Hungary-Slovakia
Cross-border Co-operation
Programme 2007-2013

Building Partnership

European Union
European Regional Development Fund

"Cross-border training of economic experts in distance learning network" project
(CROSSEDU) HUSK/1101/1.6.1-0300

SPACE STRUCTURE OF SOCIETY

Author: Siposné Dr. Nándori Eszter
Translation: Siposné Dr. Nándori Eszter

Miskolc, 2013

1 Introduction

The course 'Space Structure of Society' is one of the basic courses which aim at providing the theoretical and practical knowledge and abilities necessary to understand and shape spatial processes. Social space is one of the three determining space types based on the recent definition of space. (The discipline 'ecological and natural resources' helps to understand natural space and the spatial characteristics of natural resources, while 'regional economics' deals with the spatial specificities of the economy). 'Space Structure of Society' aims at describing the laws and specificities related to society, to its spatial characteristics and to its connection to spatial economic processes.

The topics discussed that can partly be found in demography, sociology, cultural anthropology and political sciences are all examined by focusing on their spatial or territorial nature. Concerning society, the following topics are presented:

- distribution of the population as sets of workforce, consumers and decision makers in the geographic space, with special regard to the changes in the number and composition of the population as well as the spatial differences of its cultural specificities;
- spatial differences in the organisations of the population groups (families, neighbourhoods, civil organisations, settlements, regional communities and nations) that make up the society and the roles
- of these organisations in forming the processes of different spatial levels and in creating space;
- spatial differences of values, principles and culture in its broad sense (including work culture, creativity, materiality, solidarity or territorial identity) that determine relations within the society and their relationship with the formation of cores and peripheries, and spatial advantages and drawbacks.

The aim of the author is to provide the appropriate social science basics in order for the students to acquire the theoretical and practical knowledge and skills of further courses like spatial policies or planning and development related to the different space levels (local, regional, national and transnational) that prepare students to understand spatial processes and to elaborate and make decisions to intervene in spatial processes.

1.1. Interpretation of space and space structure. Spatial dimensions of society. Elements and processes of social space structure.

Regional and social processes cannot be understood without information about spatial effects. One cannot make decisions without examining spatial considerations either at the macro- or at the micro-, household level. In this chapter, the place of social space is examined in the context of the relationships among the space elements. In addition, we deal with the interpretation of spatial structure and social spatial structure and with the role of space in regional development.

1.1.1. Types of space and their relationships

Space and time are determinants of the framework of our life. One can perceive space directly in one’s everyday life when experiencing the areal and regional

differences of the natural environment, the technical conditions of the economy, the institutions established by people and their communities and the social frames. The *differences* in their appearance and working depend on location, i.e. where they are located and these differences have an effect on the competitiveness of companies. Not only difference, but also vicinity (neighbourhood) or distance affects companies, e.g. through the conditions of transport costs and cooperation connections. Besides distance, these two factors are affected by *spatial obstacles* and natural or artificial boundaries. Vertical and horizontal connections among the actors of the economy show the *togetherness of spatial parts* which incorporate them. Moreover, they illustrate the *hierarchy* of these parts outlining a *spatial structure*.

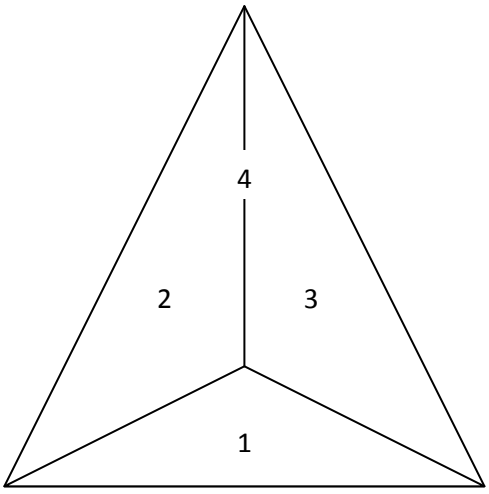
All of these lead to the *regional development differences* of the economy and society that can be not only effects, but also causes of further economic and social processes.

In the classification of space, the natural, social, economic and political categories are the most often distinguished ones. Their connections to each other can be described with different space models.

One of the models (Tóth 1981), popular with geographers, says that the natural (1), social (2), economic (3) and built (4) environments are connected like the four sides of a pyramid, i.e. each plane is connected to all the other planes (Figure 1/a). This model is a good representation of the interaction among the parts of the space and the harmony that reflects equilibrium.

According to another view, nature is the broadest one of the types of space that incorporates everything (Figure 1/b). The natural, biological space includes society and economy is only a part of the latter. Sociologists profess this view about the relationship between society and economy as they define economy as a subsystem of society *(Parsons - Neil J. 1984*). This model has become popular with the spread of the concept of sustainable development in the interpretation of spatial relations. (There used to be a directly opposite view about society and nature being subordinated to the economy in spatial processes.)

In the spatial model in Figure 1/c, the three parts of space are stable pillars and the ideas (values, scientific cognitions and experiences – the way we think about the world) create the connections among them. Figure 1/d illustrates the husk model of geographical space (*Pirisi – Trócsányi 2011*), which highlights the complexity of geographical space. Geographical space includes real, physically tangible, types of space and physically not existing, virtual spaces.



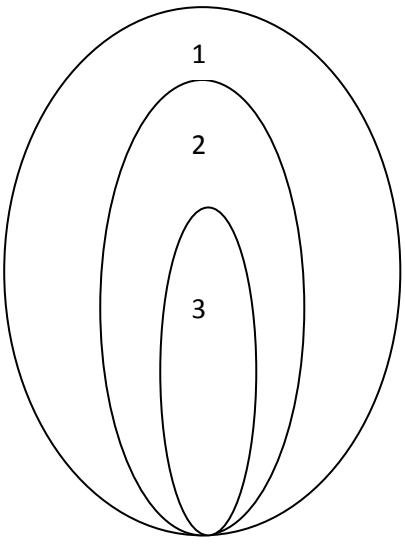


Figure 1/a.
Source: Tóth J

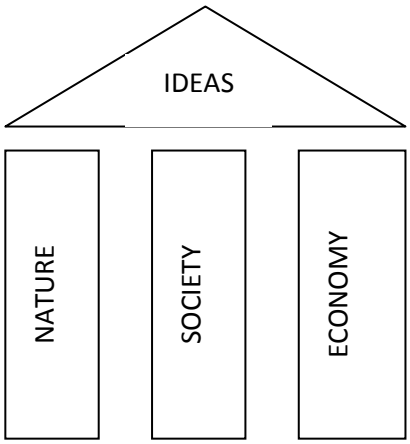


Figure 1/b.
Source: Parson – Neil 1984

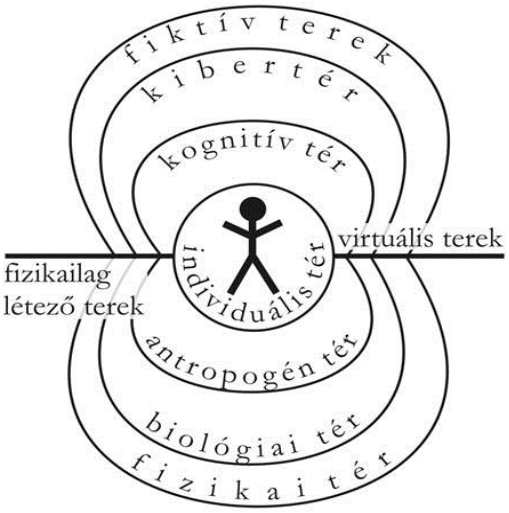


Figure 1/c.
Source: own compilation

Figure 1/d.
Source: Pirisi – Trócsányi 2011

There have been long debates about the relationships between natural, economic and social parts of space.

1.1.2. The concepts of spatial structure and social spatial structure

Spatial structure is made up of "space elements (parts) that can have different arrangements, that are ordered and the elements are connected and related to each other in different ways. All (elements, position, connection) of these constitute a complete system that has some function" (Szabó 2008:65). This system is more than the simple sum of the elements as it has definite characteristics as a whole on its own.

Spatial structure has two types in the function of focusing either on the elements and on their spatial arrangement or on describing the geographical area, especially on examining the elements that can be found there (Szabó 2008).

Spatial structure

The first type of spatial structure refers to the working system that is defined by the given characteristics of inequality and disorder (Nemes Nagy 1998).

„Force lines, force bands, axes and force centres constitute the fundamental macrostructure, the space structure of economic life. This macrostructure can have spatial configurations (formations) typical of the given countries. The spatial structure of the economy of most of the countries can be described with some of these axes, industrial bands and force lines" (Zoltán 1984). The elementary units of the spatial structure are the units that cannot be split further. Their definition is often arbitrary. An elementary unit can be a group of settlements, a settlement, a district, a neighbourhood, an apartment or even a room.

This type of spatial structure can be described with geometric forms, points, lines and grids. (Figure 2)

One of the relations among space elements is disjunction / separation, which refers to the case when the elements of the space structure are not related to each other. Another possible relation is association when elements are either neighbours or sections or overlap each other (like cooperation among the elements). The third possible relation is inclusion that comes into being either when the two elements are identical or when one of the elements includes the other one (Nemes Nagy 1998). By analysing the relations dynamically, their changes can also be examined. The appearance of new elements leads to changes in every case. The new element can be assimilated or integrated (while preserving its individual characteristics) into the already functioning system.

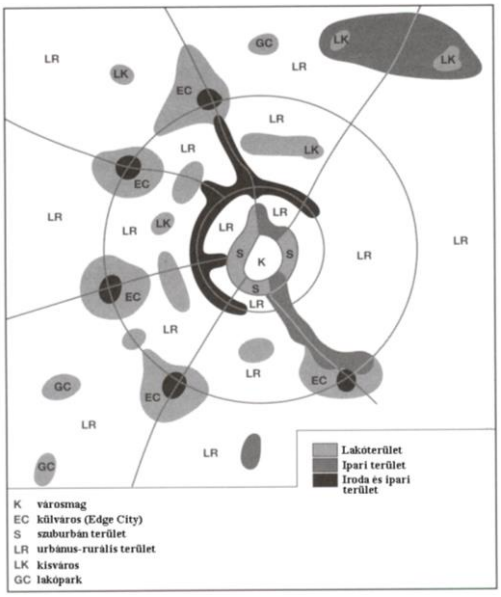
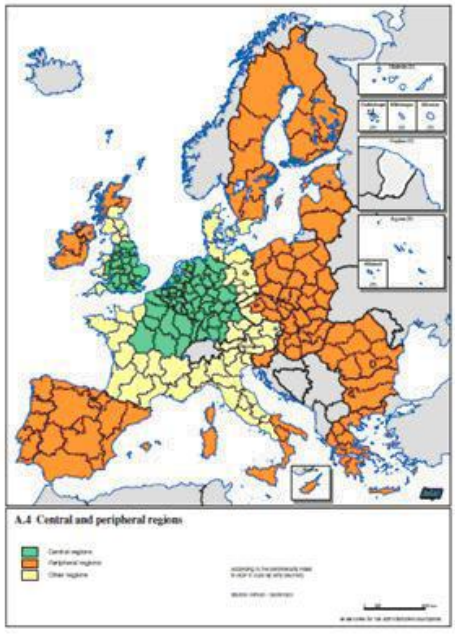


Figure 2: Structure of cities in North America
Source: Schneider-Sliwa1999, cited by: Csapó 2010

The other type of spatial structure deals with the visualisation of quantitative and qualitative differences among the territorial units, i.e. with order and disorder. In this sense, territorial structure refers to "the spatial distribution, relative position of different elements that constitute the economy and the society" (Bartke 1989:9).
The definition that describes economic spatial structure as the spatial distribution of economic activities emphasises spatial distribution as well (Varga 2005). According to yet another definition, spatial structure expresses the "different forms created based on the relations and connection of features that exist next to each other in space" (Faragó 2004:10).
"Spatial structures are partly derived from the relation system ensured by use, and they are partly formed according to our spatial approach" (Faragó 2005).



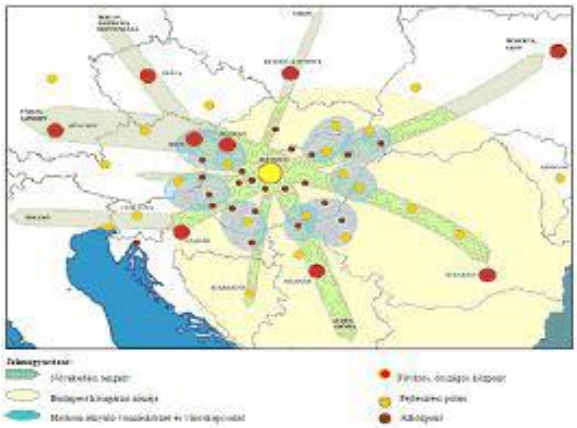


Figure 4: Hungary in the European space
Source: II. OTK 2005, cited by: Szabó 2012.

Figure 3: Core-periphery relation in the second Cohesion Report of the EU
Source: EC 2001, cited by: Szabó 2012.

In the natural space, natural space elements (such as hills, rivers, marshes) and their relations (neighbourhood, inclusion, separation, similarity) can create spatial structures by themselves. This should be distinguished from the spatial structure that is created by man, i.e. the society (and the economy included in it) and that is made up of social and economic formations and of relations depending on the society (and the economy included in it) besides natural spatial elements. These latter spatial structures created by the society are called *social spatial structures*. (They should not be confused with the spatial structure of the society which can be defined partly in the internal space of the society and partly in the geographical space. In the former case, it is sociology and in the latter case, it is social geography that deals with it.)

Production of social space

Different social practices create special types of space *(Lefebvre 1991:17).* In prehistory, a family needed an area of 10 km^2. That time, it was mainly the populated caves and huts that were considered spatial elements of the society. In ancient times, especially in ancient Rome or China, urban and rural spaces were separate. In the Middle Ages, preindustrial cities were established that became crowded because of the narrow alleys and the protecting wall around them that prevented the growth of the cities. The tiny spaces of the Mediterranean cities as well as of the oriental bazaars were cramped with people. In early capitalism, as a result of industrialisation, English industrial sites were formed and workers in the manufacturing industries lived in terraced houses in the industrial zones. Later, imperialism created the crowded streets of big cities and suburbs which refer to the suburban city belts around the cities.
Lefebvre said that “space is a social construction that is defined by values and different meanings and interpretations. The social determination of space affects the daily activities and the way of thinking about life, so space has an ideological function. Lefebvre defines space as the triple concept consisting of the space of everyday social practice (social reproduction) (“perceived space”), of a theoretical space (an abstract concept visualised verbally and by maps and plans) that plays an important role in political practice (“conceived space”) and of the space that is experienced by people, preserved in their imagination and symbols and described by artists and writers (“lived space”). These three types of space contribute to the production of space in combinations that vary over time and that are different according to the production methods” (Boros 2010).

1.1.3. Concept and factors of territorial systems

Due to its infiniteness one can feel, get to know and form space not in its complexity, but by focusing on some part of it, i.e. a given geographical area in the external space. The part of space that is a delineated set of points can be a point or an area. In the areas, space elements can be found in different concentrations and at different development levels. The concentration of development of space elements depends on the functions created by the society in the given area. The society typically expects the services of seven social functions from the space it uses. These social functions are identified by social geography (Berényi 1992):

1. work
2. accommodation
3. education
4. communication
5. consumption
6. leisure time activities
7. living in community.

Concerning the operation of these functions, conditions are distributed unevenly in space and they can change their positions over time (are mobile) as well. Societies created by people and their communities living and working in a given area can have different values and knowledge and different power relations. As a result, even within the given territorial system of conditions, they create different territorial formations (see space creation). The natural, social and economic formations, different among regions, are connected to each other. Not only their appearance, but also the way they are connected can be different by regions.

A regional system is the joint appearance and the joint connection of natural, social and economic formations that take shape while operating the basic social functions. The factors that constitute the regional system are the environmental (natural and artificial), social, economic and political (power and institutional) factors.

2. Population

After the theoretical introduction, the distribution of the population in the geographical space is examined. Members of the population affect the different economic and social processes as suppliers, consumers and decision makers. This chapter deals with the qualitative and quantitative compositions of the population and their changes and trends.

2.1. Population cycles and their determinants

The world population increases exponentially (Table 1). Forecasts say that the rate of growth is going to decrease in the near future and the next period of doubling will last longer (95 years) than the last one (40 years).

Table 1: Population growth and the years for population to double

Period	Growth (million persons)	Years for world population to double
10,000 BC – 7,000 BC	5-10	3,000
7,000 BC – 4,500 BC	10-20	2,500
4,500 BC – 2,500 BC	20-40	2,000
2,500 BC – 1,000 BC	40-80	1,500
1,000 BC – AD 1	80-160	1,000
AD 1 – 900	160-320	900
900 – 1700	320-600	800
1700 – 1850	600-1,200	150
1850 – 1950	1,200-2,500	100
1950 – 1990	2,500-5,300	40
1990 – 2085	5,300-10,200	95

Source: Kuthy (2001) p. 11.

In this chapter, we are examining the phases and main determinants of population growth and the characteristics of the spatial distribution of population.

2.1.1. Determinants of the population

Population is influenced by biological and environmental factors. Two of the most important biological factors are the total fertility rate and the crude reproduction rate. Besides births, natural vital events are affected by the number and rate of deaths. Average life expectancy at birth also plays an important role in vital events.

The number of births and deaths and average life expectancy are influenced by a great number of environmental factors. On the one hand, natural conditions, climate, supply of raw materials and of minerals play a significant role. Favourable natural conditions promote the increase of the population, while natural disasters like floods, droughts or hurricanes can result in a decrease of the population. Besides the natural environment, the economic position also affects the population. An economic boom usually makes the families more optimistic about the future and they are more likely

to have babies. During economic recessions, however, families usually have no or fewer children. The number of births is also influenced by state programmes to help bringing up children (such as family allowances, maternity grant or tax reductions). The economic position also influences the mean age as economic boom increases average living standards.

The population is also affected by social processes and their changes. A decrease in the number of marriages with an increasing number of divorces and the spread of cohabitation without marriage decrease the willingness to have children (S Molnár 2009). Economic and social conditions influence not only natural vital events, but migration trends as well. Willingness to migrate depends on the economic position, the size of social capital, the importance of social networks and cultural factors.

Population trends have changed throughout history. A significant change in the history of mankind was the transition to agriculture as it considerably decreased defencelessness against nature. Until the 18th century, resources necessary for humanity were derived from plants and animals (Cipolla 1962). The spread of breeding of animals and cultivation of plants increased the population dramatically. Later, epidemics (mainly pandemics that spread through several continents) and wars restricted the fast growth of the population. Population growth was supported by colonisation and later, in the 18th–19th centuries, by industrialism. The manufacturing industry appeared when the population reached the maximum number that agriculture could support. A novelty of the industrial revolution is that it became possible to gain energy from dead matters, which increased the number of population the Earth could support.

2.1.2. Cycles of population growth

Population growth can be divided into cycles. Deevey (1960) distinguished three phases based on the major energy resources, while Van de Kaa (1997) divided population growth into four periods depending on demographic characteristics (births, deaths and life expectancy).

Deevey (1960) used a logarithmic scale to visualise population growth (see Fig. 5). The first phase is about fishing, hunting and gathering, and started about 10,000 years ago and ended in the Palaeolithic. This was followed by the second phase, which was characterised by agriculture and ended with the industrial revolution.

The growth rate of the population is the highest at the beginning of each phase and it decreases with time because of the barriers that prohibit growth. The main barrier was the amount of biomass in the first phase, then the ground, plants, animals, wind and water in the second. As currently we are in the third phase, the barriers against growth cannot be clearly seen yet.

Van de Kaa (1997) called the first phase of population growth, which lasted until the 18th century, the pre-transitional phase. It is characterised by high birth and death rates. As life expectancy was low, the population grew slowly. In most of the European countries, the first demographic transition started in the first half of the 19thcentury, when birth rates were high and death rates were low with increasing life expectancy. As a result, the population growth rate accelerated significantly. The high fertility rate was largely due to the dominant altruistic marriage model, which focused on the family and children. Migration had an important influence on the population

trends of the period, which could strengthen or moderate the trends of natural vital events.

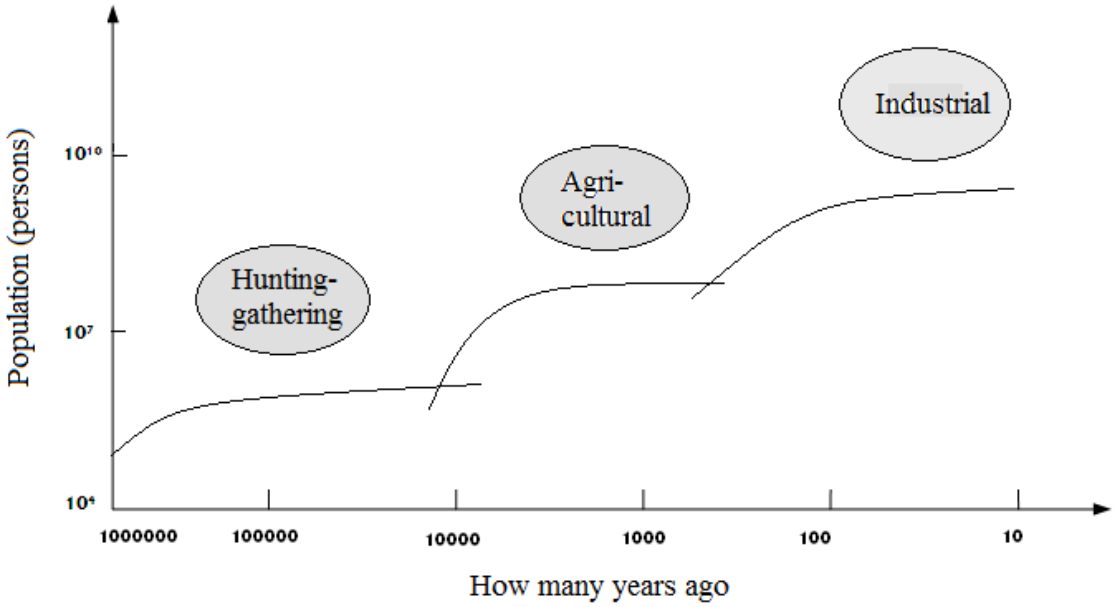


Figure 5: Cycles of population growth
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Deevey (1960)

During the second demographic transition, decreasing death rates combined with decreasing birth rates. Life expectancy kept increasing and the rate of population growth decreased. The altruistic marriage model was replaced by the individualistic model, which put emphasis on self-realisation, and the achievement of individual rights became more important than child-rearing. The importance of child-rearing changed because of the fact that while children were regarded as cheap labour force in the first demographic transition, they became family members that required significant investment in the second demographic transition. This latter period started in 1965.

The last period of population growth is what is called the post-transitional period, when birth and death rates are still low, life expectancy is high and the rate of population growth decreases (it can be even below zero). In many cases, the number of population started decreasing.

2.1.3. Population forecasts and their consequences

There are different scenarios in population forecasts. World models have tried to forecast the number of the population and its consequences. These models have mainly dealt with demographic problems, nutrition, supply of raw materials, environmental pollution and the increasing regional inequalities (Bruckmann 2001). The major demographic problem is the fast growth of the world population. The world models examine how many people the food producing capacity of the Earth can support.

Malthus (1798) predicted that the growth of the world population would result in a catastrophe as the growth rate of the population lagged behind that of agricultural productivity (Malthusian pessimism). Sen (2003), however, argues that there is no

chance of such a catastrophe as per person agricultural production keeps increasing due to increasing productivity. Moreover, the increase of agricultural production is the highest in the regions where the growth rate of population is the highest. Sen (2003) argues that the problem is not due to the disproportion between population growth and the growth of food production, but arises because the food supply is not distributed equally, which results in deprivation and starvation in many countries.

Information about the sustainability of our lifestyle is provided by the ecological footprint. The population in North America and Europe has the least environmental-conscious lifestyle, while the ecological footprint is the lowest in Africa.

2.2. Demographic composition of the population: age and gender structure

The population can be structured by many aspects, such as demographic (gender, age), cultural (language, religion, nationality), labour market (qualification, occupation), geographic or income aspects.

Table 2: If the world were a village of 1,000 in 2005 (Part 1)

Population		**Language**		**Health and education**	
East Asia and Pacific	293	Chinese, Mandarin	136	Access to clean water	830
South Asia	228	Spanish English	50	Access to sanitation Undernourished population	570
Sub-Saharan Africa	157				
Latin America and Caribbean	115	Hindi	48	HIV infected	140
Europe and Central Asia	86	Portuguese	28	Illiterate women	6
Middle East and North Africa	74	Bengali	28	Illiterate men	91

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Russow (2005)

Meadows examined the composition of the world population based on data from 1990. Russow described the composition of the world population in the same way in 2000 and 2005. He concluded that more than half of the world population is concentrated in six countries (China, India, USA, Indonesia, Brazil and Pakistan). A quarter of the total population speaks Chinese, Spanish or English as their first language (Table 2). As for the age structure, almost 10% of the population is aged more than 60. More than half of the world population belongs to the Christian or Islam religions (Table 3) (Russow 2005).

Table 3: If the world were a village of 1,000 in 2005 (Part 2)

Age and gender		Religion		Wealth and work	
Men	503	Christian	326	Living in low income nations	366
Women	497	Islam	202	Living in high income nations	157
0-14 year olds	281	Secular/Nonreligious	171	Men in workforce	271
15-64 year olds	645	Hinduism	140	Women in workforce	199
65 and older	74	Chinese Traditional Religion	61	Children in workforce	14
Life expectancy	68	Buddhism	58	Per Capita Income	7011$

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Russow (2005)

2.2.1. Geographic distribution of the population

The distribution of the population on Earth is very unequal. 75% of the surface of the Earth has a population density below 1 person/km^2, while on the other 25% the population density is more than 100 persons/km^2. The distribution of the population is unequal both horizontally and vertically. The population density decreases as the distance from sea coasts increases (half of the world population lives less than 200 km far from the sea) and with the increase in altitude above sea level (more than half of the population lives lower than 200 m above sea level) (Kuthy 2001). The most populated areas are sea coasts, river valleys, while the least populated areas are Arctic areas, deserts, rain forests and high mountains. The country with the highest population density (16,205 persons/km^2) was Monaco in 2006, while the country with the lowest density (1 persons/km^2) was Mongolia. The most populated continent is Asia (95 persons/km^2) and the least populated continent is Australia with 3 persons/km^2 (Rosenberg 2005).

The population is not equally distributed between the northern and southern parts of the Earth either. 88% of the population lives in the northern part and 12% in the southern part, which is partly due to the unequal distribution of mainland.

Four centres with high populations can be distinguished on the Earth. One of them is in eastern Asia including eastern China, Korea and Japan, the other one is in southern Asia including India, Indonesia and Bangladesh. These Asian centres existed in ancient times as well. The third centre is in western Europe, where the population increased significantly during the industrial revolution. The youngest population centre is in North America including the north-eastern part of the USA.

The unequal geographic distribution of the population is partly due to historical facts (the areas of ancient civilisations are still highly populated areas). Besides, geographic factors also influence the distribution of the population: the mainland connection between Europe and Asia facilitates movement of the population, while the isolation of America by oceans makes it more difficult.

2.2.2. Population by race

People living today all belong to Homo sapiens. Their general appearance, however, can be slightly different due to different circumstances and accommodation to them. Based on the different physiological and racial anthropological characteristics, four great races can be distinguished in human classification: the Caucasian, the Mongolian, the Negroid and the Australoid.

Members of the **Caucasian** great race can be varied in their appearance. They usually have a light skin colour, a well-shaped nose and diverse eye and hair colours. Originally they lived in Europe, Central and western Asia and North Africa. As a result of colonisation and international migration, however, they can currently be found all over the world. Several further sub-races (Mediterranean, Iberian, Pontid, Saharid, Arabid) can be distinguished within the Caucasian great race.

People belonging to the **Mongoloid** great race are characterised by skin abundant in carotene, black hair, a very wide facial contour and strong cheek-bones. Originally they lived in Asia, America and Oceania, but they have become the most widespread great race by today. People of this race can be categorised into six sub-races (Amerindian, Tungid, Ainuid, Micronesian, South-eastern Asian and North-eastern Asian).

Members of the **Negroid** great race used to live in Sub-Saharan Africa. Due to colonisation, however, they appeared on other continents as well, especially in America. Their appearance is characterised by dark skin, dark hair and eye colour, thick lips and wavy hair. The main sub-races of the Negroid race are Bambutid, Etiopid, Middle-Negroid, Paleonegroid, Sudanid, Nilotid and Bantid.

The **Australoid** great race is characterised by dark hair, skin and eye colour. Compared to the other great races, they are middle-statured, have long legs, a long and narrow head and round shoulders. They used to live in Australia, but today they can be found in India, Malaysia, the Philippines, New Zealand and on several islands of Oceania as well (Pirisi – Trócsányi 2010).

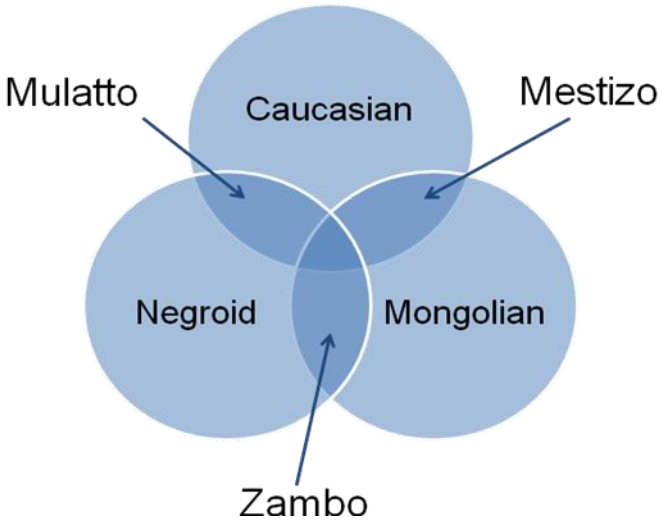


Figure 6: The great races and the main mixed races
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

As a result of the cohabitation of the different great races, mixed race types like mestizo, mulatto or zambo have appeared as well (Fig. 6).

The different appearances of the races have often led to political conflicts or racism. Besides, racial composition of the population is important in the economics as well as different appearances can result in different consumer habits and ways of working.

