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**Economic, Social and Historical Aspects of European Integration: the Case of Poland**

Abstracts of lectures /without pictures and maps/:

**Lecture 1**

**Main stages of the European integration process in XX and XXI Century. The brief history of Polish access to the EU.**

1. The brief history of the European Union.

Norman Davies:

1870-1946 75 years of the European war between France and Germany

The effects:

a/ making new deal in Europe by external forces (USA and SSSR);

b/ economic and political weakness of all European states;

c/ fear for appearance a new military conflict.

European needs, fears and hopes after 1945 /Werner Weidenfeld/:

The Founding Fathers of the EU

The 10steps:

1/ 1951: The European Coal and Steel Community is set up by the six founding members.

This put in place a common market in coal and steel between the six founding countries (Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands). The aim, in the aftermath of the Second World War, was to secure peace between Europe’s victorious and vanquished nations and bring them together as equals, cooperating within shared institutions.

2/ 1957: The Treaties of Rome: the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom).

The first would involve building a wider common market covering a whole range of goods and services. Customs duties between the six countries were abolished on 1 July 1968 and common policies, notably on trade and agriculture, were also put in place during the 1960s.

3/ 1973: The Communities expand to nine member states and introduce more common policies.

Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom joined to the Treaties

and new social and environmental policies were introduced.

4/ 1979: The first direct elections to the European Parliament.

5/ 1981: The first Mediterranean enlargement.

In 1981, Greece joined the Communities, followed by Spain and Portugal in 1986. This expansion of the Communities into southern Europe made it all the more necessary to implement regional aid programmes.

6/ 1992: The European single market becomes a reality.

7/ 1993: The Treaty of Maastricht establishes the European Union (EU).

After the fall of the Soviet domination in Central Europe (1989) and the dissolving of the Soviet Union in 1991 members of European Communities started to integration by establish of intergovernmental cooperation in areas such as foreign policy and internal security.

8/ 2002: The euro comes into circulation.

Europe was facing the growing challenges of globalisation. New technologies and the ever-increasing use of the Internet were modernising economies but also creating social and cultural tensions. The EU answer was new, common currency EURO to make life easier for businesses, consumers and travellers.

9/ 2007: The EU has 27 member states.

After the changes in Central Europe, new countries started to aspire to be a member of the EU. The EU welcomed this chance to help stabilise the European continent and to extend the benefits of European integration to the young democracies. In 2004-2007 12 countries join to the Union.

10/ 2009: The Lisbon Treaty comes into force, changing the way the EU works.

To enable it to face the complex challenges of the 21st century, the enlarged EU needed a simpler and more efficient method for taking its joint decisions. The new Treaty amends but does not replace the previous treaties and it is a kind of the new European Constitution.

2. How does the Europe work?

The European Union is more than just a confederation of countries, but it is not a federal state. In fact, its structure does not fall into any traditional legal category. It is historically unique, and its decision-making system has been constantly evolving for the past 60 years or so.

* The EU’s Heads of State and/or Government meet, as the European Council, to set the EU’s overall political direction and to take major decisions on key issues. The European Council has a permanent President and the post of High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy.
* The Council, made up of ministers from the EU member states, meets frequently to take policy decisions and make EU laws.
* The European Parliament, which represents the people, shares legislative and budgetary power with the Council.
* The European Commission, which represents the common interest of the EU, is the main executive body. It puts forward proposals for legislation and ensures that EU policies are properly implemented.
* The Court of Justice of the European Union, located in Luxembourg, is made up of one judge from each EU country, assisted by eight advocates-general. They are appointed by joint agreement of the governments of the member states for a renewable term of six years. Their independence is guaranteed. The Court’s role is to ensure that EU law is complied with, and that the Treaties are correctly interpreted and applied.
* The European Central Bank (ECB), in Frankfurt, is responsible for managing the euro and the EU’s monetary policy. Its main task is to maintain price stability in the euro area. The Central Bank acquired the status of EU institution under the Treaty of Lisbon.

