Center of European Projects

European Neighbourhood Instrument Cross-border Cooperation Programme
Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020

Publication of the Scientific Papers
of the International Research and Practical Conference

Contemporary Socio-Economic
Issues of Polish-Ukrainian
Cross-border Cooperation

Warsaw 2017
Center of European Projects

European Neighbourhood Instrument Cross-border Cooperation Programme
Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020

Publication of the Scientific Papers
of the International Research and Practical Conference

Contemporary Socio-Economic Issues of Polish-Ukrainian Cross-border Cooperation

Edited by:
Leszek Buller
Hubert Kotarski
Yuriy Pachkovskyy

Warsaw 2017
The international research and practical conference Contemporary Socio-Economic Issues of Polish-Ukrainian Cross-border Cooperation was held under the patronage of Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Economic Development and Finance Mr Mateusz Morawiecki.

The conference was held in partnership with:
University of Rzeszów
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

This document has been produced with the financial assistance of the European Union, under Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013. The contents of this document are the sole responsibility of the Joint Technical Secretariat and can under no circumstances be regarded as reflecting the position of the European Union.
Dear Readers,

We have the pleasure to present you this publication, which is a compendium of articles received for the Scientific Conference “Contemporary Socio-economic Issues of Polish-Ukrainian Cross-border Cooperation”, which took place on 15-17 November 2017 in Rzeszów and Lviv.

The Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020, which organizes the Conference, is an EU-funded Programme operating within the European Neighbourhood Instrument. The overall aim of the Programme is to support cross-border development processes in the borderland of Poland, Belarus and Ukraine. In the 2007-2013 Programme period there were 117 cross-border projects supported and implemented in different thematic fields. In October 2016 the first call for proposals within the current Programme was launched. As a result, 749 applications regarding heritage, accessibility, security and borders were submitted. It shows a huge demand for the cross-border cooperation of various entities all over the eligible regions.

This-year, Scientific Conference is a deep insight into the nature of cross-border relations and various aspects of living on the borders. The themes of the articles include history, religion, social life and political movements, education, science, employment, mobility, economy and finance to name just a few. Such a variety of themes shows how complex the nature of cross-border relations is and, at the same time, how much our countries have in common. It is crucial that the subjects analysed and discussed
during the conference set the paths for the development of future cross-border projects and suggest the tools for solving common challenges. In this way, the conference definitely provides added value to our Programme activities.

Taking this opportunity, I would like to thank the Lviv Ivan Franko National University and the University of Rzeszow, which are our partners and co-organizers of this event, as well as all those, who contributed their articles and expressed their interest in participation. Having in mind the interest it raised among Ukrainian and Polish scholars, I hope that it will become a regular event within our Programme and it will be repeated in the following years.

Yours sincerely,

Adam Hamryszczak
Undersecretary of State
in the Ministry of Economic Development of Poland
Ladies and Gentlemen,

It is my great pleasure to welcome you to the University of Rzeszów which has celebrated the sixteenth anniversary of its existence this year. Our University is young, however it fits into a centuries-old tradition. Thus, it has the ambition of constant and systematic development towards a sustainable and increasingly significant presence in the scientific space. Therefore, we have been very pleased to accept the responsibilities of the co-host of the conference on cross-border cooperation between Poland and Ukraine. I am convinced that the conference taking place in two university cities - Rzeszów and Lviv will be an opportunity to discuss key issues of social, economic, political and scientific cooperation between scholars from Poland and Ukraine. For us as the hosts, this conference provides an opportunity to show the potential and strength of the University of Rzeszów. We would like to present our university as an important centre for the scientific discourse on cross-border cooperation.

The process of internationalization is a crucial element of a new look at Polish science. The University of Rzeszów is open to partners from various parts of the world but it attaches great significance to scientific contacts with its closest neighbours. We can see many benefits which the exchange of experience with the researchers from Ukraine can bring us. Joint scientific ventures, in which universities or researchers from various countries are partners, become indispensable in the modern world, not only the scientific one. It can be easily proven that the necessity and need for international contacts is immanently linked to both research and education, i.e. knowledge acquisition. This is well illustrated by one of many theses of Professor Kazimierz
Twardowski from his famous dissertation “On the dignity of the university”: as anyone who creates positive values, both the professor and the associate professor of the University serve not only their own society and are citizens not only of their nation and country. They belong to the great republic of scholars, spread through all the civilized nations of the globe. Openness, a platform for exchanging thoughts, a dialogue are the essence of “university”. One excellent step in this direction is the international scientific conference “Current socio-economic problems of Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation”, organized jointly by the University of Rzeszów and the Ivan Franko National University of Lviv.

Yours sincerely,

Prof. Sylwester Czopek, PhD
Rector of the University of Rzeszów
Dear Colleagues!

I have great pleasure to welcome you on behalf of the academic community of the University of Lviv, one of the oldest classical universities in Ukraine and Europe training highly skilled professionals in the field of humanities and natural sciences. Today the University’s 19 departments and 3 colleges provide education to 25 thousand students and learners, approximately 900 postgraduate and PhD students, including undergraduate and postgraduate students from over 30 countries worldwide.

Throughout its history the University of Lviv was a cultural crossing point where the peculiar scholarly aura gave rise to unique scientific and pedagogic schools of thought. And today’s strong collaboration with our Polish colleagues has an extremely positive impact on the University’s development and enhancement of research studies. That being said, it is a real pleasure to co-organize the International Research and Practical Conference “Contemporary Socio-economic Issues of Ukrainian-Polish Cross-border Cooperation” held in the twin cities of Lviv and Rzeszow and dealing with matters of cross-border collaboration between Poland and Ukraine. The conference presents a great opportunity for discussions on economic, political and social relations, and most importantly will contribute to the broader scientific cooperation. For the University of Lviv, it is a good occasion to extend international communications, present their scientific developments to the Polish colleagues and adopt their best practices. I am convinced that the conference will not only result in discussions and publications but will also trigger further common research in various academic fields.

Yours sincerely,

Prof. Volodymyr Melnyk, PhD
Rector of the Ivan Franko Lviv National University
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November 2017
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The Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 is implemented under the European Neighbourhood Instrument and has been pursued for more than 15 years now since it was first launched in 2004 in the perspective for 2004-2006. Next, it was continued through the Financial Perspective 2007-2013, and is continued now, in the Financial Perspective 2014-2020. The main objective of the Programme is to support cross-border development processes taking place in the borderland between Poland, Belarus, and Ukraine. It means that it makes it possible for local communities to establish cooperation, gain new skills and experience, and thus offers opportunities to acquire funds necessary to stimulate local economic growth.

International projects implemented as part of cooperation among EU member states are somewhat different from those implemented outside the EU’s borders. But there are also many common features, which offer a certain universal model to make the result indicators achieved and the assumed strategic objectives reached. Project assumptions should take the regional specificity of the planned activity into consideration, which means they should act as an inseparable part of strategies of partners’ activity undertaken in a given area. These objectives should be specific enough to make it easily possible to determine the way to measure them, but they should also differ from much general objectives like e.g. simple exchange of experience. The end product should be a value added, something measurable, i.e. possible to be measured based on the extent of achievement of certain indicators.¹

The strategic objectives of the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 are:

1. To promote economic and social development in regions on both sides of common borders.

2. To address common challenges in environment, public health, safety and security.

¹ P. Zawada, L. Buller, Spotkanie z funduszami europejskimi, Rzeszów 2017, p. 5.
3. To promote better conditions and modalities for ensuring the mobility of persons, goods and capital.²

The strategic objectives and the identified regional needs have set a framework of thematic objectives and priorities related thereto:

1. Promotion of local culture and preservation of historical heritage.
2. Improvement of accessibility to the regions, development of sustainable and climate-proof transport and communication networks and systems.
3. Common challenges in the field of safety and security.
4. Promotion of border management and border security, mobility and migration management.³

Both the strategic and the thematic objectives acted as the main themes of the framework of an international scientific conference entitled “Contemporary socio-economic issues in the Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation” (PL: “Aktualne problemy społeczno-ekonomiczne polsko-ukraińskiej współpracy transgranicznej”) organized by the University of Rzeszów and the University of Lviv as part of cooperation under the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine.

The conference offered the participating scientists from both countries an opportunity to present their research and experience in the scope of cross-border cooperation and to indicate new possibilities of establishing cross-border cooperation by partners from Poland and Ukraine.

This book includes selected articles that were presented at the said international conference taking place in Rzeszów and Lviv.

Volodymyr Shvets discusses the Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation in the area of controlling the preservation of cultural and historical values.

Włodzimierz Okrasa presents results of own studies of the positive impact of cross-border neighbourhood on the communities and households from the Subcarpathian region and the Lviv oblast - a comparative spatial approach.

Ihor Hrabynskyy covers the socio-economic issues in the Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation.

Agata Nijander-Dudzińska and Demetriusz Wojakowski present an outline of research concerning international cooperation of local governments from the south-eastern Poland with partners from Ukraine.

Valentyna Chepak highlights institutional problems in cross-border cooperation in Ukraine.

Paweł Kurant and Krzysztof Kolanowski discuss the experience of cross-border cooperation between Poland and Germany, which is to be used as a lesson for the Polish-Ukrainian borderland.

Agnieszka Pieniążek introduces the matter of partnership in cross-border projects on the basis of a case study analysing the partnerships established for the purpose of implementation of umbrella projects under the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine.

Natalia Kovalisko explains the specificity of cross-border mobility in the context of cooperation between Poland and Ukraine.

Oleksandr Kundytskyy discusses the Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation and its influence on employment rates.

Hubert Kotarski covers the issue of the quality of life, understood as the personal and professional goals of students from Poland and Ukraine.
Piotr Długosz discusses the social aspects of cross-border education illustrated with an example of Ukrainian students studying in the Podkarpacie region.

Yuriy Pachkovskyy elaborates on the Ukrainian-Polish education sphere, with a particular focus on the challenges and prospects in cross-border cooperation.

Oksana Senyshyn points to Ukraine’s cross-border cooperation with EU member states as the basis for the development of the Carpathian Euroregion.

Dorota Rynkowska covers the role and the responsibilities of non-governmental organizations in the scope of social security.

Bohdan Melnyk discusses aspects of safety of cross-border transportation logistics.

Leszek Buller points to opportunities for cooperation in implementation of joint cross-border projects in the scope of crime prevention.

Sławomir Wilk covers opportunities for cross-border cooperation in preventing and eliminating the effects of natural disasters in Poland and Ukraine.

Taras Protsak discusses opportunities for cross-border cooperation in overcoming barriers to integration of the disabled with museum environment.

Yours sincerely,

Leszek Buller, PhD
Director of the Center of European Projects
Some aspects of the Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation in the field of control for the conservation of cultural and historical values

Paper peer-reviewed by Viktor Borshchevskyy, PhD
Summary

One of the areas of cross-border cooperation between Ukraine and Poland is the control over the preservation of cultural and historical values. This cooperation is governed primarily by the UNESCO Convention On the Control of the Movement of Cultural and Historical Values. However, taking into account the adjacency of the borders of both countries and the common cultural and historical heritage, the question of controlling the preservation of cultural and historical values requires a wider range of cooperation. The problematical character of forming a holistic control system is compounded by difficulties inherited as a result of the Wisla operation carried out by USSR leadership, which has had a negative impact on the Polish-Ukrainian relations. These circumstances require a scientific justification of the appropriate measures to form an effective system for monitoring the preservation of the cultural and historical values of both peoples. Using the methodological foundations to form a system for controlling the preservation of cultural and historical values of Ukraine and Poland, one should distinguish the main directions of its organization. First of all, it is necessary to register all immovable objects representing the cultural or historical value for each of the peoples. This is the prerogative of the cultural departments of the border regions and voivodships with the participation of historical and cultural organizations. The second direction of the organization of control is the movement of historical and cultural values across the border carried out by the customs authorities. The third direction of control should be a smoothly running monitoring of the market of antiques for the purpose of identifying historical and cultural values of general national importance for Poland and Ukraine. The control system developed on such bases will contribute to the preservation of the historical and cultural values of both peoples as a part of the world treasury.

Introduction

The activity on preservation of cultural and historical values is one of the aspects of the cross-border cooperation between Poland and Ukraine. This cooperation is governed primarily by the UNESCO Convention On the Control of the Movement of Cultural and Historical Values. Ukrainian and Polish cooperation in the area of preservation of cultural heritage gets priority among the projects in 27 states funded by the European Union from the beginning of 2016. The European Union Commissioner for Enlargement and European Neighborhood Policy, Johannes Khan, stated unequivocally on this subject:
“The cross-border cooperation is the key process that will prevent formation of new separating lines. New projects will promote the integration and consistent development in the regions bordering the European Union, as well as harmonious cooperation at the external borders of the European Union”. The objective of cooperation between Ukraine and Poland is to strengthen the intellectual potential of the countries in the framework of cross-border cooperation, to use this intellectual potential in the global processes in the humanitarian sphere, as well as to use in the national interests the UNESCO capabilities, resources and international experience of cooperation in the fields of education, science, culture, information and communication. An important issue of cross-border cooperation between Ukraine and Poland is the control over preservation of the cultural and historical values, which means, in particular, coordination of actions and close cooperation between the state control authorities. The problematical character of formation of the integral monitoring system becomes further complicated by the difficulties occurred as a result of the Operation Wisla conducted by the leadership of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, which had a negative impact on the Polish and Ukrainian relations. In these circumstances, it is necessary to provide the scientific substantiation of the appropriate measures in order to form the effective system for monitoring of preservation of the cultural and historical values of both nations. In spite of certain steps in this direction, taking into account the adjacency of the borders of both countries and common cultural and historical heritage, the issue of monitoring the preservation of the cultural and historical values requires a wider range of cooperation.

The primary objective of such cooperation is to provide the government control and public control over the availability and status of preservation of the cultural and historical values, as well as over transfer of these values and the monitoring process. When using the methodological foundations for establishment of the system for monitoring the preservation of the cultural and historical values of Ukraine and Poland, it is necessary to separate theoretical and methodological foundations of organization from the execution procedure. Within this framework, it becomes necessary to clarify the concept of “cultural and historical values”, types and forms of control and execution procedure in order to form the concept of further development of the control system in the context of Polish and Ukrainian cross-border cooperation. The standardization in the classification of cultural values will allow for the uniform control parameters for coordination of actions and cooperation between the state control authorities of Poland and Ukraine. This research is concerned with this issue.

1 Mały rocznik statystyczny 1935. Rok VI., Warszawa, 1935. – s.20
Historical prerequisites for Polish and Ukrainian cross-border cooperation in regard to control over preservation of the cultural and historical values.

The need for cross-border cooperation in regard to preservation of the cultural and historical values between Poland and Ukraine, as civilized countries, has objective historical backgrounds. The occurrence of this problem is associated primarily with creation of the artificial divisions of the territories, which form the borders. After all, the residence of people in the certain territory for centuries leads to formation of certain customs, linguistic and ethnic community, while the border serves as a conditional partition of these territories and, most importantly, the division of people who are often in the family relationships. Therefore, with the existence of the borders between countries, the issue of monitoring the preservation and transfer of the cultural and historical values shall be an integral part of the cross-border cooperation.

This problem emerges full blowned when it comes to Polish and Ukrainian relations, which history was shaped under the influence of violent actions on the part of the Stalin’s regime of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. It has become common knowledge that before the sadly remembered Operation Wisla the territory of today’s Ukraine and Poland was compactly inhabited by the large population of both nationalities. For example, in accordance with the population census of 1931 in Poland the Polish population made up 69%, and other nationalities – 31%. However, if you look in the context of voivodships, then the distribution of population was as follows (Table 1).

Table 1. Division of the Polish population by language in 1931

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voivodships</th>
<th>Total thousand people</th>
<th>Population with native language</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Polish population thousand people</td>
<td>other thousand people</td>
<td>Polish population %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>32,133</td>
<td>22,208</td>
<td>9,925</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central voivodeships</td>
<td>13,390</td>
<td>11,100</td>
<td>2,290</td>
<td>82.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern voivodeships</td>
<td>5,548</td>
<td>1,826</td>
<td>3,722</td>
<td>32.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western voivodeships</td>
<td>4,499</td>
<td>4,088</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>90.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern voivodeships</td>
<td>8,505</td>
<td>5,038</td>
<td>3,467</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from the data in Table 1, in the territory of the eastern voivodeships there were more than twice as many inhabitants of non-Polish nationalities, most of them were Ukrainians. Needless to say that accession of the West Ukrainian territory to the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic in 1939 had an impact on the reduction of the non-Polish population in Poland, however significant Polish population lived in the territory of the eastern voivodeships. As a consequence, for many centuries of living in the territories adjacent to the today’s border there had been many cultural monuments and cultural values of both nations. Therefore, preservation of such cultural values is one of the tasks of Polish and Ukrainian cross-border cooperation, and control over availability and status of preservation and transfer of such cultural values is of considerable importance. The importance of control, as the function of management, can be accounted for the need for constant monitoring the state and transfer of the cultural values in order to identify their actual state and measure the deviations from predetermined parameters.