Demand for the products of the clothing industry, beauty industry or for cosmetics depends on the colour of skin, hair and eyes. In economics, this has to be taken into consideration and supply has to be adapted to the demand.

2.2.3. Population by age

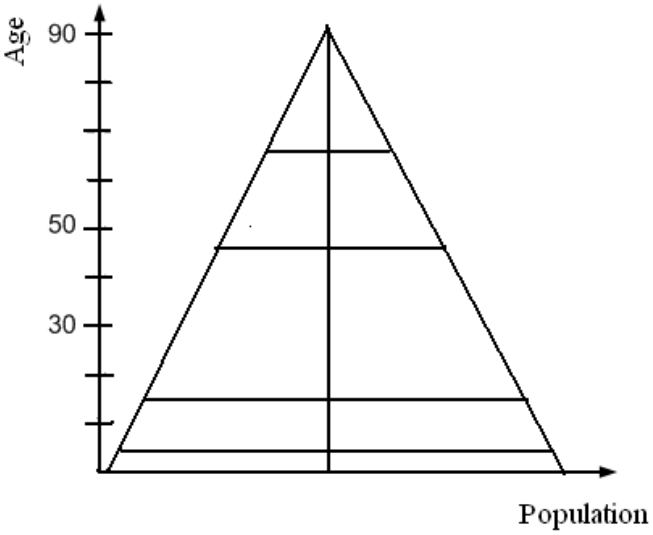


Figure 7: Expansive pyramid

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

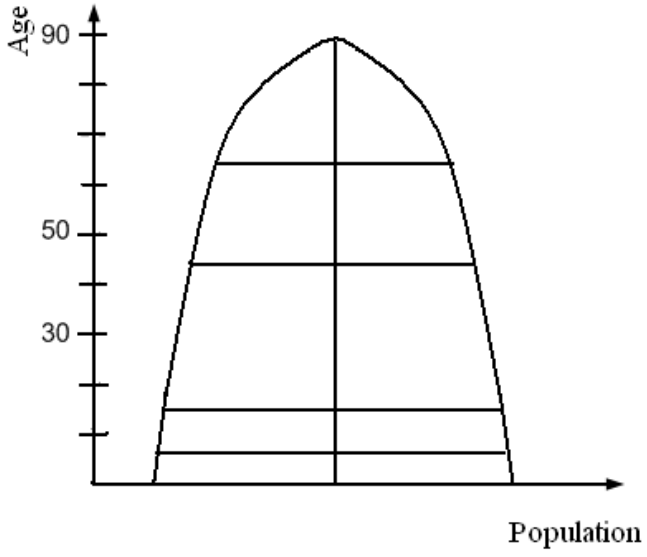


Figure 8: Stable pyramid
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

The age structure of the population can be examined by means of population pyramids. Based on them, three types of population can be distinguished.

- **Expansive pyramid** (Fig. 7): The younger an age group is, the higher its rate within the population. This distribution is typical in developing countries where the fertility rate and the birth rate are high, while the average life expectancy is low. The population of Algeria, Brazil, India and Mexico can be characterised with this pyramid.

- **Stable pyramid** (Fig. 8): The rate of the young and the middle-aged is nearly the same, while the rate of the old is lower because of the high mortality. It is typical in the countries (e.g. the USA, Australia, New Zealand or Ireland) where the birth rate and life expectancy increase evenly.

- **Constrictive pyramid** (Fig. 9): It is typical in aging societies where the birth rate decreases, therefore the rate of the young lags behind that of the old. A significant number of the developed European countries (e.g. Germany, Belgium, Hungary, Switzerland and Denmark) belong to this category. (Bernek – Sárfalvi 2009)

In 2012, a person could expect a 70-year-long life on average (this value has slightly increased). Life expectancy, however, shows significant regional differences (Fig. 10). The highest life expectancy can be found in North America, where women usually live for 81 years and men for 76 years. The average life expectancy is 77 years in Australia and Europe. The gender difference is 7 years in Europe and 4 years in Australia. The shortest life can be expected by those living in Africa, where the life expectancy is 59 years for women and 56 for men.

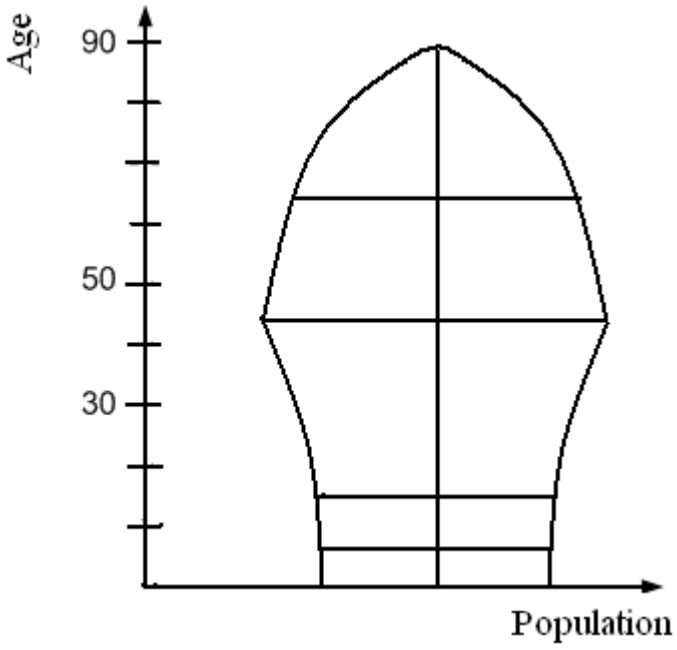


Figure 9: Constrictive pyramid
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

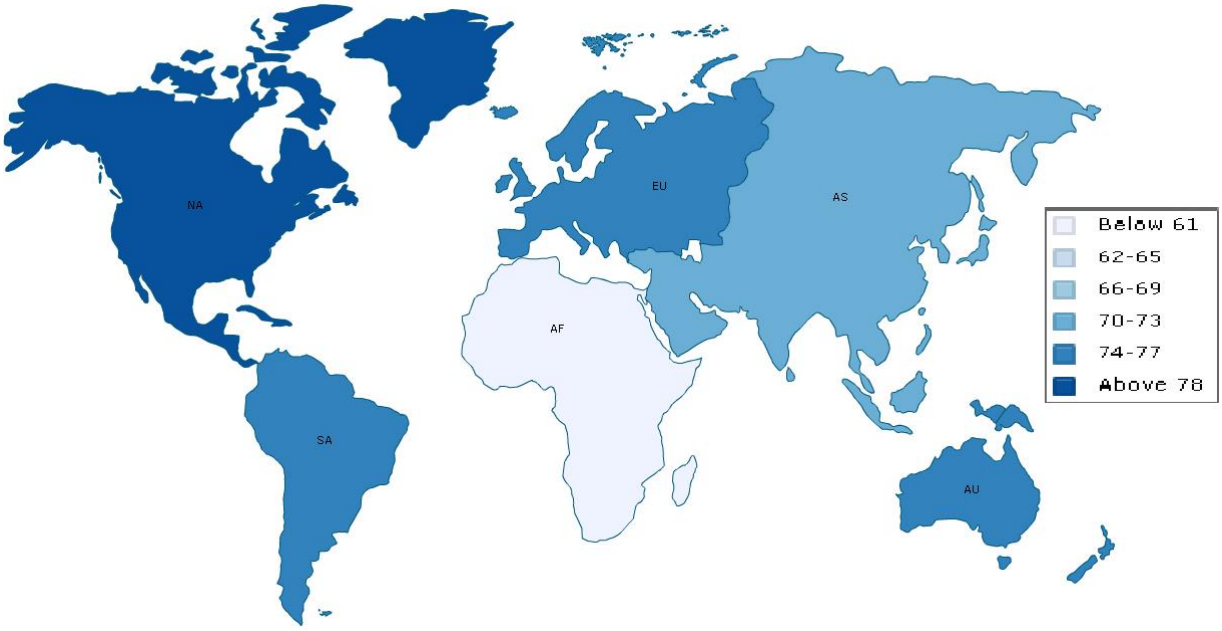


Figure 10: Average life expectancy on the continents of the Earth, 2012
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on DSW data

2.2.4. Population by gender

There live somewhat more men than women on the Earth. This slight male surplus is typical among newborn babies as well. Gender composition, however, is significantly different by continents. In developing countries, more men can be found than women due to the higher female mortality, which is a consequence of insufficient health care, active participation of women in agriculture and high fertility rates.

In Europe, however, there are more women than men. Even if there are more males among babies and in the age group younger than 40, there are more women above 55 because of their higher life expectancy (Kiss 2003), resulting in a mild surplus of women on the whole. The life expectancy of women first exceeded that of men at the beginning of the 20th century because of the decreasing fertility rate and the improvement of health care. There have been differences in mortality and in morbidity between men and women. The differences can be best described with the following saying: “Women get sick, while men die”, i.e. women usually have chronic diseases that do not result in death, while men have fatal diseases. As for mortality, cardiovascular diseases are the most common among men and cancer is the most typical for women, but both types of diseases are common in the case of both genders (Szántó – Susányszky 2006).

Gender differences can be explained partly by social factors, partly by biological factors. Social factors include different social roles and different lifestyles (Szántó – Susányszky 2006). In modern societies, men can find it difficult to support their families on their own and often feel that they cannot meet social expectations. Women, however, usually feel distressed because they suffer from a double burden and they cannot cope with their duties at their workplace and at home. Women can manage stress more efficiently than men as society accepts it when they express their feelings (through complaining or crying) better than in the case of men. Men usually cannot manage stress, which can lead to fatal diseases after a while. Besides, behavioural forms harmful for health (alcoholism, smoking) are more common among men, which increases the difference between the life expectancy of the two genders. Besides social factors, differences between men and women can also be explained by genetics and hormonal differences (Szántó – Susányszky 2006).

Gender differences are reflected in employment rates as the female employment rate lags behind that of men everywhere. Three types of female employment can be distinguished. In some countries (e.g. Poland, Finland, Austria or Romania), female employment is high in every age group. In the Netherlands, Sweden, Belgium and Italy, however, the bulk of women stop working full-time after having a baby. Instead, they prefer atypical forms of employment (e.g. part-time employment or telework). In the Scandinavian countries, they take up full-time jobs after several years, but most women have only part-time employment in the Netherlands for the rest of their life. In the third group of countries (e.g. France, England, USA and Hungary), female employment is high at a young age and after the age of 35. Between them, employment decreases significantly because of child-rearing.

2.2.5. The population of Europe

While the world population keeps increasing, the population in many countries of Western and Eastern Europe has decreased for decades. Between 1700 and 1900, however, the European population growth was the fastest all over the world. Demographic transition (the decrease of birth and death rates) first started in Europe. In spite of this, low death rates combined with high birth rates in some countries of Europe (e.g. Scandinavia, Germany, Great Britain, Poland, Romania or Bulgaria) even at the beginning of the 20th century. In Eastern Europe and France, however, high death rates combined with low birth rates; therefore the population grew only to a small extent. Besides huge losses in the population, the world wars decreased birth rates, which were later counterbalanced by a temporary increase in births (Kovács 2004).

In the 1950s and at the beginning of the 1960s, the number of births increased significantly. This trend was broken in the mid-1960s when the number of births started to decrease. In most of the countries this trend has not stopped yet. The only exceptions are the Scandinavian countries and Ireland where the fertility rate increased with the help of the spread of atypical employment forms and the measures to support child-rearing. In the 1950s and 1960s, some countries tried to influence fertility with state intervention. Abortion was prohibited in 1953 in Hungary and in 1966 in Romania, which temporarily increased the fertility rate (Kovács 2004).

Nowadays, in half of the countries of the European Union, the number of births lags behind the number of deaths. In some countries, natural decrease is aggravated by negative net migration. Based on the predictions for 2050, the population of the European Union will decrease by 30 million between 2000 and 2050. The decrease in population will be 3.6% in the EU-15, while it will be 16.5% in the new member states (Kovács 2004).

An increase in the population in the European Union, if it occurs, will mainly be due to a positive net migration (it is due to natural reproduction only to a small extent) as it is positive in almost every member state of the EU (Kiss 2002).

2.3. Movements of the population

Movements of the population, i.e. net migration, affect not only the number of the population, but also its composition and quality in the home and the host countries. Migration is a kind of mobility. Mobility refers to the degree to which an individual's or a group's status may change in the system of inequalities. Territorial mobility refers to the physical mobility of individuals or groups. It includes commuting and the change of the place of residence that does not make it possible to keep the previous workplace because of a long distance (Tomka 2009).

The main social function of migration is to maintain the equilibrium between the production forces and the population. However, because of the inertia, it can have the opposite function as well (G. Fekete 1998).

2.3.1. Factors influencing migration

Push and pull factors of migration can be distinguished. The push factors are the unfavourable characteristics of the home country that drive people to emigrate. The pull factors, however, are the favourable characteristics of the host country that draw people to live there (Table 4) (Tomka 2009).

In addition, intermediate factors that are neither push nor pull factors, but influence migration significantly can also be distinguished. Intermediate factor can be the geographical distance or transportation possibilities. The cultural and social characteristics of the given population also play an important role in migration processes. A particular factor can be push or pull depending on the socio-cultural characteristics of the individual (Tomka 2009). The willingness to migrate is low in Hungary because of the importance of family links and relations. In other cultures (e.g. that of the USA), however, the same push or pull factors can result in migration more easily.

The ratio of push and pull factors can influence the composition of migration. When the pull factors are dominant, mainly people with a higher social status migrate, while the predominance of push factors results in a more heterogeneous composition of the migrants (Tomka 2009).

Table 4: Main push and pull factors of migration

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Economic factors</th><th>Political factors</th><th>Natural / environmental factors</th><th>Social factors</th><th>Individual / private factors</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">Push factors</td><td>high unemployment, shortage of work opportunities</td><td>lack of democracy / political freedom</td><td>desertification</td><td rowspan="6">low social mobility</td><td rowspan="6">poor chance of marrying</td></tr>
<tr><td>limited opportunities</td><td>political persecution</td><td rowspan="2">harmful environment (e.g. pollution)</td></tr>
<tr><td>low income level</td><td>discrimination</td></tr>
<tr><td>low level of health care</td><td rowspan="2">wars</td><td rowspan="2">natural disasters (floods, hurricanes, droughts, earthquakes)</td></tr>
<tr><td>low living standard</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">Pull factors</td><td>high living standard</td><td>political freedom</td><td rowspan="5">attractive / healthy environment</td><td rowspan="2">tolerance</td><td>education</td></tr>
<tr><td>higher income level</td><td rowspan="2">security</td><td>marrying</td></tr>
<tr><td>more opportunities</td><td rowspan="3">high social mobility</td><td>family links</td></tr>
<tr><td>better health care</td><td rowspan="2">simple rules of settlement</td><td rowspan="2">family reunification</td></tr>
<tr><td>more</td></tr>
</table>

	employment opportunities				

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

2.3.2. Pros and cons of migration

Some theories state that economic rationality is the main cause of migration. They assume that not only migrants, but also the home and host countries benefit from migration (Dabasi 2011). Other theories, however, list the potential advantages and disadvantages of migration (Table 5).

Table 5: Potential pros and cons of migration

	Demographic		**Economic**		**Social**	
	pro	*con*	*pro*	*con*	*pro*	*con*
Home country	•decreases population pressure	•distorted population structure •decreases population •aging population	•decreases unemployment •income sent home	•emigration of highly qualified labour force (brain drain)	•utilising the experiences of return migrants •more intense international relations •conservation of traditional social structure	•conservation of traditional social structure •decreases social capital •integration problems of the return migrants
Host country	•increases the rate of population growth •younger population •changing ethnic composition	•changing ethnic composition	•alleviate sectoral lack of labour force •alleviate wage pressure •promote economic growth (more producers and consumers)	•increase of labour supply decreases income level •overloaded infrastructure	•savings in education expenses •more mobility possibilities of domestic population •pluralisation of the culture and society	•integration problems, ethnic separation •political consequences (increased discrimination) •

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Tomka (2009, p. 80.)

The same effect of migration can be an advantage in certain cases and a disadvantage in other cases. Emigration from an overpopulated country is an advantage for the home country, but is a drawback for a country that is faced with a decrease in population. Emigration of the working age population is economically favourable if unemployment is high in the given region, but is a disadvantage when highly qualified people leave the country. The conservation of the traditional social and political structure as a potential effect of emigration can also be an advantage or a disadvantage as well.

For the host country, a change in the ethnic composition of the population can also be advantageous and disadvantageous. The increase of the labour force due to immigration can be favourable when migrants take up jobs that are not done by domestic workers. However, they can generate oversupply on the labour market, which leads to a decrease of the average income level, thus creating an economic drawback for the country. Living with immigrants can create social problems arising from integration problems or from the strengthening xenophobia.

2.3.3. Types of migration

Migration can be categorised in many different ways (Fig. 11). From the **geographic aspects**, migration includes permanent change of the place of residence between nearby settlements. It also includes internal migration, i.e. movements to more distant settlements within the same country. In the case of large countries, it is usually from areas with a high population density to economically developed areas with a low population density, e.g. from the eastern coast of the USA to the western coast (G. Fekete 1998). Internal migration includes seasonal migration, especially in the construction industry, catering and agriculture. Besides, urbanisation and suburbanisation also belong to internal migration.

External migration refers to migration from one country to the other. It can take place within the same continent or between continents (intercontinental migration). In the 4^{th} – 9^{th} centuries, many people migrated from Asia to Europe. Later, from the 15^{th} – 16^{th} centuries on, migration from Europe and Africa to America became typical due to colonisation, adventurousness or duress (in the case of slaves). Migration from Europe to the USA strengthened from the middle of the 19^{th} century because of the development of steamships facilitating intercontinental travel on the one hand and because of the supply and food difficulties due to an increase in population in Europe on the other. Besides the USA, European people migrated to Canada, Brazil, Argentina, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. In the first half of the 20^{th} century, wars made intercontinental migration more difficult. Because of the restrictions of immigration to the USA after World War I and because of the restriction of emigration from socialist countries after World War II, intercontinental migration has not been as significant as it was at the beginning of the 20^{th} century (Tomka 2009).

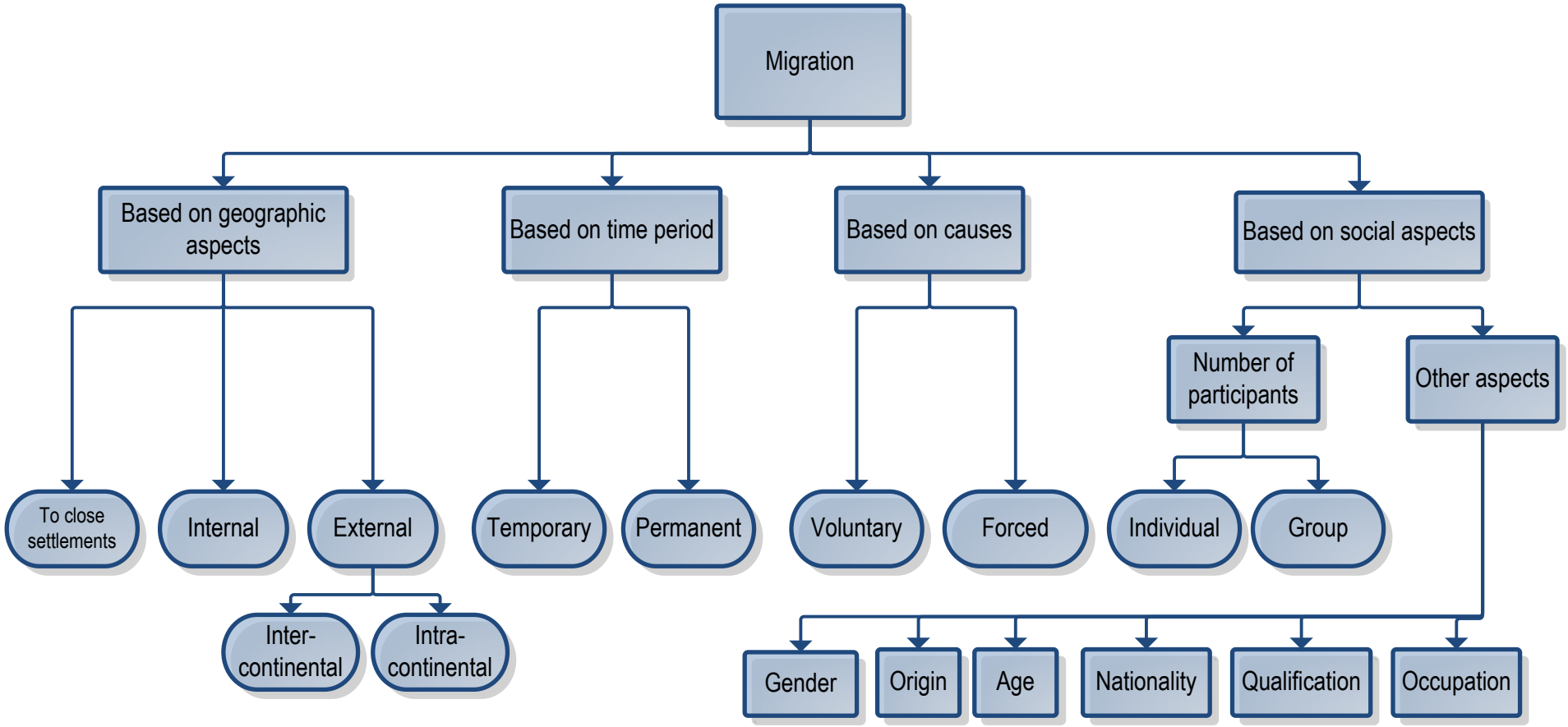


Figure 11: Main types of migration
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Tomka (2009)

Based on its **length,** migration can be classified as permanent or temporary. The migrant is often not aware of the type of their migration in the beginning. Historians, however, can predict the length of migration based on its motivations and circumstances (Tomka 2009). Temporary migration means that the individual or group leaves its place of residence for a pre-defined period in order to work or to study. Travel for some days or some weeks (for tourism or conferences) is not classified in this category as it is not associated with a change of the place of residence. Permanent migration refers to the cases of migration when the individual or the group does not return to their hometown.

Based on the **causes** of migration, migration can be voluntary (spontaneous) or forced (e.g. the migration of Africans to America). In most of the cases, however, migration is voluntary.

Based on the **number of participants**, individual or group migrations can be distinguished. In some cases, the differentiation between them is not easy and sometimes it is impossible. If many individuals migrate from a given place to another at the same time, but their motivations are different, it is difficult to decide if it is individual or group migration.

Migration can be categorised based on different demographic characteristics. Based on the **gender** of the migrant, male migrants used to be in majority for decades. Men often move to other cities of the country to work, while their family stays at home. If the head of the family settles down permanently, his family members usually follow him (chain migration). The latest surveys, however, showed that there was no difference between male and female migration due to increased female employment and to equal opportunities (Gödri 2006).

Migration trends are different for the different **age groups**. The Rogers curve describes the migration specialities of the different age groups (Illés – Lukács 2002).

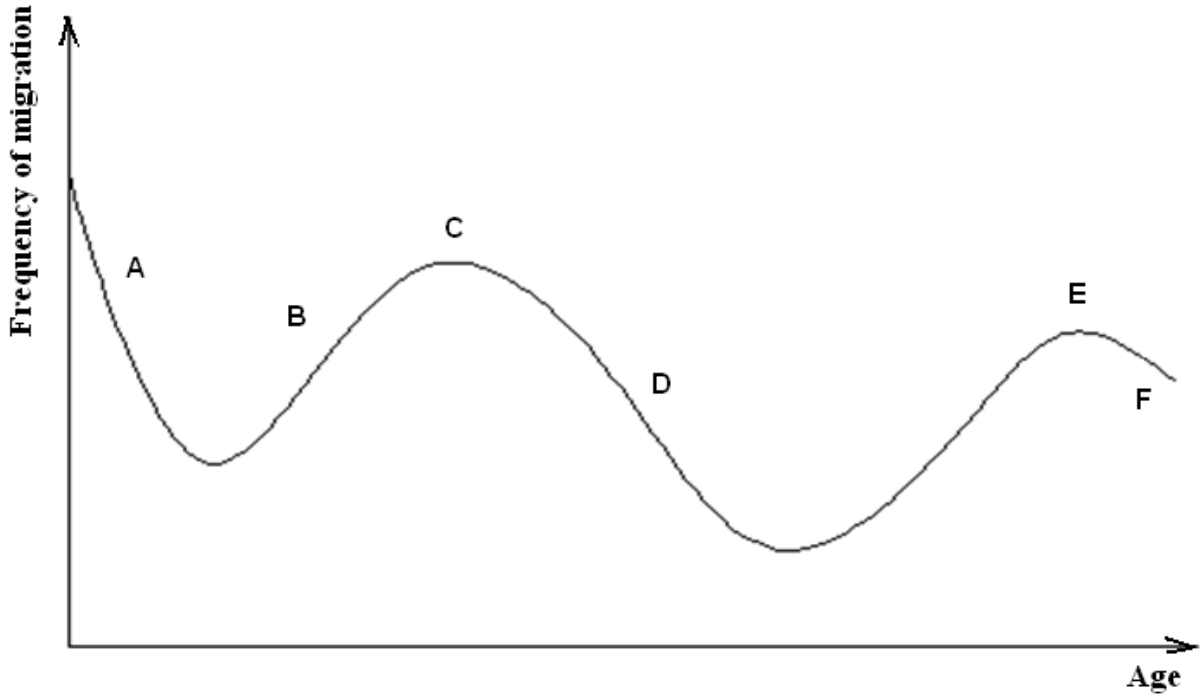


Figure 12: The Rogers curve
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Rogers - Castro (1981, p. 6)

Children (0-14) usually migrate not because of their own, but their parents' decision (phase A). Children are passive participants of migration (Illés – Lukács 2002). Later, young adults migrate for education reasons (phase B), which increases the frequency of migration. The peak of migration occurs because of studies in higher education, starting working or marrying (phase C). In the following phase (D), migration falls sharply. People in their late 30s and 40s migrate because of changing their workplace or place of residence or because of family reasons. The frequency of migration increases again with retirement (phase E). Individuals usually migrate for health reasons when they are close to the end of life (phase F) (Rogers – Castro 1981).

2.3.4. Migration trends in Europe

Migration within Europe was significant even in the Middle Ages. Mainly students and tradesmen migrated in that time. At the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, workers could migrate within Europe without restrictions. Especially Germany and France were preferred as host countries (Tomka 2009). In the 20th century, migration, motivated primarily by political and economic reasons, had a significant influence on the population of the European countries. During and after the world wars, refugees started mass migration. It was partly voluntarily, partly forced after the peace treaties. In World War II, deportation of the Jewish population was significant. About 5.6 – 5.9 million Jewish people died in the war (Karsai 2001, p. 15). The economic boom after World War II increased migration in the 1950s and 1960s. Workers migrated mainly from Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, Yugoslavia and Turkey. Most of the migrants moved to Germany, France and Switzerland. The oil crisis and the following economic crisis in the 1970s, however, decreased migration (Tomka 2009).

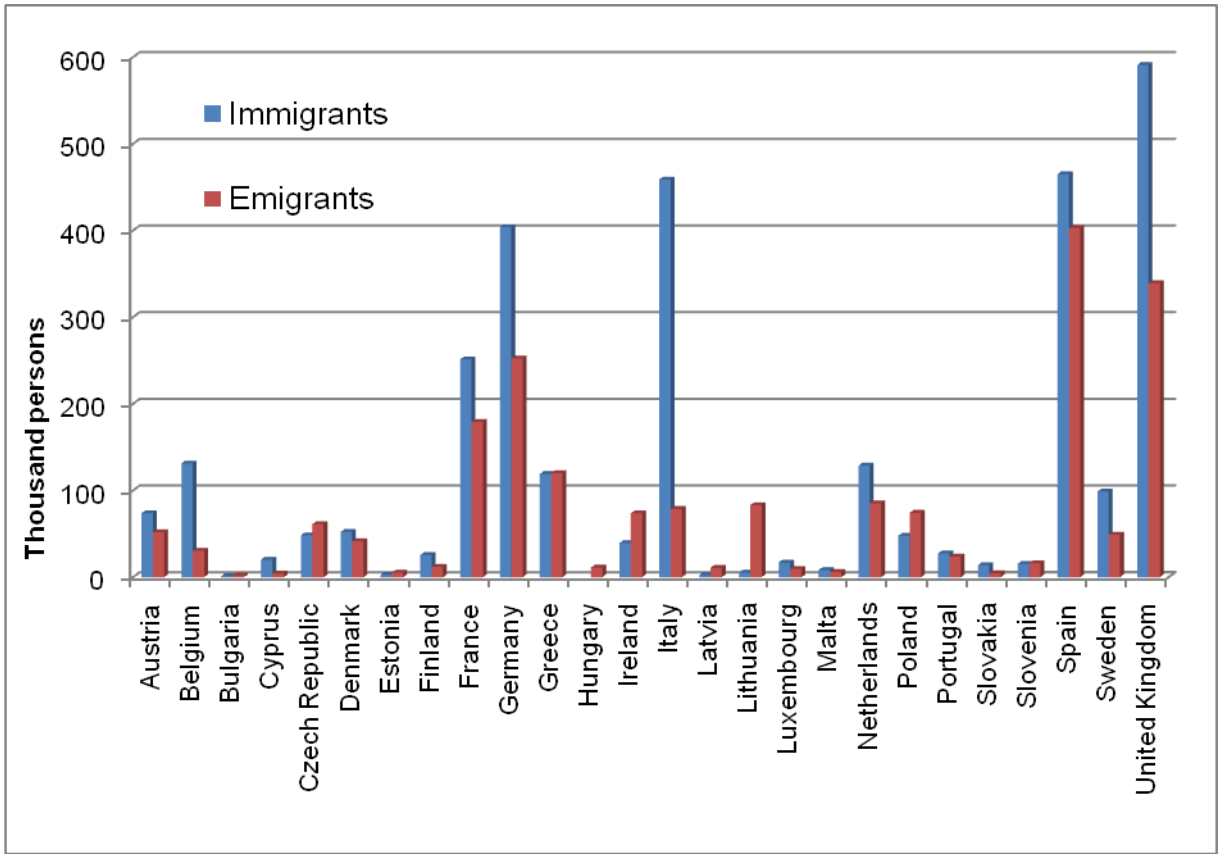


Figure 13: Number of immigrants and emigrants in the countries of the EU, 2010*

* Data for Bulgaria and Poland are for 2008, data for the Netherlands are for 2009. There are no available data for Romania and for the immigrants into Hungary.