3. The Enlargement of the EU /map presentation/

4. Poland in the EU

* **Poland** (the **Republic of Poland**; Rzeczpospolita *Polska*)
* The total area of Poland is 312,679 square kilometers (the 9th largest country in Europe).
* Population: over 38.5 million people (the sixth most populous member of the EU, and the most populous post-communist member of the EU).
* Poland is a unitary state divided into 16 administrative subdivisions.
* Poland is the sixth largest economy within the EU and one among the fastest rising economic states in the world. The country is the sole member nation of the European Union to have escaped a decline in GDP.
* Poland's high-income economy is considered to be one of the healthiest of the CEE countries and is one of the fastest growing within the EU.
* The strength of the Polish economy is based on: a strong domestic market, low private debt, flexible currency, and not being dependent on a single export sector.

**Lecture 2**

**Four free movements at the European market. Poland and economic policy of EU.**

1. The single market.

The European Union is a **single market. This** is a type of [trade bloc](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trade_bloc) in which most trade barriers have been removed (for [goods](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Good_%28economics%29)) with some common policies on product regulation, and [freedom of movement](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Freedom_of_movement) of the [factors of production](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Factors_of_production) ([capital](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Capital_%28economics%29) and [labour](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Labour_%28economics%29)) and of [enterprise](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Capitalism) and [services](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Service_%28economics%29). The goal is that the movement of capital, labour, goods, and services between the members is as easy as within them. The physical (borders), technical (standards) and fiscal (taxes) barriers among the member states are removed to the maximum extent possible. These barriers obstruct the freedom of movement of the four factors of production.

2. The European economic policies.

a/Common Agricultural Policy.

The European Union establishes common rules for agricultural markets. In particular, these rules concern public intervention in the markets, quota and aid schemes, marketing and production standards, and trade with third countries.

The need to increase food production and restructure agriculture in the early years of European integration following the Second World War led to the common agricultural policy (CAP).

Ensuring a stable supply of affordable and quality food for the EU's half a billion citizens, as well as a substantial volume of exports, it also plays a crucial role in safeguarding the future of rural communities, villages and towns, biodiversity, the landscape and soil quality.

Radically reshaped in 2013 in order to be fairer, greener, more efficient and more innovative, the CAP remains of key importance, contributing to more sustainable and inclusive growth, key objectives of the EU's 2020 Strategy.

The common organisation of agricultural markets refers to the legal framework established at European level for certain agricultural sectors. The agricultural sectors concerned are listed in Annexes I and II to the Regulation.

The European Union (EU) therefore provides **common rules** for managing agricultural markets, standards for marketing agricultural products and for importing and exporting them to/from the European Union. Those rules are specially connected with:

**Market intervention**

The price support system takes account of the needs of each agricultural sector and their interdependence. The measures take the form of:

* **public intervention** in the markets for agricultural products;
* the payment of **aid for the private storage** of cereals, rice, sugar, olive oil and table olives, beef and veal, milk and milk products, pigmeat, sheepmeat and goatmeat.

**Quota schemes**

**National production quotas are fixed for sugar and milk.**

**Aid schemes**

**Aid** is also provided for the following sectors:

* sugar (production refund measures);
* milk and milk products, olive oil and table olives, fruits and vegetables, and apiculture products;
* programmes promoting the consumption of fruit and milk in schools;
* wine and hops sectors;
* silkworm rearing.

**Producer and interbranch organisations**

In particular, producer organisations must develop a joint programme of production and be able to adapt to demand.

**2. Trade with third countries**

In principle, the levying of any charge having equivalent effect to a customs duty and the application of any quantitative restriction or measure having equivalent effect are prohibited in trade with third countries.

**Imports**

The Commission can require the presentation of **import licences** for products from certain sectors: cereals, rice, sugar, seed, olive oil and table olives, flax and hemp, bananas, wine, live plants, beef and veal, pigmeat, sheepmeat and goatmeat, poultry, milk and milk products, eggs and agricultural ethyl alcohol.