Statutory and regulatory basis for cooperation in regard to control the preservation of cultural and historical values

Statutory and regulatory basis for cooperation between Poland and Ukraine includes about 129 existing international treaties, which regulate various areas of Ukrainian and Polish cooperation and ensure the proper development of bilateral cooperation at the level of strategic partnership. The Treaty on Good-Neighborliness, Friendly Relations and Cooperation between the Republic of Poland and Ukraine signed on 18 May 1992 is the basic document governing Ukrainian and Polish cooperation. Among the key bilateral documents for Polish and Ukrainian cooperation in regard to control the preservation of cultural and historical values there are 15 regulatory documents (Table 2)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Time of adoption</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Agreement on Preservation of Memorials and Places of Burial of the Victims of War and Political Repressions between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland.</td>
<td>21-03-1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Agreement on Cooperation in regard to Protection and Return of the Cultural Values Lost and Illegally Transferred during the Second World War between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland.</td>
<td>25-06-1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Agreement in the Field of Fight against Organized Crime between the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland.</td>
<td>03-03-1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Implementing Agreement on Simultaneous Tax Control between the State Tax Administration of Ukraine and the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Poland</td>
<td>16-05-2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Agreement on Cooperation during the Control of Persons, Goods and Vehicles that Cross the Ukrainian and Polish State Border between the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland.</td>
<td>25-06-2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Agreement on Exchange of Information on Goods and Vehicles that Cross the Ukrainian and Polish State Border between the State Customs Service of Ukraine and the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Poland</td>
<td>06-06-2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Agreement on Cooperation in the Field of Information between the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland</td>
<td>19-09-2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Agreement on Cooperation in the Field of Archival Affairs between the State Committee of Archives of Ukraine and the Directorate General of the State Archives of the Republic of Poland</td>
<td>17-10-2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Protocol to the Agreement on Exchange of Statistical and Analytical Information concluded between the Administration of the State Border Guard Service of Ukraine and the Commander in Chief of Border Guards of Republic of Poland</td>
<td>16-06-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Agreement on Cooperation between the Security Service of Ukraine and the Internal Security Agency of the Republic of Poland</td>
<td>02-09-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Poland and the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine On Amendments to the Agreement on Cooperation during the Control of Persons, Goods and Vehicles that Cross the Ukrainian and Polish State Border, signed between the Government of the Republic of Poland and the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine in Kiev on June 25, 2001</td>
<td>25-11-2009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The important step for the creation of organizational structure for bilateral dialogue, was the interstate Agreement on Cooperation in regard to Protection and Return of the Cultural Values Lost and Illegally Transferred during the Second World War between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland of June 25, 1996, which has defined and concretized the object and frames of the cooperation between the parties. The Agreement on Cooperation in regard to Protection and Return of the Cultural Values Lost and Illegally Transferred during the Second World War between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland2. In particular, the parties create the Intergovernmental Ukrainian-Polish Commission, which was empowered for the search, registration and identification of cultural values being searched by Ukraine and Poland, for the mutual communication of the results of these actions, and for the preparation of expert opinions. Within the commission, the permanent or temporary expert teams may be created, which will carry out the search and research work, identification of cultural values and development of the suggestions related to their return. The Agreement also provides the implementation of common registration, inventory and analysis of the cultural values related to the history and culture of each party, definition of their quantity and condition, search and identification of the cultural values searched by both countries, creation of a common databank containing the lost cultural values, and the possibility of joint publications. However, these events took place at the complicated background of impassioned disputes which occupied the public mind both in Poland and in Ukraine in a first half of the last decade of XX century, and were related to the question of the lost cultural values, focusing mainly over the question of the exchange of values stored in the museums of the both countries. The Agreement on Cooperation in the Field of Culture, Science and Education between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland, in Article 17 provides that the cultural values, removed illegally from the territory of one Party and brought illegally to the territory of the second Party, are subject to return. The Article 18 provides: The Parties to the Agreement guarantee the maintenance of the cultural heritage, the protection of historical monuments and the cultural assets of each of the Parties, located within the territory of another Party. The Parties to the Agreement will cooperate in the area of inventory check, research, conservation and restoration of such cultural values, and will cooperate in the provision of the access to these values for the experts and research teams.

The main theoretical and methodological foundations of the control over the presence and conservation condition of the cultural and historical values

The substance of effective system of the control over the presence and conservation of the cultural and historical values consists in the performance of constant monitoring of their presence, actual condition, usage, changes and replacements, according to the previously parameters for the detection of deviations, their measuring and clearing the concrete reasons of non-compliance, in order to provide the further corrective actions. Such parameters are constituted by the regulations governing the issues of cultural and historical values conservation, and their legal replacement and effective usage, seeing them as an important element of state and common resources featured not only with their material value, but also with the accumulating social effect of national, and even global importance. In the same time, in order to ensure the information support of the control over the cultural and historical values, it is required to maintain the correct accountancy, and reliable financial reporting at level of the business entities. The wrong perception and non-reliable evaluation may influence negatively the identification of objects of culture and art. Therefore, the control system shall be considered not only as the historical and culturological activity, but also as the comprehensive and targeted financial and legal activity of the state and public control bodies of Poland and Ukraine, within the context of cooperation at horizontal plane. In a same time, it is important to decide the identic control principles, which consist in the commonly recognized six principles, such as: legality, objectivity, regularity, consistency, coordinability and transparency. Let us further analyze their meaning.

1. The legality, as a principle of the state control over the cultural and historical values conservation, means that the activity of the controlling bodies is based exclusively over the regulations of applicable legislation which defines their functions, rights and duties.

2. The objectivity, as a principle of the state control over the cultural and historical values conservation, means the unprejudiced and equal treatment of the controlled entities by the controlling bodies officers.

3. The regularity is a principle of the arrangement of the state control over the cultural and historical values conservation in compliance with the existing schedule, regulating the procedure of control actions arrangement and performance.
4. The consistency is a principle of the arrangement of the state control over the cultural and historical values conservation at all stages: the search, presence, replacement, and the use of values, through the creation of a correspondent organizational structure within the state.

5. The coordinability, as a principle of the arrangement of the state control over the cultural and historical values conservation, means the cooperation between various state control bodies, in order to avoid any duplication in control actions performance, and the excessive distraction of employees being controlled.

6. The transparency is a principle of the arrangement of the state control over the cultural and historical values conservation with the engagement and use of mass media, for the wide coverage of the detected events of legislation violation, criminal schemes and most common methods of corrupt practices, in order to prevent their repeating in a future.

In the time dimension, the control over the cultural and historical values conservation may be of preliminary, current and follow-up nature. The preliminary control is performed at the phase of consideration and approval of the decisions related to conservation or replacement of cultural and historical values; the current control is performed in a process of the direct operative use or replacement of cultural and historical values; the follow-up control over the cultural and historical values conservation is performed after the certain actions related to the search, storage, use or replacement of values.

The object of the cultural and historical values control is constituted by the business activity of entities, institutions or organization, in aspect of their compliance with regulations governing the storage and use of values, along with the reliability and completeness of the reflection of all changes in the registration and reporting systems of these business entities. The important component of the methodological support of the cultural and historical values control is constituted by the methods applied, which are the totality of means and procedures used to define the compliance of the activity of controlled entities with the requirements of applicable legislation in the area of cultural and historical values conservation, and the correctness and timeliness of the reflection of all operation with them in the accountancy and reporting system. Generally, all the control methods are divided into the general scientific and special ones (Table3).
Table 3. The methods of the control over the presence, conservation and replacement of the cultural and historical values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General scientific methods</th>
<th>Special methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organoleptic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction and deduction</td>
<td>Inventory control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis and synthesis</td>
<td>Control measurements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>Diagnostic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>Artistic and technical evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstracting and specification</td>
<td>Expert evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialectical</td>
<td>Certification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the general scientific methods are commonly used in all areas of activity, and are widely reflected in literature sources, the special ones are used in course of the procedures of cultural and historical values control, together with a totality of general scientific methods. They merit a detailed consideration. The organoleptic methods or actual control methods are related to the definition of actual presence of cultural and historical values, of real costs of their acquisition, restoration (restoration works).

The most common procedure is the inventory control procedure. The inventory control is applied in cases when it is necessary to define the actual availability of cultural and historical values, or the settlements related to their use. The results of the inventory control allow to evaluate the actual presence according to the inventory records. The actually available material is compared, and upon the results obtained the inventory differences are defined, which are then used for taking the management decisions.

The control measurements methods constitutes the actual control procedure allowing to define the true scope of works and costs of their performance within the restoration of cultural and historical values. This method is most effectively applied for the historical buildings, such as the castles and palaces, in course of reconstruction and major repairs.
It consists in the application of typical and special guideline norms in order to verify the compliance of costs allocated for the measured object, which is already modified at the moment of measurement. For example, the produced concrete structure is measured, and its volume is calculated, then the result obtain is compared with the guideline volume norm indicated in costs.

The diagnostic method may be applied with a purpose of actual control of qualitative characteristics of premises, buildings, in order to control the compliance with the conditions of their conservation by the administrator or user. The illustrative example of this method application is constituted by the fortresses and castles leased under the condition of their renewal.

The artistic and technical evaluation as a control method allows to verify, primarily, the authenticity of the cultural and historical values. It is applied in case the suspicion arises as to the quality of the cultural and historical values. The evaluation is performed by the recognized experts or expert teams, upon a request of the controlling bodies.

The expert evaluation allows to obtain the value assessment of the cultural and historical values. The expert evaluation is performed by the experts specialized at the antiques market, allowing to obtain the reliable assessment of value of cultural and historical values, in order to verify the reliability of their value reflection in the records and reporting documents, especially after the purchase and sale transactions, or after their replacement or restoration.

The certification as a control method is applied for the newly discovered cultural and historical values, in order to reflect them in a register and to assign them correspondent status.

The documental methods, for example in Ukraine, are based primarily over the requirements of the provision of the Minister of Finance About the Documental Support of Business Operations in the Accountancy, No.88. According to this Provision, the documents are deemed to have the legal (proving) effect under the condition they have been timely executed, and have all the required details. It is commonly known, that the required details are understood as necessary or obligatory details. Upon these requirements, the documental methods encompass various modes and procedures of presentation of information in documents (Table 3). The application of documental control methods allows to detect the violations in three main forms: discrepancies in the content of documents;
discrepancies in the content of several interrelated documents; non-compliance with the regulations for business operations reflection.

The control methods described above are applied both separately and jointly. The criterion for the selection of a given control method is constituted by the objective, task and single characteristics of the revision\(^3\).

The arrangement of control over the cultural and historical values conservation and replacement in Ukraine, within a context of cross-border cooperation.

Such main market being the control object, is the antiques market. The antiques market as an economic control object, has a number of special characteristics, attributed to the features of cultural values constituting the objects of the transactions at this market. The economic control system actually existing in Ukraine provides the operation of seven main control entities (Security Service of Ukraine, State Control and Auditing Service, State Tax Service, Auditing Chamber, State Customs Committee, Ministries in their departments, and independent control bodies). Each entity operation at the antiques market remains under the jurisdiction of certain economic control entities.

The main objective of such cooperation is the detection of the cultural values, their conservation, and promotion among the people of both countries of monuments bearing the most important unifying information important for the development of friendly relations between the Poles and Ukrainians. In the achieving of this objective, the important role is plaid by the system of management of such cooperation. The manageability of this process will make possible the acceleration of the detection of monuments and values, which may be presently deteriorating, and which may be lost forever. There are some achievements in the management of cooperation within the limits of cultural monuments and cultural values, especially in the field of control. Thus, from the position of international cooperation, the determinative role is assigned to the control parameters problem. The actuality of this issue is related to the integrative processes occurring in Ukraine through the prism of the Convention on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Import, Export and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property. Although Ukraine is a Party to this Convention, the system of economic control in the country needs to consider all the aspects which may influence the compliance with international treaties related to the cultural values conservation.

The question of Polish-Ukrainian cooperation for the conservation of cultural and historical monuments is not a new one. It has been done much, both at the territory of Ukraine as in Poland. However, the development of integration and globalization processes continuously makes its allowances in this area, which requires, primarily, the development in the control area. It is primarily related to such types of control as business and technical control. Correspondingly, the main objective of this research is a definition of potential directions of Polish-Ukrainian cooperation at the level of the state controlling bodies. While the main tasks of such cooperation are constituted by the coordination of actions between single state control entities, and the development of regulating aspects, for the standardization of control parameters.

As it has been already noted, the main objective of the state economic control consists in the process of verification of the compliance of the cultural and historical values market objects condition to the preliminary defined parameters for the detection of deviations, their measurement and determination of the concrete reasons of non-compliance. Such main market being the control object, is the antiques market. The antiques market, as an economic control object, has a number of special features caused by the properties of cultural values, being the object of the transactions at this market⁴. The actuality of this issue is related to the integration processes occurring in the economy of Ukraine through the prism of the Convention on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Import, Export and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property, adopted on November 14, 1970, upon the results of the General Conference of the United Nations Organization for Education, Science and Culture. Although Ukraine is a Party to this Convention, the development of economic control system in Ukraine requires the consideration of all real aspects of reforms which may influence the compliance with international agreements, and will ensure the state interests for conservation of cultural values for future generations. Therefore, it becomes necessary to highlight the special features of antiques market in Ukraine, as of the object of economic control, with a purpose of specification of its function, and forming the concept of further development of control system within a context of Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation.

The special features of antiques market as of the control object, where the cultural and historical values may be sold, depend primarily of the objectives and tasks of controlling entities. Thus, the economic control system existing in Ukraine provides the presence of seven main control entities. Correspondingly, each entity of the antiques market remains

in the jurisdiction of certain economic control entities. For example, the control system to the highest extent covers the entities, institutes and enterprises of the state sector. While the private property antiques market entities are subject to the control of the Security Service of Ukraine and the Tax Service only. Correspondingly, the officers of the Security Service of Ukraine perform a control over all the antiques market participants, due to the presence of the transactions with objects of national significance. Such activity requires to identify clearly at the antiques market the objects which have a real impact over the economic security of the state. Therefore, the peculiarity of the control object assigned to the competence of the Security Service of Ukraine, will consist in a necessity to formulate such criteria which should not distract the attention of officers for secondary issues on one hand, and should ensure, in a same time, the conservation of the values of national importance at the territory of Ukraine. For example, due to the critical condition of the architecture monuments in Ukraine, the process of denationalization of 2,500 objects from 16,000 recorded ones is presently carried out. The reasonability of such a step is clear, as many buildings and structures are deteriorating, and may be completely lost for the future generations if the restoration works will not be executed timely. However, it should be also considered, that in the case of negligent treatment of the received values by a new owner (the application of cheap materials in course of restoration works, insufficiently considered reconfiguration, etc.), the consequences may also be negative. Therefore, performing such steps aimed to privatization, it is necessary to consider attentively both the register of objects which may be subject to privatization, and the further post-privatization control, along with the creation of conditions and possibilities for the access to such values in a future.

The state fiscal bodies in Ukraine perform the function of control over the completeness and timeliness of taxes payment by the business entities. The special character of antiques market for these controlling bodies consists primarily in the reliable definition of the tax basis. The asymmetric character of information at the antiques market described above may create the conditions, when the sale profitability in respect to purchase price can reach hundreds, or even thousands of percent. Correspondingly, in order to prove the cases of tax basis understatement, the need for application of special methods of operative and search activity arises, along with the engagement of qualified experts. However, this may also appear to be insufficient, as the transactions with the antiques objects are performed often out of the sales premises, or even at home. Therefore, in order to ensure the effective tax control at the antiques market, such special features of pricing should be taken into account, and a complex of regulatory and organizational measures aimed at the stimulation of transparency of this market transactions shall be performed.
The bodies of the State Audit Service of Ukraine, executing the control over the use of the state budget funds, should also consider the special characteristics of objects acquired at the antiques market. This is related primarily to the transactions of acquisition of the antiques for museums and libraries. The peculiarity of such transactions consists in the reliable assessment of antiques, as the tendering procedure is impossible for such acquisitions, due to the absence of tender bids within the transactions with rare collection objects. In a same time, there is an option of acquisition of the antiques by museums at the auctions, where the price is formed based over the real and effective demand. This method of values sale is widely used in the highly developed countries. However, in the arrangement of acquisitions through the auctions, the abuses are also possible, in a form of collusion, when one of the auction participants intentionally rises a price having preliminary colluded with the sold object owner, or with the auction organizers. The price difference obtained in such a manner is later distributed between the participants of the collusion. Considering such a situation, the officers of the State Audit Service of Ukraine face serious problems in definition of reliability of the assessment of value of objects acquired, therefore the necessity of engagement of experts arises in course of auditing operations, in order to define the real (fair) value of antiques.

Recently in Ukraine, the control importance control functions of the Auditing Chamber grows, as its officers act in order to define the reasonability and effectiveness of the state budget funds spending in the phase of its development. Due to the special features of the antiques market as control object, it should be noted that these actions are substantially related to the issues of value assessment of the acquired antiques. However, considering the wider scale of the Auditing Chamber scope of activity, which is aimed at the detection of reserves for the most effective use of state funds, the potential of this body shall be directed to a search of prospective thematic sectors. For example, in regard to the monuments of Trypillian culture, which has no analogues in a global scale, it is absolutely clear that their acquisition and accumulation is prospective, as such collection, in the nearest future, will become the attractive objects for the development of tourism, constituting in such a manner the promising investments.