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

The composition of migrants changes from the 1980s. While in the 1960s mainly single men migrated, especially temporarily, family migration became typical in the 1980s with the purpose of permanent stay. Chain migration became significant in this period (Tomka 2009).

Migration increased again with the dissolution of the Soviet Union. With the elimination of the restrictions that limited free movement, more and more people moved to Western Europe from the post-socialist countries. The dissolution of Yugoslavia had a similar effect: as a result of the war after its dissolution, 4 million people left the country (Tomka 2009).

Lately, several thousand persons have immigrated into the European Union, especially to western and southern Europe. At the beginning of the 2000s, more than half of the immigrants settled in Germany. In addition, Italy and the United Kingdom were the most preferred countries. The most important home countries are Italy, the United Kingdom, Turkey, Poland and the countries of Africa and Asia (Kiss 2003).

In 2010, most of the immigrants arrived in the United Kingdom, followed by Italy, Spain, Germany and France (Fig. 13). The number of emigrants was the highest in the same countries (Spain, United Kingdom, Germany and France).

2.4. Relationship between demographic characteristics and economic growth

2.4.1. In general

Economic growth can be promoted by many demographic factors. One of them is an improvement in the health status of the population, which increases economic performance and decreases the need for health care. In addition, economic growth is promoted by an increase in life expectancy as it also increases economic performance and makes long-term planning possible.

The decrease in fertility rate used to be considered to be an incentive for economic growth as it was considered to increase female employment. Later research works, however, have come to the opposite conclusion. While in 1980, female employment and fertility were indeed inversely related, the two factors were positively related in 2006. This can have several explanations. One of them is that increasing female employment provides more opportunities for women for self-realisation; therefore they have a balanced and harmonic personality, which usually increases willingness to have children. A further explanation can be the spread of the forms of atypical employment and the improvement of the institutional supply of child care (Pulay 2010), which facilitates harmonisation between work and child-rearing.

Changes in the number of the population also affect economic growth by affecting the number of the working age population and that of the active population. Changes in the population can modify its age structure. A decrease in the population results in an aging population and increases the number of pensioners, which increases the need for health care and long-term care. Therefore changes in the number of the population affect the amount of public expenses (European Commission 2007). Moreover, changes in the number of the working age population affect economic performance directly and also indirectly through the utilisation of income (Mellár 2002).

In the countries where the population decreases, innovation may become the driving force of economic growth. The European Union is trying to respond by means of innovation and an increase of fertility to demographic challenges. Moreover, an aging population can create new markets for goods and services that meet the needs of the old (European Commission 2007).

2.4.2. Economic and social effects of demographic processes in developing countries

In developing countries, the population has been growing continuously (as reflected by the expansive population pyramids as well), which presents a challenge for these countries. The fast increase of population makes the livelihood of many people impossible. Many people starve, do not find jobs or do not have appropriate living conditions. Poverty and social exclusion increase public expenses and huge amounts are spent on support and public aid.

The population is the highest in China and India (Fig. 14). The increasing trend was broken only once in China, at around 1960. This was caused by the famine in 1959 to 1961, which occurred as a result of the collectivisation of agriculture.

In China, the most populated country, the 'one-child policy' has been in effect since 1979, which restricts urban couples to having only one child. It is claimed that the policy has prevented a significant number of births and the rate of population

growth has decreased radically. At the same time, however, it has had many negative side effects, which makes the success of the policy questionable:

- The policy violates the human right of determining the size of one's own family.
- It leads to more abortions, especially in the case of female babies. If the babies are born, they are often neglected and not taken care of sufficiently. It has led to a significant increase in infant mortality.
- Provided that the fertility rate that was decreased due to the birth control policy is not combined with any change in the child-rearing concepts of the population, the effects will definitely not be stable.
- There is no exact information about how many people would live in China without the control policy, therefore the success of the policy cannot be defined exactly either (Sen 2003).

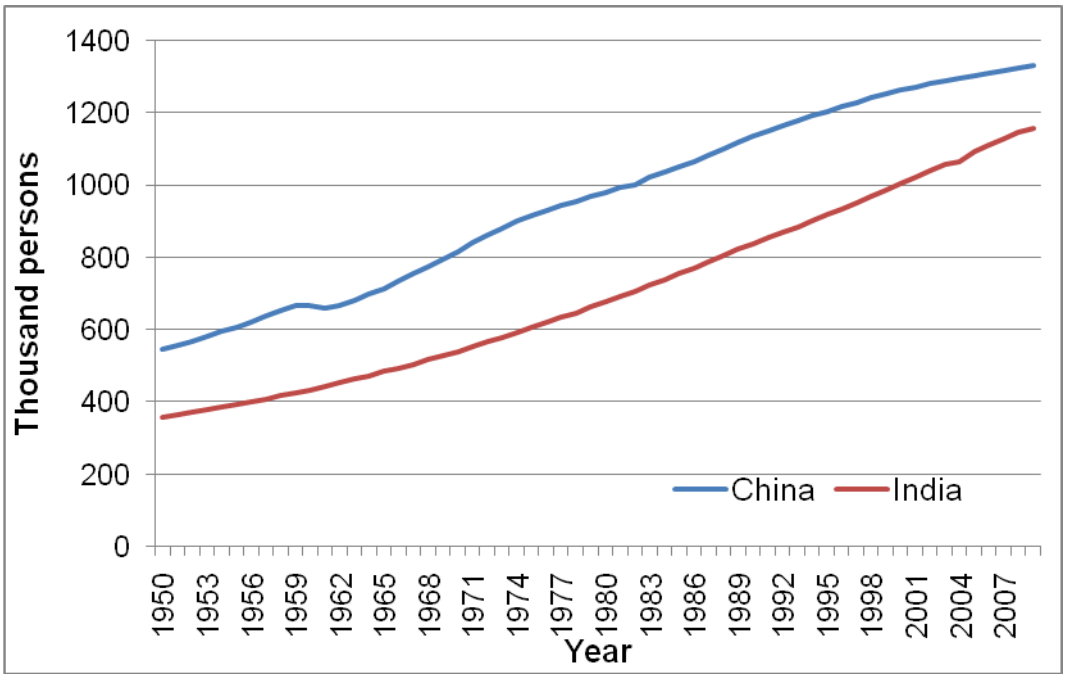


Figure 14: Population of China and India, 1950-2009
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Maddison Historical Statistics

In other countries with high populations, as in India, authorities try to decrease the rate of population growth without restraints. The main tools are increasing the average education attainment of the (especially female) population and improving the standard of public health care. If girls stay longer in the education system, they have their first child later, which decreases the total number of children. In addition, if girls are better educated, they are less vulnerable within the family. The birth rate can be decreased permanently in this way (Sen 2003).

2.4.3. Economic and social effects of demographic processes in Europe

The population trend in Europe is different from that of the developing world. A decreasing and therefore aging population has been a big challenge recently. Other views, however, highlight that with an increase in the average life expectancy, the

number of years one can spend in health increases as well, which is not only a challenge, but also an opportunity for European societies (Kovács 2003). There is, however, no doubt about the fact that the aging population represents a challenge in terms of the labour market and public expenses.

In the labour market, an ageing population leads to an increasing number of the population outside working age and to a decreasing number of labour force. A bottleneck of the labour market will be the education level as demands will primarily increase for highly qualified labour force according to the predictions. A further bottleneck is the insufficient available services related to health care in general, for children and elderly people. This can decrease the employment rate, especially among young women and elderly people.

The decrease in the labour force affects economic performance as well. The GDP, however, is affected not only by the employment rate, but also by productivity. Many people believe that productivity of the elderly lags behind that of the young, which is due to biological reasons and by a decrease of susceptibility for innovation, new technologies and long-term investments like education or research and development. These drawbacks, however, can be counterbalanced by the greater experience of the elderly. Based on the analyses, the key for growing productivity is a change in the qualification and age structure of the labour force (European Commission 2007).

The 2006 Eurobarometer included a question about possible solutions to the problem of shortages in the workforce due to an ageing population (Fig. 15). Most of the respondents believe that inactive women should be encouraged to participate in the labour market; part-time workers should be encouraged to work full-time; people should be encouraged to have more children and the legal retirement age should be increased. There is a significant difference between the answers of men and women. While women prefer the encouragement of inactive women, men prefer other options.

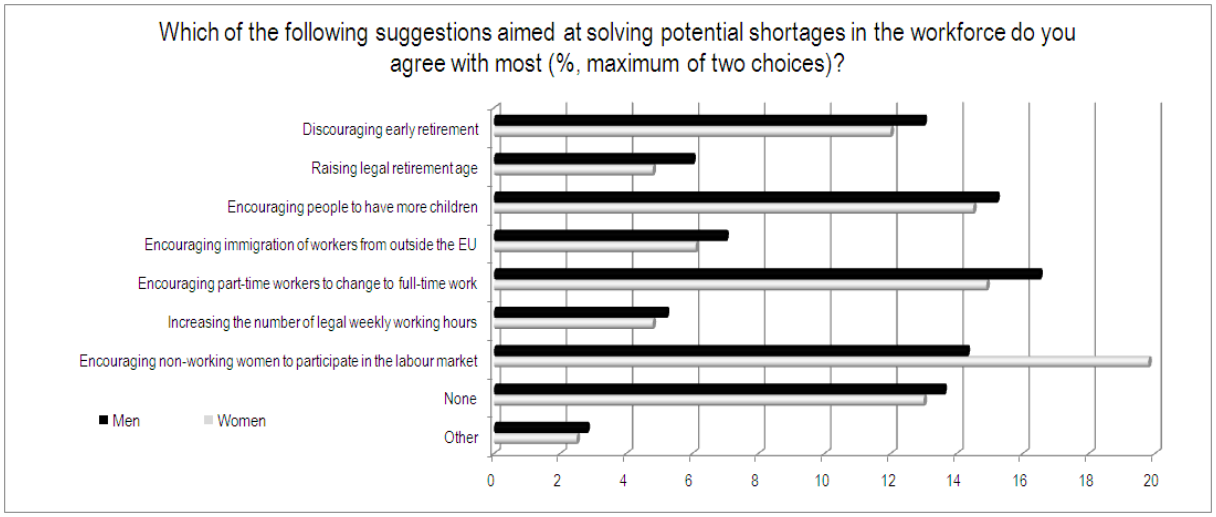


Figure 15: Public preferences for how to best tackle potential labour force shortages
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on European Commission (2007, p. 61.)

According to the predictions, the European Union can reach the 70% employment rate by 2020, so the Lisbon target will be met with ten years' delay. The increase of the employment rate is considered feasible by experts for two reasons. On the one hand, the female employment rate is expected to increase until 2025 to 65% from

55% in 2004. After that, the rate is expected to stagnate. The female employment rate can be increased because elderly inactive women will be replaced by younger active women in the labour market and because of the expected greater availability of childcare. On the other hand, the increased employment of the elderly and the extended retirement age also help increasing the employment rate (European Commission 2007).

Increasing female employment is important for a number of reasons. More and more marriages end in divorce and women can make a living after becoming single again only if they have their own income. Besides, the need for own income and for wealth accumulation inspires women to be active in the labour market even in stable marriages. Female employment should be promoted in a way that avoids neglecting child-rearing at the same time. Atypical forms of employment, making family allowances more attractive and the availability of formal childcare can help in this. Demény (2004), however, highlights that the result of working and child-rearing at the same time is doubtful as the value of the parents' role can decrease when parental duties are carried out by different institutions from early childhood.

The European demographic processes are a challenge for public finance and intergenerational solidarity as well. Providing pensions, health care and long-term care for the elderly is an increasing burden for the working age population. Public expenses spent on pensions are going to increase until 2050 (European Commission 2007). This problem was identified in 1985 in the Union and the "Four Pillars Strategy" was worked out as a response. It includes the necessity of having pension systems with four pillars in Europe. Besides state, private and voluntary pension funds, it includes income that one can earn with work after retirement (Kovács 2003). This fourth pillar can also contribute to avoiding poverty and a significant decrease of the living standard. In spite of the fact that the pension system is only partly state-funded, ensuring appropriate living standards by pensions is still a public responsibility.

Currently, the level of pensions is about the 60-70% of the former income level of the pensioners, which ensures the 75-90% of the living standard of the active population for the elderly. There are, however, significant gender differences as this rate is much lower for women, which is a result of the shorter time period spent in employment and of the lower income.

In order to maintain a sustainable financing of the pension system, the following proposals have been worked out:

- In many countries of Europe, there is a distributive-contributory pension system, which is based on the intergenerational redistribution of income, i.e. pensions are financed from the pension contributions paid by the active. This system could work effectively and successfully. However, the maintenance of this system is problematic in ageing populations. Experts in developed countries argue that pension systems can be financed with the help of the high yield that can be realised with the international investment of pension funds (Kovács 2003).
- The pension system is formed or is planned to be formed in a way so as to take into consideration not only the income of several years before retirement, but the income of the whole life. In this way, the income earned at the beginning of working life is taken into account as well, which is usually lower than income earned later. Furthermore, if earlier income is not corrected with inflation, the calculated amount of the pension is even lower (European Commission 2007).

- Another possible solution to make financing the pension system possible is to increase the legal retirement age, which is justified by the higher average age and the longer healthy and working age (European Commission 2007).

It is especially the elderly aged more than 80 that use health care and long-term care. Their rate in the total population is expected to increase from 1.4% (2005) to 11.4% by 2050 (European Commission 2007). Health related expenses can be best decreased by increasing the number of years one can spend in health (increase of the average life expectancy increases only the number of years spent sick in certain countries).

By 2050, the number of the elderly who need care because of their disability is expected to double. Demand for these provisions will probably exceed their supply. Provision for the elderly is different in northern and southern Europe. In northern Europe, the elderly are supported by their family to a greater extent, while only few members of the family make use of the provisions for the elderly in the south. Old people living alone in the north therefore have more chance to get support (European Commission 2007).

The amount of future health-related expenses depends not only on the number and rate of the elderly, but also on the pace of technological development (new treatments with new technologies can increase expenses, but can also decrease them if they substitute a former, more expensive technology). Long-term care, however, is usually a labour-intensive field of provisions, where the possibility of increasing productivity with technological development is limited (European Commission 2007).

Tasks

1. Examine the effects of immigration on the host and home countries based on the following articles.
   Sandro Magister: Eurabia has a Capital: Rotterdam (19 May 2009)
   http://chiesa.espresso.repubblica.it/articolo/1338480?eng=y
   Nima Sanandaji: An Immigrant's Tale (17 June 2005)
   http://www.ideasinactiontv.com/tcs_daily/2005/06/an-immigrants-tale.html

2. Compare the composition of the world's population in 1990, 2000 and 2005 based on the aspects described above. Find the main trends.

3. Operation of basic social functions

After looking at the spatial characteristics of the population from quantitative and qualitative aspects, the territorial cultural characteristics and the territorial differences of the population as a production force will be examined in this chapter.

3.1. Cultural specificities and differences

Defining culture is not an easy task. Experts have long been debating its exact definition. Krolber and Kluckholn gathered 160 different definitions of culture in 1952 (Lucchini 2002). According to Lucchini (2002), culture is "the sum of knowledge, practice, rules, norms, strategies, values and myths." The Hungarian Lexicon states that culture is the "sum of capacities, performances, social institutions, etc. that differentiates mankind from animals and that helped it to emerge from its natural state throughout history" (Enyedi 2005, p. 2). Others believe that culture is "the ability to consciously form natural and social environment" (Spradley – McCurdy 1987) or that it is "a special order of the norms, values and symbols that determines the individual's behaviour" (Parsons – Shils 1990). According to the Dictionary of Sociology, culture is made up of the behaviours and results that are derived from the social and not instinctive nature of mankind (Mitchell 1968). Papp Kincses (2005) says that culture is "the sum of intellectual and material, mental and emotional characteristics", including values, behaviour, mentality, faith, moral, language, religion, knowledge, art, traditions, identity and literacy.

In this chapter, the examination of cultural characteristics covers the composition of the population by social race, language, religion and nationality. Moreover, we will examine the main trends of cultural economy and qualification.

3.1.1. Language, religious and national composition of the population

Many people believe that **language** is one of the most important elements of culture and national identity (Papp Kincses 2005). On the whole, English is the most widely spoken language, but Mandarin and Spanish are the most widely spoken as first languages (Fig. 16). After them, English is ranked third.

Language can have the function of connecting nations, but also the function of separating them. World languages can connect the members of different nations. The official languages of the United Nations are Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. The sixth official language is Arabic, which is also used as the official language of the General Assembly, the Council of Security and the Economic and Social Council. (www.un.org)

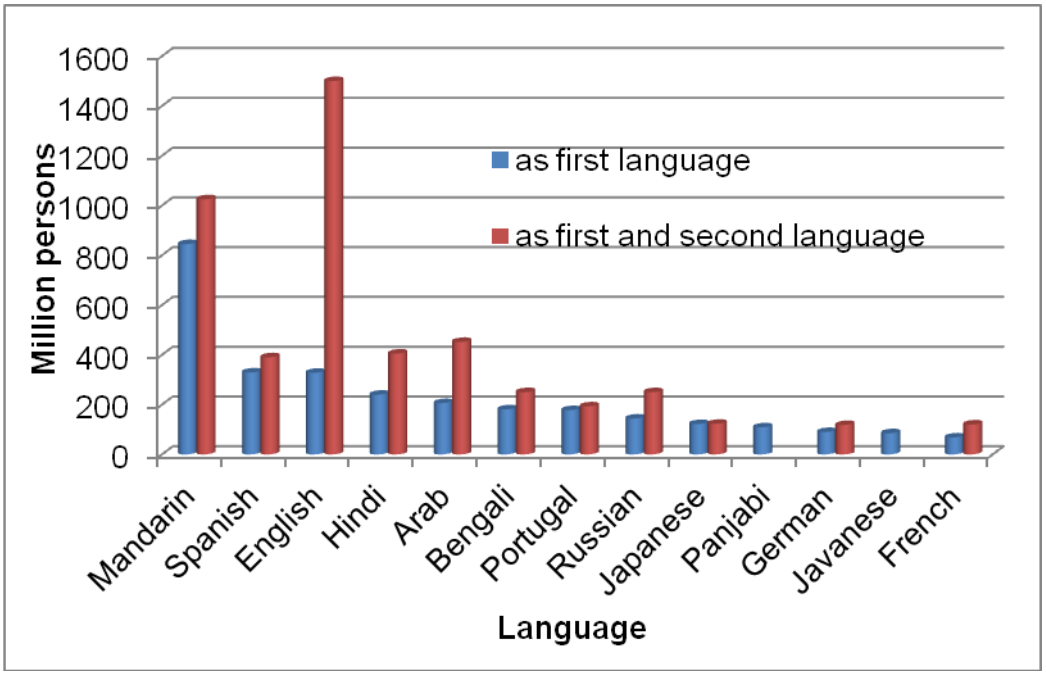


Figure 16: The most widely spoken languages of the world, 2009
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Ethnologue 2009

The European Union has 23 official languages (Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovakian, Slovene, Spanish and Swedish). It means that documents may be sent to the institutions of the EU and a reply received in any of these languages. Moreover, the documents of the EU are available in these languages.

Besides language, **religion** is another important element of culture, which influences the thinking, mentality and everyday life of people. As for the religion composition of the world population (Fig. 17), more than half (55.7%) is monotheist. The largest religious group is Christianity. As it has been spreading since the Middle Ages, it can be found all over the world today. Within Christianity, Roman Catholicism is the largest group, followed by Greek Catholicism and Orthodoxy. Among the Christian religions, the Protestant and Anglican religious groups are the smallest ones. Almost a quarter of the world population belongs to the Islam, another monotheist religion. Other religious groups are much smaller. 11.4% of the world population do not belong to any of the religious groups. Out of them, 9.4% is not religious, while 2% is atheist.

The religious composition of the population is important not only for cultural, but also for political and economic reasons. Religion has been the source of many political conflicts. Theists who visit shrines can boost tourism and catering. Besides, religious doctrines can influence lifestyle, consumption and habits. In Islam, for example, believers have to fast from dawn until sunset during Ramadan. Observant Hindus abstain from beef as the cow is identified as a holy animal. In economics, these effects have to be taken into account.

The composition of the population by **nationality** is important because countries do not always coincide with nationalities. The cohabitation of different nations within the same country can be the source of many conflicts. Minorities often preserve or try to preserve their culture and their identity. Moreover, they often wish to establish

autonomy or an independent nation state. Contrarily, the majority usually try to assimilate them.

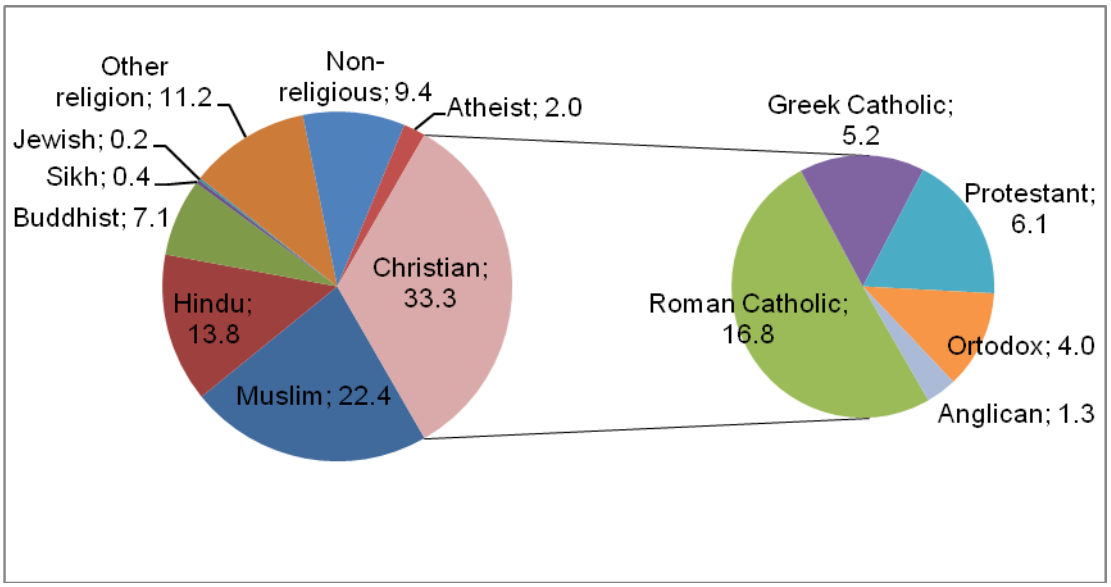


Figure 17: Religion composition of the world population, 2009
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on The World Factbook

There are traditional disagreements between the French and the German, which have been reflected in the fight for Alsace and Lorraine for centuries. The relationship of the Irish and the English has also been full of conflicts. Throughout history, the English tried to conquer the Irish island, but the Irish resisted. Finally they found a compromise at the beginning of the 20th century: in the north-eastern part of the island, a part of the United Kingdom was created, while Ireland, an independent country was founded in the rest of the island. Peaceful co-existence, however, has not been achieved yet as there have been violent conflicts, mainly due to the IRA, the Irish Republican Army. There have also been considerable conflicts between the Dutch-speaking Flemish and the French-speaking Walloons in Belgium. Due to the conflicts deriving from language and cultural differences, Belgium has become a federal state where the groups of different cultures and the different geographic units have significant independence.

The position of the nationalities without their own national state is extremely hard. They cannot count on the support of their home country and the people cannot obtain legal remedy anywhere when they are persecuted or when their human rights are violated. The Catalans or the Basque living in Spain are in a similar position. From time to time, they endeavour to gain their independence. Their nationalism has been particularly strong since the beginning of the 19th century. Both nations live in the more developed parts of Spain, where immigration is considerable (Conversi 1997).

Another nation without its own state is the Kurds. The majority live in Turkey, but they can also be found in Iran, Iraq or Syria. They have been struggling to establish their own nation state for centuries.

National diversity can be a source of many conflicts and problems that may lead to political wrangles, uprisings or conflicts. Differences may also threaten safety. This diversity, however, also has advantages. Nationalities can connect countries, making communication and cooperation easier. Moreover, their specific culture can be present in product development and in marketing that can boost the economy. If peaceful co-existence is achieved, minorities can have complementary economies,

where they are specialised in products and services which they can produce and which yield the most efficiency based on their culture and traditions.

3.1.2. Cultural specificities of Europe

Europe is a continent that is often called the cradle of civilisation. Its religion, language and national composition can be characterised by diversity. Pan and Pfeil (2004) distinguishes 87 **peoples in Europe**, of which 33 form the majority population in at least one sovereign state, while the remaining 54 peoples live in ethnic minorities. The total number of national minority population in Europe is about 105 million people, which makes up 14% of the 770 million Europeans.

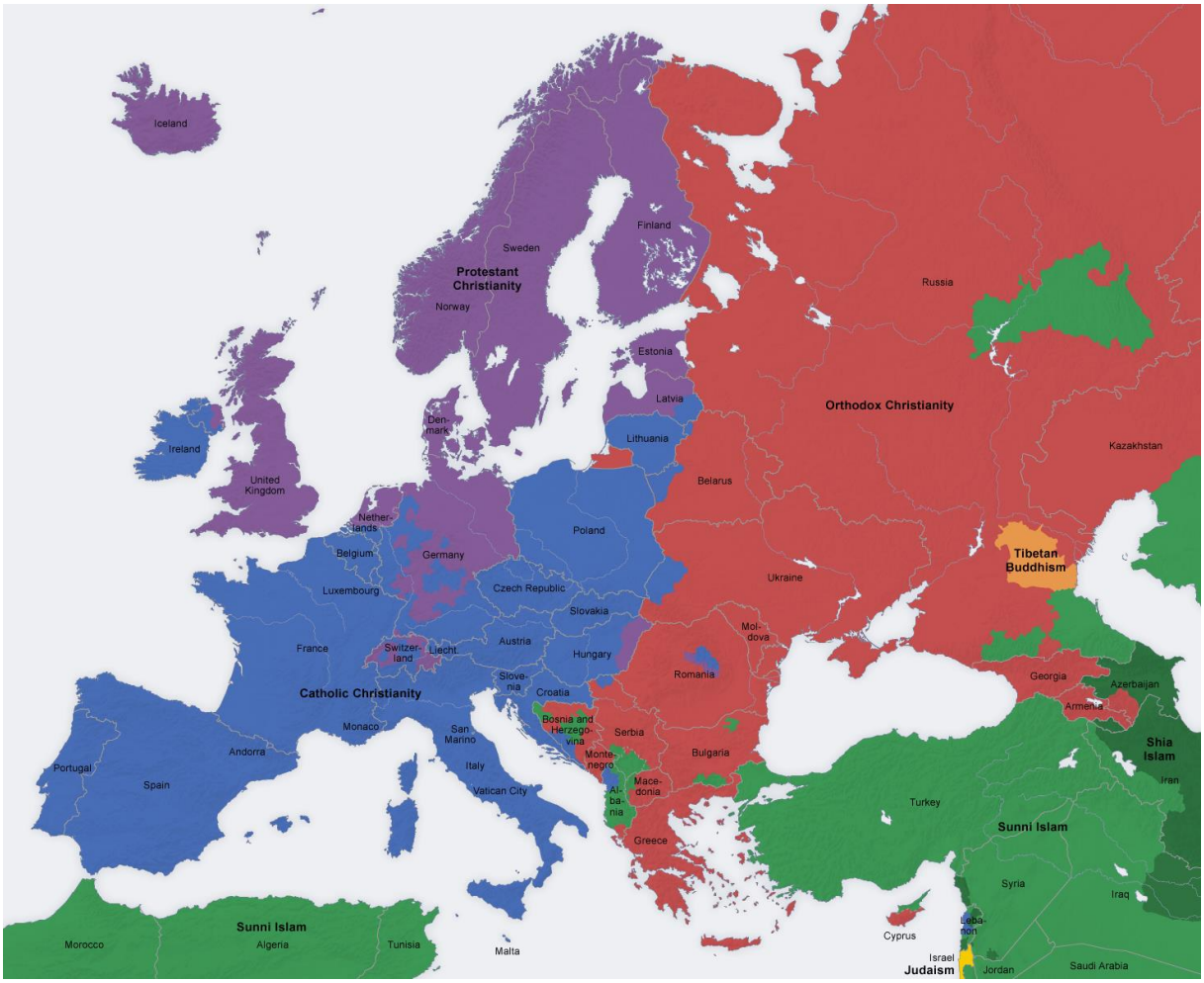


Figure 18: Religion map of Europe
Source: http://s1.zetaboards.com/anthroscape

When talking about the nationalities of Europe, the Roma population cannot be omitted. Most of the Roma (about 6.5 million persons) live in Europe. They can be found mainly in the Carpathian-Balkan region. Finding the number and the rate of the Roma, however, is not easy as there is no exclusive definition for them.

- Defining the Roma is possible by self-classification. This definition is used in the census that is carried out every tenth year in Europe. Minorities, however, often hide their ethnicity in official data collections.

- The Roma are those who are deemed to be 'Roma' by the majority of society based on race anthropology and their lifestyle.
- The Roma population can also be defined based on its mother language (Dabasi 2011).

In practice, the first two definitions are used. Defining the Roma based on their first language is not the best because neither religion, nor language plays an important role in their national identity (Bottlik 2012). Surveys carried out based on self-classification and the classification of the society usually have significantly different results in terms of the number of the Roma. In Hungary, the 2001 census estimated 190,000 Roma people in Hungary, while sociological surveys counted 500,000 - 600,000 Roma people in the same year.

As for **religion** in Europe (Fig. 18), most of the people belong to Christianity. In the western part of the continent, the Roman Catholic religion is dominant. In Scandinavia, Great Britain, Iceland and in northern Germany, however, the protestant group is the most numerous, while Orthodox is the most dominant religion in Eastern Europe. In Turkey and in specific parts of the Balkan, Islam can also be found.