**Exports**

The Commission may require the presentation of **export licences** for products in the sectors pertaining to cereals, rice, sugar, olive oil and table olives, fresh and processed fruits and vegetables, wine, beef and veal, pigmeat, sheepmeat and goatmeat, poultry, milk and milk products, eggs and agricultural ethyl alcohol.

The export of certain products may be supported by **export refunds** which cover the difference between global and EU market prices.

# 3.Business-friendly environment

Creating a business friendly environment for existing small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and potential entrepreneurs is one of the EU's main objectives. The European Commission is working together with the EU countries on developing SME-friendly policies, monitoring the progress in their implementation and sharing best practices.

The Small Business Act (SBA) is an overarching framework for the EU policy on Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs). It aims to improve the approach to entrepreneurship in Europe, simplify the regulatory and policy environment for SMEs, and remove the remaining barriers to their development. The Act was adopted in 2008 and the Commission is now working on a new version that will make the life of European businesses easier and unleash their full potential to create jobs and growth.

## Main priorities of the SBA

* [Promoting entrepreneurship](http://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/promoting-entrepreneurship/index_en.htm)
* [Less regulatory burden](http://ec.europa.eu/smart-regulation/refit/index_en.htm)
* [Access to finance](http://ec.europa.eu/growth/access-to-finance/index_en.htm)
* [Access to markets and internationalisation](http://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/access-to-markets/index_en.htm)

# Green Action Plan for SMEs

The Green Action Plan (GAP) aims to help small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) take advantage of opportunities offered by the transition to a green economy. It presents ways for SMEs to turn environmental challenges into business opportunities.

## Objectives of the GAP

* raising SMEs’ awareness of resource efficiency improvements and the potential of the circular economyfor productivity, [competitiveness](http://ec.europa.eu/growth/industry/competitiveness/index_en.htm), and business opportunities;
* informing SMEs about EU resource efficiency actions  under the [COSME](http://ec.europa.eu/growth/access-to-finance/cosme-financial-instruments/index_en.htm), [Horizon 2020](http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/horizon2020/), and [LIFE programmes](http://ec.europa.eu/environment/life/), and the [European Structural and Investment Funds](http://ec.europa.eu/contracts_grants/funds_en.htm).

## The GAP aims to help businesses by

* improving productivity;
* driving down costs;
* supporting green entrepreneurship;
* developing European leadership in green processes and technologies.

# SME Regional policies

Maintaining a broad base of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) is very important for economic development of a region, its wealth and sustainability. To help create a business friendly environment and boost SMEs' competitiveness also on a regional level, the European Commission provides analysis, shares best practices, programmes and policy initiatives.

4. The Polish economy

Poland's high-income economy is considered to be one of the healthiest of the post-Communist countries and is one of the fastest growing within the EU. Having a strong domestic market, low private debt, flexible currency, and not being dependent on a single export sector, Poland is the only European economy to have avoided the [late-2000s recession](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Recession). Since the [fall of the communist government](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Revolutions_of_1989), Poland has pursued a policy [of liberalising](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neoliberalism) the economy. It is an example of the transition from a [centrally planned](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Planned_economy) to a primarily [market-based economy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Market_economy). In 2009 Poland had the highest GDP growth in the EU - 1.6%. The country's most successful exports include machinery, furniture, foods and meats, motor boats, light planes, hardwood products, casual clothing, shoes and cosmetics. Germany is by far the biggest importer of Poland's exports as of 2013.

Poland, according to the purchasing power parity is the sixth economy in the European Union and the eighth in Europe, slightly preceding the Netherlands.

In terms of wealth, the state is considered "highly developed" since 2010. Out of 50 European countries, it is placed in the middle - on the 25th place. Majority of Western-European countries are placed above (except Portugal and Andorra) and so are three post-communist ones (Slovenia, Czech Republic and Estonia). Among the EU, Poland is on the 20th place (ex aequo with Lithuania), which is a better result than majority of states from the "new European Union" - apart from three aforementioned EU members, Poland is preceded only by Cyprus. Level of wealth in Poland is similar to the one in Portugal, Hungary (that are just slightly lower) or Estonia.