The control of Ministries and Departments constitutes another sector. The persons involved in such a control are featured with a deep knowledge of the activity of entities, organizations and institutes reporting to them, including also the entities operating at the antiques market. This creates a special character of the antiques market objects control by superior Ministries and Departments. For example, when a control is related to the creation of railway transport museums, and to the costs related to this work, the
officers of the controlling entities of the Ukrainian Railways have a possibility of comparing of identic actions of their subordinated structures at the antiques market. The information accumulated in such a manner may serve as comparison parameters for definition of reasonability of costs of antiques acquisition. The special feature of antiques in course of the customs control consists in a prohibition of exportation of goods defined by the Convention. This requirement does not apply to the objects for which the special permits have been issued by the Ministry of Culture, upon the results of previous expert assessment. Therefore, the main task of the customs service consists in the control of conformity of antiques subject to the cross-border transfer, to the documents accompanying such operation, and in the case of absence of such documents the mentioned operations are correspondingly deemed as the contraband traffic. The special attention in course of the customs control shall be paid to the reliability and correctness of the antiques evaluation. In order to define the correspondence of value specified in the documents with the true value of antiques, the expert evaluation is applied. Such labor-consuming procedure is necessary primarily in order to prevent the understatement of the antiques true value, with intention of their substitution and further sale or appropriation. For example, at the exportation of the collection of ancient coins, the evaluation of their conservation condition was performed. After obtainment of documents confirming the permit for their cross-border transfer, the coins of worse conservation condition are substituted with the coins of better condition, which have a value significantly higher than value specified in the accompanying documents. After transfer through the border, these objects may be substituted again, with the analogues of worse condition, and the difference obtained in such a manner will be illegally retained by the organizers of such a scheme. Such hypothetic example illustrates the specific character of the antiques, and the disclosure of such crimes will become possible under the condition of application of expert knowledge, for which the due information and methodological basis is required.

Besides the state bodies of economic control, the independent control may also be applied at the antiques market. The independent control, as known, is aimed at verification of the financial reporting, and confirmation of its reliability, as well as at verification of the completeness and correctness of the reflection of business activity in the accountancy records. This type of control is mainly applied in the joint-stock companies, private enterprises and other entities of various property forms, which aim to become trustable for the investors, creditors or partners at the antiques market. The most complicated aspect for the audit control at the antiques market consists in the question of the correctness of assessment of objects specified in the accountancy records and reporting. For example, an entity specialized in the antiques trade, engages the auditing company in order
to confirm the value of its assets. It is commonly known that the positive opinion of auditor will favor the access of the entity to the credit resources, however the final decision rests with the bank institution. Thus, the specific character of control of this entity by auditing company will consist primarily in definition of reliability of the selected criteria and methods of the antiques assessment. Based on the above specified observations, it may be concluded that the antiques market as an economic control object, owns the specific features caused by its functional role in the state economy, and by the parameters of objects involved into this market, while the most complicated problem consists in the verification of the correctness of such objects assessment. Independently of the growth of international trade via Internet, its effective operation depends significantly of international cooperation in the security area. It also applies to Poland and Ukraine, which, due to their geographical location, shall take care of the reliable safety of the commercial trade. The practice of use of Internet for commercial trade is related to risks constantly arising in the dynamically changing modern world. The illustrative example of such treats is constituted by a wide-scaled hackers attack in Ukraine, which resulted in contamination with Petya. A virus of mass media, state and commercial structures, large companies sites. In order to develop the common measures of Ukrainian-Polish cooperation in the area of safety and protection from such risks, it is primarily necessary to perform a clear structuration of types of risks, and to define their possible sources. Focusing our attention at Internet trade, it is important, in our opinion, to specify three types of risks caused by the main technological processes. The first type of risks refers to the reliability of information posted at trade platforms web-sites; the second type is related to the reliability of settlements; the third type refers to the delivery of goods already paid. The second area of control arrangement is a question of transferring of historical and cultural values through the border, which is performed by the customs bodies. The third area of control shall consist in the well-organized monitoring of antiques market, in order to detect the historical and cultural values of national significance for Poland and Ukraine. The control system developed under such conditions, will favor the conservation of the historical and cultural values of both nations, being a part of their national treasury.

In addition to economic control, the technical control is essential for preservation of the cultural monuments. This type of control is carried out by the agencies of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Ukraine. As has been mentioned above, due to the critical state of architectural monuments in Ukraine, the matter of denationalization of 2,500 objects
out of 16,000 is under consideration. Thus, such figures indicate the huge legacy of cultural monuments that serves as the object of technical control. Besides, the statistics confirms the insufficient level of this control, resulting in the critical state of these cultural monuments. Since the restoration of independence there were attempts in Ukraine to restore the cultural monuments with the participation of foreign enterprises. In particular, in Lviv the facades of medieval buildings were painted with materials that had not undergone appropriate technical control, resulting in further destruction of these cultural monuments. Those were not isolated cases, when after assignment of cultural monuments to business entities for use, utilization of poor-quality materials during repairs or reconstruction created unfavorable conditions that lead to the fast destruction of cultural monuments. At the same time, it is important to note the significant achievements in the production of materials and technical control systems in Poland, which create favorable conditions for cooperation in this area.

Participation of Lviv region in the cross-border cooperation for preservation of cultural and historical values

In the area of culture, Ukraine closely cooperates with the UNESCO World Heritage Centre within the framework of the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972). Today, 1,031 objects of cultural and natural heritage, which have an exceptional universal value, are included in the UNESCO World Heritage List. Among others, the UNESCO World Heritage List includes the ensemble of the historic center of Lviv (1998) and Wooden churches of the Carpathian region of Ukraine and Poland (2013, a joint Ukrainian-Polish nomination). The task imposed on the Lviv region, as a border area, is to register all items of immovable property that are of cultural or historical value for both nations. This is the prerogative of the culture department of the border areas and voivodships with the participation of historical and cultural organizations. Within this framework, the regional program “Protection and preservation of the cultural property sites in the Lviv region for 2016-2018” was adopted. This Program was approved by the decision No. 149 dated March 29, 2016 of the session of the Lviv Regional Council. The Department of Architecture and Development of Urban Construction of the Regional

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State Administration has been appointed to serve as the budget holder and executor of this Program. The main objectives of this Program are as follows:

1. Formation of the policy of monuments protection, as well as preservation and popularization of cultural property sites in the region.

2. Full registration of the cultural property sites in the territory of the Lviv region by means of certification.

3. Performance of the urgent works on restoration of the cultural property sites and wooden sacral architecture objects.

4. Rational use and conservation of the cultural property objects providing harmonious functioning in the living environment.

5. Implementation of systematic measures to popularize the cultural property objects.

In 2016, the current repairs of seven wooden churches – monuments of sacral architecture were performed in the following villages: Zabolottsi village of Brodiv district, Lopushanka village and Matkiv village of Turkiv district, Spryna village of Sambir district, Fusiv village of Sokal district, Dmytrovychy village of Pustomyty district and in Drohobych city. Immediate works on accident-prevention and restoration of seven architectural monuments were performed in the following villages: Dorniv village and Batyatychi village of Kamianka-Buzka district, Pidkamin village of Brody district, Pomoryany village of Zolochiv district and in the cities of Busk, Morshyn and Drohobych. In 2016, the design and estimate documentation was prepared for 13 architectural monuments, including UNESCO monuments, including Tsebliv village of Sokal district, Fusiv village of Peremyshlyany district, Cherepyn village and Shchyrets village of Pustomyty district and Drohobych city, as well as for the Archbishop’s Cathedral of Saint George in Lviv, Potelych village of Zhovkva district, Matkiv village of Turkiv district, Drohobych city and Zhovkva city. In 2016 the pilot project “Archaeological Cadastre of Lviv Region” was implemented: archaeological survey of 20 sq. km of the Sebechivka River Basin in Sokal district was completed, archaeological monument in Bus’k was explored, and 90 archaeological sites (ancient settlements, burial mounds) were discovered. In 2016, the research and
arrangement of historical cemeteries, burials and memorials in ten districts of the region were conducted. Arrangement of the military burials of the victims of the First and Second World Wars and the places of burial of the victims of political repressions was performed. In 2016, the design and estimate documentation for restoration of wooden temples in the Lviv region included in the UNESCO World Heritage List, was prepared: the Church of the Holy Spirit in Potelych village of Zhovkva district, Church of the Cathedral of the Blessed Virgin Mary in Matkiv village. Of Turkiv district, Church of the Holy Trinity in Zhovkva; Saint George Church in the town of Drohobych.

Table 4. Plan of financing of the measures on protection and preservation of cultural heritage of Lviv region for 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Amount</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>thousand UAH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Certification of the objects of cultural heritage</td>
<td>200.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Performance of the package of works on repair and restoration of the cultural property site, namely:</td>
<td>8,200.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Objects, which restoration shall be completed in 2017</td>
<td>935.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Objects, which restoration shall be completed in 2017 in consolidated financing with local budgets</td>
<td>1,230.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Objects under emergency situation</td>
<td>3,335.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Conduct of researches, studies and arrangement of historical cemeteries, burials and memorials</td>
<td>500.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Search and arrangement of the places of burial of the victims of war and political repressions</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Complete archaeological survey of the territory of the region under “Archaeological Cadastre of Lviv Region”</td>
<td>300.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Popularization of historical and cultural heritage</td>
<td>200.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Performance of the package of works on restoration of the monuments of wooden sacral architecture included in the UNESCO World Heritage List and preparation of the design and estimate documentation</td>
<td>1,000.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Preparation of the design and estimate documentation for the monuments of architecture</td>
<td>600.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,400.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 Official tourist site of Lviv - http://lviv.travel/ua/nearlviv/castles
As can be seen from the data of Table 4, the objects under emergency situation (more than 40%) take the largest share in financing. The least amounts of funding are aimed at the search and arrangement of the places of burial of the victims of war and political repressions (1.22%). An important point is that this information is available on the website of the regional administration as the monitored item. All financed objects are subject to control by the State supervisory bodies. However, in addition to government control, the public control must be widely involved. The questionnaire can be used as the control method aimed at the study of the state of preservation of cultural values and the process of care on the part of independent individuals and public representatives at a given time. Taking into account today’s information technologies, it is not necessary to conduct survey in a traditional way, but to use the Internet. The questionnaire can be developed taking into account the availability of cultural and historical values and probability of detection of unclassified objects of common Polish and Ukrainian heritage. Thus, in order to control the situation with cultural monuments, such questionnaire will provide an opportunity to see the real changes. For example, the Starosilsky castle should have been restored by the tenant in 2015, but no real changes have taken place, and upon the availability of the public questionnaire, this would be the basis for adoption of appropriate corrective measures by the regional administration regarding the further lease of the castle.

Conclusions

Thus, summarizing the consideration of a problem concerning the economic and technical control over the cultural and historical values in the area of Polish and Ukrainian cross-border cooperation, it is necessary to lay emphasis on the following aspects.

First, it is necessary to extend cooperation and coordination of activities between the state supervisory bodies operating in the border areas of Ukraine and Poland for monitoring the availability, preservation and transfer of the cultural and historical values.

Secondly, in accordance with the Convention on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Import, Export and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property, it is expedient to develop and adopt the local program of cooperation between the state supervisory bodies of Poland and Ukraine in regard to preservation of cultural and historical values.
Thirdly, using the possibilities of the electronic World Wide Web it is necessary to create separate electronic registers of cultural and historical values that have disappeared, were stolen and revealed by the State supervisory bodies in the course of illegal operations with them.

Fourthly, it is necessary to perform continuous monitoring of online auctions of antiques and collectibles, and to recommend the management of these business entities to place information on stolen cultural and historical values on their Web pages, which will help to prevent illegal transactions with them. The implementation of these proposals will contribute to the preservation of the cultural and historical values of the Polish and Ukrainian nations as part of the world heritage.

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The well-being effect of the cross-border neighbourhood for communities and households in Subcarpathian and Lviv regions: a comparative spatial approach

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

The main goal of the study was to explore the relationship between community and individual wellbeing accounting for the specificity of its context which is the residential neighbourhood area along the Polish-Ukrainian border (within 50 km of the both sides, compared to the outside of this area). The major objective of the study was to empirically verify implications of the general hypothesis - and of the opinion gaining popularity and evidence - that ‘location/border matters’ for both individual and community well-being due to the formal and informal cross-border economic activities. The question about the role of ‘place’ and ‘space’ in affecting the quality of life and well-being - whether or not the concentration of similar values (well-being) in space or clustering among individuals (households) and localities (gminas) is taking place - need to be extended by an analysis of the issue of cross-level interaction between the community and individual (subjective) measures of well-being, using data from two types of sources:

a) Local Data Bank (Poland) and the Rayon Database (Ukraine) to characterize the level of (under)development (local deprivation), and

b) data from the survey of households in Subcarpathian and Lviv selected communes (powiats and districts).

The results can be summarized by emphasizing the validity of the view that the ‘border residential neighbourhood’ has a significant impact on individual and community well-being, and on interactions between them. Some caution must be stressed, however, in drawing the conclusions for policy purposes given a narrow scope of this (pilot-type not representative) study. But the methodological advantages due to employing a spatial approach opt for its further pursuance in this context, in a comparative perspective.

Introduction: background and problem

The growing interest in cross-border areas from both research and policy standpoints reflects their increasing importance in a variety of roles (‘functionalities’), which this type of location can play. Especially in the context of local development, and recently also as a border residential neighbourhood affecting living conditions and the individual/household subjective well-being of inhabitants, and local community well-being (Lee et al., 2015; Okrasa et al., 2015, Cierpiañ-Wolan, 2017). However, the question about their
exceptionality in the last role, and how the two types of well-being relate to each other in this particular kind of place, belong to relatively less recognized, only lately becoming an object of conceptual systematization and empirical analysis (Lee and Kim, 2015; Okrasa 2013, 2017; Philips and Wong, 2017). These impediments are due to the multifaceted nature of the processes occurring at both the micro- (individual and household) and mezzo-level (local community) implying the need to analyse between-level interactions and influences while accounting for ‘spatial effects’ (Corrado and Fingleton, 2011; Arcaya, 2012; Subramanian, 2010; Sampson, 2003). On the one hand, it calls for an interdisciplinary approach - (new) economic geography, socio-economics and geographical sociology, urban and regional studies, spatial econometrics and spatial statistics, to mention a few. On the other, despite the growing supply of such data, including geo-referenced data (individual data records with X, Y coordinates) the creation of an adequate multi-source / multi-level analytical database (e.g., Multi-Level Integrated Database Approach/MIDA - see Smith 2007) provides several methodological and organizational (or even administrative) problems (D’Orazio et al., 2006).

The problem of individual and community wellbeing interaction has policy implications as well. In particular, whether or not people’s overall feeling and the level of their satisfaction from life can be predicted from the knowledge of the quality of their living surrounding, i.e. of the level of local development or deprivation. And if so, how important the place and space for these measures are and, hypothetically, for the way the two types of well-being interact, especially in the cross-border environment, for which some more specific (working) hypotheses are formulated and tested empirically below.

The preliminary results of the analysis shown in general more similar patterns of dependencies of subjective well-being among households located ‘within 50 km’ border areas than among households within a country ‘outside the borderland’. However, it was the household vulnerability status rather than proximity/distance - within/outside 50 km of the border location - that play a relatively more important role in affecting several aspects of well-being. An explicitly spatial analysis evinces a tendency to clustering among households by particular measures of well-being (substantial autocorrelation, using Moran’s I).

The paper is structured as follows. After providing (in the next section) a brief methodological description of the study - including a characterization of the data and measures employed - questions related to the influence of the objective and also the subjective features of the local community (within and outside of the 50 km) on individual (subjective)
well-being are explored. This analysis was extended toward identifying the role played by particular factors in affecting household well-being (specifically in border residential neighbourhood) and was attempted in the following section, using multinomial logistic regression models. Following (hypothetical) supposition that the community-level variables, especially such as local (under)development / deprivation, do not operate in an empty space, in separation from the household-level socio-economic and demographic characteristics, in the subsequent section results of the regression multivariate models (by the OLS method), complemented by the spatial regression model are discussed. Remarks addressing both research and policy-relevant issues conclude this paper.

Methodological framework - data and measures

To address the problem of interaction between individual (household) and community well-being as a cross-level phenomena taking place in specific type of area (border residential neighbourhood) a multilevel modelling accounting for spatial effects would be the best suited approach (Okrasa, 2017; Subramanian op cit., Acarya op cit., Smith op cit.). However, in the analysis constrained by the small scope of research (instead of having hierarchical ‘nested’ data structure) the above frame was possible to be implemented also on limited scope. In addition, the issue of between-level relationships becomes further complicated due to the involvement - next to the micro-macro (or mezzo-) unit distinction - different, subjective and objective measures of well-being. Combining the type of unit and the nature of measure with the nature of goods/objects yields a typology of possible measures (and sources of data), as in Tab. 1 (Okrasa 2014).

There are two types, two-level data used in the analysis. Household level data are from a small-scale survey of adult members of randomly selected 410 households in 13 gminas (communes) of Subcarpathian province, and 387 households selected in an analogous way in 8 districts of Lviv oblast (one person per household). They provided information on several aspects of subjective well-being, along with important socio-demographic characteristics.

This information was complemented by data from public statistics, collected by local (gmina’s) authority in Poland, the Local Data Bank (LDB), and by the local (district’s) authority in Ukraine, Rayon Database (RD). They were used to construct indicators of the level of (under)development or local deprivation - see below. [Occasionally, one of the central provinces (Mazovian) is included into analysis as a reference area (‘intra’ country)
in testing the null hypothesis on the lack of a spatial/border effect for the between-level interaction of the well-being measures.