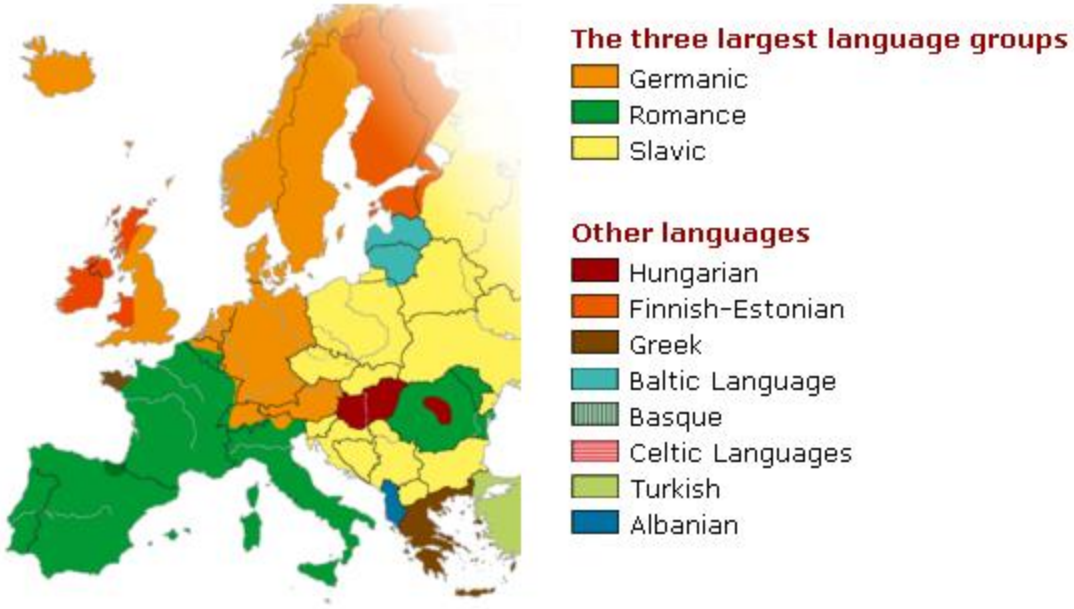


Figure 19: Language map of Europe
Source: http://en.nitobe.info/ld/lingvoj/lingvomapo.php

As for the **language** map of Europe (Fig. 19), at least 94 languages are used and there are about 40 national languages, five out of which are exclusively national languages. 35 languages are spoken as first languages outside the country as well and 55 languages are without independent states (Pfeil 1999).

3.2. Education and qualification

The cultural position of a nation can be described with its level of qualification, which can be measured with the rate of the illiterate. An international comparison

using this measure, however, can be difficult as there is often no available data in developed countries (in North America or Western Europe, where the value of this rate is practically zero). Instead, the rate of the functionally illiterate is often used in these countries. Besides illiteracy, education attainment, qualification level and school drop-outs are also used as indices of education and qualification.

The oldest universities of the world can be found in Europe. The development of the education systems accelerated in the second half of the 19th century. Until World War I, education systems were under state control. Accordingly, education became compulsory and many elementary schools were established. In the second phase of the development of education systems (between the two World Wars), elementary and secondary education were integrated. In addition, the rate of students going on to secondary education started to increase. In the third phase of development, higher education started to expand (Tomka 2009).

Currently in Europe, the aim is to establish an internationally standardised education system. Besides standardisation, however, the need for diversification has also been present: with the expansion of higher education, 'centres of excellence' and elite universities are to be established in order to avoid the disappearance of elite higher education (Tomka 2009).

3.3. Formation of settlements. The process of urbanisation

The formation of cities and the spread of urban lifestyle started after the beginning of the industrial revolution. However, there were cities also before the industrial revolution. They are called preindustrial cities.

3.3.1. Preindustrial cities

The formation of settlements started several thousand years ago. This process was influenced by natural conditions, the local energies derived from them and social and economic aspects. The first cities (Ur, Uruk, Eridu, Lagas, Nippur and Kis) could be found in Mesopotamia (Fig. 20). Many factors contributed to their formation. Primarily the spread of agriculture led to settlement, which resulted in a significant concentration of the population along the Tigris and Euphrates. The appearance of land property resulted in permanently populated places, where landowners protected their lands with fences. In order to successfully protect their lands from the enemy, they built palisades and trenches. Those who were not directly involved in production (such as the emperors or priests) built temples and governing centres. In order to supply the inhabitants of populated areas, more and more food was necessary. This resulted in the development of transportation as food had to be brought from more distant areas. The Sumerians developed mathematics, astronomy and astrology and they produced many things like jewellery from copper. With the flourishing of Sumerian cities, villages remained backward.

In the Middle Ages, the centre of urban culture was mainly in Asia, especially in China, India and in the Islamic world. The most significant cities were Byzantium, Bagdad, Angkor, Beijing and Samarkand. There were cities in Europe as well, but they were rather small compared to the Asian ones. The most important European cities that time were Nuremburg, the Hanseatic cities, Naples, Florence, Venice,

Seville, Cordoba, Lisbon and Paris. Paris was the biggest settlement in Europe since the beginning of the 16th century and it had a million inhabitants as early as in 1846.

Cities before the industrial revolution had certain characteristics which were identical for all urban communities. As for their ecological organisation, they were surrounded by walls, which prevented their expansion and they were often overcrowded. High population density often led to epidemics and other diseases. Not only the city but also its districts populated by a given social group were often surrounded by wall. Ghettos were districts populated by Jewish people who wanted to segregate themselves from the others voluntarily. In medieval Europe, ghettos had a high prestige and it was an honour to live there.

Figure 20: Ancient Sumerian cities
Source: Bertham (2006)

The economy of the medieval preindustrial cities was characterised by a lack of industrialism. The main resources were human and animal work as mechanisation was lacking. Work was not specialised in that time. There was no division of labour in the guilds, where industrial activities were carried out.

The society of the medieval cities was divided into groups. The literate elite controlled the society: artisans, merchants and manufacturers. Literacy was restricted to the members of the elite, while the majority of the society was illiterate. Moreover,

the society was closed, social mobility was strongly limited. The lowest social group, called the marginal group (beggars, the poor and slaves) lived separately from the rest of society. In social contact, family ties and connections by blood played an important role. Marriages were usually arranged, not based on love between the bride and the bridegroom. Within the family, mainly male children were respected. Besides family, religion also influenced social relations to a significant extent. The different social groups lived separately from each other. There were no mass media, communication was only verbal (Sjoberg 1955).

3.3.2. Cycles of urbanisation

Urbanisation is the process of the growth of urban areas. It has two components:

- A quantitative growth of the cities, measured by the growth of the physical area and the rate or the number of the inhabitants.
- A qualitative growth when urban life style, urban civilisation and infrastructural supply become typical.

Along with the growth of cities and the spread of urban life style, traditional rural societies started to become looser. The process of urbanisation can well be described with the fact that while in 1950, the 11 most populated cities of the world could be found in developed countries, only 4-5 developed cities were in the top 15 in 2000. The most populated cities in 2012 can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6: The most populated cities of the world, 2012

City	Country	Population	Population density (person/km^2)
Tokyo	Japan	37,126,000	11,300
Jakarta	Indonesia	26,063, 000	24,200
Seoul	South Korea	22,547,000	27,000
Delhi	India	22,242,000	29,700
Manila	Philippines	21,951,000	39,900
Shanghai	China	20,860,000	15,500
New York	USA	20,464,000	4,600
Sao Paolo	Brazil	20,186,000	16,500
Mexico City	Mexico	19,463,000	24,600
Cairo	Egypt	17,816,000	27,000

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on www.newgeography.com

Urbanisation is associated with the growth of the rate of urban population and the decrease in the rate of rural population (Fig. 21). While only 29% of the world population lived in cities in 1950, every other people (50.8%) lived in cities in 2010. The UN forecasts that the rate of urban population will be close to 60% by 2030.

Urbanisation is not characterised by continuous population growth. The different theories about the stages of urban growth have some aspects in common:

- Urbanisation is divided into different stages, i.e. it does not mean a continuous growth.
- The first stage is characterised by fast growth, while it is usually followed by population decline.

- Urbanisation first appears in developed areas and spreads later to less developed areas.
- Different theories describe the stages of urbanisation for the developed countries.
- The characteristics of the stages are described for some selected areas.
- The stages of urbanisation depend on time and region. They can be different in space and over time.

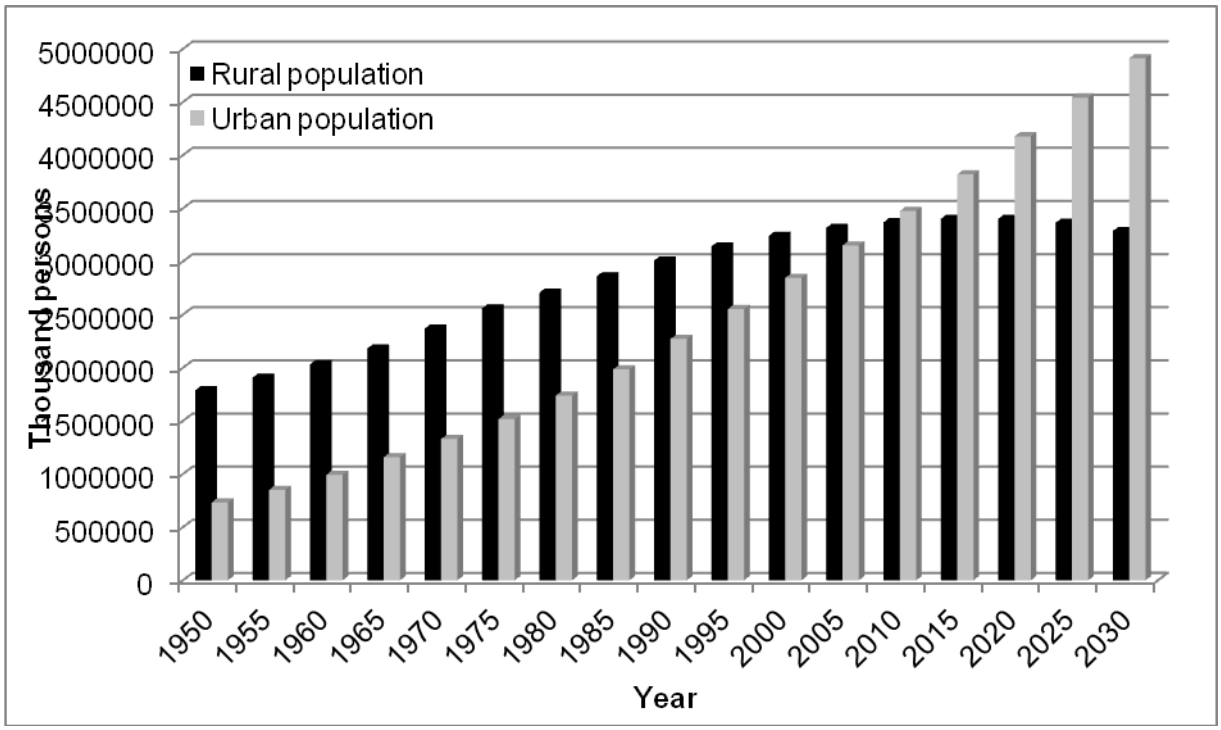


Figure 21: Rural and urban population in the world, 1950-2030
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on United Nations data

According to Enyedi (2011), the first stage of urbanisation is **urban explosion**, which can be characterised by extensive (quantitative) growth. This stage first appeared in Western Europe with the spread of mechanisation, factories and negative social phenomena like child labour. Urban explosion took place in the USA as well, where technical development originating in Europe led to the establishment of cities even before the establishment of rural areas. By the middle of the 20th century, the rate of urban population was about 70-80% there.

In Eastern Europe, however, urban explosion was much slower. The period between the 1870s and 1945 was characterised by intense industrialisation, mainly in the development of food industry. Between the 1950s and 1970s, however, the focus was shifted to heavy industry and its forced development, creating new cities (e.g. Ózd, Kazincbarcika or Tiszaújváros in Hungary). After the 1970s, the growth slowed down and rural areas continued to play an important role. As a result, the urban network in Eastern Europe is misshapen and includes areas with high population density as well as areas with almost no cities (e.g. the Great Plain in Hungary).

In Japan, urbanisation started earlier than in Eastern Europe, but extensive urban explosion began only in the 20th century. The other parts of the world were at the same time in the first stage of urbanisation. Urbanisation was generated by industry in south eastern Asia and by the recession of agriculture in Africa. In the developing countries, urban explosion often leads to the formation of monopolist cities, while the

rural style of the country does not disappear. In the cities, extreme differences can be found: deep poverty and wealth are present at the same time. The characteristics of urban explosion are different in different parts of the developing world:

- The rate of urban population is the highest in Latin America in the developing world. Small cities can hardly be found. Instead, big cities and villages are typical. The big cities can mainly be found in the eastern part of the continent.
- In Asia, small cities have a developed network.
- The rate of urban population is the lowest in Africa. Not only the number of cities and the rate of urban population, but also civilisation levels are low.

Table 7: Urbanisation model of György Enyedi

Stage	Economic characteristic	Settlement characteristic	Location and time period
I. Urban explosion	Extensive (quantitative) growth	Urban concentration	Western Europe and North America: from the industrial revolution to the 1930s Eastern Europe: from the end of the 19th century to the 1970s Other areas: since the 1960s
II. Relative de-concentration	Intensive growth	Agglomerations Modernisation of rural areas	Western Europe and USA: 1930-1970 Eastern Europe: since 1970 Other areas: germinal
III. De-urbanisation / counter-urbanisation	Post-industrial	Growth of agglomerations and rural areas	Only in the USA
IV. Urbanisation of informatics	High-tech	De-concentration of workplaces Standardised civilisation level New global city centres	Only in germinal form in the USA and in Japan

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Enyedi (2011)

The second stage of urbanisation is called **relative de-concentration**, characterised by qualitative growth. Along with the intensive growth of industry, infrastructure plays an important role. De-concentration means that the urban

population from the city centres moves to the suburbs, creating agglomerations. In addition, this stage is characterised by the formation of conurbations (like the Ruhr district in Germany or the cities on the eastern coast of the USA) and the strengthening of the network of small cities.

The third stage of urbanisation is called **de-urbanisation** or **counter-urbanisation,** which describes post-industrialism. The emphasis in this stage is on rural areas, which goes together with a decrease of the rate of urban population. This trend is mainly due to technical development in services or research and development. People working in these sectors often do telework, which makes it possible to live outside city centres. Therefore suburbanisation is typical in this period. This stage can be found in its well-developed form in the USA, but it has also begun in other developed countries like the United Kingdom or Japan.

The last stage of urbanisation in Enyedi's (2011) model is **re-urbanisation** or the **urbanisation of informatics**, which describes a new, postmodern development. With the help of the information society, differentiation of the living area ceases. New types of urban-rural relationships come into being. Two ways of development can be distinguished in this stage:

- continuing de-concentration: where local processes influenced by small organisations strengthen. Different types of development can begin from different regions. Development does not necessarily start from the same region or innovation centre. The spatial movement of development centres fastens and new functions of rural areas are created. This stage is accomplished through the practical application of sustainable development.
- re-strengthening of centralisation, accompanied by conurbation and gentrification. The latter is a process describing the movement of the middle class back to the city centres as a result of urban development and reconstruction. The globalisation of capital and production strengthens. Decision making is concentrated in some big cities, where city centres are reconstructed. Enyedi (2011) argues that even if the reconstruction of city centres takes place, they do not function as living areas any more, but as entertainment centres or business districts.

3.3.3. European urbanisation processes

The statistical data collection about cities in the European Union is called Urban Audit. It collects data about the quality of life and about how inhabitants feel in the cities. In 1999, data were collected in 59 cities for 450 variables. The data collection carried out in 2003 and 2004 examined 250 cities. In 2006-2007, Norway and Switzerland were also included in the data collection in addition to the EU and 300 cities in all were examined. In 2007, based on the 75 cities examined, the typology of cities was defined: international hubs, specialised poles and regional poles (Fig. 22).

International hubs are international centres with pan-European or global influence that can be knowledge hubs, established capitals or re-invented capitals (cities that have become the engines of the economy in transitional countries since the end of communism). Due to their size, these cities play a determining role in many fields of the economy. Specified poles play an internationally important role in one or more segments of the urban economy. They can be national service hubs, transformation poles, gateways, modern industrial centres, research centres or visitor centres. Regional poles are the main pillars of the European regional economy of the past,

present and future. De-industrialised cities, regional market centres, regional public service centres and satellite towns belong among regional poles (European Commission 2007).

The main characteristics of urban life based on the results of Urban Audits are the following:

1. Going to work – although it is not true for everybody and everywhere. In the Mediterranean countries for example, the female employment rate is very low (less than 30%). Besides, the unemployment rate increases in the cities. In 2001, the urban unemployment rate was higher than the national average in two thirds of the cities examined. Permanent unemployment (lasting for more than a year) is the highest in Belgian cities, while in Eastern European countries and France it is mainly unemployment among the young that creates problems.
2. Living space per residence can be significantly different across Europe. In Western Europe, there are more than 30 cities where the living space per residence is more than 40 m^2, while in the eastern part of the EU, living space per residence is about 15-20 m^2.
3. Most of the inhabitants in cities live in flats or apartments that make up 77% of the total living area. Almost half of the dwellings are owned by the occupants, although there are important regional differences (the highest rates can be found in Hungary, Slovakia, Lithuania, Bulgaria and Romania). One person households can primarily be found in city centres, which can be accounted for the better availability of services.
4. Inhabitants in the cities usually have higher education levels than other European citizens. This helps in creating knowledge-based societies and in making a good use of their economic potentials.
5. As for the health status, cities are not the healthiest places in the world. The average life expectancy of urban male and female inhabitants is two years less than the average of the EU.
6. A further characteristic of urban life is the wide use of public transport. There are, however, significant differences between old and new member states. In Bratislava or Budapest, more than two out of three journeys to and from work are made by public transport, while 80% of the inhabitants go to work by car in the United Kingdom (European Commission 2007).

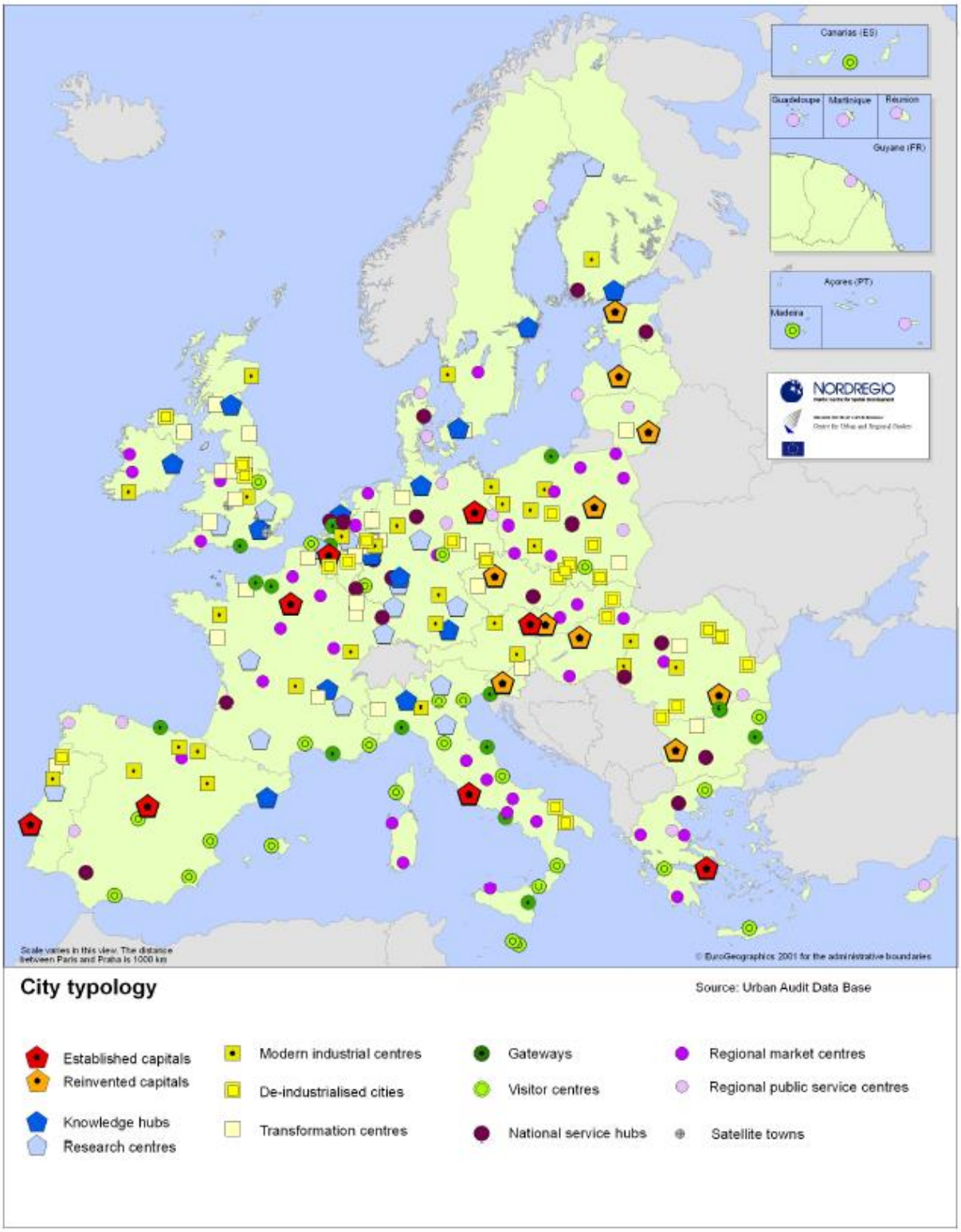


Figure 22: City typology in Europe
Source: European Commission (2007, p. 9)

The competitiveness and sustainability of the cities in Europe have become important issues. Besides taking into account environmental and economic aspects, sustainable urban development makes the achievement of social integration necessary. Social cohesion and sustainability, however, are endangered by gentrification processes. This phenomenon was first described in the 1960s in

England, where people belonging to the middle class moved to the worthless buildings of the city centres. This process changed the social composition of city centres on the one hand and contributed to the reconstruction of the buildings on the other.

Gentrification refers to two phenomena. On the one hand, it can lead to the total exclusion of working class from central districts. On the other, it can refer to the movement of high class inhabitants to the worthless quarters of the city centre. This latter process leads to the establishment of services to meet the needs of the higher class, while lower class members are excluded.

Although gentrification first appeared in developed countries, it can also be found in the big cities of the developing world today. The process is not standardised as it takes place in different wayy in different countries and cities because of the different local spatial structure specificities. In order to develop cities and to maintain their competitiveness, gentrification is often supported nowadays. This can imply either the complex renewal of the cities or relocation and exclusion (Colin 2004).

3.3. Spatial specificities of working culture and employment

The ageing population in Europe is a challenge not only for the financial potentials of public expenses and of pension systems, but also for the labour market. Because of the decreasing fertility rates, the number of the active decreases and life expectancy increases, which increases the number and the rate of the population outside working age, which again is an increasing burden for the employed.

3.3.1. Employment structure

Mainstream economics says that employers can be found on the demand side, while employees and potential workers are on the supply side of the labour market. Equilibrium on the labour market, i.e. the equality of the demand and the supply, occurs rarely. When demand is higher than supply, companies can find the necessary persons for vacancies with difficulty. When supply exceeds demand, which occurs more often in practice, unemployment or labour oversupply makes it difficult for the potential workers to find a job.

Disequilibrium can be global or structural. If it is global, disequilibrium can be found in the global labour market. **Global unemployment**, which occurs when supply exceeds demand, has three types:

- Chronic (or permanent) unemployment: when labour supply permanently exceeds labour demand.
- Cyclical unemployment: employment changes as a result of economic cycles – it typically drops in periods of recession.
- Seasonal (or temporary) unemployment: there is a regular over-supply of labour in certain periods of the year. It is typical in agriculture, the construction industry or tourism.

Structural disequilibrium refers to the state when oversupply and excess demand can simultaneously be found in the labour market. It arises because the economic and non-economic characteristics of the potential and actual workers may not

correspond with the demand; therefore job seekers cannot fill the positions open. Structural unemployment is a type of structural disequilibrium. Two different types can be distinguished:

- Voluntary (job-seeking or frictional) unemployment: the job-holder leaves their workplace for some reason and stays outside the labour market because the process of finding a new job takes longer or a job-seeker refuses a job in the hope of a better one in the future.
- Unemployment caused by discrimination: phenomenon caused by discriminating people on a racial, ethnical, religious, etc. basis.

The labour force is not homogenous. It can be structured according to a number of aspects (demographic, economic, etc.).

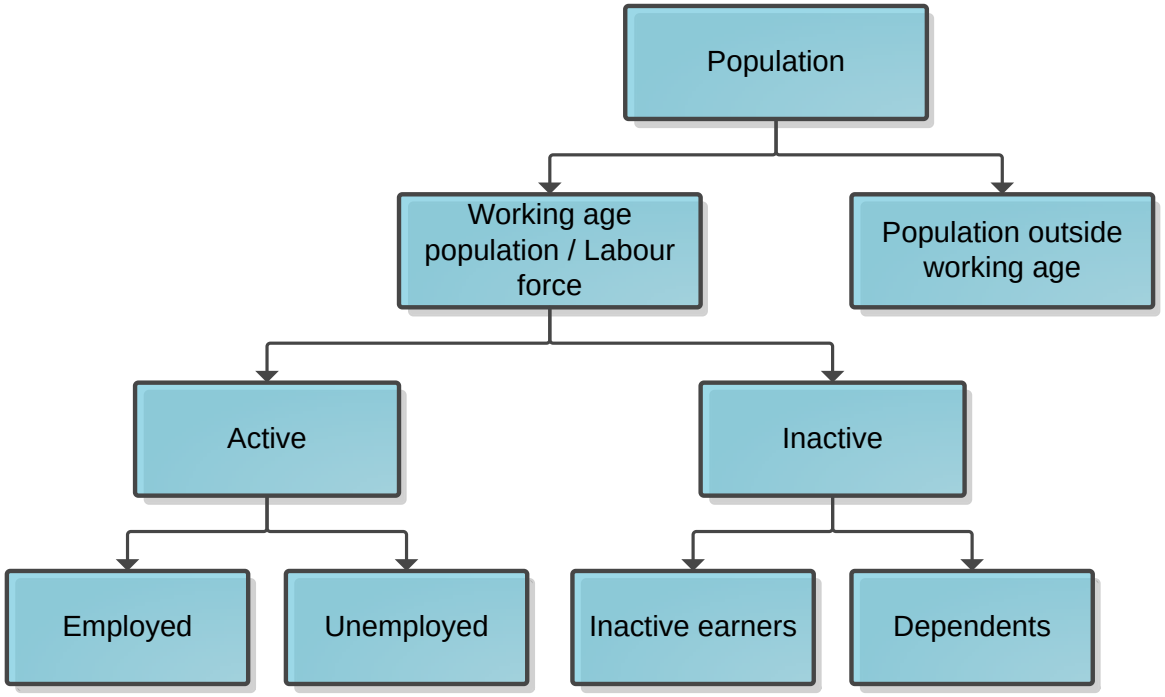


Figure 23: Labour market decomposition of the population
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Dabasi (2011, p. 17)

The two basic parts of the population are the labour force or the working age population and the population outside working age (Fig. 23). According to the ILO (International Labour Organisation) definition, working age lasts from 15 to 74 years. Based on the definition of the European Union, however, working age lasts from 15 to 64 years. The working age population includes the active and the inactive. The actives are made up of the employed and those who would like to work (the unemployed). The employed are those who have a job (they can be self-employed as well). The unemployed are those who do not have a job, but actively seek one.

The economically inactive do not work and do not look for a job. They use other ways to make a living. Some of them have their own income that has been inherited or acquired. Individuals on maternity leave belong to this group as well. The inactive without their own income are those whose living is supported by other individual(s) or institution(s). This group includes students older than 15 or other dependents (e.g. housewives) (Dabasi 2011).

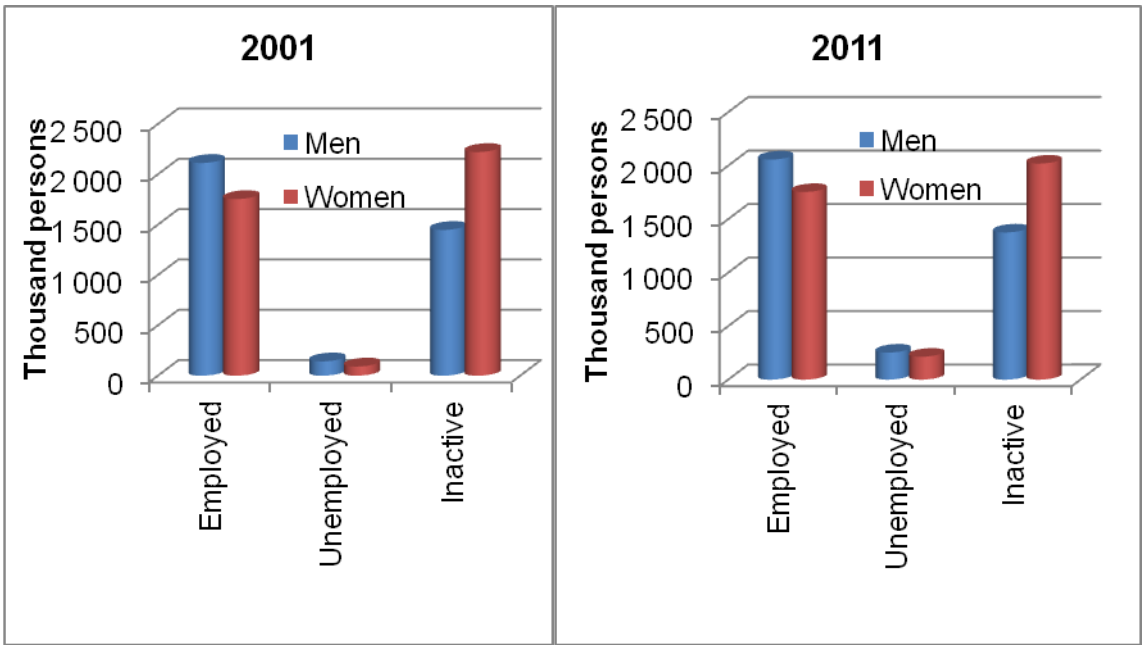


Figure 24: Composition of the working age population in Hungary in 2001 and 2011
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on the data of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

The number of the inactive, the employed and the unemployed in Hungary can be seen in Figure 24. There are more men among the employed and the unemployed, but more women among the inactive. The reason is that a higher rate of women does not work and does not want to work either. From 2001 to 2011, the number of women employed changed slightly and the number of men employed decreased only a little. The number of the unemployed, however, increased for both genders (by 78% for men and by 134% for women). The number of the inactive decreased only slightly.