Poland develops dynamically and constantly, even the financial crisis did not interrupt this process. More than half of Polish people who are professionally active have a job (51%). In comparison, in the United Kingdom, this percentage amounts to 70%.

Despite the fact that Polish economy catches up with the West of Europe, it is a slow process. Thus far, taking into account the level of social development, it managed to outrun Portugal. Yet, there is significant diversification among regions. Masovian Voivodeship is on a similar level to the majority of Spanish regions and the poorest French ones (73% of the EU's average). It should be kept in mind that GDP of this Voivodeship is generated mostly by Warsaw, and the remaining regions do not exceed even the half of the EU's average. Lower Silesian Voivodeship with GDP reaching 16,000$ is on par with Portugal and the poorest regions of Spain and Greece. Another Voivodeships reach about 50% of the EU's average, while the poorest Eastern regions have GDP per capita comparable to Romania and Bulgaria.

Polish capital has a number of concerns significant in this part of Europe, such as PKN Orlen, that has its stations in Germany and Lithuania, Polsat, that invests also in Lithuania, or Grupa ITI. The opening of labor markets for the Polish people contributed to the decrease of unemployment, which in some counties amounts to over 30%. Poles working abroad sent back home around 22 billion zlotys, contributing to a 1,5% economic growth.

**Lecture 3**

**European educational system: University of Rzeszów in European network.**

1. Basic information about the Bologna Process

The Bologna Process has created the European Higher Education Area.

The basic framework adopted is of three cycles of higher education [qualifications](http://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/qualification). The framework of qualifications defines the qualifications in terms of learning outcomes. These are statements of what students know and can do on completion of their degrees. In describing the cycles the framework makes use of the [European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/European_Credit_Transfer_and_Accumulation_System) (ECTS):

* 1st cycle: typically 180–240 ECTS credits, usually awarding a [bachelor's degree](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bachelor%27s_degree). The [European Higher Education Area](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/European_Higher_Education_Area) did not introduce the Bachelor with Honours programme, which allows graduates with a "BA hons." degree (e.g. in UK, Australia, Canada) which in some jurisdictions (UK, Australia) may enable graduates to undertake doctoral studies without first having to obtain a master's degree.
* 2nd cycle: typically 90–120 ECTS credits (a minimum of 60 on 2nd-cycle level). Usually awarding a [master's degree](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Master%27s_degree).
* 3rd cycle: [doctoral](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Doctorate) degree. No ECTS range given.

In most cases, these will take 3–4 years for a [bachelor's degree](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bachelor%27s_degree), 1–2 years for a [master's degree](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Master%27s_degree), and 3–4 years for a [doctoral](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Doctorate) degree, respectively to complete. The actual naming of the degrees may vary from country to country.

One academic year corresponds to 60 ECTS-credits that are equivalent to 1,500–1,800 hours of study.

2. The brief history of the University of Rzeszów, its mission and ideas

The University of Rzeszów was established in the 1st of September 2001. It was created from three independent units: Pedagogical Academy in Rzeszów, subsidiary of Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin and Faculty of Economy in Rzeszów of Academy of Agriculture in Kraków.

Because of its location, the University of Rzeszów realizes unique tasks in contacts with foreign universities, mostly Ukrainian and Slovakian. We have constant cooperation with 61 universities. Students and academic teachers take part in internships, conferences and scientific camps organized abroad. As part of Erasmus programme students can go on exchange to 67 European universities.

Improvement of quality of university's functioning by implementing an integrated system of management is a vital issue for its authorities.

Mission: The University of Rzeszów is a culture-creating, entrepreneurial and innovative academic centre that creates socioeconomic development and shapes intellectual capital for the sake of contemporary economy and culture. It bases on highly-educated staff, modern scientific and research supply base, high quality of research, cultural heritage of the region and country and is in accordance with fundamental values, rules and norms that are rooted in academic tradition.