Table 1. Typology of the relevant data by the type of measures and the nature of goods (material – non-material), and the level of the unit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of goods and units of analysis</th>
<th>Measures of Well-being</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Objective</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual: Persons / Households</td>
<td>Income, expenditures, housing conditions, etc., [e.g. household surveys]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group: Local Community / neighbourhood (gmina)</td>
<td>Local resources and/or deprivation – administrative/local data, Local Data Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual: Persons / Households</td>
<td>Health, risky situation, social relations, etc. (survey research)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group: Local Community / neighbourhood (gmina)</td>
<td>Local capital, social capital, cultural, political capital – survey and administrative data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Okrasa (2014)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When considered within the context of the relationships between community and individual well-being, the data problem goes far beyond the statistical aspects of analysis. It involves conceptually fundamental issues of the mechanism underlying the two levels - individual (or micro-) and group (or macro-) - of the relevant phenomena, a manifestation of which are the measured aspects of well-being: evaluative, experienced and eudaimonic (Dolan et al., 2010; OECD 2013; Stone and Mackie 2014, Czapiński 2017). Subjective well-being, as a cumulative result of individual efforts, predispositions and activities, is not only affected by the community - by its level of development or community well-being - but affects the overall quality of living environment as well. Therefore, the cross-level interaction can also be interpreted in a causal sense: some individual qualities

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8 Dolan Layard, Metcalf (2010): “The measurement of wellbeing is central to public policy for three main reasons: 1) monitoring progress; 2) informing policy design; and 3) policy appraisal”. (p.1)
or household attributes (e.g. level of income) can affect some qualities of the local community (e.g. level of local deprivation) which acts next as a ‘causal modifier’ influencing the final measure, the end-product of the process. Two alternative paths of such ‘causation’ deserve research interest: “individual/household income --> local development/deprivation --> subjective well-being” vs. “local development --> individual income --> subjective well-being”. Although there is no room to test these hypotheses here (see Okrasa 2017) the diagram below (Fig. 1) presents the core elements of the above issue.

Figure 1. Model of Cross-level (micro-, macro-) Relationships in Local Community / Neighborhood – behavioural interpretation

Several theories support the view that community well-being acts as an important factor of individual well-being - for instance, the so-called spillover theory (Bernini et al., 2013) stresses that the environment features in which individuals live are one of the main domains affecting overall subjective well-being; others are the individual personal life and people’s activities. Sociologists also show a growing interest in the role played by space and place/neighbourhood in the analysis of different aspects (domains) of people’s well-being – as noted by Sampson (2003): “We need to treat community contexts as important units of analysis in their own right, which in turn calls for new measurement strategies as well as theoretical frameworks that do not simply treat the neighbourhood
as a “trait” of the individual.” (p. 53). Several specific implications of such conceptualizations (hypotheses) will be empirically checked below following brief presentation of the measures employed.

**Multidimensional Index of Local Deprivation (MILD)** was a key objective measure used for characterizing local community in Poland in the studies referred to here. It can be interpreted as either a measure of the level of local community (under) development and local deprivation (of gmina) or as a measure of community objective well-being - in addition to some possible ‘subjective community wellbeing’ indices, which have been recently proposed in the literature (e.g., Coram Voice, 2015; Pretty et al., 2006.), and will be illustrated below as well. It is built specifically for units of NUTS5/LAU2 level (2478 gminas in Poland) using data from a public file, Local Data Bank. It is a synthetic measure, composed of 11 domain-specific scales constructed by confirmatory Factor Analysis (each domain was pre-defined in a single-factor version of the FA, Okrasa 2013b). The domains included: ecology, finance, economy, infrastructure, municipal utilities, culture, housing, social welfare, labour market, education and health; they are all in negative version: the higher the index (scale) value, the worse the community situation with respect to a given domain of deprivation and to the total level of local deprivation. The latter is allowed by the fact that its component domains jointly meet the Cronbach’s alpha criterion (exceeding 0.75). The MILD also has high external validity (e.g. r-Pearson correlation with the so-called G-index released few months ago by the Ministry of Finance is 0.58). It is strongly place-dependent decreasing sharply along moving from rural to urban areas, and along the growing size of towns. Fig. 2 presents values of the component domains for the country and Subcarpathian province showing that (i) the level of deprivation in several domains - especially in health, education, infrastructure and social welfare - is very similar to the country’s average; (ii) it is worse (local deprivation is higher) in municipal services, economy and labour market; and (iii) in culture it is considerably better and in housing slightly better than an average in the country; ecology domain was excluded from the figure due to its negligible score compared to others.

**Index of Local Under-development (ILUD)** that was used for characterizing Ukrainian districts (in Lviv oblast) is also a composite measure which was derived from Local Database through FA (in similar one-factor confirmatory version). There are five items included in

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9 The selection procedure consisted of: selection of domains – selection of indicators within each of the areas on the basis of factor analysis (principal component analysis) – standardization in the indicators – aggregation in the index for a given area – normalization of indicators for each domain (max = 100) – composite aggregation in the global index (Okrasa 2013; Okrasa and Gudaszewski 2013).
it: earning (average) - labour market (employment) - social services - pensions (average) - construction industry. [NB its structure resembles the Canadian Community Well-being Index, which involves the following items: income, education, housing conditions and labour force activity.]

Figure 2. Local Deprivation in Poland and in Subcarpathian province by the Domains of the Multidimensional Index of Local Deprivation 2014

*Measures of Subjective Well-being* are meant to cover the main aspects of well-being and are based on the scales developed originally within the Survey Modules for the Oxford Quality of Life Index and Dashboard (OXQOL) - see Anand et al. (2010) - and adjusted to local conditions (Okrasa 2013). In order to talk also about subjective well-being of the local community, a scale based on ‘sense of community’ and ‘feeling of belonging’ was added (based on the one developed by Chavis et., 2008).

- Overall Subjective Well-being: *satisfaction from life, happy/unhappy yesterday, sense of life activities.*

- Satisfaction from different aspects of life: *health, job, sleep, leisure time, family life, social life, housing conditions, personal income, life prospect.*
• Social and Intellectual Dimensions of Life: *feeling of freedom and safety, religious and political beliefs, trust in people, feeling of safety, abilities to manage own life.*

• Satisfaction from everyday life activities: *work, transportation to work, housework, education, caring children, volunteering, eating, social meeting, hobby.*

• Feeling of belonging / ‘Sense of Community’ / Subjective Community Well-being: *similarity of values and needs and priorities, good feeling of being part of and wants to be in future, known to other members of community, having influence, place to live*

Distribution and inequality of the subjective well-being measures in different types of residential areas provide important information about their residents’ composition in terms of well-being. Therefore, before testing the influence of the community development/deprivation on these measures and the role of space in this context it seemed of interest to get insight into their distribution in border residential areas - Subcarpathian and Lviv regions - as compared to ‘intra’ country region, e.g., Mazovian province. Are there any significant similarities or differences specific to the life satisfaction of people residing in border neighbourhood, and/or between them and residents of the centre of the country? However, given that self-reported (on Likert-format questions) information constitute qualitative rather than quantitative type of scales, the appropriate methodology of checking inequality should be measured especially suited to this kind of data. Such as proposed by Allison and Foster (2004) to measuring inequality for ordinal well-being data, due to considering inequality as ‘the spread away from the median category’ (see also Dutta & Foster, 2012). The idea is based on S-dominance: distribution $X$ has a greater population share in the category below the median and a greater population share in the category above the median, compared with $Y$, therefore, $X$ has a greater spread away from the median compared with $Y$ (the “spread” of the distribution is lower for $Y$).

The mean happiness of distribution $X$ below the median can be expressed as:

$$
\mu_X^L (c) = 2 \left( \sum_{i+1}^{k-1} c_i (F_X^i - F_X^{i-1}) + c_k (0.5 - F_X^{k-1}) \right)
$$

And the mean happiness of distribution $X$ above the median as:

$$
\mu_X^U (c) = 2 \left( \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} c_i (F_X^i - F_X^{i-1}) + c_k (F_X^k - 0.5) \right)
$$
Consequently, a well-being (happiness) inequality measure is a function $I$ and the measure of inequality is a measure of “spread” of the distribution (based on the concept of S-dominance), as follows:

$$I^A^F_X(c) = \mu^U_X(c) - \mu^L_X(c)$$

The measure takes values from zero to $c_n - c_1^{10}$.

A comparison of patterns of inequality of various measures of subjective well-being for residents of each of the studied regions is not only of interest in itself, but it may interfere with some spatial effects as a tendency of clustering in a certain domain more than in others. At a glance, the emerging patterns of well-being inequality in Lviv and Subcarpathian regions, and also in Mazovian, are basically similar. A relatively biggest differentiation occurs in ‘evaluation of work and living’ while the differences are smallest in ‘overall subjective well-being’, followed by ‘satisfaction from everyday life activities’. There are, however, noticeable differences between respondents living in transborder areas (within 50 km from border) and in outside of this neighbourhood, in several well-being domains in Lviv region. For instance, inequality of feeling of belonging to local community is much higher among residents of the latter than of the transborder area, followed by satisfaction from important aspects of life and by overall subjective well-being. Practically, the opposite is true about the same residents and domains in the case of Subcarpathian region, where, in general, residents of transborder neighbourhood areas are somewhat more differentiated (in the same domains of well-being). Finally, when putting together all the three regions (panel C on Fig. 3), the emerging pattern of well-being inequality seems to differ mostly between residents of Lviv regions, on the one side, and the residents of either Subcarpathian or Mazovian regions (except for ‘satisfaction from everyday life activities’, omitted in the subsequent analysis).

Having recognized some basic trends in patterning of the subjective wellbeing inequality among residents of the regions under study – with an indication in conclusion on generally more differentiated transborder areas in Subcarpathian vs. more differentiated outside (inner country) areas in Lviv region - the spatial effects for these measures of the local community wellbeing/deprivation can be previewed with LISA (Local Indicators of Spatial Association (Anselin et al., 2010). The LISA analysis is aimed at answering the above question in a direct way within a bivariate approach, before including other factors, from the individual/household level, as suggested also by the diagram in Fig. 1.

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10 It is possible to convert its values to the interval $0 – 1$ (restricted to scales of the same types): $I^W_X = \frac{I^A^F_X}{c_n - c_1} \in [0,1]$ (Dutta and Foster, op cit.).
Figure 3. Allison-Foster Measure of Inequality of Subjective Well-being: comparison ‘within’ (transborder) and ‘outside’ 50 km border areas in Subcarpathian and Lviv regions, and in Mazovian province.

A. Lviv
B. Subcarpathian

AF-measure of inequality of SW-B

Subcarpathian

- Satisfaction from every day life activities
- Evaluation of selected aspects of work and living
- Social and intellectual dimensions of life
- Overall subjective well-being
- Assessment of important aspects of life
- Feeling of belonging to community / Subjective Community W-B

| AF measure of inequality Subcarpathian | AF measure of inequality Subcarpathian (transborder area) | AF measure of inequality Subcarpathian (inner area) |
**Community and individual well-being - preliminary exploration of spatial association.**

Results presented in the series of Figures 4-8 below starts with comparison (in Fig. 4) of the scatter plots and cluster maps for spatial autocorrelation of the local community deprivation measures, MILD for Subcarpathian gminas and ILD for districts of Lviv oblast. Although the values of Moran’s I coefficient (a lag-spatial version of the r-Pearson correlation coefficient)\(^{11}\) are not high - mainly due to the small numbers of localities in which the households were interviewed (13 powiats and 8 districts, respectively) - the patterns of spatial association among the localities on both sides of the border are apparently different.

\[^{11}\] The spatial autocorrelation coefficient Moran’s I informs about a tendency to concentration of values in space and was calculated with LISA procedure (Local Indicators of Spatial Association) using GeoDa software according to the basic formula

\[
I = \frac{n}{W} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij} (x_i - \bar{x}) (x_j - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2},
\]

where autocovariance in the numerator is weighted by spatial proximity between each pair of location \(i\) and \(j\) denoted \(w_{ij}\), n-by-n matrix, called the spatial weights matrix (e.g., Aldstadt, 2010, p. 280-291.)
Figure 4. Spatial Autocorrelation and Scatter Plot of Local Deprivation

A. Poland; Moran’s I=0.20

Hinge=1.5: GLOB_DEPR

- Lower outliner (0) [-inf
- <25% (99) [516 : 653
- 25% – 50% (105) [65
- 50% – 75% (109) [71
- >75% (97) [744 : 880
- Upper outliner (0) [880
B. Subcarpathian; Moran’s $I = -0.10$

LISA Cluster Map: Dpr_tu2_

- No Significant (520)
- High-High (182)
- Low-Low (191)
- Low-High (81)
- High-Low (62)

C. Lviv oblast; Moran’s $I = 0.16$

LISA Cluster Map: Dpr_tu2_

- 30,3 (226)
- 60,7 (3)
- 74,4 (2)
- 75,8 (7)
- 76,2 (27)
- 76,5 (39)
- 79,9 (10)
- 80,9 (29)
- 82,3 (39)
The Subcarpathian residents live in localities/gminas rather heterogeneous in terms of their deprivation characteristics (spatial autocorrelation is negative), while the districts in Lviv oblast tend to cluster in a more homogenous environment ($I = 0.16$). It might be added, however, that households outside of the 50 km border area are practically located in a big city of Lviv, and this will also affect some spatial results in further analysis.

Since the distinction between within- and outside- 50 km border areas is critical for verifying supposition (hypothesis) concerning the diversity of the expected patterns of influence of location on the residents' subjective well-being, the LISA results are consistently presented for both types of areas.

Overall Subjective Well-being (satisfaction from life, happy/unhappy yesterday, sense of life activities). According to Fig. 5, this is affected by the location and its quality (local deprivation) in a decisively stronger way among the Lviv oblast households - with much larger effect for households outside of the border area (actually in the city of Lviv) - than among the Subcarpathian households, where this effect is practically negligible, in both types of areas.
**Subcarpathian** (Moran’s I=0.08)

(a) HHs within 50 km;  
Moran’s I = 0.04

(b) HHs outside 50 km;  
Moran’s I = 0.07

---

**Lviv oblast**

(c) HHs within 50 km;  
Moran’s I = 0.18

(d) HHs outside 50 km  
Moran’s I = 0.79

---

- *Satisfaction from Aspects of Life* (Fig. 6) presents a contrasting picture for the Subcarpathian households located within- vs. outside - the border area, although the negative value for the former is hardly noteworthy; the latter (I = 0.17) is exactly the same as among residents of the border area in Lviv oblast (omitting very high association among the Lviv households). It may suggest that the border itself, rather than proximity/distance from it plays a more important role for how people perceive and assess their vital elements of private and professional life (health, family, work and income, etc.). In the case of Polish households, it is rather distance than proximity in relation to border which acts as a factor of spatial grouping (clustering).
• **Social and Intellectual Dimensions of Life** (Fig. 7) presents seemingly the most uniform picture of spatial association among the residents of all the four types of location, except for its strength, which again is much larger on Ukrainian (I=0.66) than on the Polish side of the border (I=0.10). In general, a set of items describing respondent’s feeling about such various elements as attitude towards people and environment, and so on, are rather consistently answered by people living in different types of location with respect to relation to the border.
Feeling of Belonging to the Community - interpreted also as a measure of the Community Subjective Well-being (Fig. 8) apparently presents relatively most coherent picture of similarities between residents of inner-country locations (I is high and positive: 0.34 and 0.66) than in transborder areas (I=0.05 and 0.15), on both sides of the border. This may reflect generally a higher level of identification with, and care about community which is located in, on average, a more stable inner territory than in less stable and secure location in the border residential neighbourhood. This scale, also called ‘sense of community’, covers the respondent’s assessment of her/his position within a community and relation to its other members (‘they know me’; ‘being a member makes me feel good’, ‘I have influence over what this community is like’, etc.). Due to its dual interpretation - as a component of individual (subjective) well-being associated with the community or as an individual score of
the measure aggregated across residents, called subjective community well-being. [The latter aspects will be touched here only occasionally.]

Figure 8. Spatial Autocorrelation and Scatter Plot of Local Deprivation) and ‘Feeling of Belonging to Community’(Community Subjective Well-being)

**Subcarpathian** (Moran’s I = 0.08)  
(a) HHs within 50 km;  
Moran’s I = 0.05  
(c) HHs within 50 km;  
Moran’s I = 0.15

**Lviv oblast** (Moran’s I = 0.12)  
(b) HHs outside 50 km;  
Moran’s I = 0.34  
(d) HHs outside 50 km

It is worthwhile emphasizing that relatively most clear pattern of autocorrelation emerges among the local territorial units – i.e., among gminas with respect to their level of deprivation (MILD) and Village-Councils (Lviv oblast) with respect to their underdevelopment index (ILUd); in both cases there is a tendency to spatial (global) clustering. Such a preliminary knowledge of (on general rather low) ‘sensitivity’ of the involved individual variables – subjective measures vs. objective spatial units’ characteristics (development) – allows for selection of predictors for the spatial regression (lag) model in the final section.
Patterns of cross-categorical distributions - Correspondence Analysis

The preliminary exploration of spatial association (autocorrelation) of individual subjective well-being conditional on the level of local deprivation in geographical relation to the border (proximity/distance) confirmed a tendency to a variety of patterns of spatial effect. It needs therefore to be complemented by checking relationships between particular categories in a search for more specific patterns of influence between defined levels of well-being and of local community (under)development/deprivation, accounting for the border-related location. The measures of SWB included in the Correspondent Analysis results (using the CORA programme for calculations) are: Overall Subjective Well-being; Satisfaction from different aspects of life; Satisfaction from everyday life activities; Feeling of belonging to community /'sense of community’ (CSW-B).