3.3.2. Labour market rates

With the help of labour market rates, the specificities and the potential problems of labour markets can be revealed.

- The **activity rate** expresses the rate of the active in the working age population.

$$\text{Activity rate (\%)} = \frac{\text{Number of the actives}}{\text{Working age population}} \cdot 100$$

The activity rate is influenced by many factors. In younger societies, where the rate of students and the rate of mothers with babies are relatively high, the activity rate can be lower. Besides demographic factors, cultural and social components also affect the activity rate. With the expansion of higher education in developed countries, young adults study for a longer time, which also increases the rate of the inactive. There are, however, cultures (e.g. Islamic culture) where female employment is restricted by tradition and the majority of the women belong to the inactive.

There are differences among the main regions of Europe (Fig. 25) in terms of male and female employment. The activity rate is the lowest for both genders in Southern Europe and it increases towards Northern Europe. Regional differences are greater for women than for men.

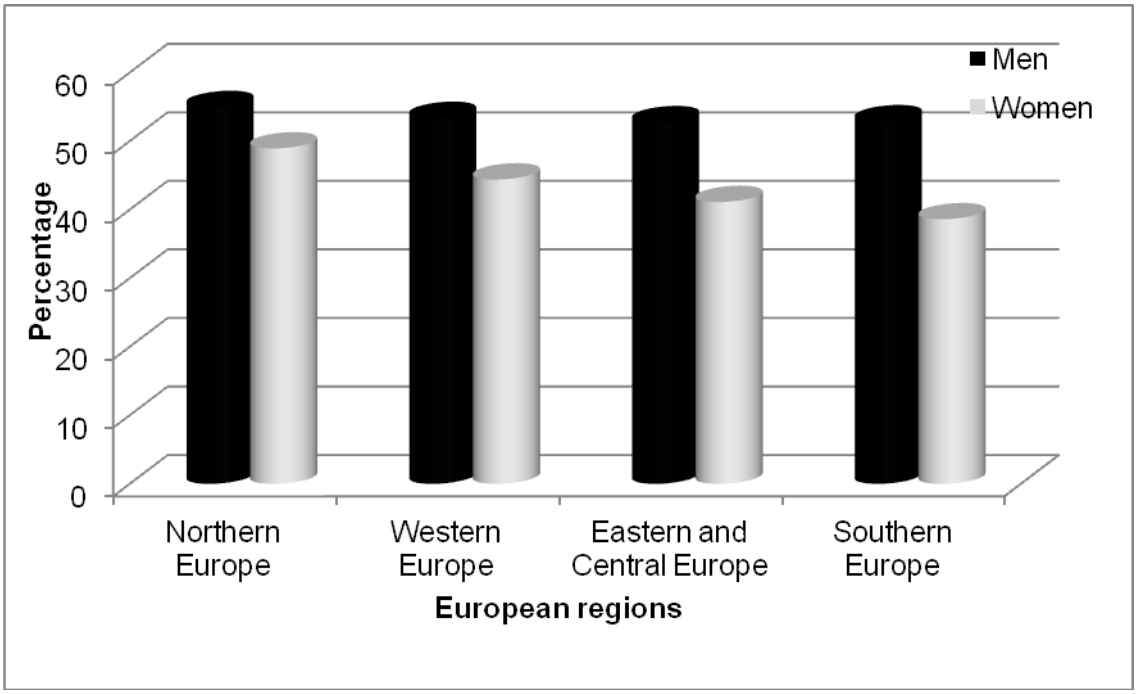


Figure 25: Rate of the economically active compared to the total male and female population in the European Union, %, 2012
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

Legal factors can also influence the value of the rate as legal tools define the limits of working age and the retirement age. An increase in retirement age increases the labour force, which, because age-related health problems can increase the number of disability pensioners, can lead to an increasing number and rate of the inactive.

- The **employment rate** expresses the rate of the employed in the working age population.

$$\text{Employment rate } (\%) = \frac{\text{Number of the employed}}{\text{Working age population}} \cdot 100$$

- The **unemployment rate** refers to the rate of the unemployed compared to the number of the active.

$$\text{Unemployment rate } (\%) = \frac{\text{Number of the unemployed}}{\text{Number of the active}} \cdot 100$$

3.3.3. Labour market trends in Europe

At the beginning of the 20th century, significant changes took place in the economy of Europe: due to the decreasing importance of agriculture and industry, the tertiary sector became more significant. Moreover, the spread of female

employment also generated important changes in Europe. In the first half of the century, the rate of the employed increased to a significant extent.

In the early 1990s, however, the European labour market had to face serious problems as employment worsened and unemployment increased. From 1994, the labour market started to strengthen. This improvement, however, did not last for long as in 2000, the process of creating new jobs stopped. The increase in employment slowed down. The countries that joined the EU in 2004 worsened the labour market position of the EU (Tomka 2009).

The two disadvantaged groups in the labour market are women and the elderly. Activity and employment rates are different for the two genders in Europe, but gender differences have decreased gradually. Employment of the elderly, however, has been really low compared to that in the USA or Japan. This is a double burden for Europe: on the one hand, the experience and knowledge of the elderly is not utilised in the labour market and the rate of dependents increases with retirement on the other.

A potential answer to these challenges was the Lisbon Strategy in 2000, which aims at making the EU "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion" by 2010 (European Union Parliament Website). The Lisbon Strategy includes numeric targets to be reached by 2010 in the field of reforms to improve competitiveness, in research – development – innovation and IT, in employment and training, in social cohesion and in the protection of natural environment (Gács 2005).

Table 8: Lisbon and Europe 2020 targets and their realisation

Indices	**2005**		**2010**		**2020**
	Target (population 15-64)	**Fact (population 15-64)**	**Target (population 15-64)**	**Fact (population 15-64)**	**Target (population 20-64)**
Employment rate	67	63.9	70	64.1	75
Female employment rate	57	56.4	60	58.2	75
Elderly (55+) employment rate	-	42.6	50	46.3	-

Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

Targets in employment policy for 2005 and 2010 refer to employment rates of the whole population, of women and of the elderly (55-64 years) (see Table 8). As for the increase of education, the Strategy aimed at decreasing the rate of those who have at most lower secondary qualification among the 18-24 age group by 50% by 2010 and at propagating the culture of life-long learning with the help of the social partners (Gács 2005).

As for the realisation, the labour market targets were not met at the European level. Some countries, however, were able reach them. The total employment rate reached its target value in the Netherlands (74.7%), Denmark (73.3%), Sweden (70.5%), Austria (71.7%) and Germany (71.1%) (Fig. 26). The elderly employment rate reached the target value in nine countries (Sweden, Denmark, Germany, United Kingdom, Cyprus, Finland, Estonia, Netherlands, and Ireland) of the EU (Fig. 27).

The female employment rate (Fig. 28) reached the 60% target value in 11 member states. The highest values were found in Denmark (71.7%) and Sweden (70.3%).

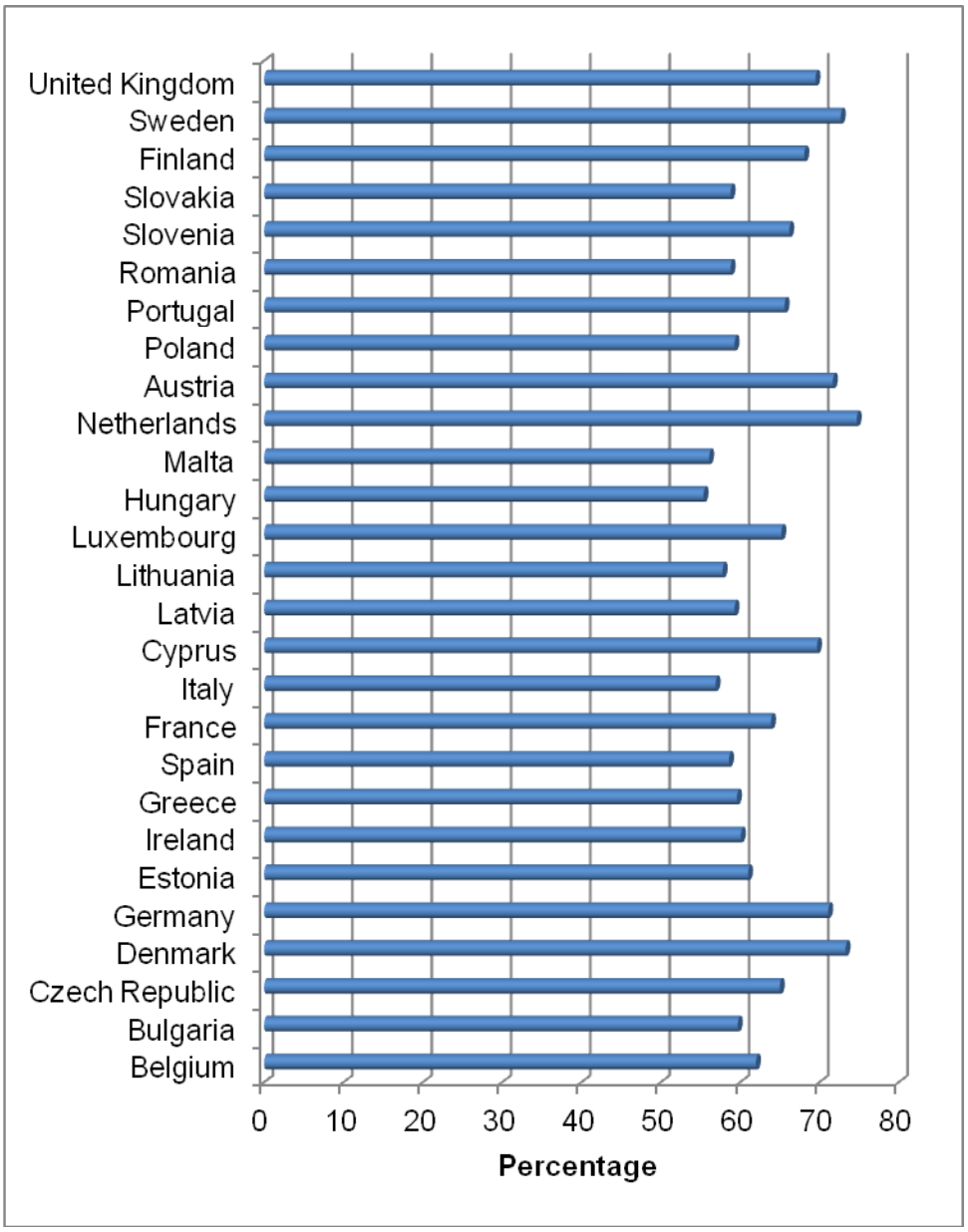


Figure 26: Employment rate of EU countries, %, 2010
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

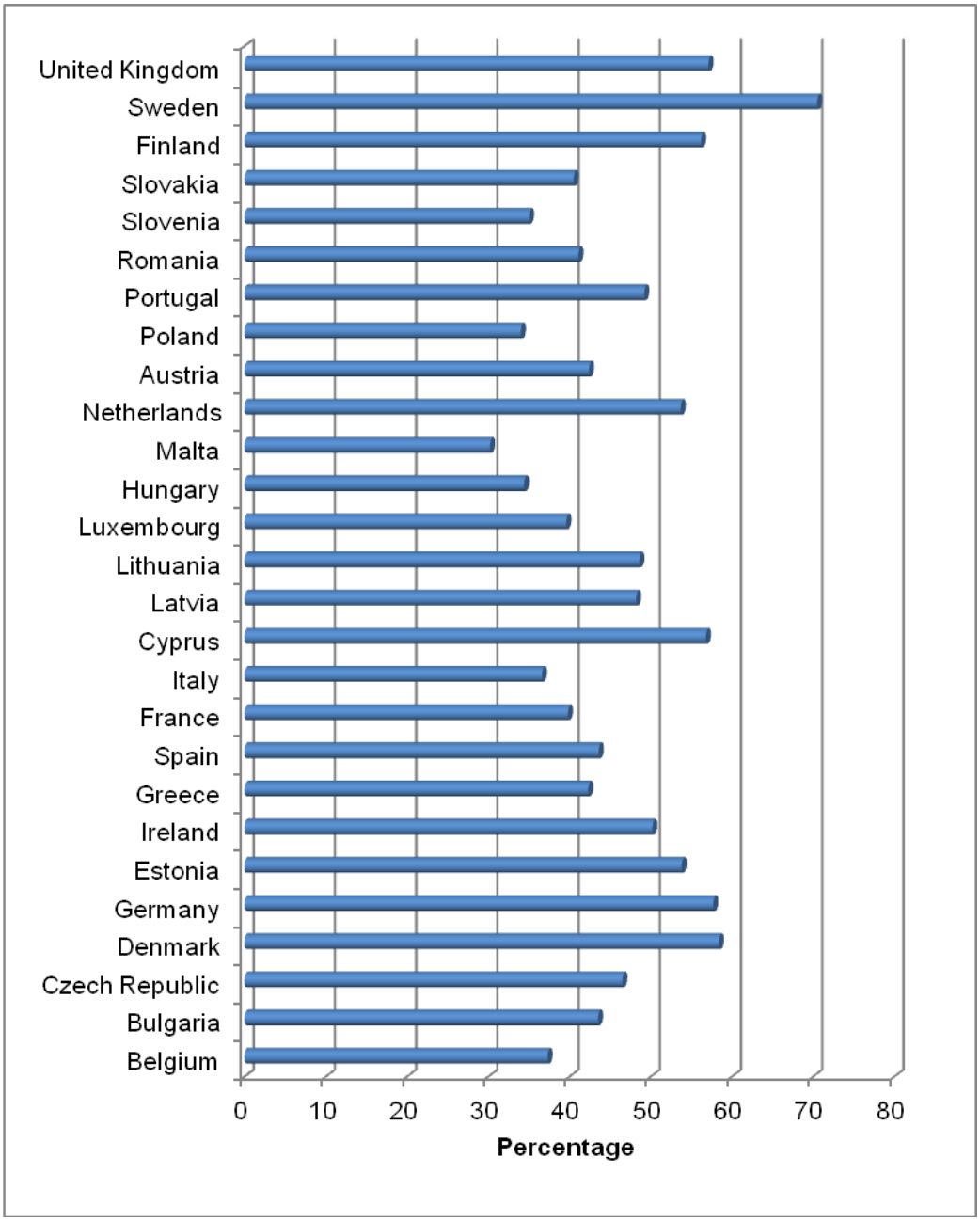


Figure 27: Elderly employment rate in EU countries, %, 2010
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

The Lisbon Strategy on the whole had a positive effect in the EU in spite of the fact that its most important targets were not met at Union level. An undoubted merit of the strategy is that the employment rates increased in most of the member states between 2000 and 2010 in spite of the economic crisis.

The EU worked out another strategy in 2010, called Europe 2020. In its framework, improvement is desired in the fields of employment, innovation, education, social inclusion, climate and energy policy. The employment rate in the 20-64 population should reach 75% by 2020 (www.eur-lex.europa.eu).

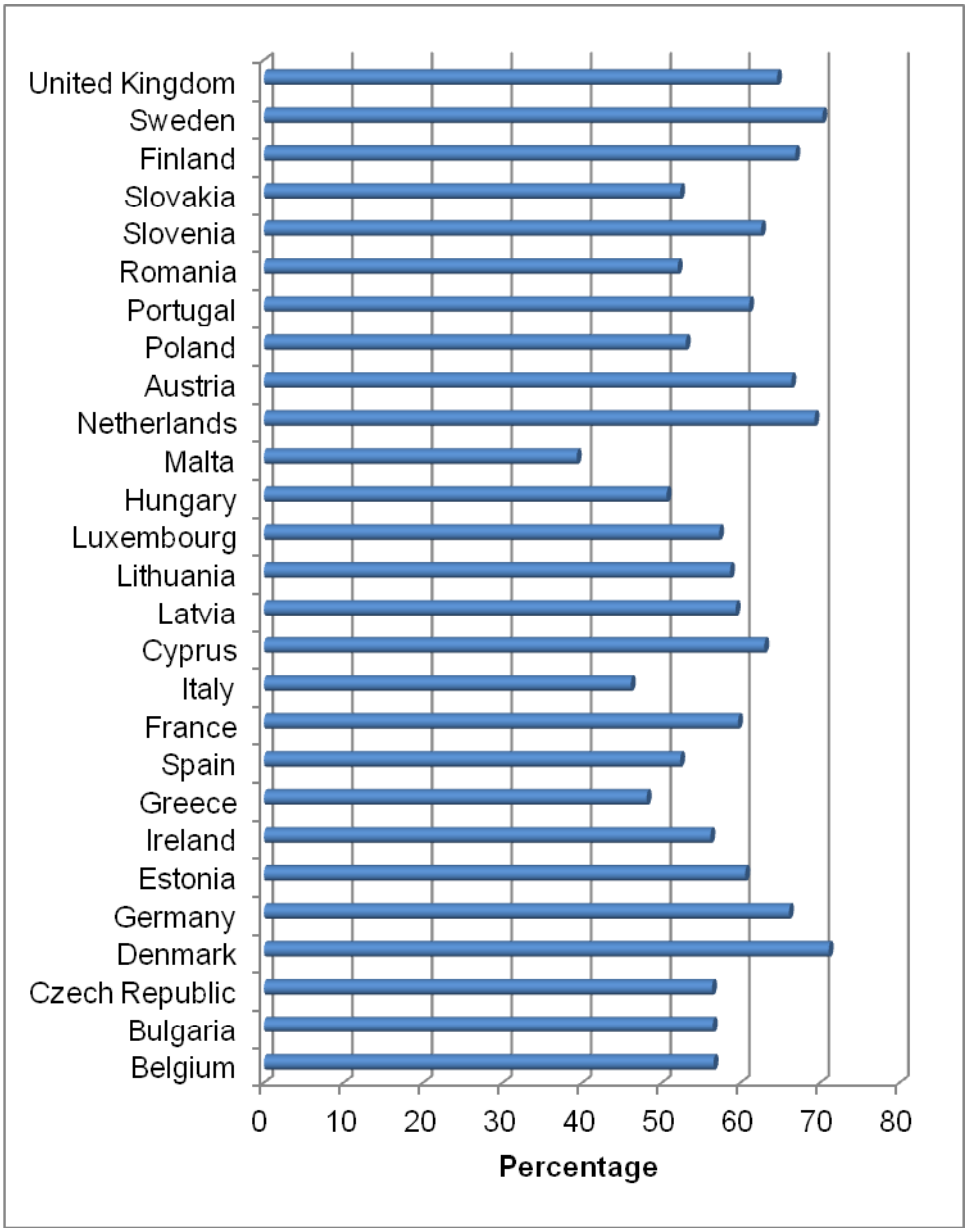


Figure 28: Female employment rate in EU countries, %, 2010
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

A critical issue in the labour market of Europe is the ageing population, which decreases the working age population and the number of the employed. In comparison with the two other developed regions of the world (Japan and the USA), the employment rate is the lowest in the EU (see Fig. 29). Even if the employment rate of the USA has decreased significantly since 2007 and therefore become lower than that of Japan, it is still higher than the employment rate in the EU.

The number of the unemployed was the highest in 1994 in the EU. In 2012, the average unemployment rate was 10.5%. The countries with the highest unemployment are Spain and Greece, where the unemployment rate is around 24-25% (Eurostat data). The Hungarian unemployment can be found at around the European average. It does not, however, imply that employment is high here. In fact, the low unemployment is due to high inactivity, which is not reflected in the unemployment rate.

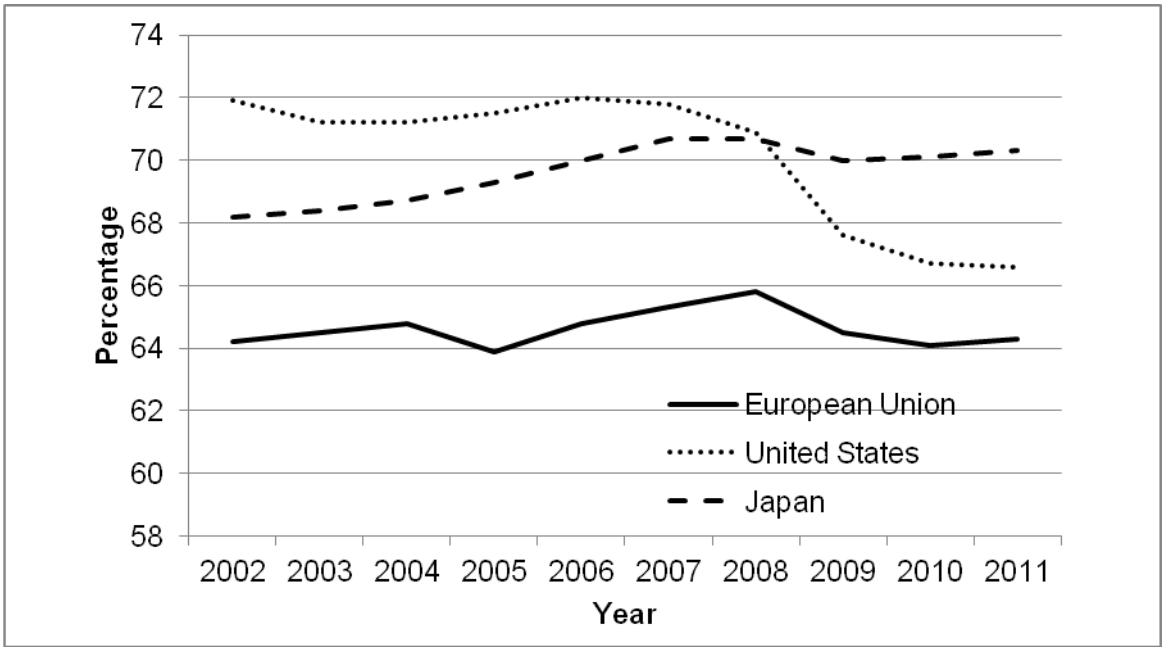


Figure 29: Employment rate in the most developed regions of the world, 2002-2011, %
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

Tasks

1. What do you think about the effect of globalisation on culture? Is it an advantage or a disadvantage?
2. Based on Eurostat data, examine the effect of the economic crisis on the employment of Europe.
   (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database)
3. Describe the main characteristics of the following nationalities based on the following citation (Csereklyei 2001, p.1): “Heaven is a place where cooks are French, operators are German, policemen are English, husbands are Italian and everything is organised by the Swiss. Hell is a place where policemen are German, operators are French, cooks are English, husbands are Swiss and everything is organised by the Italian.”
   - French
   - German
   - English
   - Italian
   - Swiss
4. Describe the differences among 15-year-old students of European countries in the competencies in
   - reading
   - mathematics
   - science

   based on PISA studies (http://www.oecd.org/pisa/).

4. Social organisations and subsidiarity

Society is made up of organisations of different levels. At the lowest, micro level, family and neighbourhood, while at the highest, macro level, nations and supranational organisations can be found. Between them lie mezzo level organisations of the society (such as civil organisations, communities and regional communities) (Fig. 30).

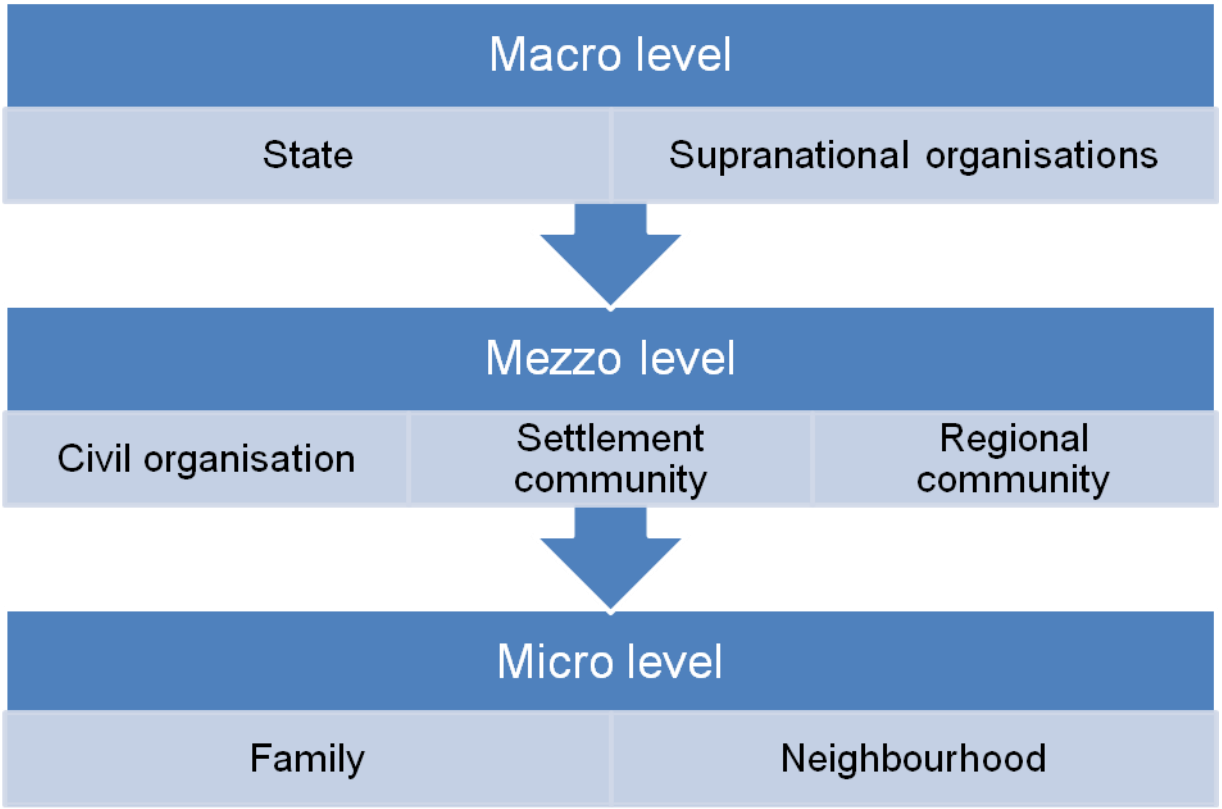


Figure 30: Levels and types of the organisations of the society
Compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

This chapter deals with the space-creating and space-modifying roles of social organisations and the factors influencing these processes. The organisations of the society are overviewed starting from the smallest, the family and the neighbourhood. We examine the process and conditions of the formation of these organisations and the factors that influence their role in territorial processes.

When talking about the levels of social organisations, the question arises about the desired and most efficient level of decision making. In this question, the principle of subsidiarity has an important role, which was first referred to at the end of the 19th century by Pope Leo XIII (1891) in his encyclical letter Rerum Novarum (Paragraphs 28-29). He said that the state should leave as much independence as possible for the family to work, with the exception of public properties and other rights. Nevertheless, government should take care of the society and its components. The principle of subsidiarity was first mentioned by Pope Pius IX (1931) in his encyclical letter Quadragesimo Anno. He stated that governments should undertake initiatives

that exceed the capacity of individuals or small groups of individuals. The role of the state should be as local as possible.

Today, subsidiarity is an important principle of the European Union. Even if it has been present in public awareness since the beginning of the 1970s, it was first defined in the Single European Act in relation to environmental aspects. It has become one of the fundamental principles of the EU with the Treaty of Maastricht. Article 5 of the Treaty of the European Union says that “in areas which do not fall within its exclusive competence, the Union shall act only if and in so far as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States, either at central level or at regional and local level, but can rather, by reason of the scale or effects of the proposed action, be better achieved at Union level”.

4.1. Basic elements of the society: the family

One of the smallest elements of society and an important social organisation is the **family**. In a sociological sense, the family is a community of persons or the relationship among several communities the members of which are related by blood (sometimes by adoption) or by marriage. Family members usually have similar characteristics (they usually belong to the same race). Statistically, family only includes parents and their non-married children who live with them. The types of the statistical family are: married couple, married couple with child(ren) and a parent with child(ren) (Andorka 2006). The family has several functions:

- production – some kind of production, such as agriculture or small-scale industry can be realised within the family;
- consumption – in developed countries, an increasing rate of consumption is realised outside the family (e.g. work meal);
- reproduction – having children and therefore ensuring the future of mankind;
- psychological protection of the adults; and
- socialisation of the children.

In modern societies, the economic role (production and consumption) of the family has decreased, while its emotional function has strengthened as mankind has a great need for the emotional stability ensured by the family in our alienated world (Andorka 2006).

Traditionally, a family is based on the marriage of a man and a woman. Recently, however, other types of living, like living as 'singles', 'living apart together' or cohabitation have become common patterns as well. The last one has become the most common lately and can be an alternative to marriage. Most people consider cohabitation to be a way of living together before getting married. Many people consider it to be an ideal way of living together in Germany (17.7%), the Netherlands (10%) and Estonia (10%). More than half of the population consider cohabitation to be a way of living together before getting married in the Netherlands and Germany, while most people do not consider it necessary before getting married in Poland, Italy or Slovenia (Fig. 31).