The mission of the University of Rzeszów is understood as a reason of this organization's existence, refers to roles that it fulfills and areas of its functioning - the scientific, educational and culture-creating dimension of social and economic life of the Podkarpacie region, country and Europe.

The University of Rzeszów belongs to the "family of universities" and is faithful to their universal goals: striving for truth, protecting freedom and openness for knowledge and new ideas and respecting of people's dignity and historical and cultural identity of regions and states. The university develops abilities of cooperation regardless of ideological, political and religious differences. Thus, it shapes personality and civic attitudes among students, preparing them to responsibility that comes with social and public roles. The university guarantees a high level of scientific research: basic and applied for the sake of achieving progress of scientific knowledge with profit to various fields of science, culture and economic practice.

3. The structure of University of Rzeszów

The university employs in total (full and part time, as a first and second job) 1284 academic teachers, including 115 titular professors, 194 professors (PhD with Habilitation), 669 PhD (and Medicine Doctors) and 316 Masters of Arts or Sciences.

There are 21047 students on stationary, non-stationary, graduate, postgraduate and PhD studies.

There are 10 faculties and one institute with the rights of a faculty that allows education in 42 degree courses:

Faculty of Biology and Agriculture (with Centers of: Innovation and Implementation of Technology in Food Industry; Processing of Biomass and Waste to Energy; Transfer of Technology and Basic Research);

Faculty of Economy (with Center of Food Marketing);

Faculty of Philology;

Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences (with Centres of: Microelectronics and Nanotechnology; Innovation and Transfer of Technical and Environmental Knowledge);

Faculty of Medicine;

Faculty of Pedagogy;

Faculty of Law and Administration;

Faculty of Sociology and History;

Faculty of Art;

Faculty of Physical Education;

Branch Campus of the Faculty of Biotechnology (with Centre of Applied Biotechnology and Basic Sciences)

There are other scientific and research centers that are being organized: Interdisciplinary Center of Computer Modeling, Environmental and Medical Center of Innovative Research; Biotechnology Laboratory, Center of Innovative Technologies.

5 faculties are entitled to confer the degree of PhD in 9 disciplines. Also, one faculty can confer the degree of Habilitation in 2 disciplines.

4. Further Development and International Cooperation.

The University of Rzeszów realizes 30 projects that aim to strengthen and develop the didactic potential and increase in alumni of degree courses which are most strategic for economy based on knowledge. Currently, the university is involved in such programmes as: Development of East Poland, Infrastructure and Environment, Innovative Economy, Human Capital, Regional Operational Programme of Podkarpacie Voivodeship, Transborder Cooperation Programme POLAND - BELARUS - UKRAINE 2007-2013, Operational Programme of Transborder Cooperation Republic of Poland - Republic of Slovakia 2007-2013.

One of the university's priorities is also to create infrastructure that will serve as a scientific and didactic base for new degree courses and specializations, such as: medicine, microelectronics, nanotechnology, aviation materials, medical bioengineering, bio-information technology, analytic biotechnology and biomaterials. Moreover, innovative scientific and didactic centers are being created with the use of the European Union projects (e.g. Scientific-Didactic Complex - Zalesie), and within organized consortia (e.g. Environment-Friendly Biotechnologies within the Development of Scientific-Technological Park in Podkarpacie; National Centre of Synchrotron Radiation for Research Purposes; Interdisciplinary Center of Advanced Technologies of Environment Protection).