The summary of the CORA results in Table 2 presents rather mixed picture. The relatively most consistent pattern of relations is manifested by the first three measures.

Their clear association with the level of local deprivation among residents of the Subcarpathian transborder area contrasts with a rather idiosyncratic picture of such associations among their Ukrainian counterparts, residents within 50 km from border. However, as illustrated by Fig. 9, the observed co-occurrence of categories of residents, which are higher on subjective well-being and on community deprivation in Subcarpathian transborder gminas seems to be less expected and leads to different conclusions than the pattern that becomes noticeable in the case of Lviv village councils, where residents of less deprived localities are more likely to be satisfied from life, and vice-versa.
Table 2. *Correspondence Analysis* of Subjective Well-being by the Level of Community Deprivation/Under-Development - summary of the results for residents in Subcarpathian and Lviv regions, within and outside 50 km border-distance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators of Subjective Well-being by selected characteristics of commune: Pl-gminas; UA-Village Councils</th>
<th>Pattern of relations:</th>
<th>HHs within 50 km</th>
<th>HHs outside 50 km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall subjective well-being (SW-B)</td>
<td>YES - clear/unambiguous Yes – a weak tendency No – lack of tendency</td>
<td>Subcarpathian</td>
<td>Lviv oblast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction from everyday life activities</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction from key aspects of life</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of belonging /'sense of community'</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questions arise about the sources of variation, which must take into account the analogous pattern of associations among outside-border, inner-areas on both sides of the border, in Subcarpathian and Lviv regions. While the above sketched pattern among the Ukrainian households outside the 50 km becomes unchanged and clearer, it turns out to be less consistent for the Polish residents.

Similar to a seemingly more ‘rational’ looking distribution of better geared to life categories of residents (higher on SWB) living in less deprived/better developed areas, expectation was raised toward other scales of subjective well-being. The results presented in Fig. 10 confirm such expectations with respect to satisfaction from key aspects of life.
According to CORA, there is a significant tendency in distribution of subjective measures of well-being over the categories of local (under)development / deprivation. It is especially evident in the cases of overall SW-B and of life satisfaction, two key measures of the general aspects of the self-reported well-being. Although their raw profiles are clearly affected by the level of quality (deprivation) of the local community according to expectations, other measures – i.e. satisfaction from everyday activities and feeling of belonging/SCW-B – are also significantly modified by the latter, especially among the Polish HHs residing within 50 km from the border.
In general, the Polish households (respondents) show a more clear dependence of the subjective W-B distribution on the level of local deprivation than the Ukrainian HHs. The distance from the border seems to play a role as well – although not exactly the same for different groups of HHs - but generally larger on the Polish side of the border. Feeling of community, interpreted also (as already mentioned) as subjective community well-being/SCW-B - is impacted by the level of local deprivation, however, in a rather unexpected way (i.e. as in the case of SW-B)/
**Household-level factors of subjective well-being**, which may operate separately or in connection with the level of community development (as it is assumed in this study, e.g. Fig. 1) can also be checked at the descriptive level with the CORA models. The results of the analysis of distribution of the subjective well-being categories by the levels of selected household characteristics are summarized in Tab. 3.

Practically, all the above results confirm expectations concerning association between the HH level characteristics and subjective measures of well-being, additionally proving usefulness of drawing the specific patterns of relationships through CORA-type analysis, both for policy purposes and for further exploration of models towards identification of the potential determinants of variation in such measures. Some observations are worth mentioning. For instance, a different role of income source, such as earning, that seems to be more conducive for higher SW-B in Subcarpathian region than in Lviv oblast, except for households within 50 km.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country / region / oblast</th>
<th>Subcarpathian</th>
<th>Lviv oblast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All HHs within 50 km</td>
<td>All HHs within 50 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Subjective Well-Being/SW-B</td>
<td>HH living conditions</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>type of household</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction from Aspects of Life</td>
<td>main source of income</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of belonging/SCW-B</td>
<td>years of living in community</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, a couple without kids seems to be more happy in the former while in the latter a married couple with children is more likely to enjoy a ‘happy life.’ A mixed pattern is shown by SCW-B/‘sense of community’ in relation to the years of living in the community.
since the least satisfied from their communities are likely to be people living there for the relatively longest period of time (more than 18 years). On the other hand, this measure remains in considerably stronger association with overall subjective wellbeing, on both the Polish and Ukrainian side of the border, showing consistently positive patterns (i.e. prevalence of higher-higher and lower-lower pairs of categories). 12

Identifying community - and household-level factors of well-being - Multinomial Logistic Regression models. Given the ordinal level of the measures employed in questionnaires to gathering data on subjective well-being, caution must be expressed towards testing more complex hypotheses with the multivariate regression type models (by OLS). Therefore, logistic regression models have been used for identifying and assessing the influence of such qualitative characteristics of respondents and households as her/his marital status, major source of income, and vulnerability status. The latter was defined in terms of at-poverty risk as ‘not vulnerable’: 35% in Subcarpathian region and 53% in Lviv oblast vs. ‘vulnerable’: 65% in Subcarpathian region and 53% in Lviv oblast (cases with the lack of data on income were omitted). Such a broad (‘liberal’) interpretation of household vulnerability was due to its planned combination with the distinction made between transborder and outside/inner-areas in the form of cross-classified variable: ‘vulnerable HHs within 50 km’ - ‘vulnerable HHs outside 50 km’ - ‘vulnerable HHs outside 50 km’ - ‘not vulnerable HHs outside 50 km’. The full set of independent variables used in multinomial logistic regression model - three categorical dependent variables were defined as high, medium and low to allow for contrasting the profile of factors influencing those who are most likely and those who are most unlikely to belong to the category of satisfied/happy with respect to the given domain of subjective well-being (medium level was a reference category).

In Fig. 11 - the first in a series of figures presenting a summarized version of the results reduced to the odds for specified categories of selected features - all independent variables in the model are shown, but in the subsequent figures only the cross-classified ‘vulnerability x distance’ characteristic and the community deprivation level (quartiles) are shown for a better clarity of the presentation.

Neglecting the size of scale of relative odds - much larger for Ukrainian households due to extremely high odds of experiencing high feeling of belonging to local community (CSW-B) for not vulnerable HHs in inner areas - the most different pattern of influence

---

12 This also accords with the efforts reported in the literature to incorporate into the individual SW-B measure residents’ satisfaction with environment and community (the so-called DEA-Like Model - see Bernini et al., 2013).
on such odds is manifested by sources of income. Compared to agriculture, all other but especially earning and pensions are responsible for big relative risk of experiencing a low level of satisfaction from living in the own community (CSW-B). An opposite pattern is presented by Ukrainian households where pensions are relatively most conducive for a relatively larger chance of a high level of this domain (SCW-B). The relative odds of experiencing a high level of CSW-B is consistently growing for residents of less developed/more deprived gminas while the odds are much lower for the residents of communes in the Lviv oblast (this observation accords with the one made on basis of the CORA results).

Figure 11. Odds of experiencing ‘high’ vs. ‘low’ Feeling of Belonging (to community) by selected characteristics of households and the level of local deprivation

Subcarpathian
The vulnerability status seems to affect the chance of experiencing high level of SCW-B in the relatively strongest way, with somewhat larger odds among the households within transborder area in Subcarpathian than on the Ukrainian side of the border (as noted above), where the distance seems to play much larger role at least among the not vulnerable residents).

The relative odds of experiencing the high level of overall subjective well-being (SW-B) noticeably present in the same pattern for the Subcarpathian households as described above - i.e. growing along the higher level of local deprivation. But the pattern is opposite for their Ukrainian counterparts, where the chances are increasing consistently along with the growing quality of the living environment, i.e. with the diminishing level of local deprivation. In both groups of respondents, the vulnerability status proves again to contribute to the odds of greater SW-B in a more significant way than does the distance from border - with domination of not vulnerable residents within 50 km.
Figure 12. Odds of experiencing ‘high’ vs. ‘low’ Overall Subjective Well-being by selected characteristics of households and the level of local deprivation

**Subcarpathian**

**Lviv oblast**
Finally, the chance of a high level of satisfaction from key aspects of life also differs for residents of the border areas in two countries - see Fig. 13. While vulnerability shows to play an important role among the Subcarpathian residents, practically regardless of the distance from the border, it seems to be negligible as a factor in this context among the Lviv oblast residents.

The fact that the relative odds are lessening along the diminishing level of local deprivation in the Subcarpathian region for either high and low chances of satisfaction from key aspects of life seems to indicate smaller or even ineffectual role of the level of the environment, and its (under)development, as a factor for this domain of well-being. On the other hand, these chances are growing along with the increasing local deprivation of the communes for the Lviv oblast residents. This type of direction of the influence requires further, more focused on the kind of the well-being domains, research into explaining such a seemingly unexpected paradox (another one in addition to a collection of such identified since the highly famed Easterlin paradox, defined however for the macro-level relations).

Figure 13. Odds of experiencing ‘high’ vs. ‘low’ Satisfaction From Key Aspects Of Life by selected characteristics of households and the level of local deprivation

Subcarpatian
Modelling cross-level influence within the classic multivariate approach. One way to test the relevant hypotheses would be to ‘advance’ the level of analysis by relaxing the OLS-implied requirement - especially the one mentioned above, concerning the level of measurement of subjective well-being - and to employ multivariate regression model. Already having some recognition of factors operating in separation one may conceptualize a structure of relationship accounting for the growing importance of both an objective and subjective interpretation of community well-being. Consequently, following Chavis at al. (2008) and well long-established ideas from Tönnis and Durkheim emphasizing the importance of people’s feeling and sense of community as its integral component (e.g. “psychology of community” approach - see Pretty et al., 2006), the following equation for subjective well-being, SW-B with subjective community well-being (also in the interaction term) was calculated:

\[
IWB = f(CID, SCW-B, SCW-B\times CID, HH)
\]

Where variable symbols stand for: IWB - individual subjective well-being; CID - Community Index of Deprivation; SCW-B - community subjective well-being; HH - household vulnerability status.
Several important observations suggested by the results concern identification of the major sources of influence accounting for other possible sources, and identifying possible difference between patterns of influence on SW-B of residents of the transborder neighbourhood on both sides of the border (within 50 km) compared to the inner-areas (outside 50 km). Given small number of the sample (divided in the calculation into two groups) the model is adequate and significant (as indicated by the F-statistics and by the substantial value of $R^2_{adj}$.) Apparently, the household vulnerability status showed to be the strongest predictor of the overall SW-B that impacts it in consistently negative way. The influence of local deprivation is also generally negative, suggesting that in spite of some unexpected (positive) associations identified earlier, its effect is closer to that stated in the hypothesis, namely that the overall quality of the living environment (i.e. lower rather than higher local deprivation) ought to favour the better self-reported qualities of own life of the residents.

Table 4. Influence of the selected household- and community-level variables on the Overall Subjective Well-being - results of the OLS regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor variables</th>
<th>HH outside 50 km</th>
<th>HH within 50 km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subcarpathian</td>
<td>Lviv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coefficients</td>
<td>Coefficients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B Std. err. t</td>
<td>B Std. err t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Const.</td>
<td>27.846 (20.287)</td>
<td>1.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HH vulnerability status</td>
<td>-2.039** (.557)</td>
<td>-3.661 (2.228)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local deprivation/CID -MILD/Subcarpathian -ILU Lviv</td>
<td>-.231 (.272)</td>
<td>-.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Community Well-Being (SCW-B)</td>
<td>-.366 (.486)</td>
<td>-.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local deprivation x Subjective CW-B</td>
<td>.007 (.006)</td>
<td>1.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married no child</td>
<td>.071 (.743)</td>
<td>.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married and children (Other omitted)</td>
<td>2.022* (.1099)</td>
<td>1.841</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rsqadj. = .240 F (6.95) = 6.314 P < .001
Rsqadj. = .218 F (6.244) = 12.623 P < .001
Rsqadj. = .121 F (6.278) = 7.488 P < .001
Rsqadj. = .344 F (6.116) = 11.661 P < .001

*) Significant at p < 0.05; **) significant at p < 0.01
The impact of Subjective Community Well-Being is positive for residents within 50 km distance from the border but not in outside 50 km areas where, on average, people more / less satisfied from their lives show at the same time opposite (less/more) level of identification with, and satisfaction from their living surroundings /communities. The interaction term (CID & SCW-B) shows a generally negative influence (omitting positive but negligible case for residents in Subcarpathian inner-areas) regardless of marital status, compared to other types of families / households, marital status is favourable for overall individual well-being, but especially significant is to have kids at home.

**Spatial aspects of influence - spatial regression models.** The structure of relationships between variables of the three levels of units – individuals, households and communes – presents a complex architecture. The key hypotheses underlying its analysis emphasize the importance of not only ‘location’ (place) and its characteristics / deprivation or development for how people perceive and feel about their life but also interaction between the factors of different levels. (As in Fig. 1). As already noted, the appropriate approach to deal with such a multifaceted phenomenon would involve multilevel modelling with explicit accounting for the spatial effect. However, given the data constraints, only some aspects of this multifaceted process are possible to be analytically addressed here. The chief null hypothesis on the lack of spatial dependence (or clustering) or of spatial (lag) effect is being handled by ESDA framework (Anselin et al., 2010).

The task is to estimate the spatial regression model parameters (notation for individual observation $i$):

$$y_i = \rho \sum_{j=1}^n W_{ij} y_j + \sum_{r=1}^k X_{ir} \beta_r + \varepsilon_i$$

where: $y_i$ – the dependent variable for observation $i$; $X_{ir}, k$ – explanatory variables $r = 1, \ldots, k$ with associated coefficient $\beta_r$; $\varepsilon_i$ is the disturbance term; $\rho$ is parameter of the strength of the average association between the dependent variable values for region/observations and the average of them for their neighbours (e.g. LeSage and Pace, 2010, p. 357).\textsuperscript{113}

The results for the selected variables are summarized in the Tales 5 and 6 for Lviv oblast and for Subcarpathian, respectively, for residents of transborder areas.

\textsuperscript{113} The above specification of the spatial regression model assumes that $\varepsilon_i$ is meant as the spatially lagged term – versus spatial error formulation - for the dependent variable (which is correlated with the dependent variable), that is:

$$\varepsilon_i = \rho W_{ij} y_j + X_{ir} \beta + \varepsilon_i$$
Table 5. ‘Overall Subjective Well-Being’ and ‘Social and Intellectual Life Dimensions’ ‘Satisfaction from Key Aspects of Life’ by Selected Features of the Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>HH w/n 50 km</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>St.err</td>
<td>z-value</td>
<td>Prob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall SW-B</strong></td>
<td>0,179</td>
<td>0,131</td>
<td>1,368</td>
<td>0,171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>5,468</td>
<td>3,044</td>
<td>1,796</td>
<td>0,072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local depriviation</td>
<td>0,015</td>
<td>0,029</td>
<td>0,532</td>
<td>0,594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in residence</td>
<td>-0,017</td>
<td>0,165</td>
<td>-0,105</td>
<td>0,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCW-B/Feeling of</td>
<td>0,125</td>
<td>0,017</td>
<td>6,965</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared = 0,155

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social and intellectual</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>17,079</td>
<td>7,239</td>
<td>2,359</td>
<td>0,018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local depriviation</td>
<td>-0,012</td>
<td>0,065</td>
<td>-0,197</td>
<td>0,843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in residence</td>
<td>0,404</td>
<td>0,369</td>
<td>-1,095</td>
<td>0,273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCW-B/Feeling of</td>
<td>0,338</td>
<td>0,040</td>
<td>8,433</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared = 0,231

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life satisfaction</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>19,918</td>
<td>7,637</td>
<td>2,607</td>
<td>0,009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local depriviation</td>
<td>0,047</td>
<td>0,070</td>
<td>0,671</td>
<td>0,501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in residence</td>
<td>-0,348</td>
<td>0,396</td>
<td>-0,879</td>
<td>0,379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCW-B/Feeling of</td>
<td>0,268</td>
<td>0,042</td>
<td>6,242</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared = 0,12
The results of spatial lag model provide a bit mixed picture. First of all, spatial autoregressive coefficient \( \rho \) is generally big and positive (except for life satisfaction in PI, where it is negative and low), and is significantly larger that its OLS-counterpart (R-squared). This confirms the importance of spatial effect for overall SW-B and life satisfaction among Lviv oblast’s residents and the same in the case of overall SW-B and social and intellectual dimensions of life among Subcarpathian households within the narrowly defined borderland.
From among explanatory variables practically only one – the feeling of belonging to the community or SCW-B – is significant. This leads to the conclusion that the structure of the data used in these computations (which did not meet assumptions concerning randomization and normality, while showing heteroscedasticity problem) allows us to demonstrate an approach to the task of taking the community dimensions of subjective well-being in analysis into account, without however drawing substantive conclusions for research and policy purposes. Therefore, given the methodological feasibility of the demonstrated approach to this task, it may be concluded that such a strategy deserves further efforts (with the appropriate data).

Conclusions

This paper addresses the issue of community dimensions of individual (subjective) well-being – whether and how they interact in both ‘hierarchical’ and ‘horizontal’ aspects of possible relationships in the specific, transborder areas, using data for two (Polish and Ukrainian) border regions (Subcarpathian province and Lviv oblast). The strategy employed in this study encompasses: (i) preliminary exploration of the distribution of subjective measures of well-being (Allison-Foster inequality measure for ordinal data) and by selected features of the living environment/communes (using Correspondence Analysis).