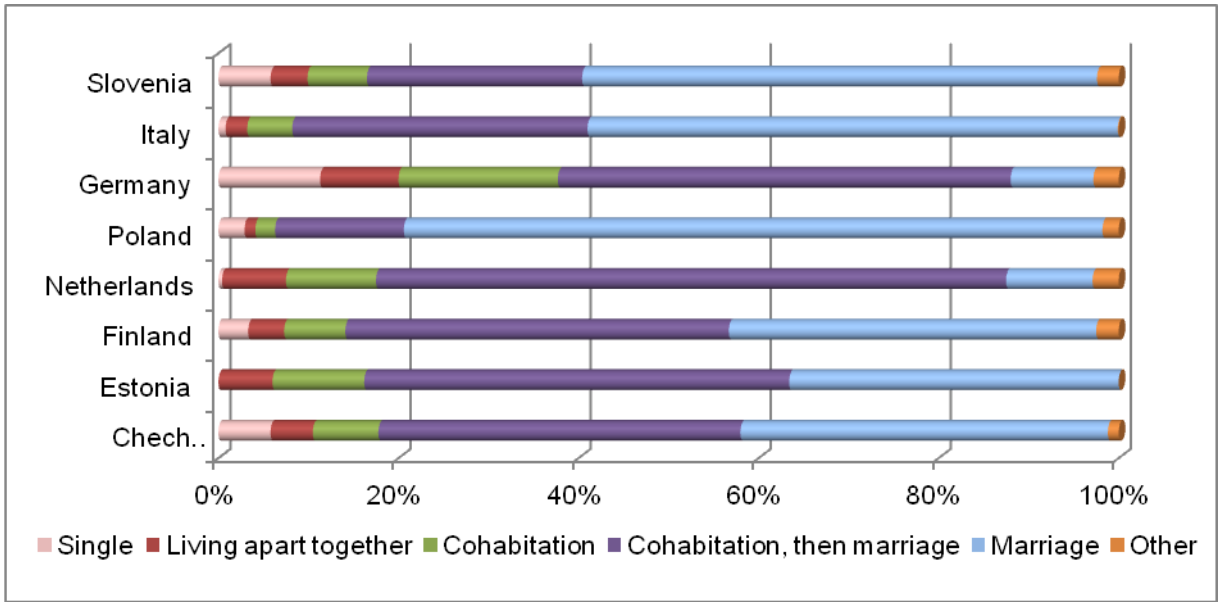


Figure 31: Ideal ways of living in some countries of Europe among women 20-34, 2001-2003
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Spéder (2005, p. 9)

There are significant differences among the regions of Europe as for how long the young live with their parents and when they start their independent life. Because of the different welfare states, the different ways to get an accommodation, the different structure of the labour market and the different cultural traditions, the young leave the parental home later in southern Europe and sooner in northern Europe (Billari – Wilson 2001). In post-socialist countries, the young usually left their parents as late as in southern Europe before the end of communism. By the 2000s, however, the trend of living with the parents after getting married and after having babies has become significant as well. The reason for this is the substantial financial burden of acquiring an apartment (Spéder 2005).

Nowadays divorces and remarriages have become more and more common throughout Europe. These changes affect the life of the children as well as they are often forced to live in a household with one parent. There are, however, regional differences in this as well. While the rate of children living in a household with one parent is low (3-6%) in southern Europe, this rate is more than 20% in Estonia or the Czech Republic. It is also high (around 20%) in post-socialist countries, except for Romania (9%) and Hungary (12%) (Spéder 2005).

4.2. Spatial communities

4.2.1. Neighbourhoods

A **neighbourhood** is a community within a city or a district, the members of which often have personal contact with each other. They are often formed by the social contacts of individuals living close to each other. Therefore a neighbourhood is a local social entity that is bigger than a household and is not under the direct control of the city or the state. According to some preindustrial urban traditions, certain basic local governmental functions like protection, social control of births and deaths,

cleaning or maintenance are carried out by neighbourhoods instead of local municipalities (Schuck – Rosenbaum 2006).

Neighbourhoods have the following benefits:

- neighbourhoods are widespread as most city inhabitants believe that they belong to some neighbourhood;
- neighbourhoods are convenient and available as leaving our home, we enter the neighbourhood;
- successful neighbourhood actions usually require little specialised knowledge or money. Instead, they require time;
- neighbourhood actions (e.g. cleaning the streets or planting trees) can be carried out faster and are more spectacular than actions of a greater scale;
- spectacular and fast results are the indices of success that increases the chance of organising and realising other neighbourhood actions;
- the realisation of neighbourhood actions usually requires the cooperation of several individuals, which strengthens the relationships between individuals and neighbourhoods;
- neighbourhood actions are a pleasant and useful time for participants;
- strong and converging neighbourhoods decrease the number of crimes and improve the general physical and mental health status. Strong social support can provide efficient protection against unexpected disasters of life (Schuck – Rosenbaum 2006).

4.2.2. Settlement communities

The social organisation at the next lower level is the **settlement**. When defining it, Mendöl (1963) put emphasis on the combination of residential and working areas. He argues that a settlement includes the residential area, the workplace and the road and space network connecting them. The quality and importance of employment opportunities define the importance and further development of the settlement. A residential area is the place where individuals or groups of individuals have settled to protect their physical health and material goods, while a workplace is a place where individuals carry out some activities to meet their needs. The definition of Mendöl (1963) is not appropriate for many of the settlements today. The unity of residential area and workplace is not always achieved partly because of the increasing rate of commuters, and partly because of atypical forms such as telework. Beluszky (1999) defined settlements in a functional way: it is the functional unit of facilities (residential areas, workplaces, leisure facilities, service institutions, etc.) that is used by a group of individuals and that aims at a wider social reproduction. This definition can be better applied to current settlements as it defines settlements as a functional unit, not as a geographic one.

Tóth (2002) worked out the system definition of settlements. A settlement is a system of economic, social, natural and technical structures that are in intensive interaction. The relationship between these structures is similar to the relationship of the four faces of a tetrahedron (Fig. 32). The four structures are interdependent and they should be taken into account with the same weight when examining settlements.

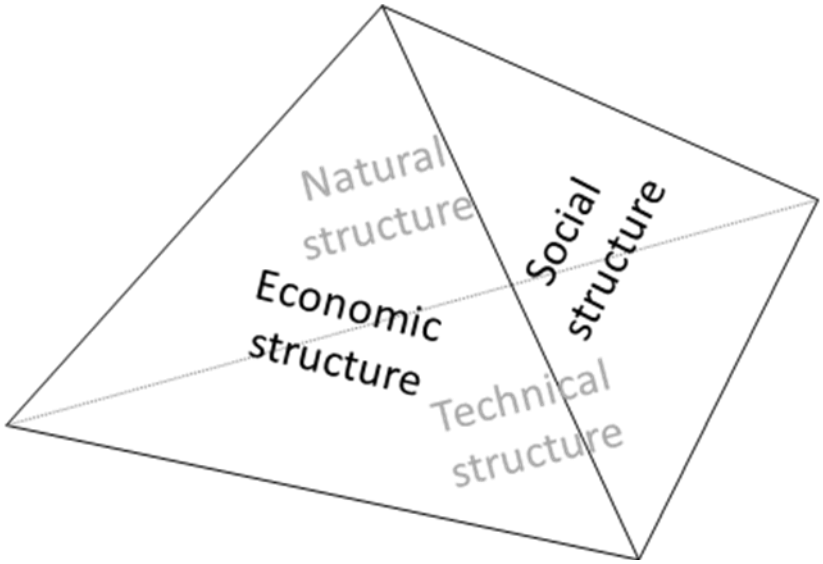


Figure 32: Tetrahedron model of settlement based on Tóth's (2002) definition
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori

According to a further definition, a settlement is a permanently or temporarily populated area, which includes residential buildings, buildings with economic purposes and other facilities (roads, bridges or squares) belonging to them. The settlement meets the (physical and mental) needs of the inhabitants on the one hand and reflects the past, present, economic and social structures and the culture of the inhabitants on the other (Kovács 2007).

Population is not randomly distributed in space, but its distribution can be described by some law or principle.

Experts have long been debating about how the spatial distribution of the population can be best described. In the first half of the 20th century, several theories were worked out to describe the spatial structure of big cities. What they have in common is that they all assume that natural and artificial environments have an effect on the forms of human organisations.

Burgess (1929) worked out his **concentric zone model** based on an examination of the city of Chicago. The assumption of his model is that the city has new concentric rings around it as it grows and that these rings have different social characteristics (Fig. 33). The social status of the inhabitants increases from the very centre of the city towards the peripheries. Five different rings that are situated as concentric circles can be distinguished.

The very centre is the central business district (CBD), where primarily offices, stores, shops and branches of banks can be found. Residential population is minimal. People usually come here to work or to entertain. Around the core, the industrial zone can be found, where store-houses, business premises and living quarters can be found. The quality of the buildings is very low; therefore mainly people belonging to lower social classes live here. The next ring is called the working class housing ring, which has two sub-rings: the blue-collar workers zone and the middle class zone. Buildings here are in a medium quality. The availability of workplaces is very important for the inhabitants as they use public transport in most cases. The next zone is the high class housing ring, where apartments with high rents can be found. This zone is followed by the commuter zone. The long distance between the workplace and the living area is not a problem for the inhabitants as they usually travel by car (Burgess 1929).

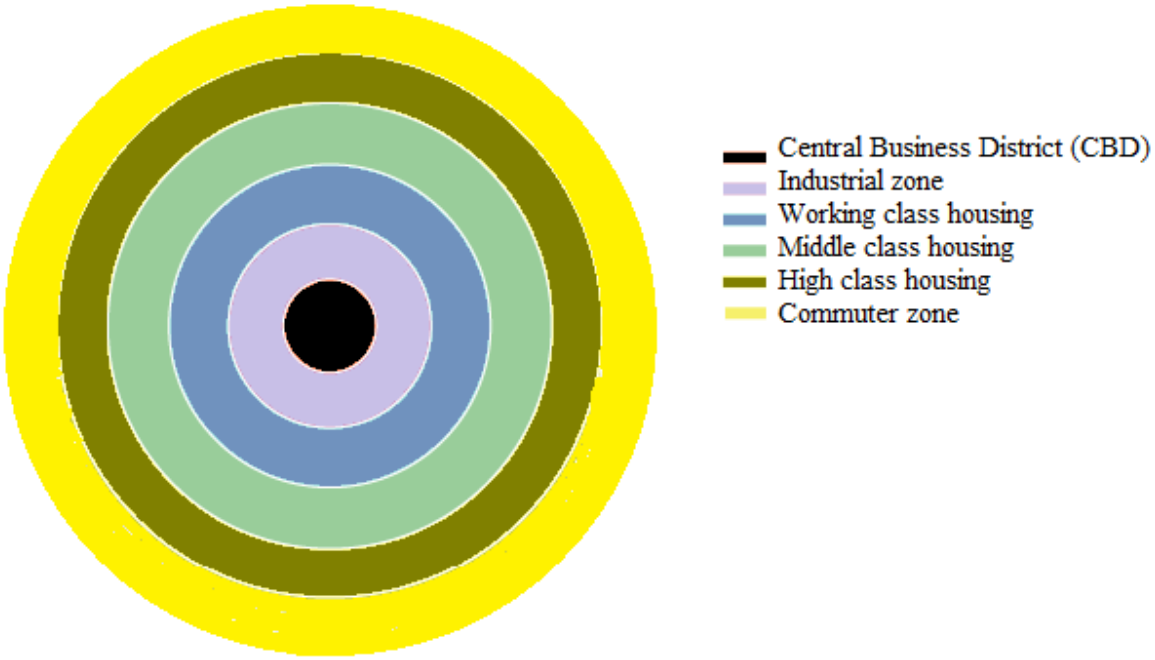


Figure 33: Concentric zone model
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on S. Nagy (2007, p. 105)

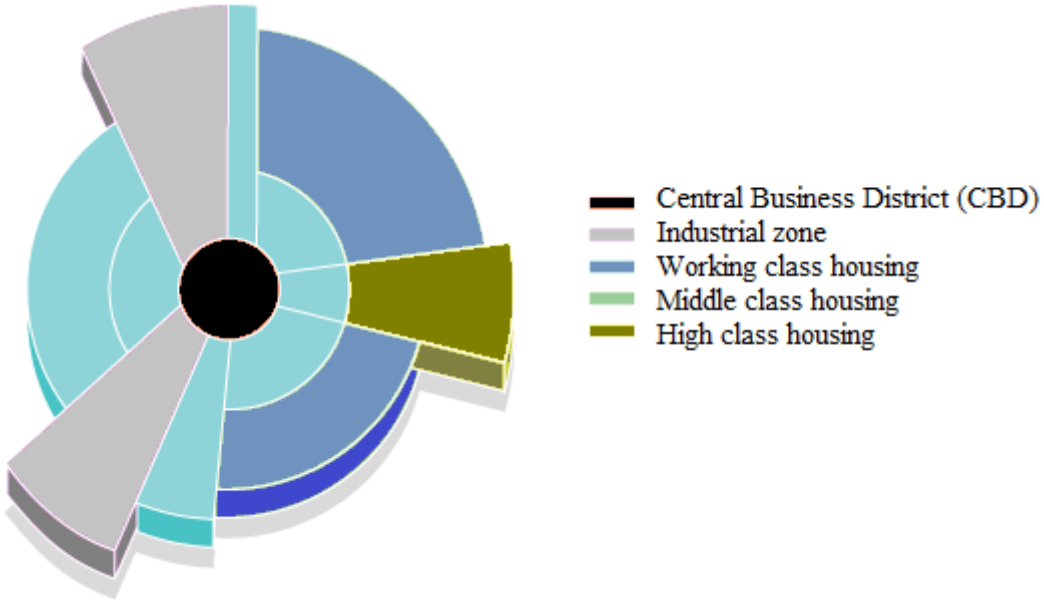


Figure 34: Sector model
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on S. Nagy (2007, p. 105)

Hoyt (1939) worked out his **sector model** based on a study of the spatial structure of 30 northern American cities. He examined real estate prices and rents and concluded that zones expand outward from the core (Fig. 34). City growth begins with the growth of the high rental zone and the growth of the other zones follows it. The sectors are separated from each other by railroads, highways or other transportation arteries.

The third model that examines the spatial structure of big cities is the **multiple nuclei model** elaborated by Harris and Ullmann. They argued that the structure of the city is not made up by concentric circles or sectors, but by nodes as a given function can often be found in several points of the city (Fig. 35). The appearance of a given function depends on its attraction (e.g. commercial institutions and their clients) or repulsion towards other functions (e.g. residential areas and heavy industrial zones) (S. Nagy 2007).

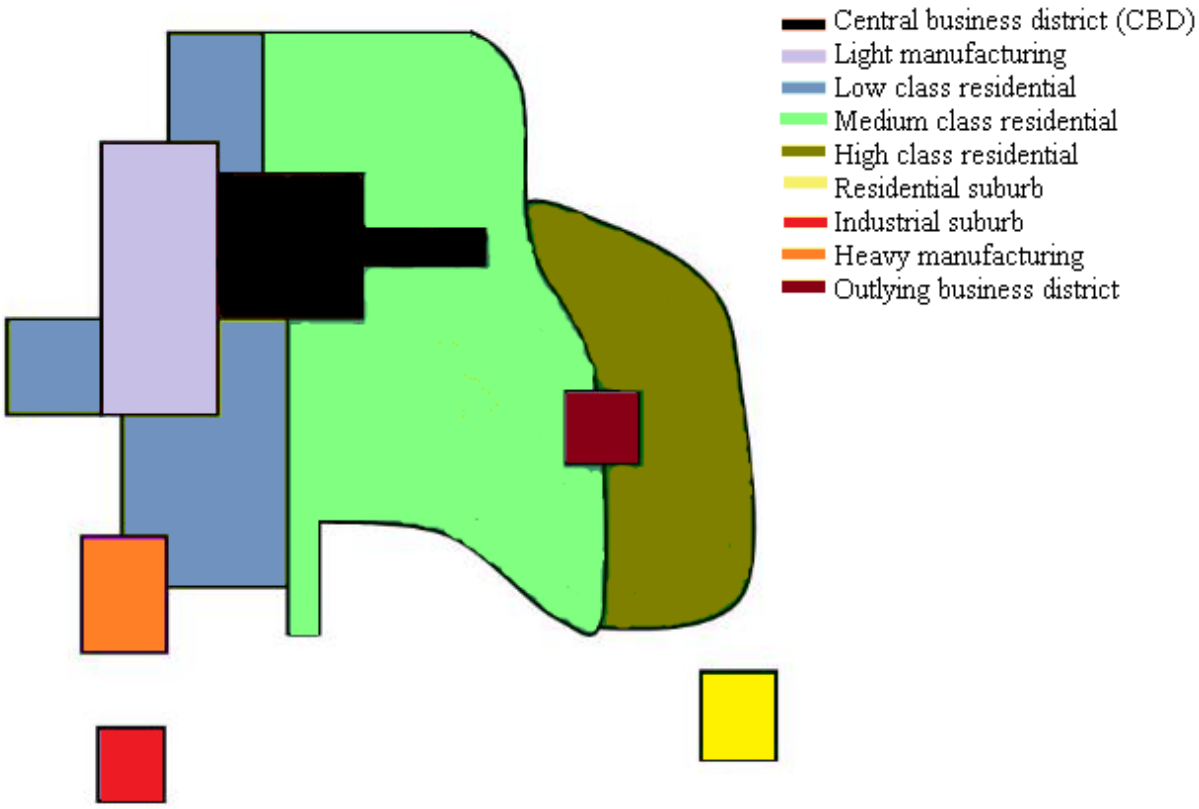


Figure 35: Multiple nuclei model
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on S. Nagy (2007, p. 105)

After World War II, the three spatial structure models of the Chicago School presented above were criticised from many aspects. The main reasons for criticism are:

- the spatial structure of cities is not determined exclusively by spontaneous processes, but also by conscious city planning and architecture;
- suburbanisation, outskirts and agglomerations play an increasingly important role in urbanisation processes, resulting in several centres in the cities (Lichtenberger 1986).

4.2.3. Regions

The territorial level below central government (to be dealt with later) is the level of **regions**. '**Small region'** is the part of the geographic space that is transparent for most of the population living there and where

- settlement communities are tightly linked by horizontal connections based on a common past, the common characteristics of their culture, their

belonging to the same geographic unit, their functional (economic, human service, infrastructural and communal) interdependence and intensive communication and by their common interest and regional identity and

- other settlements cannot be linked to them on the same basis" (G. Fekete – Bodolai 1995, p. 11).

Within the European Union, a statistical small region, of NUTS 4 level, is the unit of statistical data collection and the territorial unit of planning and development.

At the next level of social organisation, **small areas** can be found. This is the territorial unit with an individual character that was formed as a result of the interdependence between nature and the society (Győri ...). It is a territorial unit that has been characterised by permanent cultural, social, economic and ecologic specificities and therefore has been separate from its surrounding (Kósa 1998).

In most of the countries, the territorial level below the state is made up by regions. In spite of globalisation, the territorial, local level is not negligible as taking into account local specificities in the economy can be a source of considerable competitive advantage. Regional identity expresses the need for belonging somewhere (the social component in Maslow's hierarchy of human needs). It means that inhabitants identify with the culture, social structure and landmarks of the region. Regional identity has three dimensions:

- strategic identity expresses whether the inhabitants have a long-term plan for the future of the region.
- cultural identity is the common consciousness of the inhabitants, the feeling of belonging. Its main elements are the name, the arms, logos or other symbols expressing the unity of the region.
- functional identity refers to the economic and social connections.

The three dimensions of regional identity are closely related as cultural and functional identities contribute to the formation of strategy and have an effect on the strategic ways of the future (Lukovics 2004).

4.3. State

Among the organisations of society, the state is at one of the highest levels. This chapter deals with the organisation of the state and with the principle of subsidiarity.

In a country, the state represents power and it is the sum of the main public authorities and bodies. Within the state, several branches of power can be distinguished: legislation, jurisdiction, the government as executive or municipalities as local power institutions. The relation of the different social groups to power depends on the form of the state (whether it is a republic, a monarchy or a theocratic monarchy). The relations among legislation, jurisdiction and execution as well as the institutional system are expressed by the form of government (parliamentary or presidential democracy or dictatorship).

Based on the state structure and the autonomy of the regions within the country, states can be unitary or federal. Confederations of states (such as the Commonwealth of Independent States or the second and the third pillars of the EU) are the third type of state structure.

Two out of three states today are unitary as shown by a unitary state structure. In classic unitary states (e.g. Ireland or Greece), government is unitary and centralised and the independence of the regions is limited. The autonomy of regions, if any, exists by the sufferance of the central government and can be unilaterally revoked. In

decentralised unitary states (e.g. the Netherlands or Portugal), self-governing regions have a wider autonomy. Municipalities can work independently of the central government. The third type of unitary states includes devolution unitary states (e.g. the United Kingdom), where regions have autonomy only in certain fields. In regionalised unitary states (e.g. Spain), regions have a significant autonomy and they operate by means of elected officers (Brachinger 2004).

There are less than 30 federal states (e.g. the USA, Canada, Mexico, Switzerland or the first pillar of the EU) in the world today, but these countries occupy more than half of the surface of the Earth. Federations can be formed for many reasons. The USA was established as a union of already existing, strong states by deciding on the formation of a central government with power in certain fields. In Russia, the reason for federation is the large total area that would be impossible to govern efficiently by a central government. In India, however, establishing a federation had the aim to form a unified state of the different ethnic, language and religious groups. In Germany, the reason for federation is to avoid the formation of an extremely strong central government (Gallai – Török 2005).

4.4. Civil society

Besides the state and the private sector, civil society is another basic pillar of democracy. According to Kuti (1998, p. 4) “a modern civil society is made up of the different forms of civil initiatives and self-organisations and is made to work by a legal system that guarantees basic human rights and respects social diversity. Non-profit organisations create connections between the state and its citizens and between economic authorities and the citizens. They serve as tools to reveal and meet the different social needs, they strengthen pluralism and create the mechanisms for social control by the government and the private sector.” To ensure the good and efficient operation of the civil society,

- democracy;
- enforcement of human and minority rights;
- civil virtues such as tolerance, voluntarism, trust, reliability, cooperation and initiatives are necessary (Gesztiné Ajtós 2002, p. 8)

The term civil society has a triple meaning:

- a political – philosophical one, which appeared along with the bourgeoisie;
- it has a normative base as it defines the behavioural norms of a “good commoner”;
- it is public as it is independent of the state and ensures civil control on the state and business sector (Gesztiné Ajtós 2002, p. 9).

Different types of non-profit organisations can be distinguished based on the purpose they have been created for:

- organisations to help others, e.g. the Maltese Charity Service;
- organisations to help their members, e.g. self-help groups (Alcoholics Anonymous);
- organisations to solve some common problem (e.g. care of the elderly);
- organisations to spend leisure time together (sport clubs);
- cultural civil organisations;
- organisations to preserve values;
- organisations to preserve nature or public order;

- organisation to exert political pressure, e.g. to highlight the problem of child poverty;
- organisations to develop a neighbourhood or a village / city;
- organisations to save specific institutions (Gesztiné Ajtós 2002).

4.5. Social capital

The organisation of society is promoted by the connections between individuals and the individuals' communities, i.e. networks. Networks can contribute to creating and increasing social capital. The formation of social capital is also promoted by civil organisations.

Instead of material needs, information and communication possibilities have become the determinants of post-modern economies. Wealth refers to riches in immaterial goods, which is reflected by the "three C's": concept, competence and connections. Concept refers to the newest, up-to-date knowledge, while competence implies that its processor can operate anything at the highest standard. The third C, connections, refers to social capital (Castells 2005).

The resources one can have access to do not include only economic capital. They include also cultural and social capital. This latter can be derived from the connections of individuals and groups and expresses the relation among individuals or groups. This capital can be useful as it can promote certain activities, but it can also be harmful if it promotes illegal or undesirable activities.

Social capital therefore expresses the existence or the lack of networks, social trust and norms. It facilitates and promotes coordination and cooperation (Alone 1995). Social capital can have three forms:

- commitments and expectations: they depend on the reliability of the social environment. In a trust-based society, individuals give and ask favours, which generates commitments and expectations;
- information channels: if one has social connections that can help gathering information, it can facilitate activities;
- norms and effective sanctions: norms can promote the desired activities, while sanctions can prevent the undesirable ones (Coleman 1988).

The formation of social capital is promoted by certain social structures. The closure of social connection networks enables the validation of norms and sanctions. In the case of a closed structure (left side of Fig. 36), if the activity of A is harmful to individuals B and C, B and C can cooperate to effectively punish A as they are connected to each other. If, however, the social structure is not closed (right side of Fig. 36), B and C do not know each other (B only knows D and A, and C knows E and A), therefore they cannot cooperate against A.

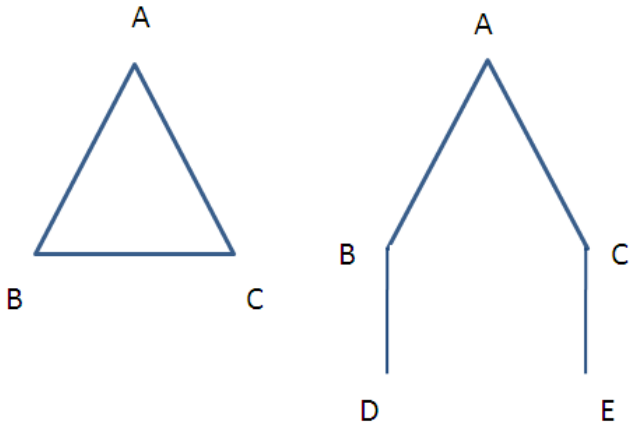


Figure 36: Closed and open social structures
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Coleman (1988)

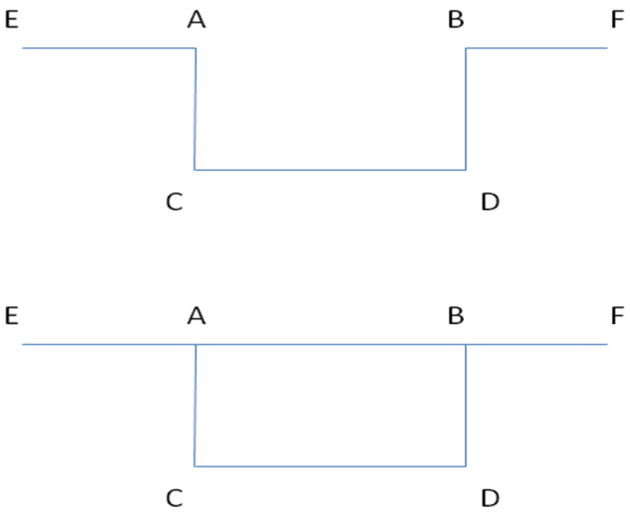


Figure 37: Open and closed social structures between generations
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Coleman (1988)

The closure of social structures between generations has a similar effect. When the social structure is not closed between generations, the parents of the children (who are friends, classmates or neighbours) do not know each other and therefore cannot harmonise childrearing or apply effective punishment when necessary (Fig. 37).

Social capital plays an important role in the formation of human capital. In this process, family education and social relations outside the family play a significant role. Within the family, in addition to the financial capital and the human capital of the parents, social capital also plays an important role in the formation of the human capital of the children. The parent who spends as much time as possible with their children and this time is useful and of high quality, can make up for the shortages in their financial and human capital. In the USA, many Asian immigrant parents buy two copies of the school textbooks in order to be able to learn the material along with their children. Therefore their low financial or human capital does not mean any drawback for the children.

Putnam (1993) mentions the formation of trust and social efficiency as potential consequences of social capital. In societies where family ties are strong (e.g. in China or Russia), trust level outside the family is usually low, while in societies with

weak family ties (e.g. in the USA), the general trust level is higher. Trust and personal contacts between actors, i.e. the social embeddedness of economy, play an important role in economic transactions. Too tight embeddedness prevents the efficient enforcement of beneficial interest, while the lack of trust makes cooperation impossible. The most efficient trust level is what is called 'weak binding', which assumes trust, but there cannot be any claims outside the economy among partners. Chinese immigrants in South East Asia made a good use of weak bindings, as the same origin created the trust among them necessary to establish economic relations, but the trust level was not high enough to create commitments and expectations in their private lives.

Putnam (1993) argues that social capital can be promoted by reciprocity and participation in civil organisations. Reciprocity is the oldest scheme of integration based on mutual relations among peer partners. Members of the group provide help or do each other favours without direct remuneration in the hope of getting help or the support of the members of the group when needed. Reciprocity therefore supposes strong trust among group members.

The amount of social capital can be estimated from the number of individuals and civil organisations connected to each other. The simplest way to calculate the amount of social capital is to summarise the headcount in the groups of the civil sector:

$$SC = \sum_{t=1}^{n} n, \quad (1)$$

where SC is the amount of social capital, t is the number of groups in the civil sector and n is the number of members in each group (Putnam 2000). Social capital in this way, however, does not take into consideration the internal cohesion of the groups. A more refined way to calculate social capital is:

$$SC = \sum_{t=1}^{n} (nk), \quad (2)$$

where k refers to the internal cohesion of a given group. However, there is no standardised, objective method to calculate it. It is mainly defined by the subjective consideration of external observers.

The calculation of social capital can be even more precise when the radius of trust (r_p) and the radius of distrust (r_n) are taken into consideration as well. The radius of trust refers to the positive externality created by the social capital of a given group. When trust within the group radiates also to individuals outside the group, $r_p > 1$. When the norms of the group are present only among a part of the group members, $r_p < 1$. The radius of distrust refers to the negative externalities such as the case when the strong internal norms of the group decrease the trust in the group by external individuals and therefore decrease the chance of cooperation. By taking all of these into consideration, social capital is:

$$SC = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{r_n} r_p nk\right) \quad (3)$$

In order to increase social capital, it is necessary to maximise k and minimise r_n (Orbán – Szántó 2005).

5. Social differences in the space

5.1. Equal opportunity and social exclusion

Social capital, networks and civil organisations contribute to the organisation and operation of society. However, not each member of the society receives an equal part of the benefits of social organisations. A lack of social capital can lead to a lack of information and isolation. Not getting access to the services provided by civil organisations can result in exclusion in several fields of life.

5.1.1. Equal opportunity and equal treatment

Equal opportunity means that barriers are eliminated in order to ensure the realisation of opportunities, i.e. judgement of individuals is based on their merits and performance. A key concept of equal opportunity is positive discrimination, which refers to a discrimination of groups or individuals in order to decrease inequalities. Equal opportunity mainly includes legal, administrative and other help which is necessary because of the disadvantaged position of a certain group or individuals in relation to the majority. Its aim is solidarity, the alleviation of economic and social injustice against different groups of people and therefore the realisation of equal opportunities (Dabasi 2011).

Ensuring equal opportunity is one of the most important political aims of the European Union. The policy of equal opportunity can be divided into three phases in the history of the European Community (later European Union):

- 1957 - 1975: the principle of “equal pay for equal work”.
- 1975 - late 1980s: harmonisation of the rules of equal treatment in the member states.
- 1990 – today: concepts of equal opportunity and positive discrimination (Gyulavári, 2000).

Article 70/A of the Hungarian Constitution stipulates that “the Republic of Hungary shall respect the human rights and civil rights of all persons in the country without discrimination on the basis of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, financial situation, birth or upon any other grounds whatsoever.” It is the classical formal concept of equal treatment that requires the application of equal rules for everybody.