**Lecture 4**

**United in diversity. Cultural differences in Europe.**

1. The identity question

The motive of fluency and change in microsocial scale of effects, is recently quite commonly described by category of identity. Identity is what is fluent, and simultaneously used by an individual as a tool of familiarization of change; that is how Zygmunt Bauman (1998) and Anthony Giddens (1991) describe it, and as it was suggested earlier by George H. Mead (1975). There is why recently identity is the term in common use. Researchers who asked for individual’s world-view, its consciousness or experience usually describe this questions as identity ones. In the age of high reflexivity (cf. Giddens 1991) individual have attention on themselves and its identity narration may be the story about culture, and vice versa; its characteristic of culture is often a declaration of one’s own competence and cultural preferences. It is relevant, because translating those concepts for analyzed here interlocutor’s statements it can be assumed that we register and analyze their identities which are determined here and now, regardless of their deep conviction that their identity is changeless and stable (cf. Baumann, 1998). This, in turn, allows an assumption that this “here and now” identity is not isolated from broader context of local social relations, so it remains in contact with their work oriented on implementation of European Union’s projects and regulations, involvement in local culture and social life and experiences of disappearance of state-border between their community and other similar communities on the south slope of Carpathian Mountains.

The examination of identity declarations in the context of diffusing the state-borders, revealing regionalisms and the integration process within the European Union has become a traditional method of describing national differences and local distinctness in social or group’s boundaries category (cf. Cohen, 1985; Donnan & Wilson, 1999). Identity in the Central-Eastern Europe was exposed to actions that lead both to strengthening and weakening the social borders, especially in the beginning of XXI century, as Joanna Kurczewska notices (2008b, 21-22):

*One may say that two different processes are taking place simultaneously in this European space: invalidation of boundaries (meaning those between new EU members such as Poland and Slovakia) and the ascription of significance to these boundaries at the various levels of aggregation of both social life and sociopolitical debate. (…) the nature of various types of boundaries – local, regional, national, state, supra-state and continental – is becoming increasingly problematic in the consciousness and activities of individuals, institutions, and entire societies and cultures. On the other hand, this problematic nature can be restrained via domestic strategies (most of them attempted by major political parties and circles) to legitimize post-socialist states and cultures by referring to a variety of national ideologies.*

As a result of that, the identity discourse is taking place in the condition of “*with an* embarras de richesse *of boundaries, divisions, and differences, a fact often leading to a situation in which an excess of real and imaginary boundaries (and discourses about them) are causing many members of national or local communities to conclude that they are insignificant.*” (Kurczewska, 2008b, 22-23)

2. Identity differences in practice

Regional differences /maps/

Ethnic differences: nations, minorities; immigrants

Ewa Nowicka definition of ethnic group:

Ethnic group it is a group, in which members perceive themselves as different from other and are perceived as different by others. This difference assumed:

a/ culture – that is mean language, religion, customs…;

b/ historical genealogy described as community of the past or of the biological descent;

c/ sometimes features of personality;

d/ more or less delimitated territory which is settled by the group.”

Categories of ethnic groups (G. Babiński):

1/ a nation; 2/ nationalities; 3/ a national minority; 4/ an immigrant group; 5/ an ethno-regional group; 6/ a tribe and a folk group. Differences between those groups appear in a few dimensions (or criterions): modernity vs. tradition; cultural complexity vs. cultural incomplexity (different levels of it); existence of a national state vs. lack of such state; voluntary vs. involuntary separation from a national state; orientation on sovereignty vs. orientation on autonomy.

Four meanings of ethnicity in social sciences (G. Babiński)

a/ as a kind of social bounds/ties/attachment;

b/ as a consciousness; identification with the ethnic group, its culture or tradition (sense of peoplehood);

c/ as an ethnic group or some its features;

d/ as an ethnic movement.

3. Idea of multiculturalism

a/ The roots of multuculturalism – theories of pluralism: theory of plural societies (Furnival and M.G. Smith); theory of pluralism and assimilation (H. Kallen and M. Gordon).

b/ The main thesis of multicultural theory (Rex and Smolicz):

three dimensions of multiculturalism: ideology, political practice and social structure.

the existence of the sphere of common values in the pluralist’s society.