Overall SW-B and satisfaction from key aspects of life showed to be relatively the most dependent on the overall quality /deprivation of the local community (esp. in the Polish part of the borderland, w/n 50 km). Next, recognition of the profiles of factors (specific categories of selected features of all the three levels: individual, HH and commune) affecting the subjective measures of well-being in relatively most noticeable way. Such as the generally larger difference between facing a relative risk of being in a Low group (unhappy) vs. a High-group in the Lviv oblast than in Subcarpathia. Or more similar positions of Pensioners of the two regions (countries) than Earners or Self-employed, etc. It was followed by searching for the pattern of (cross-level) influence of the level of community (under)development in interaction with an objective (HH-vulnerability) followed by interaction with Subjective Community Well-Being. The results of the OLS regression allowed some patterns of influence to be identified while indicating household and individual levels variables - the HH-vulnerability status and SCW-B, respectively – as the potentially best predictors of changes in the subjective well-being. Finally, spatial dimensions of the analysed relationships /dependencies shown to be important for the way the selected community characteristics impact the overall subjective well-being and the satisfaction from aspects of life. All the results (of basically pilot type of the study) confirmed that
the multi-level spatial modelling would be the appropriate and most effective analytical strategy to deal with the multifaceted and inherently spatially entangled phenomenon.

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Social and economic problems of Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation

Paper peer-reviewed by Viktor Borshchevskyy, PhD
Summary

Regardless of the level of economic development, frontier territories of any state are at the periphery of its economic priorities. Business gravitates towards the capital, the major economic and logistic centers, while the peripheral districts possess objectively deformed economic structure with depressive trends, which represents a result of objective processes of competitive market economy. One of the effective factors in overcoming social and economic problems caused by the presence of the Polish-Ukrainian border is the development of cross-border cooperation, which has a number of specific features making it different from other regions. The existing borders were established in the middle of the XX century, and the historical memory of the cultural and economic features of this region is not fully lost yet. The Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation in the field of preservation and restoration of the Ukrainian, Polish and Jewish cultural heritage and support of cross-border business activities will contribute to overcoming of the existing problems of the frontier regions.

Introduction

The frontier territories of any state, regardless of the level of its social and economic development, are at the periphery of its economic priorities. Business gravitates towards the capital, the major economic and logistic centers; this represents a result of objective processes of competitive market economy. The peripheral districts possess objectively deformed economic structure with depressive trends, which entail the constant need of economic dotation to mitigate the negative occurrences. The development of cross-border cooperation is an effective factor for overcoming social economic problems caused by the existence of the border.

Legal basis for cross-border cooperation

The cross-border cooperation is based mainly on the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities signed in Madrid on 21 May 1980 and often referred to as the “Madrid Convention”. Article 2 of the Convention defines cross-border cooperation as “any concerted action designed to reinforce and foster neighborly relations between territorial communities for authorities within the jurisdiction of two or more Contracting Parties and the conclusion of any agreement
The purpose of cross-border cooperation is overcoming the limitations caused by state borders and development of cooperation between public authorities of the neighboring countries and non-governmental organizations in order to implement socio-economic projects together.

Another important document underpinning cross-border cooperation is the European Charter of Local Self-Government, which was signed in Strasbourg on 15 October 1985 and became effective on 1 September 1988. The main idea of the Charter is decentralization of power by means of the subsidiarity principle, i.e. solving particular issues at the level of government which is the closest to everyday needs of the population. The higher administrative bodies should take on particular issues only if solving them by the local administration would be either ineffective or impossible. The document defines the political and economic rights of the local administration, asserts its independence, and protects citizens from power abuse by the central government

The legal provisions defined in these documents became the foundation of the later treaties, statutes, and agreements on the main principles of cross-border cooperation between territorial communities or local administrations.

Cross-border cooperation is also financially supported by the EU. Namely, in 2014-2020 the European neighborhood policy is funded within the European Neighborhood Instrument (ENI); it is the successor of the European Neighborhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI), which had existed since 2007. The general budget of the European Neighborhood Instrument for 7 years is 15.4 billion euros (measured in 2014 euros).

The EU neighborhood policy priorities were clearly defined in 2011; these priorities are supported from the budget of the European Neighborhood Instrument. They include: human rights, state of law, democratization of society, establishing of civic society, sustainable development, gradual integration with the EU internal market, personal mobility, regional cooperation, and especially cross-border cooperation.

Cross-border cooperation is a constituent part of international cooperation of neighboring communities.
countries at the local or regional level. It is important to understand that cross-border cooperation: (1) does not encroach on the state’s external policy, sovereignty and territorial integrity; (2) is not an instrument providing the local administration with broader authority than is provided by the national law, and does not intend to create supranational forms of territorial administration.

The Madrid Convention is intended to support bilateral cooperation between local administrations and non-governmental organizations, rather than between governmental bodies. Local administrations can act strictly within their authority, in accordance with the national law and international obligations of their state.

**Preconditions for Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation**

The present-day Europe is the result of the long-term development and transformation of states from historical communities to national states. This was supported by the industrial revolution and the ideas of the French revolution, which took on the capitalist principles of economy organization, free market, the need to weaken the role of monarchies, the establishment of democratic institutions. The Spring of Nations created the foundations of a new Europe, a community of nation-states, which was formed as a result of the collapse of major European empires, primarily Austro-Hungarian and Russian. New national boundaries divided old historical, cultural, and economic communities.

The establishment of European borders after the end of World War II had an arbitrary character. The process of establishing new borders has become a humanitarian catastrophe for some of the places. For instance, Belz, one of the oldest Western Ukrainian cities, the capital of the medieval Belz principality, has no indigenous population that could preserve historical memory and traditions. Jews, Ukrainians and Poles lived in Belz before the War. In 1939, almost all the Jews left the city following the Red Army (according to the Treaty of Non-Aggression and the Border between the USSR and Germany in 1939). The Jews who stayed in the city were killed by the Germans in 1942. In 1944 Belz became a Polish town, and all Ukrainians were resettled from the city in 1947 during Operation Vistula. In 1951, in accordance with the “Agreement between Poland and Union of Soviet Socialist Republic concerning the exchange of sectors of their State territories” of 15 February 1951, Belz was transferred to the USSR, and all Poles living there were resettled.
to Poland. In 1952, Belz was populated by persons moved mainly from the East of the Ukrainian SSR\textsuperscript{18}.

The development of international cooperation of the regions is one of the driving forces of European integration processes and one of the features of modern Europe, an important contribution to strengthening democratic and political stability, economic, ecological, social and cultural development. Significant results of such cooperation have been achieved in those areas in which the regions have advantages: in the creation of regional development projects, environmental protection, science, culture, etc.

Apart from bilateral cooperation there can be trilateral or multilateral cooperation (such as Poland-Belarus-Ukraine) in spatially adjacent territories, including those separated by the sea.

Though implemented at the regional level, cross-border cooperation is a sphere of foreign policy, international economy, ecological, scientific, educational, cultural and other types of international activities. Its distinctive feature is that it is happening at the border, and this entail certain problems: the need to share inseparable environmental resources, man-made and environmental pressures on the common environment, greater personal and family ties on both sides of the border, the specific nature of the service sector and roadside infrastructure.

The basis of cross-border cooperation is the search for economic and legal mechanisms for the creation of both informal ties and contractual relations at the border regions with the purpose of solving similar problems.

Real results can be achieved if priorities and agreed development plans for certain specific activities are identified in the process of cooperation between the border regions. The goal of Ukraine-Poland cross-border cooperation should be preservation and restoration of Ukrainian, Polish, and Jewish historical and cultural heritage, support for the entrepreneurship and cross-border infrastructure. The effectiveness of this cooperation depends on the effective interaction among all social groups and self-government bodies. In fact, such an approach should be implemented within the framework of the Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 Program.

Problem of border transparency

Cross-border cooperation is aimed at overcoming the negative effects of the existence of borders, in particular:

- administrative and bureaucratic barriers between neighboring countries;
- political obstacles to cross-border cooperation;
- negative stereotypes and prejudices on both sides of the border;
- insufficient social, cultural and economic infrastructure on both sides of the border.

Tomasz Komornitsky, a well-known researcher of the state border issues, notes: “With some simplification, we can agree that in Europe the borders had (and still have) three main functions understandable to all:

- military function (a barrier to foreign military aggression);
- economic function (a barrier to the free movement of goods),
- public function (barrier to the free movement of persons).”

Until the beginning of the 1990s, the military function was dominant, especially at the borders between the member states of the North Atlantic Alliance (NATO) and the member states of the Warsaw Pact. This military function was especially noticeable in the times of Cold War, when the borders between the countries of the communist bloc and the West have become an extreme form of the Iron Curtain. The economic function was carried out centrally, and the social function was either substantially limited (in all countries of the communist bloc), or *de facto* did not exist at all (in the USSR, China, Cuba). A good example of this was the “Berlin Wall” – the border between the GDR and West Berlin.

The economic interests of countries have been turned towards those neighbor countries which had less strong barriers at the borders. The neighboring countries with similar ideology were getting closer to each other by reducing the military. This is how the European Coal and Steel Community was created in Western Europe in 1951, the European Community of Nuclear Energy in 1955, and the European Economic Community in 1957.

At the same time, the countries controlled by the USSR established the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance in 1949, and in 1955 they signed a military and political Warsaw Treaty, formally the Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation and Mutual Assistance.

The collapse of the communist bloc, the unification of Germany, the collapse of the Soviet Union destroyed the Iron Curtain and created the preconditions for softening (or eliminating) the barriers on the European borders. The propagation of the EU to the East and deepening of the integration processes have turned internal borders between the EU member states into nominal ones and it strengthened the external borders of the European Union.

Barriers are gradually disappearing in the relations between Ukraine and the EU member states. In 2014, the “Agreement on Association between Ukraine, on the one hand, and the European Union, the European Atomic Energy Community and their Member States on the other hand” was signed, which became effective on 1 September 2017. On 11 May 2017, the Council of Ministers of the European Union approved the final decision to grant Ukrainians the right to visa-free travel to the European Union countries that belong to the Schengen zone (except Great Britain and Ireland), and to four non-EU countries, that are part of the Schengen zone – Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland20.

The position of a particular region in world economy is defined by its resources: natural, climatic, and acquired – human, cultural, and industrial. Readiness for cross-border cooperation can also influence the development of small and medium enterprises – either positively or negatively.

Cross-border cooperation relies on national legislation, administrative and economic measures intended to distribute productive factors rationally and ensure equality of the quality of life. This part of real politics of the state touches upon the most important industries, labor market, services, tourism business, etc. The types and directions of cross-border cooperation of states are outlined in the Madrid Convention of 198021.

The main purpose of regional state policy in the field of cross-border cooperation is eliminating drastic social and economic disproportions between the frontier regions of the

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neighboring states. The cooperation gradually changes the spatial distribution of economic activity and employment.

Spatial development of the country’s economy requires implementation of a number of national infrastructure projects. The well-developed infrastructure enables to draw businesses to the least developed peripheral regions, stimulates investments and creation of jobs, and thus constitutes a factor of economic development.

The countries of Europe differ in the intensity of cross-border cooperation, which depends on the policy of a particular country, and the possibility to mutually satisfy needs of the frontier territories by providing raw materials, goods, and services.

The Madrid Convention pays special attention to strengthening of the regional component of the international cooperation of the countries of Europe in order to solve the issues of economic, social, and cultural development of regions and frontier territories, and reinforce neighborly relations between territorial communities.

In the context of border transparency the states can consider the issues of opening new crossing points for motor vehicles and goods, development of border infrastructure, etc. This should contribute to direct business relations between Polish and Ukrainian businesses.

**Economic cooperation at the frontier territories**

The development of cross-border trade contributes to economic growth at the frontier region. The driving force of such development is the difference in price levels and price ratios for consumer and industrial goods in the neighboring states. Another factor that contributes to cross-border cooperation is establishing contacts between the regional branches of Chambers of Trade and Commerce, business support centers, organizations for manufacturers and entrepreneurs, participation in exhibitions and fairs.

The long-forgotten traditional trade routes from East (Arab East, primarily) to Europe used to cross the modern-day Polish-Ukrainian border in the directions of Volodymyr Volynskyi – Belz – Przemysl and Lviv - Przemysl. In other words, these modern-day cities are situated along the historical trade routes. Cross-border cooperation can become a powerful instrument for restoration of traditional land transport corridors. Taking into account the
historical experience of Lviv and Przemysl, it is necessary to consider a major cross-border project – creation of a center for transport and logistics (a “dry port”) on the EU border in order to facilitate trade with eastern countries. Implementation of such a project would ensure development of cross-border trade and draw attention of international investors; this, in turn, would positively influence well-being of the frontier territories and create additional opportunities for processing and service companies.

The Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation should take into account the specific conditions of this frontier region, which make it different from any other. The existing border was established in the middle of XX century; the historical memory of cultural and economic forms, which existed here before WWII, is not fully lost and thus can be used.

The analysis of extra-European experience shows that in the majority of developing countries the frontier regions are involved in international trade; their development was encouraged by creation of special economic and trade zones at the territories close to the border crossings, sea ports, airports, and near international transport corridors.

The expansion of EU had important consequences for Ukraine. First of all, this increased the resource and consumer potential of the European Union, because its territory has increased by 1/3, while the common consumer market is about 500 million consumers. Poland’s integration to the EU in 2004 impacted its institutions, business and economic policy. Having joined the common trade policy of the EU Poland introduced new tariff and non-tariff trade barriers in the trade with third countries, stricter control at the Eastern border, which is obviously intended to stop smuggling of excise goods and decrease the flow of illegal labor migration from the territory of Ukraine. Ukraine’s imperfect economic legislation, bureaucratic obstacles and corruption in the government, insufficient experience of market relations, and “uncivilized” business are among the many unfavorable conditions that hinder development of the official bilateral trade and contribute to the growth of smuggling and corruption involved in the external trade.

According to the official statistics, Poland is currently at the third place in total external trade balance of Lviv region. However, in order to understand the real situation, we also need to take into account the external trade operations that are not reflected in those statistics. This share is often referred to as “shade economy”. In order to assess this issue, the economists use different sources and methods; according to them, the actual volume of trade is at least twice as large as in the official statistics. Nevertheless, it is difficult to
name any exact numbers for the “shade economy”, especially when it comes to cross-border trade between Lviv region and Poland.

We can distill three flows of goods between Lviv region and Poland:

1. official trade;
2. cross-border “shuttle trade”;
3. large-scale “unofficial trade” (smuggling).

Poland is the main trade partner of Lviv region. After EU expansion in May 2004 the frontier regions of Ukraine that border on Poland got a competitive advantage related to the possibility of cross-border trade, cooperation and unique neighborhood conditions with the biggest integrated economic structure. At the same time, the principle and *modus operandi* of the Ukrainian-Polish trade changed – this has to do mainly with the institutional sphere. In this context it is important to find new instruments and mechanisms that would help to transform the problems related to the expansion of the EU, and make the use of advantages and opportunities for Ukraine, strengthen national security and develop cross-border and regional cooperation. The further increase of external trade in the frontier regions of Ukraine and the use of advantages resulting from bordering on the EU will depend on development of institutional infrastructure and dynamics of structural reforms in the field of Ukraine’s external trade with the EU countries.

The greatest population group impacted by the visa regime with Poland were the inhabitants of the frontier area involved in the so-called “shuttle trade”. By our estimates, the number of people involved in “shuttle trade” can be anywhere between 100,000 and 200,000, the majority of them living in the Ukrainian frontier districts near the Polish border. There is a misconception that the economic effect of “shuttle trade” is of minor importance for the frontier regions of Ukraine. According to our estimates, this effect comprises at least 625 mln USD per year. Surprisingly, even the visa regime didn’t have much effect on many citizens involved in this business. Currently they are using opportunities created by the so-called “small cross-border movement”.

Large-scale “unofficial trade” was not directly influenced by Poland’s accession to the EU. At least 40% of goods imported from Poland are in this category: more often than not these goods are registered at the Polish customs with the intention to reclaim VAT, but not custom cleared with the Ukrainian customs. This conclusion can be drawn from
analysis of balance of the foreign trade between Lviv region and Poland (see Table 1). According to some estimates, the official trade will also remain mostly uninfluenced in the nearest future. It is expected, that the percentage of legal trade will increase, while smuggling is going to decrease.

Table 1. Foreign trade between Lviv region and Poland in 2004-2016\textsuperscript{22}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Export – total (thousands of USD)</th>
<th>Import – total (thousands of USD)</th>
<th>Balance of foreign trade (thousands of USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>63 557,40</td>
<td>138 941,90</td>
<td>-75 384,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>49 172,30</td>
<td>212 794,40</td>
<td>-163 622,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>76 809,40</td>
<td>265 954,20</td>
<td>-189 144,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>129 240,40</td>
<td>355 011,60</td>
<td>-225 771,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>118 326,90</td>
<td>732 350,30</td>
<td>-614 023,40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>125 947,80</td>
<td>510 418,70</td>
<td>-384 470,90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>175 489,20</td>
<td>608 591,70</td>
<td>-433 102,50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>229 011,60</td>
<td>647 885,40</td>
<td>-418 873,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>225 555,70</td>
<td>761 193,30</td>
<td>-535 637,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>326 817,00</td>
<td>762 368,30</td>
<td>-435 551,30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>310 330,00</td>
<td>554 986,70</td>
<td>-244 656,70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>265 918,10</td>
<td>353 435,20</td>
<td>-87 517,10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>317 580,60</td>
<td>458 874,40</td>
<td>-141 293,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-2016</td>
<td>2 413 756,40</td>
<td>6 362 806,10</td>
<td>-3 949 049,90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Along with stable growth of goods turnover, Ukraine’s balance of foreign trade with Poland is deteriorating. The same can be said about the trade between Lviv region and Poland after Poland joined the EU. In 2004-2016 the total balance of the region’s foreign trade is negative, - 3 949 mln USD. It is necessary to mention that numbers could be even worse if we had a correct estimate of illegal import happening over the Ukrainian-Polish border. There are considerable differences in the official estimates of the bilateral trade between Poland and Ukraine.