A clear distinction has to be made between the terms equal treatment and equal opportunity. The principle of equal treatment refers to the prohibition of discrimination. Discrimination is unreasonable differentiation. It includes three elements:

- a discriminative measure has a negative effect on the individual concerned;
- this negative effect can be derived from differentiation;
- the differentiation is unreasonable, i.e. cannot be justified objectively (Dabasi 2011).

The principle of equal treatment requires the regulation and evaluation of persons in similar positions in the same way and treatment of different situations in a different way. The principle of equal treatment is based on laws expressing prohibitions. It applies a 'negative' approach. It can be carried out through the harmonisation of national regulations.

The policy of equal opportunities is broader than ensuring equal treatment. Equal opportunity includes the legal and non-legal tools that can be used to ensure equal opportunities for everybody in the different fields of life (education, health care, labour market, social security, etc.) or at least to diminish the differences. In this case, a positive approach and community programmes are as important as mandatory directives prohibiting discrimination.

5.1.2. Gender differences

The unfavourable labour market position of women is well reflected by the gap between male and female average income level (Fig. 38). The lag of women behind men is visible in all member states of the EU. The gender differences in the working conditions increase health and safety risks, which worsens the average health status of women (Fagan – Urwin – Melling 2006). In certain European countries, the gender gap in income levels decreased from 2006 to 2010, while in other countries, it increased (especially in Portugal, Hungary and the Czech Republic).

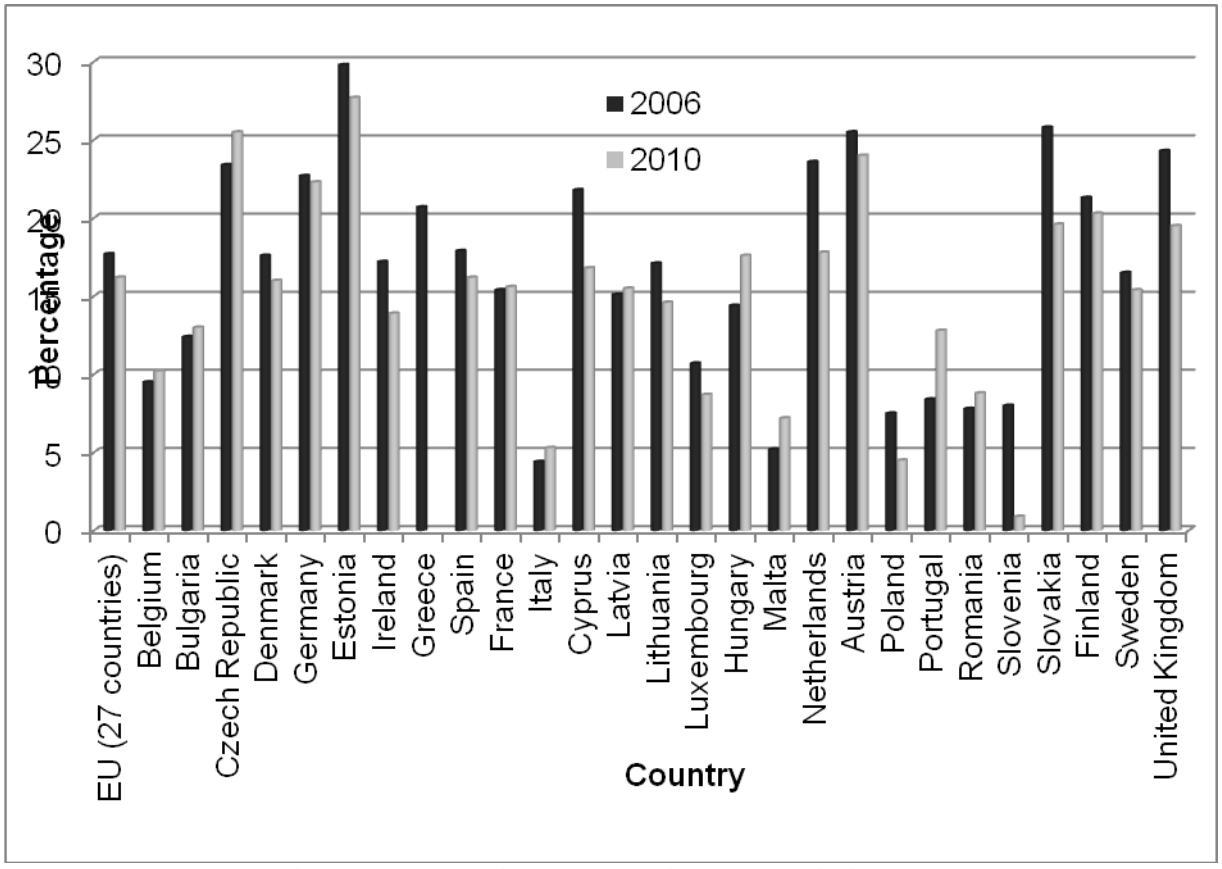


Figure 38: Gender pay gap in EU 27* (%), 2006, 2010
* There are no available data for Greece in 2010.
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

Gender differences can be measured with the gender differences in employment and unemployment rates (Fig. 39). Gender differences in the rates have decreased since 1992 as female employment rate has increased, while male employment rate has only slightly changed. As for unemployment rates, men have caught up with women.

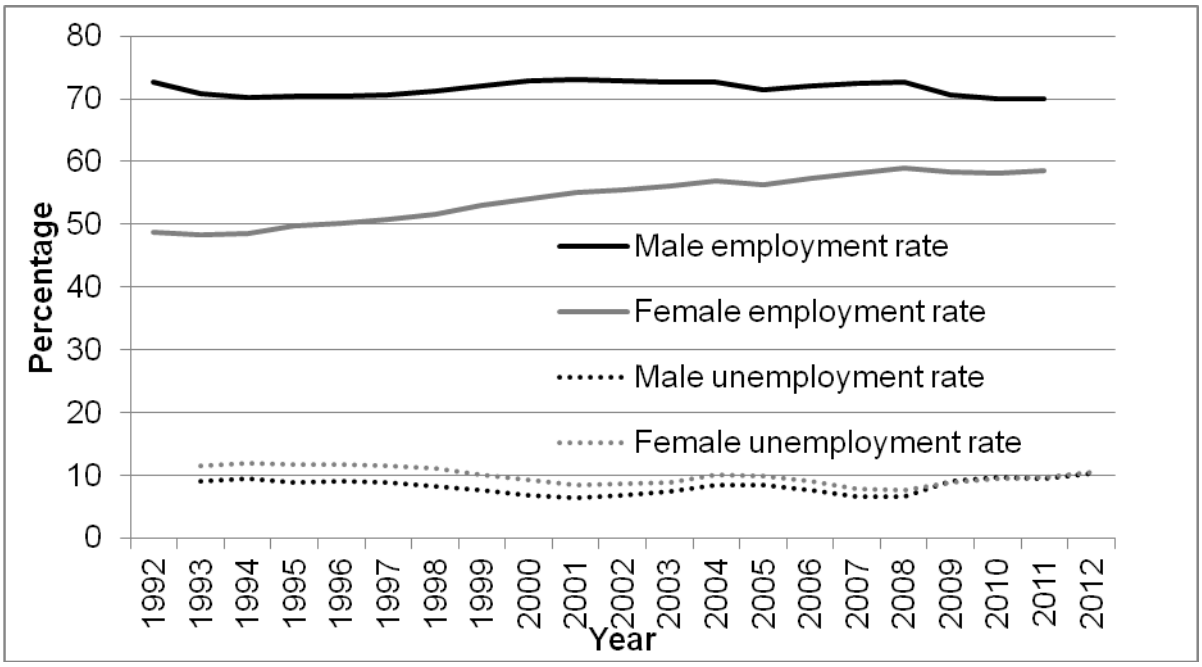


Figure 39: Male and female employment and unemployment rates in the European Union, 1992-2012
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Eurostat data

There are some factors that make the labour market position of women even more difficult:

- glass ceiling effect: an unseen, but unbreakable barrier that prevents women from going up on the career ladder above a certain level. It can be caused by gender, ethnic or other discrimination;
- double burden: women usually work not only at their workplace, but also at home (keeping house or child-rearing).

5.2. Poverty and social exclusion

In the case of social groups for which equal opportunities are not guaranteed, the risk of poverty and social exclusion increases. To examine poverty, it is necessary to define it and the ways it can be measured.

There is no exclusive definition for poverty. According to the most general definition, one is considered to be poor if one does not have the minimal amount of money necessary to make ends meet, i.e. one's income does not exceed a minimal level. Three main conceptions of poverty are distinguished in the poverty literature (see Table 9). Absolute concepts of poverty assume that minimum material needs can be defined regardless of space and time. Those who are not able to satisfy these needs are considered to be poor. The relative conceptions define poverty as being below some relative poverty threshold. People can be considered to be poor if they fall behind some average wealth level of the society to a certain extent (e.g. 50 or 60 percent of mean or median income level). The other approach using the relative poverty concept defines the poverty line as an income level below which a certain part (one tenth or one fifth) of the population lives (Hegedűs and Monostori 2005).

Subjective well-being can be reflected by the so-called subjective poverty concept, which can be used in two ways. On the one hand, poverty can be defined by examining who people consider to be poor. It can also be defined by collecting people's beliefs about their own position in a system of inequalities (Spéder 2002).

Table 9: Concepts of poverty

Concept of poverty	***Income***	***Living conditions***
Absolute	Subsistence level	Not possessing certain items
	Regional minimum	Being in crisis
Relative	Living below 50 or 60 % of mean or median income	Deprivation index
	Lower decile, quintile	
Subjective	Subjective poverty	Minimal living conditions

Source: author's own compilation based on Spéder (2002, p. 53)

Besides its monetary definition, there are multidimensional concepts of poverty as well. In this sense, deprived is the person who is in an unfavourable position from several aspects, so handicaps are accumulated. Accumulated poverty and social exclusion are, however, not exactly the same. In the case of accumulated poverty, emphasis is put on the output, namely on the deprivation from certain goods and services. Exclusion, however, primarily focuses on the process leading to poverty (Havasi 2002). A complex view of poverty is important because deprivation is much more widespread if several dimensions are taken into consideration rather than defining poverty by only one dimension (Bokor 1987).

The European Union elaborated the system of Laeken indicators, which defines several, mainly relative, measures of poverty. Its application makes it possible to compare different level NUTS regions. The most common measure of poverty defined by the EU is 60 % of median income (Hungarian Central Statistical Office 2008).

Using the poverty line, the most important measures of poverty can be defined. The most common measure is the headcount index (H), which expresses the ratio of those living below the poverty line in the whole population (Ravallion 1996).

$$H = \frac{p}{n}, \tag{4}$$

where p is the number of persons living below the poverty line and n is the number of population. This measure describes the extent of poverty. It does not give any information, however, about the depth of poverty. If the financial conditions of a poor person worsen, the value of the poverty rate will not change at all.

That is why it is worth computing the poverty gap as well, which measures the distance between the average income of the poor and the poverty line. In order to make it suitable for measuring changes over time and space, this measure can be expressed as a percentage of the poverty line (called the poverty gap ratio (PG)).

$$PG = \frac{1}{p}\sum_{i=1}^{p}\frac{g_i}{z}, \quad (5)$$

where g_i is the poverty gap and z is the poverty line (Hajdú 1997).

In 1990, the bulk of the poor (almost 90%) lived in the least developed regions of the world. Currently, however, three quarters of the poor live in middle-income countries. Only the remaining 25% can be found in the (mainly African) developing countries (The Economist 2010). The rate of those living on less than USD 1 a day is the highest in Africa (Fig. 40). In some countries, this rate is more than 60%. By contrast, this poverty rate is very low in Europe and in North America (below 1%). A comparison based on the poverty rates calculated using national poverty lines highlights similar trends. The highest poverty rates can be found in Africa, while the lowest ones are in Europe and North America.

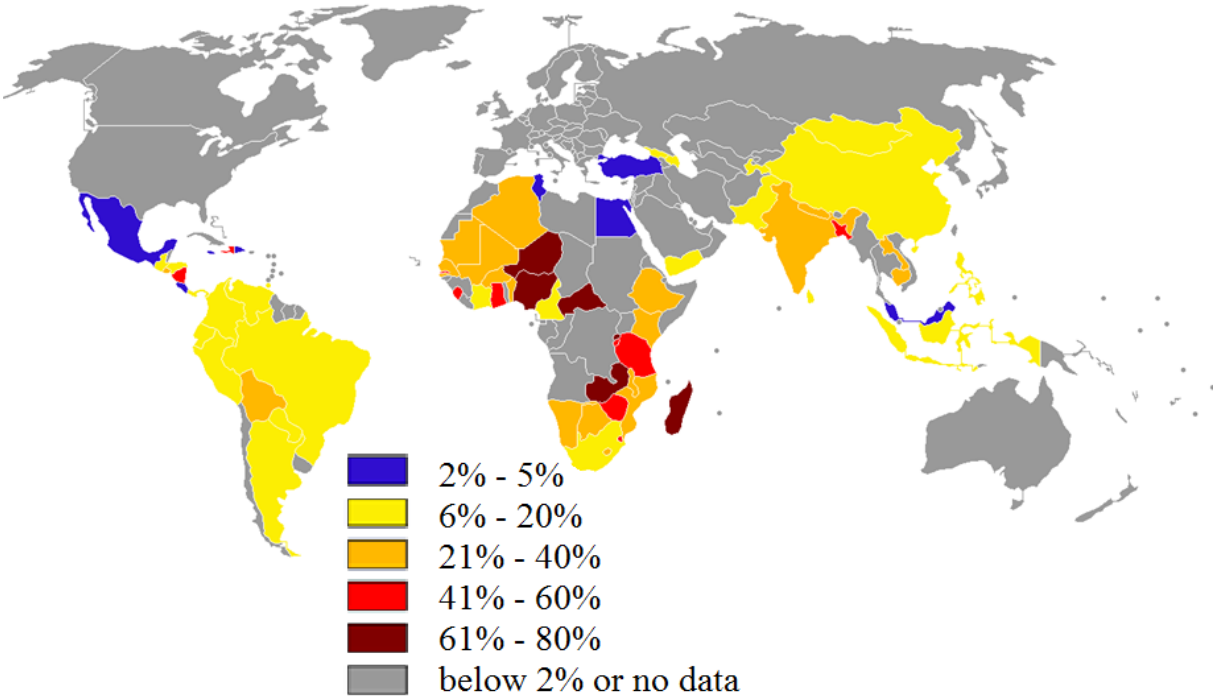


Figure 40: Rate of those living on less than USD 1 per day, %, 2007/2008
Source: UN Human Development Report 2007/2008

5.3. Territorial backwardness: small villages

More than half of the inhabitants live in rural areas in the EU, which make up 93% of the total area of the Union. However, rural areas in the EU are not homogeneous: they are different in their population and by economic, social and cultural characteristics. The main challenge for the rural areas is the establishment of high quality, sustainable workplaces. Two trends can be observed in the last decades concerning urbanisation in Europe: on the one hand, population and economic organisations migrate from distant rural areas to the cities and their outskirts and population flows from urban to rural areas can also be seen (G. Fekete 2009).

Cities and rural areas are connected to each other in many ways. There can be production relations as rural areas are especially suitable for agriculture, while industry and services can primarily be found in urban areas. Besides production, consumption can also link urban and rural areas. In terms of commuting, rural areas are residential areas, while urban areas serve as workplace and/or the place of consumption. Moreover, rural areas are often used as places for recreation. What is more, utilities (drinking water, landfill or wastewater treatment) are often shared by cities and villages (G. Fekete 2009).

Small villages have to face many problems (Fig. 41). One of them is a low level of employment, which is closely related to their ageing population and the dissolution of the demographic equilibrium. Because of insufficient employment, the income generating ability of the areas is usually inadequate. The low income level often makes it difficult or impossible to meet the needs and it leads to poverty and deprivation. A further problem is the under- or over-utilisation of environmental resources (G. Fekete 2009).

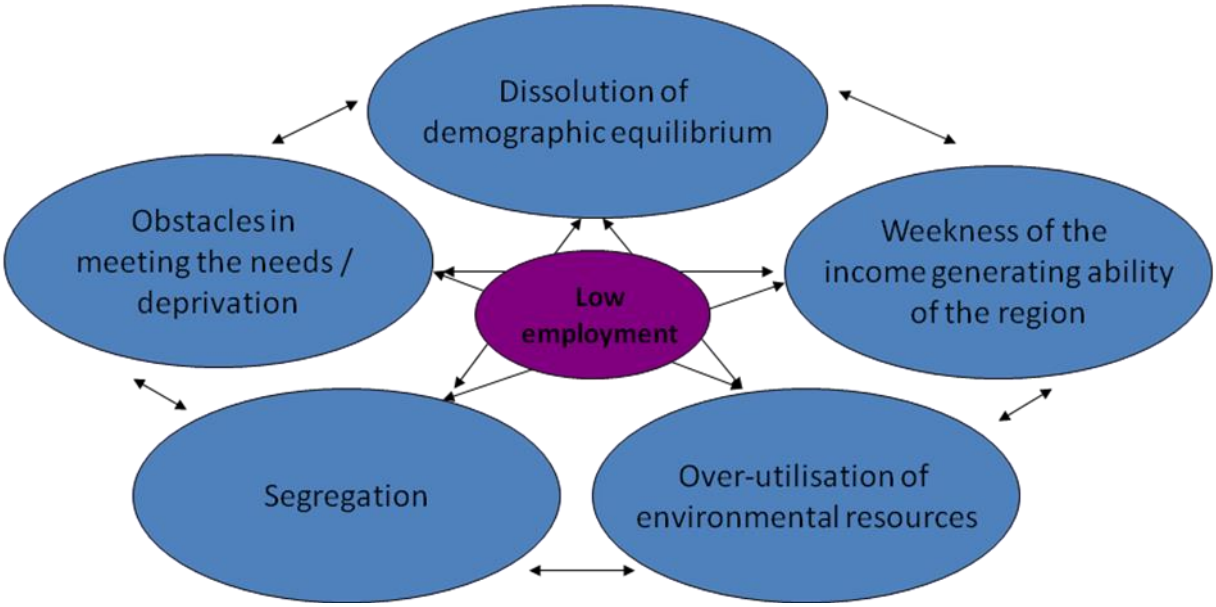


Figure 41: Typical problems of small villages
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on G. Fekete (2009, p. 24)

5.4. Economics of happiness

Regions can be different not only in economic, but also in social terms. Significant differences can occur among the regions of a country concerning education level, average life expectancy or the average level of subjective well-being. The last one is important because the ultimate goal of human life is not material well-being or the increase of economic growth, but happiness. Research about happiness has become important not only in sociology or psychology, but also in economics.

5.4.1. The welfare paradox

The welfare paradox states that subjective well-being does not correlate with material well-being above a certain income level (Takács 2009). The first research projects into the issue were carried out in the 1970s. The still significant Easterlin paradox states that wealthier people tend to be happier than poorer ones, but above a certain level of per capita average income (between USD 10,000 and 20,000 at that time), there is no correlation between average income and subjective well-being (Easterlin 1995). Ravallion and Lokshin (2002) found evidence for the lack of this relationship in Russia. They found that most of the Russian adults who themselves feel to be poor are not classified as such in official statistics. Besides, most of the people who are classified to be poor by official statistics do not consider themselves to be poor (Siposné Nándori 2013). Easterlin (1973) analyzed the relationship between material and subjective well-being in post-war USA and found that the GDP increased significantly in 20 years, while the rate of those feeling happy did not change. Further studies revealed that it can be explained by the phenomenon of diminishing marginal utility: a one unit increase in the income increases utility more in the case of a low income level than in the case of a higher income level (Hajdu-Hajdu 2013).

Research works about developed countries state that the subjective well-being of individuals depends not only on their own living standard, but also on their relative income position. It implies that a higher income level of the others is associated with a lower level of well-being (Siposné Nándori 2011). A study on Nepal and Malawi, however, proved that the relative position of the individuals influences subjective well-being only among upper-income households. The poor care only about their absolute deprivation (Fafchamps and Shilpi 2008).

An interesting finding is that while the income level of the others and its changes influence well-being, the role of one's own previous position is negligible as it is very easy to get used to better conditions. The increase of consumption therefore does not increase well-being (sensory treadmill).

There are several explanations for the welfare paradox:

- **Problem of leisure time**: In spite of the fact that the income level of the individual is high, there can be ambiguities whether they can spend their leisure time in a meaningful way.

- **Status competition**: Most people make efforts to improve their position compared to that of the others as it can increase subjective well-being. The total amount of income, however, is fixed, so the improvement of the income position of a person goes together with the worsening of the position of somebody else. This struggle leads to a stressful life, which does not do any good for the subjective well-being.
- **Treadmill effect**: Far-reaching, favourable or unfavourable, changes modify the subjective well-being only temporarily. They do not have any effect on it in the long run (Takács 2009). A survey in 1978 in the USA compared lottery winners and others and concluded that there was no difference in the average level of happiness of the two groups. Moreover, lottery winners found less pleasure in everyday activities like reading, chatting or listening to a joke (Hajdu – Hajdu 2013).
- **Choice paradox**: Better financial position goes together with an increase in the available options, which can decrease subjective well-being as a result of the phenomenon of cognitive dissonance.
- **"Time-saving" inventions**: Inventions like the washing machine, dishwasher or car are intended to ease our everyday life. However, instead, they do not create more leisure time for us, they only reach better results over the same time than earlier solutions (trough, washing with hands or coach with horses) (Takács 2009).

5.4.2. Human Development Index (HDI)

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a widely used index to measure well-being. It makes the comparison of human development in different countries possible by taking into account other factors in addition to economic growth. The HDI is made up of three components:

- average life expectancy as a measure of long and healthy life;
- mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling as measures of education level;
- GNI per capita in USD as a measure of living standard (Zambrano 2011).

The values of the three dimensions need to be between 0 and 1, so a transformation of the original values is necessary by taking into account the maximum and minimum values of the given variable. The HDI is the average of the three transformed values. Before 2010, the HDI used to be calculated as their arithmetic mean, since then, however, their geometric mean is used.

$$HDI = \sqrt[3]{I_{education} \cdot I_{education} \cdot I_{income}} \qquad (1)$$

(Fóti 2003, Husz 2001, Husz 2002, Zambrano 2011)

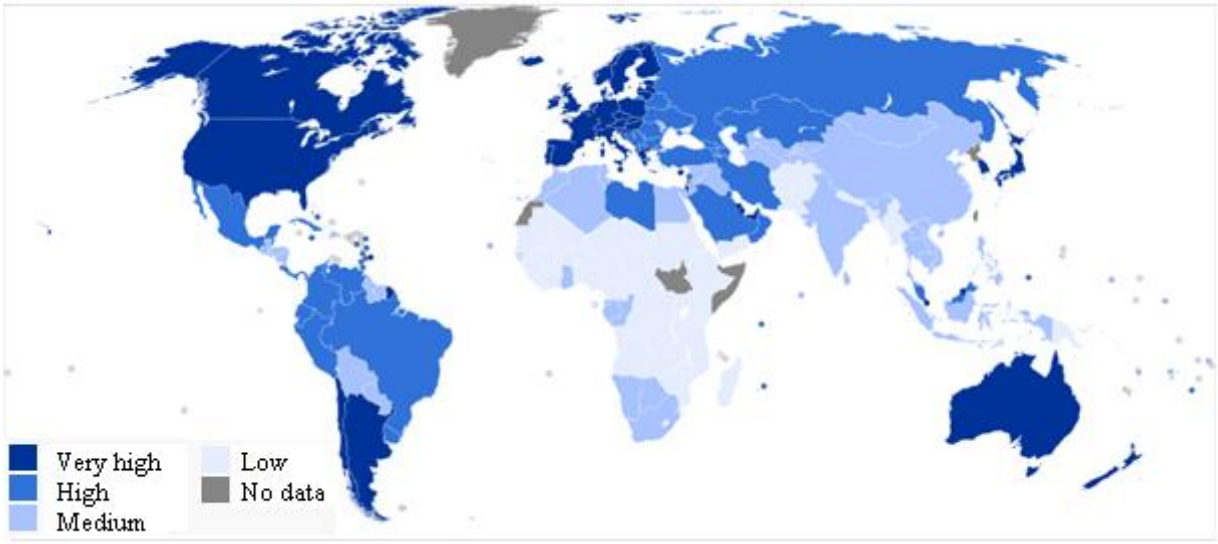


Figure 42: HDI values in the world, 2011
Source: compiled by Eszter Siposné Nándori based on Human Development Report 2011

Nowadays, HDI values are very high in North America, Western and Central Europe, Australia and South America. In most of the African countries, however, this value is extremely low (Fig. 42).

5.4.3. Gross National Happiness (GNH)

Another option for the GDP is the Gross National Happiness Index (GNH), elaborated in Bhutan. This index includes objective and subjective components as Buddhism states that distinguishing objective and subjective components is not possible in a realistic way, it can only be artificial. It says that phenomena are inter-correlated with each other (Wollnick 2009).

The GNH index includes nine domains. Each domain includes several indicators, which help measuring the given domain. Each domain is weighted equally as each plays the same role in well-being. The domains are the following:

- psychological well-being: it expresses the desirable state of well-being;
- health: it evaluates the health status of the population and the determinants of health and health care. It also includes the availability of the health system;
- education: it measures the knowledge level, values, creativity and abilities of the population;
- culture: it examines the diversity and strengths of cultural traditions;
- time use: it examines how individuals spend their 24 hours a day. Besides, this dimension takes into account longer-term activities. It assumes that diversity of activities contributes to a richer life and increases the level of happiness;
- good governance: it measures how individuals evaluate the different government functions based on their efficiency, fairness and quality;
- community vitality: it deals with the strengths and weaknesses of intra-community relations;
- ecologic diversity and resilience: it describes the effects of demand and supply on the ecologic system;

- living standards: it describes the economic position of the population (Ura et al. 2012).

5.4.4. Perception of happiness in the world

Recently it has become obvious that people living in the richest countries are not the happiest persons. Gallup carried out a survey for 148 countries in 2011, which examined the existence or the lack of positive emotions with the help of five questions (“Did you feel well-rested yesterday?”, “Were you treated with respect all day yesterday?”, “Did you smile or laugh a lot yesterday?”, "Did you do or learn something interesting yesterday?”, “Did you experience the following feelings during a lot of the day yesterday: joy, physical pain, trouble, sorrow, stress, anger?”). Based on the survey, the happiest countries can be found in Latin America, while the most negative emotions can be found in the Middle East and North America (Clifton 2012).

Based on the happiness surveys carried out between 2009 and 2011, a happiness rank order of the 151 countries in the world can be defined. People living in the Philippines, El Salvador, Bahrain and Oman are the most likely to report feeling positive emotions, while the “least happy” country is Singapore, where per capita GDP is relatively high. It is followed by Georgia, Lithuania and Russia.

Tasks

1. Find the role of trust in the formation of mafia in Italy with the help of the Internet.
2. Compare the factors influencing social capital in the case of the following groups:
   - Ku-Klux-Klan
   - American Association of Retired Persons (http://www.aarp.org/).
3. Look at the relationship between subjective and objective poverty in Hungary. What can be concluded based on the findings about the beliefs of the Hungarian population?
4. Prepare the spatial structure model of your hometown. Which above described model describes your hometown best?

References

Alone, B. (1995): America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy,* 6. évf. 1. szám, pp. 65-78.

Andorka R. (2006): *Bevezetés a szociológiába*. Osiris Kiadó. Budapest.

Bartke I. (1989): A társadalom és a gazdaság területi szerkezetének alapvonásai. Akadémiai Kiadó, Budapest.

Beluszky P. (1999): *Magyarország településföldrajza: általános rész*. Dialog Campus Kiadó. Budapest-Pécs.

Berényi I. (1992): Az alkalmazott szociálgeográfia elméleti és módszertani kérdései. Földrajzi Tanulmányok 22. Akadémiai Kiadó, Budapest

Bernek Á. – Sárfalvi B. (2009): *Általános társadalomföldrajz a gimnáziumok számára.* Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó.

Bertham, S. (2006): Élet az ókori Mezopotámiában. Gold Book.

Billari, F. C. – Wilson, C. (2001): Convergence towards diversity? Cohort dynamics in the transition to adulthood in contemporary Western Europe. *Working Papers* 2001-039, Max Planck Institute for Demographic Research.

Bokor Á. (1987): *Szegénység a mai Magyarországon*. Budapest, Magvető Kiadó.

Boros (2010):

Bottlik Zs. (2012): Cigányok (romák) Európában. A Földgömb: a Magyar Földrajzi Társaság folyóirata, 6, pp. 10-11.

Bruckmann, Gerhard (2001): Global modeling. *Futures*, 1, pp. 13-20.

Camagni 2008

Camagni 2009

Castells, M. (2005): A hálózati társadalom kialakulása. Fordította: Rohonyi András. Budapest. Gondolat-Infonia.

Cipolla, C. M. (1962): *The economic history of world population*. Harmondsworth. Penguin Books.

Clifton, J. (2012): *Latin Americans most positive in the world*. http://www.gallup.com/poll/159254/latin-americans-positive-world.aspx#1 Utolsó letöltés: 2013. február 14.

Coleman, J. S. (1988): Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94, pp. 95-120

Colin, B. (2004): Történelmi belvárosok társadalmi fenntarthatósága. A dzsentrifikációtól a kilakoltatásig - hogyan egyeztethető össze a gazdasági versenyképesség a történelmi belvárosok társadalmi fenntarthatóságával? Vitairat az UNESCO kerekasztal beszélgetés alkalmából, Barcelona, 13-15 September 2004. (Based on Neil Smith) http://www.unesco.hu/tarsadalomtudomany/tarsadalmi-valtozasok/tortenelmi-belvarosok Last download: 29 July 2013

Conversi, D. (1997): *The Basques, the Catalans and Spain: Alternative Routes to Nationalist Mobilization*. London: Hurst, 1997. American edition, Reno: University of Nevada Press.

Csereklyei M. (2001): Európa új generációja. Hetek, 5. évf., 16. szám

Dabasi Halász Zs. (2011): Munkaerőpiac és foglalkoztatáspolitika. Miskolci Egyetemi Kiadó. Miskolc.

Deevey, E. S. Jr. (1960): The human population. *Scientific American*. pp. 194-204.

Demény, P. (2003): Population policy dilemmas in Europe at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Population and Development Review*, 1, pp. 1-28.