**Lecture 5**

**What means “to be European” in the divided Europe?**

1. European cultural roots:

a/ The four pillars of the European culture: the Greek rationalism; the Roman law; the Barbarian social structures; The Judeo-antic Christianity

b/ The stages of cultural integration in Europe: Middle Ages; Renaissance and Enlightenment.

c/ Structures of Europe: feudalism, church, universities, cities and trade

2. Discussion about Europe in social sciences

Scientific discussion about Europe and Europeanism is today a part of a wider identity discourse, which is taking place on different dimensions in every society of the Old Continent. What is more, it became added to regional and national debates quite recently. Especially after taking a closer look at the reflection of social sciences (Europeanism appears in political discourse after II World War), the turn of 1980 and 1990 seem to be a substantial moment of introducing the Europeanisation issue. This process was not accidentally converged with two important social-political events: the fall of communism in our part of Europe and acceleration of integration of societies of the Western Europe (Maastricht Treaty). That time significant persons for social sciences, like Jean Marie Domenach (1992), Jurgen Habermas (1993) and Ralf Dahrendorf (1991), spoke about Europe in a brief, but lofty way. Curiously enough, those elaborations were not the analyses of a actual situation, but rather the projects of a future Europe. Especially important conclusions for the consecutive years of functioning of European societies, which resulted from the first debate of sociologists and philosophers, were problems concerning European citizenship (Habermas, 1993) and preserving cultural diversity of Europe (Domenach, 1992). Despite the fact that those concepts did not have any common points of reference, it can be said that later political activities (both European Union and nation-state ones) drew from both of those grounds. Less substantial differences between civic and culturalist vision of Europe were trivially found in distinguishing ideas of Europe of nations and Europe of regions.

Nowadays in scientific discourse Urlich Beck and Edgar Grande (2009) refer to the tradition of presenting “theories for Europe”. Their vision of cosmopolitan Europe regards to an activist factor – political and economic actions – which stands up to normative attitude, which is associated with culturalism. Regardless of values of the concept of Europe described by previously mentioned authors, their work contains marginalization of Domenach’s perspective of “European cultural space”, the perspective, which underlining the cultural diversity rendered service to integration practices both in 1990s and now (cf. students’ exchange programs and scientific cooperation should be associated with his ideas).

The beginning of the XXI century also brings the trials of empiric capturing of Europeanism phenomenon not restricting to easy questions of the Eurobarometer (cf. Berezin & Shain 2003; *European Societies* 2008; Kurczewska & Bojar 2009). This material is very various, but there can be seen a new way of struggling with this problem. Firstly, those works show a variety of concepts of Europe and Europeanism. Some researchers, like Krisham Kumar (2003) and Richard Jenkins (2008), enumerate and describe many ideas of Europe. Their conclusions, often convergent, exceed cultural and sociopolitical attitudes toward Europe connected with the ideas of Habermas and Domenach (Jenkins enumerates six of those main attitudes). This new perspective stress the plurality of the idea of Europeanism.

Another important change of perspective of analysis of Europeanism is acknowledging the diversity of actors taking part in discourse about Europe. R. Jenkins and J. Kurczewska (2008a) realizes this fact and underlines that those actors are located in different spots of European (but also outer-European) space. Both authors separately appreciate the meaning of local actors. Kurczewska describes this issue in a more complex way, indicating that complex arrangements of imaginations of Europeanism built locally or externally enforced (by EU or nation-state) are present in local communities.

This way of understanding Europeanism, which is internally ambiguous, under conditions of local community, which is one of the typical forms of Europeans’ everyday life, coexists with their national, regional and local identification. This coexistence is a reason of searching for connections between those types of identities in the interlocutors’ narrations.

3. European unity today

Four projects of European identity:

a/ general cultural (internal) projects which define Europe as a conglomerate of various cultures linked together by common tradition and history and the ensuing values of tolerance and opennes;

b/ religious (Christian) projects which also refer to the cultural criteria of Europeanism but treat them exclusively and essentialistically;

c/ EU projects according to which the European Union is what determines Europe, its borders and shared cultural features; and

d/ external (western) projects where Europe is treated skeptically, as something unfamiliar and external with respect to the interviewer’s situation.