As a result of the increase of bilateral trade, since the beginning of 2006 Poland became the main trade partner of Lviv region, leaving behind the traditional leaders, Germany and the Russian Federation. In 2016 in the external trade of Lviv region Poland comprised 24.9% of export and 27% import. The second place belongs to Germany (12,2% and 18%, respectively), and the third one – to Czech Republic (7,3% і 2,9%)\(^{23}\).

An important characteristic of bilateral trade relations is commodity composition, which currently can be described as ineffective and inexpedient. The Ukrainian export to Poland consists primarily of raw commodities, while Poland exports advanced goods.

Keeping in mind the fact that 60% of Polish import to Lviv region is not tracked by the State Customs Service of Ukraine, we can assume that at least 50% consumer goods in Lviv region are of Polish origin. In other words, Poland has a powerful influence on the structure of the consumer market of Lviv region, in particular the following categories:

1. Food products (meat, viscera, sugar, confectionery, vegetables, fruits, hard pressed cheeses, etc.);
2. Construction materials and plumbing fixtures;
3. Furniture;
4. Clothes, footwear, etc.

The demand for Polish goods has defined the structure of consumer market of Lviv region. Over time, Polish goods started to be stereotypically perceived as goods of high quality, manufactured in accordance with EU standards. However, this stereotype holds only for the “shuttle trade” goods manufactured for the European Union. As for the goods in the “official trade” and “high-scale unofficial trade”, the public opinion tends to see them as goods of lower quality, which do not meet the EU requirements and are manufactured for Eastern Europe and Ukraine in particular.

The growth of import in Lviv region contributes to the growth of manufacturing and employment in Poland; it depends on real income of the population of Lviv region. The growth of import from Poland to Lviv region can be explained by the growth of manufacturing, which enriches the import offer for Ukraine; on the other hand, the real income

\(^{23}\) Ibid.
of the local population is growing, while the production of consumer goods in the region is not fast enough. This can be proven by the fact that the majority of goods imported from Poland are intended for end use – these are not intermediate goods or raw materials for industrial use.

**Conclusions**

The development of Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation has a number of specific features that make it different from other regions. First and foremost, the existing border was established in the middle of the XX century, and the historical memory of the cultural and economic features that existed here before Word War II is not fully lost yet. The purpose of the Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation should consist in preservation and restoration of the Ukrainian, Polish, and Jewish historical heritage, the support of cross-border business infrastructure development, which in turn can contribute to overcoming of the existing problems of the frontier territories of both countries.

Cross-border cooperation, especially in Europe, has a number of similar problems having to do with establishing of the state borders which often came as a result of political compromises. There are certain apprehensions and demands on both sides. An important humanitarian task of cross-border cooperation is overcoming of prejudice and manifestations of national and religious hostility in mutual relations, as well as support of friendly neighborhood relations at the frontier territories.

The main problem is overcoming the deformed economy structure of the frontier regions of Ukraine and Poland. The Ukrainian-Polish economic cooperation will be fruitful only if it embraces every sphere of the economy: manufacturing, agriculture, transport, services, education, tourism, etc. The development of economy in the frontier regions will enable to destroy the social basis for the so-called “small business at the border”, including smuggling and illegal selling of excise products; this will change the nature of the “small cross-border movement”. Market economy is not independently capable of solving the problems of the frontier territories. Therefore a program of cross-border cooperation developed by the governments of Ukraine and Poland should become the main instrument for addressing the imperfections of market economy and moving towards the economic equality of the regions of both countries.
References


International cooperation of local governments from south-eastern Poland with partners from Ukraine. A research concept.

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

Cross-border cooperation involves the initiation and implementation of joint actions between neighbouring communities to improve the quality of life of local residents, to boost local and regional development and build good neighbourly relations between the residents of border areas. Cross-border cooperation requires the involvement of local actors, with regional and local authorities playing a leading role. Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation has been developing for 25 years, and the activities undertaken by local and regional authorities represent an interesting subject of research. The aim of this article is to present the concept of proposed research on the cooperation between the local government authorities from southern Poland with Ukrainian partners. As the context for the presented research concept, the article discusses the results of similar research on cooperation with partners from the Visegrad Group countries and a review of main strains of academic reflection on Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation by Polish and Ukrainian researchers.

Introduction

The early days of institutionalised international cooperation of local communities and local governments in Europe date back to the 1940s. In order to rebuild or develop cooperation between the inhabitants of different parts of the divided continent after World War II, the urban partnership movement developed in Europe. The main purpose of the cooperation was to stimulate cultural, economic and informational exchange between the inhabitants of cities located in different countries. In the subsequent decades, European communities developed their international cooperation as well.

In 1980, the European Outline Convention on Cross-border Cooperation between Territorial Communities or Authorities was adopted. The signatory states of the Convention undertook to ‘facilitate and promote cross-border cooperation between communities and local authorities...’ and endeavour to sign agreements between these entities. The Convention defines cross-border cooperation as follows: ‘For the purpose of this Convention, cross-border cooperation shall mean any concerted action designed to reinforce and foster neighbourly relations between territorial communities or authorities within the jurisdiction of two or more Contracting Parties and the conclusion of any agreement and arrangement necessary for this purpose. Cross-border cooperation shall take place in the framework of territorial communities’ or authorities’ powers as defined in domestic
The Convention also includes the definition of ‘territorial communities and authorities’. It refers to ‘communities, authorities or bodies exercising local and regional functions and regarded as such under the domestic law of each State.’

The experience of cross-border cooperation in Western Europe shows that it can be an effective instrument to boost community development and improve the quality of life of local residents: ‘Cross-border cooperation... is aimed at achieving synergies and boosting efficiencies by jointly achieving objectives that are of interest to the cooperating entities. In this case, the common goal is to overcome the problems faced by the border regions ....’

Cross-border cooperation may help to raise the knowledge about the neighbours living across the nearest frontier, and to build friendly relationships between people from neighbouring communities. ‘Cross-border cooperation links structures, systems and areas which are often very different. Its main goal is to initiate and implement joint actions in the area of social policy, natural environment, infrastructure, culture, science and education, going beyond state borders.’

Cross-border cooperation requires the involvement of local actors, with the regional and local authorities playing a leading role. At the same time, this kind of commitment may be an important and effective instrument of local governance. As Paweł Swianiewicz writes, ‘initiating and developing international relations is increasingly becoming an important component of the efficient management of local government units.’

After 1989, Poland and Central Europe saw a rising political autonomy of local communities. They became not only self-governing entities, but they can also enter into mutual relations, with within and across national borders. The Constitution of the Republic of Poland provides that ‘A local government unit has the right to join international associations of local and regional communities and to cooperate with local and regional communities of other countries.’

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24 The European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Cooperation between Territorial Communities or Authorities, Article 1.
25 Ibidem, Article 2.
Cross-border cooperation in Central Europe arouses particular interest. This region of the continent has a common historical past, the experience of common nationality but also conflicts, often with dramatic twists. Some of this story falls on the communist period, and its consequences are still felt in an acute way in the economy and society by people from the former Eastern Bloc countries.

Ukraine enjoys a special status among the countries of Central Europe as a country of extraordinary strategic importance, grappling the with the heritage resulting from being part of the Soviet Union for many years, and still outside the European Union. Relations with Ukraine are very important for Poland. The history of cross-border cooperation between the Polish authorities and their Ukrainian partners dates back to the early 1990s and ‘has developed with varying intensity and success, influenced by both political, administrative and financial... as well as social factors.’

The experience of Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation over the last quarter of a century has led to questions about its forms, determinants and outcomes. Among the many topics covered under this umbrella, what seems to merit separate interest from researchers are the actions taken by local authorities of Polish regions and communities in the sphere of cross-border cooperation with Ukrainian partners: ‘...a special role should be played... by regional and local institutions because they are the only ones that can properly assess the needs of areas which continue to be peripheral from the perspective of central government.’

The aim of this article is to present the concept of research on cross-border cooperation between local authorities of Polish communities with Ukrainian partners. The discussion of this concept is preceded by a discussion of the existing research that inspired the proposed analysis.

31 Ł. Konopielko, *Środki europejskie...*, ibidem, p.130.
Cooperation of local governments from southern Poland with Central European partners: Research findings and methodological experience

The results of the research conducted under the project ‘Małopolska – A Gateway to Regional Cooperation in Central Europe. Building a knowledge base and promoting best practices in Central and Eastern European governments’ provided the inspiration for developing this research concept regarding cooperation between local authorities of Polish communities and Ukrainian partners. The main objective of the research was to obtain in-depth knowledge on international cooperation conducted by Polish local government units with partners from Central European countries in 2004–2014. The analysis covered international relations of local government authorities of communicates located in south-eastern Poland (the study covered cities/towns, municipalities and powiats from the Małopolskie and Podkarpackie voivodships and parts of the Śląskie Voivodship) with entities from the Visegrad Group countries, i.e. the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary, as well as Romania.

These countries were chosen not only because they are neighbours located in a common geographical space of Europe, but also because they have deep historical and cultural connections, shared communist past, the experience of transformation and a similar status in the EU. The period covered by the study started at Poland’s accession to the European Union.

The main research questions focused on the following issues:

- the number of Polish local government units cooperating with a foreign entity, i.e. a local government unit,
- the main determinants of the intensity of cooperation,
- the frequency of joint initiatives with regard to individual Visegrad countries,
- the areas where cooperation was undertaken and implemented,
- sources of financing used for such cooperation.

The main step in the research procedure was to collect and analyse the existing data contained in publicly available information (desk research) in order to create a knowledge

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32 Research in the framework of a project co-financed by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Poland under the programme called ‘Support for the local governance dimension and civic dimension of Poland’s foreign policy 2016’. 
base covering all cases of international cooperation between local governments in the area concerned. As the second step, field studies in territorial government units were conducted, especially in those actively engaged in international cooperation, in order to capture the determinants of such activity and to formulate good practices for international cooperation of local governments.

Desk research revealed 630 cases of real cooperation between municipalities and poviats of Małopolska, Podkarpacie and parts of Silesia with foreign partners. They took place in 261 territorial government units, which means that 36% of territorial government units did not show any cross-border cooperation in publicly available sources. Cooperation was most actively conducted by cities/towns (although with varying intensity), while rural municipalities remained least active.

As regards the intensity of cooperation, 78 municipalities and 5 poviats carried out only one project in the period under review, whereas ten or more projects were carried out by nine cities/towns in the studied area. Slovakia was chosen by far most often as a partner (54.5% of cases of cooperation), followed by the Czech Republic (16.5%) and Hungary (almost 15%).

The largest number of cross-border initiatives undertaken by Polish local governments are related to culture. Almost 40% of all co-operation was within this sphere. Other areas of cooperation had similar degrees of popularity: education (79 cases, or 12.4%), infrastructure (11.6%), tourism (10.7%), sports (9.7%). Visibly fewer joint initiatives concerned environmental issues (2.4%), and the economy (12 cases, or 1.9%).

The largest number of infrastructural projects were implemented in cooperation with Slovak partners (79% of all activities in this sphere). 55% of all cultural projects were implemented by Polish and Slovak partners. Hungary came second in terms of cultural initiatives (20% of all projects). Cultural cooperation with the Czech Republic was undertaken 31 times.

In other fields, i.e. tourism and sports, covering respectively 10.7% and 9.7% of record ed cases of cooperation, the dominance of partners from Slovakia is as strong as in the sphere of culture and infrastructure (approx. 60% of all activities).

The overwhelming majority of projects are financed by the European Union (over 63% of cases). INTERREG plays a special role among European programs, as it only co-finances
joint actions by Polish and Slovak local government units, as well as Polish and Czech partners. This programme has played a stimulating role in cross-border co-operation, providing cofinancing for nearly 26% of all international activities undertaken by local governments in the studied area.

More than 30% of joint actions were paid for by local government units from their own resources. While Slovakia is the largest partner also in this group (over 43%), Hungary comes second with a strong position (35%).

The results of desk research were used as an input for conclusions concerning the conditions of foreign cooperation in the analysed local government units. The most important of these factors are the type of settlement and proximity of the border.

Worth noting is the relatively widespread and intensive international cooperation undertaken by local authorities of smaller urban centres. Almost all of them were engaged in cooperation with a foreign partner, undertaking their various organisational units, and often cooperating with non-governmental organisations. This seems to prove that the rich institutional infrastructure is conducive to international cooperation. In most cases, the coordinating functions in foreign co-operation were performed by local government offices (in more than 51% of cases), but the range of institutions involved in the cooperation was broad: from educational institutions (12% of all cases of co-operation), sports clubs, sports and leisure centres, cultural institutions, as well as associations and parishes. This is especially evident in towns with the rights of poviats and in towns proper, which are more likely to have a network of specialised municipal organizational units.

Research has shown that there is a statistically significant relationship (measured by the $\chi^2$ test) between the distance from the border and engagement in international cooperation. If we divide all local government units into those adjacent to the border, the neighbouring units and other units, we will find that adjacent and neighbouring units are more likely to engage in international cooperation (dependence at the level of $\chi^2_{(1)}=15.37$; $p<0.001$). (It is worth noting that $\frac{3}{4}$ of the 42 adjacent units and the 48 neighbouring units are rural communities, i.e. those representing a less active category in terms of foreign cooperation, which seems to reinforce the argument that geographical proximity of the border is decisive for such cooperation.) The choice of partners for cooperation from Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Hungary shows that geographical distance plays an essential role. This is related to economic factors: in order to maintain contacts with
foreign partners and to conduct joint activities, local government officials and other official must meet face to face, which means that travel costs and the time officials can devote to such projects plays a significant role.

As the second step of the research, devoted to the formulation of best practices in international cooperation, a case study analysis of communities and their local authorities was conducted. Cases were selected in view of their particularly high activity in this field. Researchers sought answers to questions about the sources of inspiration for projects conducted in cooperation with foreign partners, the actors initiating cooperation, the procedures for establishing and conducting joint actions, the individual and institutional leaders of cooperation, the social outcomes of foreign cooperation, and ways of disseminating information about such cooperation. The results of this part of research serve as a point of departure for further qualitative research on foreign cooperation undertaken by Polish local government units under new research projects.

While searching for data concerning international cooperation of Polish local governments with Slovakia, Romania, the Czech Republic and Hungary, data on their collaboration with Ukraine were also collected. However, since the research was focused on cooperation with other countries, these data are certainly far from incomplete. We recorded 37 local government units in the Podkarpackie voivodship and 4 local government units in Małopolskie voivodship which cooperate with Ukraine under projects or city twinning. The exact number of projects and cooperating entities is much higher yet this sphere requires more research focused specifically on cooperation with Ukraine. No Polish-Ukrainian cooperation was recorded in the analysed part of the Śląskie voivodship.

There is at least one case in each of the analysed areas. It is likely that the distribution of results in the fields of cooperation will look very much like in the case of cooperation with Slovakia, Romania, the Czech Republic and Hungary, where cultural exchange will most likely prevail while economic cooperation will be marginal. Due to insufficient data, no conclusions can be formulated at this stage. The area of cooperation between Polish and Ukrainian local government units should be carefully studied in order to ensure that the analysis of frequencies and effects of coexistence are statistically founded, i.e. they are not accidental. Cross-border projects that are not found within the research area should also be analysed in terms of sources of funding for cooperation.
The research findings discussed above regarding the cooperation of local authorities in southern Poland with partners from the Visegrad Group and Romania as well as the methodological experience gained in the research process have inspired us to undertake an analysis in order to explore similar issues in relation to cooperation with Ukrainian partners.

Cross-border cooperation of Polish local governments with Ukrainian partners in the light of research

The possibilities of cross-border cooperation between local authorities of Polish communities with Ukrainian partners opened up in the early 1990s. The manifestations of such cooperation, its directions and conditions became the subject of research and reflection for researchers from Poland and Ukraine. This reflection seems to have two main themes. The first involves an analysis of the Euroregions and the joint initiatives undertaken there. This strain of research clearly highlights the evaluation of the outcomes of projects completed on the basis of EU funding. The second theme includes reflections on the background and barriers for cross-border cooperation.

A Euroregion is an institutionalised form of cross-border cooperation between territorial communities and local authorities in border regions of neighbouring countries. It aims to coordinate activities aimed at solving common problems and to support the interests of the local residents.\(^{33}\) Representatives of Poland and Ukraine have participated in Euroregions since the early 1990s. Cross-border cooperation is one of the main objectives of two Euroregions along the border of Poland and Ukraine: the Bug Euroregion and the Carpathian Euroregion.

