in promoting and maintaining cultural diversity and in ensuring democratic access to culture. This combining the cultural and the economic gives the cultural industries a distinctive profile (Creative Economy Report 2008).

In globalized world the is continually expanding demand for creative products that rely on creative industries for their distribution and consumption. This increasing demand is a confirmation of the contribution of the creative economy to economic growth. According to UNCTAD research the turnover of the European creative industries amounted to 654 billion euros in 2003, growing 12.3 % faster than the overall economy of the European Union and employing over 5.6 million people. Over the period 2000-2005, international trade in creative goods and services experienced an unprecedented average annual growth rate of 8.7 %. The value of world exports of creative goods and services reached over 400 billion in 2005, representing 3.4 % of total world trade (Creative Economy Report 2008).

European Commission created a document The *Economy of Culture in Europe* (The Economy of Culture in Europe 2006), that shown how the cultural sector contributes to achieving the Lisbon Strategy goals (is strongly related with the ICT sector, contributes to attracting investments and tourism, is a tool for social integration and increase the cohesion in Europe). As the conclusions and recommendations for future EU regions development policy the report proposes a framework programs to develop creative attitude, increase collaboration between the creative and small, medium-sized enterprises and to promote challenges in digital shift in order to fully exploit the opportunities provided by advancing technology innovation. Furthermore the proposed changes should apply to support mobility of artists, adapting accounting standards to facilitate the valuation of intangible assets.

5. Conclusions

The phenomenon of rising disparities in space takes place in an irregular manner and is a subject to frequent fluctuations. At the same trends are not permanent (fixed in time), they may be subject to continual changes (e.g. reversal of the trend). Trying to explain and understand these phenomena there should be pointed out that undoubtedly the primary source represents the general process of civilization, which directly affects the economic activity of man and the phenomena accompanying them in socio-economic development in space[2]. As a result of the existence of new factors, and the phenomena occurring in the global economy, including of course the crisis, there was a shift of economic activity from one region to the other, which radically changed the dynamics of each spatial layouts (Olechnicka 2000). The result can be observed in growing spatial disparities in GDP *per capita*. It happens despite the fact that often the less developed areas in the long run achieve higher economic growth. However, on the other hand among the highly developed areas it can be observed a slow but growing convergence understood as balancing the levels of income *per capita* (Olechnicka 2000).

It finally turned out that not only significant variations in the level of development of individual regions become significant, but also their sensitivity to turbulence in the economy, even outside the country. In addition, the regional economy and the economic life of various individuals occurring on its territory, become a subject to increasingly new rules of the economy (i.e., network management). Not only that, the regions as independent entities household were additionally exposed to the challenges associated with the need to change the style of management, but to depart from the previous known style of bureaucratic (administrative) and the adoption of managerial style, more applicable to actions in conditions of crisis.

The recent crisis has indicated that the economy runs out of good practices, or repetitive actions, commonly based on proven practices. Currently, it appears that as a result of turmoil in financial markets it has become necessary to pump huge amounts of public funds in the private sector, including mainly financial one. The result revealed the phenomenon of mega-state intervention on a previously unimaginable scale, on the other hand governments were busy rescuing the financial sector and international intervention, neglecting local and regional community. In these circumstances it becomes necessary to develop new innovative operating principles of spatial units in the period of permanent crisis.

Modern processes of socio-economic development in space are increasingly conditioned by number of interpenetrating factors that are intangible. These are knowledge, innovation, human creativity, which are basic for the new economy. Knowledge is now becoming one of the most important factors of economic activity, makes revaluation of tangible economic factor and leads to their recombination. As an intangible factor of production is very unevenly localized in space, and accumulate in a large urban centers (metropolis). Currently, most experts in the field of economics is consistent about the fact that the creation and accumulation of knowledge is currently the main determinant in long-term development. Countries, regions and company showing higher pace of growth are those who better generate and implement knowledge. Undoubtedly the importance of creativity and creative industries is also increasing. The regions are becoming key elements of strategic, creative 21st Century Europe, in which there are particularly effective integration of creativity, knowledge, information and freedom. The new paradigm of development

[2] A classic example is fordism and postfordism, which are concepts used to describe the changes occurring in the late seventies of the twentieth century in the organization of production processes and their importance in the transformation of the basis of regional management.

known as knowledge-based economy becomes a prelude to a more in-depth analysis, formulation and application of creative economy concept.

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Event Report

TEEC2011 and ICTL2011 September 5-8 2011,Omoku-Nigeria CONFERENCE

We are pleased to inform You about the 2011 International Conference on Teaching, Learning and Change and the 2011 International Technology, Education and Environment Conference holding in Omoku (Nigeria).The conferences are organized by African Association for Teaching and Learning (AATL);African Society for the Scientific Research(AASR) and Federal College of Education(Technical), Omoku-Nigeria in cooperation with other institutions.

ICTL2011 and TEEC2011 are international forums for those who wish to present their projects and innovations, having also the opportunity to discuss the main aspects and the latest results in the fields of Education and Research. Our aim is to inspire and provoke crucial discussions and debates. The event boasts critical thinking and reconsiders policies and practices.

ICTL2011 and TEEC2011 seek a diverse and comprehensive program covering all areas of teaching, learning and development. The program includes a wide range of activities designed to facilitate the exchange of expertise, experience, and resources amongst colleagues.

The ICTL2011/TEEC2011 is held in the historical town of Omoku located in the South-South part of Nigeria. The event brings together teachers, scientists, technologists, policy makers and graduate students from across the globe to promote exchange and discussion of issues relating to the theme and sub-themes.

Up to now, the ICTL2011 and TEEC2011 received 570 proposals. The conference academic advisory board accepted 250 of them. We have Board members and delegates from 50 different countries.

We are grateful to the Provost, Management, Staff and Students of Federal College of Education (Technical), Omoku for hosting the conferences. We are grateful to our distinguished Keynote Speakers, Special Guests, Programme Committee, the LOC, delegates for making this event a success.

I, on behalf of AATL/ASSR and cooperating partners feel honoured to be hosting the conference in Nigeria. We look forward to seeing you again at our next conferences.

Dr Jacinta Agbarachi Opara

Convener