**Lecture 6**

**Culture and everyday living in Poland.**

## 1. Historical roots of Polish culture

In ancient times, what is now Poland was inhabited by a multitude of ethnic groups, including various Celtic, Slavic (in the centre and south-east), Baltic (in the north-east) and Germanic (in the west and south-west) tribes.

The country's first historically documented ruler was Mieszko I (c. 935-992), Duke of Polans (a territory roughly equivalent to modern Poland).

Polish born astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus formulated the first explicitly heliocentric model of the solar system, thus starting the scientific revolution that would transform Europe and weaken the dogma of the Catholic Church. Ironically, Poland is nowadays one of the most staunchly Catholic country in Europe.

Another Polish astronomer, Johannes Hevelius (1611-1687) published the earliest exact maps of the moon.

Stanislaw Leszczynski (1677-1766), King of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (1704-1709 and 1733-1736), was the father-in-law of Louis XV of France. He was became (the last) Duke of Lorraine after losing the throne of Poland. He gave his name to a World Heritage city square in [Nancy](http://www.eupedia.com/france/nancy.shrml), the then capital of the Duchy of Lorraine.

The last independent King of Poland abdicated in 1795. The core of the country became the Grand Duchy of Warsaw under the protection of Napoleon I. Between 1815 and 1918, Poland ceased to exist as a politcal entity, and was divided between Russia, Prussia (then Germany), and the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

In 1939, Poland had the largest Jewish community in Europe (almost 3.5 million). This may be why 70% of the Nazi extermination camps during WWII were located in what is now Poland, including the three most infamous ones : Auschwitz-Birkenau, Treblinka and Belzec (each with an estimated number of deaths over 600,000).

2. Famous Poles

Poland's long friendship with France during the 18th and 19th centuries has resulted in many Polish artists and intellectuals moving to Paris. It was the case of :

* the classical composer Frédéric Chopin (1810-1849), born in Poland to a Polish mother and a French-expatriate father (hence his French name)
* Marie Curie (born Maria Sklodowska ; 1867-1934), the first and only Nobel laureate in two different sciences and first female professor at the Sorbonne University.

Amongst famous Poles who "made it" in the UK or US, let's cite:

* the writer Joseph Conrad (born Teodor Józef Konrad Nalecz-Korzeniowski, 1857-1924)
* the co-founder of Marks & Spencer, Michael Marks (1859-1907)
* the cosmetics industrialist Helena Rubinstein (1871-1965)
* the biochemist Casimir Funk (1884-1967), who first isolated and formulated the concept of "vitamins" (he also proposed the name).

Poles have won a total of 17 Nobel prizes (more than Japan, China, India or Australia), including four Peace Prizes, and five in Literature.

The highest mountain in Australia, Mount Kosciuszko, was named after general Tadeusz Kosciuszko (1746-1817), who fought against the Russian Empire, as well as in the American Revolutionary War.

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| 3. Some information about everyday life in Poland.  90% of Poles have completed at least secondary education, the highest score in the EU, along with the Czechs, Slovaks, and Slovenes.  Polish people marry the youngest within the European Union (24 years old for women and 26.5 years old for men in average).  According to a 2007 [UNICEF report on child well-being in rich countries](http://news.bbc.co.uk/nol/shared/bsp/hi/pdfs/13_02_07_nn_unicef.pdf), Poland is the second best of the 25 OECD countries surveyed in terms of "behaviours and risks" (healthy lifestyle, lack of violence), and third best for educational well-being. The same reports also finds that Poland has the lowest pecentage overweight young people (7.1%) and the lowest percentage of teenagers under 15 who had had sexual intercourse (15.1%). However, Poland also had the highest number of young people aspiring to low skilled work (17.1%).   |  | | --- | |  | |  |   Polish people have the largest households in the European Union.  Poland is the poorest country in the EU after Bulgaria and Romania in terms of GDP per capita at PPP. |

**Lecture 7**

**Tourism and local economy as the elements of European market.**

This lecture is the presentation of most important places in Podkarpacie region, and products which are specific for that region.

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