Demény P. (2004) Európa népességpolitikai dilemmái a huszonegyedik század kezdetén. *Demográfia*, 1-2, pp. 9-40.
Easterlin, R. A. (1973): Does Money Buy Happiness? *The Public Interest*, 30, pp. 3-10
Easterlin, R. A. (1995): Will Raising the Incomes of All Increase the Happiness of All? *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organisation*, 27, pp. 35-47
Enyedi Gy.(2009): Városi világ. Magyar Tudomány. 3. szám. pp. 295-302.
Enyedi Gy. (2005): A városok kulturális gazdasága. In: Egyedi György – Keresztély Krisztina (ed.): *A magyar városok kulturális gazdasága*. Magyarország az ezredfordulón. Stratégiai tanulmányok a Magyar Tudományos Akadémián. Műhelytanulmányok. Budapest.
Enyedi Gy. (2011): A városnövekedés szakaszai újragondolva. *Tér és Társadalom*. Vol. 25. No. 1. pp. 5-19.
Ethnologue. Languages of the World. (2009) http://www.ethnologue.com/statistics/size. Last download: 1 July 2013
Eurofound http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/industrialrelations/dictionary/definitions/atypicalwork.htm Last download: 17 June 2013
European Commission (2007): *Europe's demographic future: facts and figures on challenges and opportunities*. European Communities.
European Commission (2007): State of European cities. Executive report. http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/studies/pdf/urban/state_exec_en.pdf Last download: 19 March 2013.
European Union (1992): Maastricht Treaty. http://www.eurotreaties.com/maastrichtec.pdf Last download: 30 July 2013.
European Union Parliament Website: Lisbon European Council 23 and 24 March Presidency Conclusion. Last download: July 1, 2013. http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/00100-r1.en0.htm
Fafchamps, M. – Shilpi, F. (2008): Subjective welfare, isolation, and relative consumption. *Journal of Development Economics*, 86, pp. 43–60.
Faragó L. (2004): A regionalizmus hajtóerői Magyarországon. In: Tér és Társadalom. 3. 1-23. o.
Fagan, C. - Urwin, P. - Melling, K. (2006): Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in thirty European countries. European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities Unit G.1 Manuscript completed in July 2006 7-18, 49-57. http://www.european-microfinance.org/data/file/gender_inequal_in_risk_of_poverty_and_social_exclusion_EU_27_EEA.pdf Last download: 17 February 2013.
Faragó L. (2005): A jövőalkotás társadalomtechnikája. Dialóg Campus Kiadó, Budapest – Pécs.
Fóti K. (ed.) (2003): *A szegénység enyhítéséért – helyzetkép és javaslatok 2000–2002.* A Human Development Report, Hungary 2000–2002 magyar nyelvű változata. Magyar Tudományos Akadémia Világgazdasági Kutatóintézet, Budapest.
Gallai S. – Török G. (eds.) (2005): Politika és politikatudomány. Aula Kiadó Kft.
Gács J. (2005): A lisszaboni folyamat – egy hosszú távú stratégia rejtélyei, elméleti problémái és gyakorlati nehézségei. *Közgazdasági Szemle*, pp. 205-230.

Gesztiné Ajtós J. (2002): *Civil társadalom. A civil szektor az Európai Unióban és a Visegrádi országokban*. Budapesti Gazdasági Főiskola. Külkereskedelmi Főiskolai Kar.
G. Fekete É. (1998): Általános társadalomföldrajz. Miskolci Egyetem.
G. Fekete É. (2009): Perifériák és aprófalvak fejlesztése. http://www.zalaifalvak.hu/files/GFEKETE_EVA.pdf Last download: 20 April 2013
G. Fekete É. – Bodolai É. (1995): Együtt! – De hogyan? Kistérségi fejlesztések megjelenése a területfejlesztésben. MTA-RKK – PHARE. Miskolc.
Gidai E. – Tóth A. (2001): *Bevezetés a jövőkutatás elméleti és módszertani kérdéseibe*. Arisztotelész Stúdium Bt., Sopron.
Gödri I. (2005): Nők és férfiak a migrációs folyamat különböző szakaszaiban. A magyarországi bevándorlás a nemek perspektívájából. In: Szerepváltozások. Jelentés a nők és férfiak helyzetéről, 2005. Nagy Ildikó, Pongrácz Tiborné, Tóth István György, (szerk.). Budapest: TÁRKI, Ifjúsági, Családügyi, Szociális és Esélyegyenlőségi Minisztérium, pp. 149–164.
Győri R.: *A történeti régió fogalma*. http://geogr.elte.hu/TGF/TGF_Cikkek/gyori.pdf Last download: 1 March 2013.
Gyulavári T. (2000): Az Európai Unió szociális dimenziója, Szociális és Családügyi Minisztérium, Budapest.
Hajdu G. – Hajdu T. (2013): *A közmondás próbája*. HVG, 2, pp. 43-44.
Havasi É. (2002) Szegénység és társadalmi kirekesztettség a mai Magyarországon. Szociológiai Szemle, Vol. 12, No. 4, pp. 51-71.
Hegedűs P. – Monostori J. (2005) A szegénység és a társadalmi kirekesztődés mérőszámai 2005, Elméleti megalapozás, KSH Népességtudományi Kutató Intézet.
Hoyt, H. (1939): *The structure and growth of residential neigborhoods in American cities*. Washington, Federal Housing Ass.
Hungarian Central Statistical Office (2008): Laekeni indikátorok, 2007 – A társadalmi kirekesztődés nemzetközi összehasonlítására szolgáló jelzőszámok. *Statisztikai Tükör,* 104, pp. 1-3
Husz I. (2001): Az emberi fejlődés indexe. *Szociológiai Szemle*, 2, pp. 72-83
Husz I. (2002): Az emberi fejlődés indexe. In: Lengyel György (ed.): *Indikátorok és elemzések. Műhelytanulmányok a társadalmi jelzőszámok témaköréből*. BKÁE, Budapest, pp. 23-34
HVG (2009): *Válságban is szeretjük, ha vetítenek nekünk*. 20 July 2009
HVG (2010): *Roham a színházakban*. 23 September 2010
Illés S. – Lukács É. (2002): Migráció és statisztika. Központi Statisztikai Hivatal Népességtudományi Kutatóintézet. Budapest.
Karsai L. (2001): Holocaust. Budapest. Pannonica.
Kiss É. (2002): *Az Európai Unió társadalomföldrajza*. Tagok és tagjelölt országok. Holnap Kiadó. Budapest.
Kocziszky Gy. (2001): Gondolatok Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén megye gazdasági helyzetéről az ezredfordulón; In: Kocziszky György és Lórántné Orosz Edit (ed.): *Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén megye kistérségeinek jelene és jövője az ezredfordulón*. Miskolc. pp. 5-9.
Kovács E. (2003): Az idősödő népesség és a befektetési környezet Európában. *Demográfia*, 1, pp. 73-94.
Kovács L. (2004): Quo vadis, Európa? A népességszám alakulása a XX. században és a XXI. század első felében. *Magyar Tudomány*, 7, pp. 708-718.
Kovács Z. (2007): Népesség és településföldrajz. ELTE Eötvös Kiadó. Budapest.

Kósa L. (1998): *Paraszti polgárosulás és a népi kultúra táji megoszlása Magyarországon (1880–1920).* (Third, extended edition) Planétás Kiadó. Budapest.
Köllő J. (2006): A napi ingázás feltételei és a helyi munkanélküliség Magyarországon. Újabb számítások és szám példák. Budapesti Munkagazdaságtani Füzetek. BWP 2006/1. Magyar Tudományos Akadémia Közgazdaságtudományi Intézet. Budapesti Corvinus Egyetem, Emberi Erőforrások Tanszék. Budapest.
Kővári Gy. (1991): Gazdálkodás az emberi erőforrásokkal. Országos Munkaügyi Központ. Budapest.
Kuti É. (1998): Bevezető. In: Kuti-Králik-Barabás: *A nem-kormányzati szervezetek helyzete Magyarországon.* World Bank Regional Office Hungary, Budapest.
Kuthy A. (ed.) (2001): *Globális problémák*. Ökológiai Intézet a Fenntartható Fejlődésért Alapítvány. Miskolc.
Laczkó (1988)
László E. (1974): A Strategy for the Future. New York, Braziller
Lefebvre, H.(1991): The Production of Space, Oxford, Blackwell.
Lengyel (2012)
Lichtenberger, E. (1986): Stadtgeographie – Perspektiven. - In: *Geographische Rundschau*, 38, No. 7-8, pp. 388-399.
Lovász – Telegdy (2009): …
Lucchini, F. (2002): *La culture au service des villes*. Anthropos. Párizs.
Lukovics M. (2004): A regionális identitás szerepe a gazdaságfejlesztésben. In: Czagány-Garai (szerk.): *A szociális identitás, az információ és a piac*. SZTE Gazdaságtudományi Kar Közleményei 2004. JATEPress Szeged pp. 214-228.
Malthus, T. (1798): *An Essay on the Principle of Population*. London
Maslow, A. (1943): A Theory of Human Motivation, Psychological Review, July, 1994.
Mellár Tamás (2002): *A népességfogyás néhány közgazdasági aspektusa*. *Demográfia*, 1, pp. 9-25.
Mendöl T. (1963): *Általános településföldrajz*. Budapest. MTA.
Mitchell, G. D. (1968) (ed.): Dictionary of Sociology. Routledge.
Nemes Nagy J. (1998): A tér a társadalomtudományban, Hilscher Rezső Szociálpolitikai Egyesület „Ember-Település-Régió" Kiadó, Budapest
Orbán A. – Szántó Z. (2005): Társadalmi tőke. *Erdélyi Társadalom*, Kolozsvár Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 55-70
Pan, C. – Pfeil, B. S. (2003): *The Peoples of Europe by Demographic Size*. National Minorities in Europe: Handbook. Wien. Braumueller.
Papp Kincses E. (2005): Kulturális globalizáció: veszély vagy esély? Sapientia. EMTE
Parsons, T. – Neil J. S. (1984): Economy and society: A study in the integration of economic and social theory. Routledge and Kegan Paul. London.
Parsons, T. – Shils, E. (1990): Values and social systems. In: Jeffrey Alexander – Steven Seidman (ed.) *Culture and Society, contemporary debates.* Cambridge University Press. pp. 39-40.
Peccei, A. (1984): Kezünkben a jövő. Budapest, Gondolat Könyvkiadó.
Pfeil, B. S. (1999): Die Erhaltung von Minderheitssprachen in Europa und das aktuelle Europarat-Instrumentarium. = Europa Ethnica. *Vierteljahresschrift für Nationalitätenfragen*, 56, Jg. pp. 2–18.
Pirisi G. - Trócsányi A.: Általános társadalom- és gazdaságföldrajz http://tamop412a.ttk.pte.hu/files/foldrajz2/
Pope Leo XIII (1891): Rerum Novarum. Encyclical.

Pope Pius IX (1931): Quadragesimo Anno. Encyclical.
Pulay Gy. (2010): *Trendváltás a termékenység és a női foglalkoztatás kapcsolatában*. „Tudomány a gyarapodó nemzetért" előadó- és vitaülés MTA 8 November 2010.
Putnam, R. D. (1993): Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
Putnam, R. D. (2000): *Bowling Alone. The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. New York. Simon and Schuster.
Ravallion, M. (1996): *Issues in Measuring and Modeling Poverty*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 1615.
Ravallion, M. - Lokshin, M. (2002): Self-rated economic welfare in Russia. *European Economic Review*, 46, pp. 1453-1473.
Rechnitzer J. – Smahó M. (2011): Területi politika. Akadémiai Kiadó.
Rogers, A. – Castro, L. S. (1981): Model migration schedules. International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis. Laxenburg, Austria.
Romváry Ferenc (2010) (chief ed.): Pécs Lexikon I. (A–M). Pécs Lexikon Kulturális Nonprofit Kft., Pécs. p. 24. ISBN 978-963-06-7919-0
Rosenberg, M. (2005): Population density. http://geography.about.com/od/populationgeography/a/popdensity.htm Last download: 15 June 2013
Russow, L. C. (2000): *If the world were a village of 1,000 in the year 2000*. Philadelphia University. http://faculty.philau.edu/russowl/villageof1000-2000.html. Last download: 6 February 2013.
Russow, L. C. (2005): *If the world were a village of 1,000 in the year 2005*. Philadelphia University. http://faculty.philau.edu/russowl/villageof1000.html. Last download: 6 February 2013.
Schuck, A. – Rosenbaum, D. (2006): *Promoting Safe and Healthy Neighborhoods: What Research Tells Us about Intervention*. In: Fulbright Anderson, K. – Auspos, P. (ed.): Community Change: Theories, Practice and Evidence. The Aspen Institute.
Sen, A. (2003): *A fejlődés mint szabadság*. Európa Könyvkiadó. Budapest.
Siposné Nándori E. (2009): Elszegényedés Észak-Magyarországon*. Észak-Magyarországi Stratégiai Füzetek*, 2, pp. 68-88.
Siposné Nándori E. (2011): Subjective poverty and its relation to objective poverty concepts in Hungary. Social Indicators Research, 3, pp. 537-556.
Siposné Nándori E. (2013): Interpretation of poverty in St. Louis County, Minnesota. Applied Research in Quality of Life. DOI: 10.1007/s11482-013-9245-7
Sjoberg, G. (1955): The Preindustrial City. *American Journal of Sociology. Vol.* 60, No. 5. World Urbanism, pp. 438-445.
S. Molnár E. (2009): A gyermekszám-preferenciák alakulása Magyarországon az elmúlt évtizedekben. *Demográfia*, 4, pp. 283-312.
S. Nagy K. (2007) (ed.): *Szociológia közgazdászoknak*. Typotex. Budapesti Műszaki és Gazdaságtudományi Egyetem, Gazdaság- és Társadalomtudományi Kar, Társadalomismeret Intézet, Szociológia és Kommunikáció Tanszék.
Spéder Zs. (2002): *A szegénység változó arcai: Tények és értelmezések*. Andorka Rudolf Társadalomtudományi Társaság, Budapest, Századvég.
Spéder Zs. (2005): Az európai családformák változatossága. Párkapcsolatok, szülői és gyermeki szerepek az európai országokban az ezredfordulón. *Századvég,* No. 3, pp. 3-47

Spradley, J. P. – McCurdy, D. W. (1987): *Issues in Cultural Anthropology*. Selected Reading. Waveland, 4.
Szabó P. (2008): A térszerkezet fogalma, értelmezése. In: Tér és Társadalom, Vol. 22, No. 4. pp. 63-80.
Szántó Zs. – Susánszky É. (2006): Orvosi szociológia. Semmelweis Kiadó és Multimédia Stúdió.
Takács D. (2009): *A „boldogság közgazdaságtana" című doktori értekezés tézisei*. Széchenyi István Egyetem Regionális- és Gazdaságtudományi Doktori Iskola Győr.
The Economist (2010): *Measuring global poverty. Whose problem now?* October 2nd. p. 58
"The World Factbook". Central Intelligence Agency. November 13, 2012
Tomka B. (2009): Európa társadalomtörténete a 20. században. Osiris Kiadó. Budapest.
Tóth J. (1981): A településhálózat és a környezet kölcsönhatásának néhány elméleti és gyakorlati kérdése. Földrajzi Értesítő, 2-3. sz. pp. 267-291.
Tóth J. (2002): *Általános társadalomföldrajz.* Dialog Campus Kiadó, Budapest-Pécs.
Tóthné Sikora G. (2002): *Munkaerőpiaci ismeretek* (oktatási segédlet), Letölthető: http://www.uni-miskolc.hu/vrgi/human/mp.doc
United Nations website. www.un.org
Ura, K. – Alkire, S. – Zangmo, T. – Wangdi, K. (2012): A Short Guide to Gross National Happiness Index. The Centre for Bhutan Studies. Bhutan
Van De Kaa, D. J. (1997): Európa második demográfiai átmenete. *Population Bulletin*, 42, No. l, A publication of the Population Reference Bureau, Inc. Netherlands.
Varga A. (2005): Agglomeráció, technológiai haladás és gazdasági növekedés: a K+F térszerkezet makrogazdasági hatásainak vizsgálata. Akadémiai Doktori Értekezés, Pécs.
Vida G. (2001): Merre tovább? *Magyar Tudomány*, 6, pp. 641-646.
Wollnick, T. (ed.) (2009): *Statistics and the quality of life. Measuring progress – a world beyond GDP*. Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development. Capacity Building International, Germany, Bonn.
www.eur-lex.europa.eu
Zambrano, Eduardo (2011): Measuring HDI Measurements: Why the New Model Works Best. http://hdr.undp.org/en/humandev/lets-talk-hd/2011-01b/ Last download: 15 February 2013.
Zoltán Z. (1984): A dinamikus gazdaságföldrajz elmélete. Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest.

Definitions

Concept	*Definition*
Agglomeration	An urbanised system of settlements with one or more centres where there are tight cultural, economic, communal and service connections between the centre and the suburbs around it. (Romváry 2010)
Atypical employment	Atypical work refers to employment relationships not conforming to the standard or 'typical' model of full-time, regular, open-ended employment with a single employer over a long time-span. (Eurofound)
Chain migration	A type of migration when the decision of the individuals or groups on migration is influenced by their friends or family members who live in the host country.
Chicago School	It was the first major school emerging in the 1920s and 1930s that was specialised in urban sociology and research into urban spatial structure.
Cognitive dissonance	The discomfort or frustration experienced when one holds two or more conflicting cognitions at the same time.
Commuting	A regular movement between a person's place of residence and workplace.
Conurbation	A region including a number of cities, towns and other urban areas that form a continuous urban and industrially developed area as a result of population growth.
Crude reproduction rate	It expresses to how many daughters a female would give birth to during her life at a birth frequency by age of the given year.
Discrimination	In economics, discrimination refers to the case when the members of two groups with the same productivity are not treated equally. (Lovász-Telegdy, 2009, p. 46)
Ecological footprint	It represents the size of land and sea area necessary to supply the resources that the world population consumes and to assimilate the waste.
Economically active	The sum of the employed and the unemployed.
Economically inactive	All persons who are not classified as employed or as unemployed.
Employed	Who „worked at least one hour for pay or profit during the reference week or was temporarily absent from such work" (Eurostat).
"Equal pay for equal work"	The concept of labour rights, where equal treatment should be enforced, i.e. individuals doing the same work should receive the same remuneration.
External migration	Migration from one country to the other.
Great race	The classes of the biologically unified Homo sapiens sapiens, which are usually defined on a geographical and anthropological basis.
Human capital	It is the stock of competencies, knowledge, experience, which is a form of capital and a part of the companies'

	wealth. Its operation and development is expensive and requires significant investment from the individual and from the organisation. (Kőváry 1991, p. 10)
Internal migration	Migration within a country.
Intercontinental migration	Migration from one continent to the other.
Living apart together (LAT)	It refers to couples who have an intimate relationship but live separately (Spéder 2005).
Malthusian pessimism	Because population growth is exponential while agricultural productivity growth is linear, food demand will exceed supply capacity and it will cause worldwide starvation and/or the need for population control measures.
Migration	A type of territorial mobility, when the permanent change of the place of residence does not make it possible to keep the previous workplace because of the long distance between the previous and the new places of residence. (Tomka 2009)
Mobility	Movement of individuals or groups within the system of social inequalities.
Morbidity	It shows the incidence of a given illness in a population.
Natural increase / decrease	The difference between live births and deaths.
Pandemic	An epidemic that affects most of the population in a given area at a given time. It usually affects people on a whole continent or on several continents.
Population density	Average population per one km^2. (persons/km^2)
Population pyramid	A chart describing the age and gender structure of the population.
Rogers curve	A curve that describes the age-specific characteristics of migration.
Sensory treadmill	The expansion of consumption does not increase subjective wellbeing.
Social capital	The specificities of social organisations, like networks, norms or social trust that can promote the mutually advantageous coordination and cooperation. (Alone 1995)
Suburbanisation	The growth of the areas of the suburbs, i.e. the fringes of cities due to migration from the city centres.
“Three C-s”	The non-material goods that govern post-industrial economy and the possession of which means authority. Its elements are concept, competence and connections.
Total fertility rate	It expresses to how many children a female would give birth during her life at the birth frequency by age of the given year.
Unemployed	A person who was „not employed during the reference week and had actively sought work during the past four weeks and was ready to begin working immediately or within two weeks” (Eurostat)
Urbanisation	The physical growth of urban areas as a result of migration

	from rural or suburban areas.
World models	Attempts to understand and systematise the global problems of the world and to predict the future. (Gidai – Tóth 2001)

Test questions / tasks:

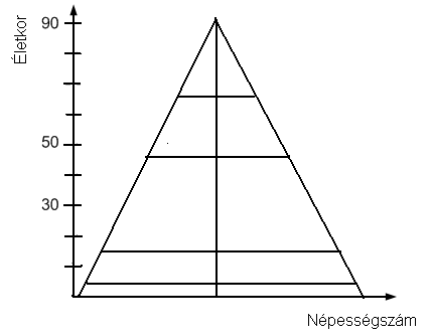
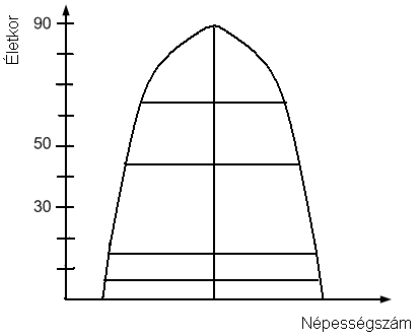
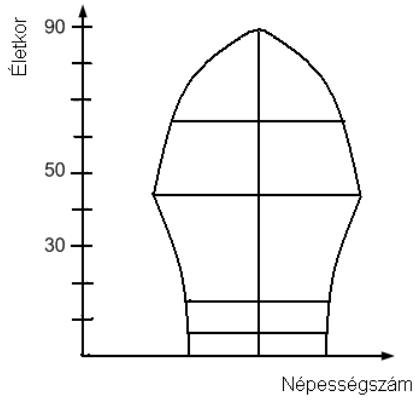
MULTIPLE ANSWER QUESTION	
TOPIC	Cycles of population growth by Deevey
TASK	List the phases of population growth by Deevey.
ANSWERS	
POSSIBLE ANSWERS	**SCORE**
Hunting-gathering	1
Agricultural	1
Industrial	1

MULTIPLE ANSWER QUESTION	
TOPIC	Gender differences
QUESTION	What are the main social causes of gender differences?
ANSWERS	
POSSIBLE ANSWERS	**SCORE**
social roles	1
lifestyle strategies	1
harmful behaviour for health	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Pros and cons of migration in the host country	
TASK	Match the effects of migration with one of the advantages or disadvantages (pros or cons) of migration.	
ANSWERS		
PROS and CONS	**EFFECTS**	**SCORE**
Demographic advantage	increased population growth	1
Economic advantage	alleviating sectoral lack of labour force	1
Economic disadvantage	overloaded infrastructure	1
Social advantage	saving in education expenses	1
Social disadvantage	integration problems	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Phases of population growth	
TASK	Match the phases of population growth with their characteristics.	
ANSWERS		
PHASES	**CHARACTERISTIC**	**SCORE**
Pre-transition	high birth and death rates, low life expectancy, slow population growth	1
First transition	high birth rate, decreasing death rate, increasing	1

	life expectancy, faster population growth	
Second transition	decreasing birth and death rates, increasing life expectancy, slower population growth	1
Post-transition	low birth and death rates, increasing life expectancy, slower population growth or stagnating population	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Population pyramids	
TASK	Match the population pyramids with their captions.	
ANSWERS		
POPULATION PYRAMID	**CAPTION**	**SCORE**
	Expansive pyramid	1
	Stable pyramid	1
	Constrictive pyramid	1

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Composition of migration
TASK For a gap:	Complete the sentence.

[answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	In the 1960s, they were mainly [families, single men, single women, men leaving their families at home] who migrated in Europe, in the 1980s, however, the migration of [families, single men, single women, men leaving their families at home] became typical.

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Age-specific migration
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. Based on [chain migration, the Rogers curve], one can conclude that the frequency of migration [decreases, increases] with retirement.

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Population in Europe in the 20th century
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. In most of the European countries, [the number of births, life expectancy, the number of immigrants] has decreased since the 1960s. In some countries, state interventions have tried to improve this situation, which have [resulted in temporary improvement, resulted in permanent improvement, not resulted in any change].

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Population forecasts
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. In most of the European countries, population is going to [decrease, increase, stagnate] in the next decades, except for some countries such as Ireland, where population [growth, decrease, stagnation] is supported by [high level social supports, positive net migration, young age structure], or Great Britain, where population [growth, decrease, stagnation] is caused by [high level social supports, positive net migration, young age structure].

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Demographic challenges
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. The European society is getting [older, younger], which raises the problem of [the sustainability of the pension system, the administrative restriction of the population]. .

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	China and India
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. Population growth is intended to be restricted by [administrative measures, the improvement of education level and health status] in China, while by [administrative measures, the improvement of education level and health status] in India.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION	
TOPIC	Labour market rates
TASK	Choose the rates that can be used to describe labour market trends.
ANSWERS	
POSSIBLE ANSWERS	**SCORE**
Activity rate	1
Employment rate	1
Unemployment rate	1
Rate of female population	0

MULTIPLE ANSWER QUESTION	
TOPIC	The Roma
KÉRDÉS SZÖVEGE	How can the Roma be defined?
ANSWERS	
POSSIBLE ANSWERS	**SCORE**
By self-classification	1
Deemed to be Roma by the majority of the population	1

Language	1
Based on skin colour	0
Based on clothing	0

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Lisbon targets	
TASK	Match the rates and their target values for 2010.	
ANSWERS		
RATE	**TARGET VALUE**	**SCORE**
Employment rate of the total population	70	1
Female employment rate	60	1
Elderly (55 +) employment rate	50	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Origin of great races	
TASK	Match the great races with their origin.	
ANSWERS		
GREAT RACE	**CHARACTERISTIC**	**SCORE**
Caucasian	Middle Asia	1
Mongoloid	Eastern Asia	1
Negroid	Southern Africa	1
Australoid	Australia	1

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Minorities in Europe
TASK Szöveghely esetén: [válasz], Szöveghelyre választás esetén: [válasz1, válasz2, válasz3] a helyes aláhúzva!!!	Complete the sentence. The most populous minority in the Carpathian-Balkan basin is the [German, Roma, Slovak], which has [5.5, 6.5, 10.3] million members.

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Employment rates
TASK For a gap: [answer],	Complete the sentence. The employment rate of the USA is higher than

For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	that of [the European Union, Japan], but lower than that of [the European Union, Japan].

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Labour market rates
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. The unemployment rate compares the number of the unemployed with the number of the [employed, active, working age population] and the employment rate compares the number of the employed with the number of the [employed, active, working age population].

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Poverty concepts	
TASK	Match the poverty concepts with the poverty definitions.	
ANSWERS		
POVERTY CONCEPT	**POVERTY DEFINITION**	**SCORE**
Absolute	The poor are those who live on less than USD 4.3 a day.	1
Relative	The poor are those who live on less than 60% of median income.	1
Subjective	According to the bulk of the population, the poor are those who do not have a bathroom in their home.	1
Political	The poor are those who are entitled to regular social grant.	1

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION	
TOPIC	Types of social capital
KÉRDÉS SZÖVEGE	What types of social capital can be distinguished?
ANSWERS	
POSSIBLE ANSWERS	**SCORE**
commitments and expectations	1
information channels	1
norms and effective sanctions	1
human capital	0
financial capital	0

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Equal opportunity and equal treatment
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. Ensuring [equal opportunity, equal treatment] makes positive discrimination possible, [equal opportunity, equal treatment], however, includes only legal tools.

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	International comparison of poverty
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. The World Bank uses the [absolute, relative, political, subjective] poverty concept for international comparisons, even if [it does not take into account the different price and income levels among countries, it defines poverty compared to the average welfare level of the society, it is relevant only to defining entitlement to social support], therefore it is not certain that it provides reliable information about the poverty in a given country.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION	
TOPIC	Explanations for the welfare paradox
TASK	Choose the potential explanations for the welfare paradox.
ANSWERS	
POSSIBLE ANSWERS	**SCORE**
problem of leisure time	1
status competition	1
treadmill effect	1
choice paradox	1
time saving inventions	1
sensory treadmill	0
double burden	0
glass ceiling effect	0

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Urbanisation model of Enyedi	
TASK	Match the stages of urbanisation with their characteristics.	
ANSWERS		
STAGE	**CHARACTERISTIC**	**SCORE**

Urban explosion	Quantitative growth	1
Relative de-concentration	Important role of infrastructure	1
De-urbanisation	Post-industrialism	1
Urbanisation of informatics	De-concentration of workplaces	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Paradox	
TASK	Match the paradoxes with their explanations.	
ANSWERS		
PARADOX	**EXPLANATION**	**SCORE**
Easterlin paradox	Above a certain income level, the increase of material well-being does not increase subjective well-being.	1
Welfare paradox	The increase of material well-being is not correlated to the subjective perception of happiness.	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Space structural models	
TASK	Match the space structural models with their authors.	
ANSWERS		
MODEL	**AUTHOR**	**SCORE**
Concentric zone model	Burgess	1
Sector model	Hoyt	1
Multiple nuclei model	Harris and Ullmann	1

MATCHING		
TOPIC	Types of European cities	
TASK	Match the types of European cities with their characteristics.	
ANSWERS		
TYPE	**CHARACTERISTIC**	**SCORE**
International hubs	Global effect	1
Specified poles	Includes research centres	1
Regional poles	Includes de-industrialised cities	1

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	First cities

TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. The first cities appeared in [Mesopotamia, Egypt, Europe]. The spread of [agriculture, industry, services] played an important role in this process.

SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Rate of urban population
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. The rate of urban population was [20, 30, 40] percent in 1950, while it was more than [50, 60, 70] percent in 2010.
SENTENCE COMPLETION	
TOPIC	Treadmill effect
TASK For a gap: [answer], For a choice for a gap: [answer1, answer 2, answer3] the correct one underlined	Complete the sentence. The treadmill effect refers to cases when [one does not have enough free time while making efforts to acquire more material goods, changes of great volume in one's living circumstances can modify our perception of happiness only temporarily], while sensory treadmill means that [many people feel not having enough free time because of working a lot, the expansion of consumption does not increase the perception of happiness].