The Carpathian Euroregion was established in 1993 upon an agreement between the local authorities of the regions of Poland, Slovakia, Hungary and Ukraine. This was the first Euroregion in Europe with no EU member. As a result of the reform of this Euroregion, the Association for the Carpathian Euroregion ‘Euro-Carpathians’ was established in 2000.\(^{34}\)

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The Bug Euroregion was established in 1995 on the initiative of the local authorities and covered the Volyn district and, on the Polish side, the following voivodships under the previous administrative subdivision: Chełmskie, Tarnobrzeskie, Lubelskie and Zamojskie. Following the administrative reform of Poland, the Polish side is represented by Lubelskie and Podlaskie voivodships in this Europegion. In 1998, the Brest district (Belarus) was incorporated into the association.35

Authors of academic papers on the two Euroregions concerned focus on analysing the legal and political background of these associations, the characteristics of their forms and modes of operation, the outcomes of their initiatives and the problems that arise in the course of their activities.36

O. Tiszczenko and S. Trojan point out the specific features of the Euroregions involving Ukrainian partners: ‘The different conditions prevailing in this area mean that there is a serious difference between the objectives and tasks pursued by the Western European Euroregions and the objectives of the associations involving the border regions of Ukraine.’37

Literature on the subject offers characteristics and evaluations of the outcomes achieved by Euroregions, based on an analysis of specific projects and investments, as well as reflections highlighting the actual and potential benefits of the very existence of these associations. For example, Tiszczenko and Trojan point to the particularly important role of Euroregions for Ukraine: ‘The idea to have a single centre dealing with methodological and practical problems in the development of cross-border cooperation is supported by the fact that the local authorities and the local administration in Ukraine are still lacking experience in bilateral and multilateral cooperation in the field of projects, lobbying in the relevant EU structures and other international financial institutions.’38 There scholars also acknowledge the importance of mutual contacts between officials on both sides

35 O.Tiszczenko, S.Trojan, Wpływ procesów demokratyzacji…, ibidem, p. 103.
37 O.Tiszczenko, S.Trojan, Wpływ procesów demokratyzacji…, ibidem, p. 111.
38 Ibidem, p.111.
of the border for processes such as competence building and raising the operation standards for the Ukrainian administration.\textsuperscript{39}

The issue of funding for cross-border cooperation occupies an important place in the analysis of the functioning of Euroregions. The EU support funds are the main instrument of this cooperation. The scientific characteristics of forms and outcomes of cross-border cooperation within Euroregions are closely linked to the analysis of the use of financial resources under the following programmes: CREDO (1998), PHARE SPF Polish Eastern Border Fund (implemented in 2000 and 2001), Poland-Belarus-Ukraine Neighbourhood Programme, under INTERREG3/TACIS CBC, in 2004–2006 and the Poland-Belarus-Ukraine Cross-border Cooperation Programme for 2007–2013 under the European Neighborhood and Partnership Instrument.

The second line of scientific reflection on cross-border cooperation between Polish local governments and Ukrainian partners focuses on issues related to the background conditions of such cooperation. The identification of conditions and barriers of cross-border cooperation between Polish local governments and their Ukrainian partners is of practical importance and is also interesting as an area of human activity. Such conditions and barriers offer an important context for understanding this collaboration. According to Tiszczenko and Trojan, ‘only a combination of internal and external political factors can determine the social demand for the development of cross-border relations, the acceptable forms of implementation and the possibilities of effective cooperation.’\textsuperscript{40}

On the basis of existing literature, two types of background conditions for Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation can be distinguished: objective and subjective ones.\textsuperscript{41}

According to researchers, the most important objective background conditions include primarily the status quo in the Polish-Ukrainian official intergovernmental relations and the policies of the European Union.

The actions undertaken by local governments may not be in contradiction to the official policy of the country. Poland’s relations with Ukraine have been described as strategic partnership (Poland’s 2003 National Security Strategy describes the regional aspects

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{39} Ibidem, p.107.
  \item \textsuperscript{40} Ibidem, p.116.
  \item \textsuperscript{41} This distinction is proposed by J. Olchowski, J. Olchowski, \textit{Uwarunkowania współpracy transgranicznej...}, \textit{ibidem}, p. 239.
\end{itemize}
of security policy, announcing continued cooperation with its neighbours: ‘...recognising the importance of Ukraine for European security and supporting its European aspirations, Poland will endeavour to deliver real content to the formula of strategic partnership with this country.’

Despite some difficulties between Warsaw and Kyiv, this should be regarded as a factor that is conducive to cross-border cooperation.

Poland’s membership in the European Union means Poland is committed to pursue the main directions of the EU policies. Cross-border cooperation is one of the priorities of the European Neighbourhood Policy, which implies cooperation with the Union’s neighbours in areas such as political dialogue and reforms, economic and social cooperation and development, transport, information society, environment, research and development, people-to-people interactions, civil society and education. The context of the European Union strongly reinforces cross-border cooperation initiatives undertaken by local governments, also by offering financial support instruments. On the other hand, the researchers point out that ‘...it seems, however, that this programme continues to be a certain concept for the future. Despite the potential for cooperation and development that could be leveraged, the European Neighbourhood Policy is currently not a priority for the European Union, which needs to grapple with its internal problems...’

Other objective background conditions for cross-border cooperation between local governments include the economic situation of countries and communities, the availability and amounts of financial resources to support joint initiatives, the condition of border infrastructure and consular infrastructure, and the stability of legal systems in force.

The subjective determinants of cooperation mentioned in literature include the historical past, which may lead to mutual prejudices and patterns of behaviour, formed as a result of many years of living under the communist system. It seems that the main barriers to cooperation, such as passivity of local administration officials and absence of a pro-active attitude towards joint initiatives, are caused by subjective determinants (‘In the case of Ukraine, the centralisation tendencies also pose problems, since this naturally restricts pro-active attitudes’). There is also excessive bureaucracy on the Ukrainian side as well as prejudiced attitudes on the Polish side towards contacts with the eastern

43 J. Olchowski, Uwarunkowania współpracy transgranicznej..., ibidem, pp. 239–240.
44 Ibidem, p. 244.
46 J. Olchowski, Uwarunkowania współpracy transgranicznej..., ibidem, p. 247.
partner side. Other barriers are related to the fact that Ukraine remains outside the European Union. The most important of these are: the existing visa regime, poor quality of border infrastructure and border service, as well as regulatory discrepancies and uncertainties. The implementation of joint initiatives is also hampered by the situation where mostly one side (Polish partners) has the possibilities to seek financial resources for such cooperation.\(^48\)

The knowledge about the past experience of cross-border cooperation between Polish local authorities and Ukrainian partners which is available from academic studies provides an inspiration to undertake research in order to describe and explain the processes and outcomes of such cooperation in specific communities and institutions. Case studies offer an opportunity to observe and understand people and communities in action, adding content to institutionally formulated guidelines. They also encourage attempts to assess whether the social goals of cross-border cooperation have been achieved and, if so, to what extent. This purpose is pursued by the research concept presented in this document.

The concept of research on cross-border collaboration between Polish local government units and Ukrainian partners

**Theoretical framework**

The theoretical framework for the proposed research on cross-border co-operation of Polish local governments with their Ukrainian partners may involve the concept of interregional networks presented by S. Trojan, which invokes elements of the concept of weak and strong ties proposed by Mark Granovetter.\(^49\)

One of the many networks covering Europe is the network of international cooperation. This network objectively and subjectively differentiated. Such cooperation covers different areas. The network consists of EU Member States and non-EU countries as well as other actors, notably local authorities, local governments and enterprises.

\(^{48}\) Ibidem, pp. 247–249.

S. Trojan shows that there are two types of networks in Europe. One of them is dominated by the ‘bridge’ type of ties, i.e. a network where countries maintain relationships with one another, whereas non-governmental actors maintain ties with their own countries and, through them, with partners from other countries. Interregional networks include not only intergovernmental relations, but also relationships directly involving non-governmental actors from different countries. According to S. Trojan, interregional networks are built on the basis of ‘weak ties’. These networks are characterised by openness, horizontality, openness of communication channels, multilateralism and partnership: ‘It seems that interregional networks are becoming very important today... as structures of political cooperation.’

When analysing cross-border cooperation (understood as an exchange of tangible and intangible goods and information between interacting actors), it seems useful to invoke the factors which M. Granovetter describes as constituents of ties. They also represent a set of criteria to measure the intensity of the ties, making them either ‘weak’ or ‘strong’. These factors include the amount of time spent on building relations, the emotional involvement of partners, the degree of intimacy (mutual trust), and reciprocity.

**Research goals and questions**

The aim of the proposed research is to gain in-depth understanding of cross-border cooperation between local authorities of Polish municipalities, poviat and voivodships with their Ukrainian partners. The main research problems are expressed in the following research questions:

- What are the characteristics of the cooperation network involving the local authorities of Polish communities and Ukrainian partners?
- What is the intensity of ties within this network?
- What are the determinants of the relationships within this network?

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50 Ibidem, p. 52.
51 Ibidem, p. 51.
In order to seek answers to these general research questions, a number of specific questions must be addressed:

- What is the number of joint initiatives (quantity)?
- What are the main areas of cooperation?
- What are the sources of funding for joint initiatives?
- What are the forms of cooperation?
- Which actors initiate cooperation?
- Who coordinates the common activities?
- What are the social, institutional and individual actors involved in joint activities?
- How do external actors get involved in joint initiatives?
- What are the social outcomes of joint initiatives?
- Are there any conflicts in the context of cooperation?
- What are the barriers to cooperation?
- How do actors involved in joint initiatives assess the processes and outcomes of cooperation?

Research coverage

The timeline of the proposed research covers the years 2007–2015. By choosing this timeframe, researchers will gain the much needed historical perspective while maintaining a link to the current issues. Year 2007 was the starting point for the implementation of the 2007–2013 Poland-Belarus-Ukraine Cross-border Cooperation Programme.

The study covers the local government units in the eastern voivodships of Poland: Podkarpackie and Lubelskie. These areas are covered by the Cross-border Cooperation Programmes Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007–2013 and Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014–2020, both of which offer support for cross-border cooperation. Close proximity to Ukraine and the common border suggest that the cooperation between entities from both countries is likely to be frequent and varied in terms of topics and formal aspects.
Research methods and fieldwork techniques

In order to achieve the research objective, mostly qualitative research methods must be used. At the initial stage of research, a comprehensive database of joint initiatives should be assembled, based on information available in the public domain. This database will be used to select local governments and joint initiatives for further in-depth analysis. At this stage, the following research techniques will be applied: expert interviews, in-depth interviews with actors involved in cross-border cooperation, analysis of social life documents concerning actors’ activities in the sphere of cross-border cooperation, and inquiries at the local mass media.

Conclusion

The proposed research can be used to explore the general picture of cross-border cooperation between local authorities of Polish communities with Ukrainian partners, the determinants of such cooperation at the local and regional level, the outcomes of this cooperation, the existing networks in the context of considerable organisational and legal diversity. The results of this analysis may have both theoretical and practical significance, and may serve as a starting point for comparing the Polish-Ukrainian cross-border cooperation with joint initiatives undertaken by Polish local governments with partners from other Central European countries.

Presumably, the proposed research will accumulate sufficient data to formulate new research questions. A preliminary review of the existing literature already indicates further research areas such as cross-border cooperation of Polish NGOs with Ukrainian partners, cooperation within city twinning programmes, or the perception of processes and outcomes of cross-border cooperation among local residents.
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Institutional problems of cross-border cooperation in Ukraine

Paper peer-reviewed by Viktor Borshchevskyy, PhD
Summary

Cross-border cooperation is becoming increasingly important in the process of European integration of Ukraine. Participation of the frontier regions in the integration processes improves people’s living standards in the frontier areas. This affects movement of people, goods and capital across borders. The interaction between the neighbouring territories facilitates local resources mobilization for their effective use, makes it possible to solve urgent common problems of frontier area residents. All this leads to the people’s welfare improvement and has a direct effect on the increase of the regions’ general level of social and economic development.

From the sociological point of view, the most important problems that hinder cross-border cooperation are as follows:

- lack of clearly defined responsibilities of some local communities or local governments concerning the cross-border and inter-regional cooperation issues;
- insufficient coordination between the central government, local and regional authorities about the cross-border cooperation policy implementation;
- lack of financial resources for the implementation of projects relating to cross-border and inter-regional cooperation;
- lack of a complex system of training for specialists in the field of cross-border and inter-regional cooperation;
- the issue of ethnic tolerance, respect and trust as the basis for successful communication, and others.

All of these problems are institutional. The transformation of existing institutions in Ukraine (business, local self-government, educational activities, health care and social security, etc.) and the institutionalization of relations between them should take place in accordance with the transformation of the existing economic order, formation of the capacity of adopting and implementing good management decisions to change individuals and society.

In the context of globalization of special importance in the system of international relations is cross-border cooperation as a form of social and economic integration via intensification of contacts of frontier regions, promoting free movement of goods, services, capitals, and people. It aims to overcome the negative consequences of border existence
and the consequences arising in frontier territories due to their location on the periphery of states, as well as aims to improve the living conditions of residents. In its essence, cross-border cooperation presupposes different contacts between people, which, under certain circumstances, cause appearance of shared activity, and thus, institutionalized forms of interaction, which promote social changes and development. These include: cultural, educational, scientific, religious communications, formalized export and import relations, establishment of shared facilities within the cross-border area, foreign trade and service provision, environmental safety, etc.

Ye. Holovakha and A. Horbachyk deal with the study of the trends in social changes in Ukraine and Europe, the status of economy and standards of residents’ living 52. V. Yevtukh has written a lot of papers on the ethnic and national structure of frontier areas and ethnic groups in general53. Such scientists as B. Kawałko54, K. Kutsab-Bonk55, M. Malikowski, D. Wojakowski56 have dealt with the researches of frontier area cultures, etc.

The issues of frontier areas and cross-border cooperation have been covered by І. Mykhasiuk57, Ya. Malyk58, N. Mikula59, V.Reutov60, H. Shcherba61, and others. Still, there remain rather a lot of issues requiring further scientific research, in particular, sociological ones, relating to the special features of social and economic interactions, organizational and

institutional activities, systems of managerial decisions, new practices of partnership at different levels of social hierarchy, which would contribute to improved cooperation.

*The goal of the article* is to analyse institutional problems of cross-border cooperation in Ukraine through the prism of transformation of social institutes and new forms of interacting with them.

Cross-border cooperation stands for any joint actions aimed at enhanced and deepened neighbourhood relations between territorial communities or authorities being within the jurisdiction of two or more contractual parties. Cross-border cooperation is aimed at elimination of the negative consequences of frontier area location, that is remoteness from the main economic centres of the country, and simultaneous use of the opportunities opened up due to proximity to the territory of the neighbouring country. Such cooperation constitutes an important factor of inter-state climate improvement, appearance of relations of understanding and friendliness. It is one of the main means of liquidation of disproportions in the economic and social development on both sides of the border.

Several forms of cross-border cooperation can be pointed out. The simplest form is direct contacts between territorial communities – towns, urban villages, which are mainly informal and are aimed at taking joint actions in case of emergency. A characteristic feature of such cooperation is absence of mutual financial commitments. Some further forms of cooperation are contract-based collaboration which appears as the result of long-term relations between territorial communities or authorities, as well as in case mutual commitments appear as to service, output, information provision, which, in its turn, leads to appearance of financial commitments. Over the last decade local cooperation has been maintained within implementation of projects under different programs of the European Union (INTERREG, TASIC CBC, Neighbourhood Program Ukraine-Romania). For this purpose special entities are established to implement the projects aimed at the development of joint management systems of transnational bodies, cooperation between small- and middle-sized enterprises, cooperation in the field of healthcare, education, training and cultural exchanges, environmental protection, energy grids, transport and communication in frontier areas. Cooperation at the level of task forces under concluded agreements presupposes regular meetings of the parties, establishment of joint management bodies for coordinating and uniting the effort in order to solve shared problems. Still, the main organizational form of cross-border cooperation is Euroregions, the practice of functioning of which over the recent years has proven to be efficient, in particular, as far
as elimination of barriers on the way to free movement of labour force, goods, services, and capital is concerned.

The advantages of cross-border cooperation, viz. Euroregions, become evident in home economy, social domain, education. Creation of conditions for efficient functioning of Euroregions enables not just to use integration processes with the maximum benefit, but to improve coordination of frontier cooperation with the neighbouring countries, which would promote acceleration of regional social and economic development of the society and the state, increase in foreign investment aimed at the development of regional and all-European cooperation. That is why the problem of improvement of institutional principles of cross-border cooperation development and improvement in the conditions of its functioning is highly topical nowadays.

It is known that any social institute is characterized by a socially determined goal of its existence and activity, specific functions ensuring performance of the target designation of the given social institute, an adequate register of statuses and roles. Social institutes, in the opinion of American social scientist S. Lipset\(^{\text{62}}\), provide the guarantees of sustainable relations between people, building up a stable structure of different forms of collective life, and without social institutes it would be impossible to meet the most important social needs and guarantee an organized process of joint activity. In academic sociology, as V. Radayev and O. Shkaratan state\(^{\text{63}}\), ‘institutes are one of the basic definitions,... they accompany the very essence of regulated social life. The tradition of such approach originates from H. Spenser who considered that the study of institutes is the study of the structure and development of the society, analysis of appearance, growth, changes, turns, and thus is constitutes the essence of sociology as a science. However, structured nature of institutes gets manifested not just in the socially caused functional pre-determined course of different social processes, but availability of the integrity of features inherent in a social institute as such, since the very stating of the rooted and repeated nature of certain types of social contacts is not a sufficiently complete criterion of the institutional nature of this or that type of interaction in itself.

According to the modern paradigm, individual with his/her needs and interests is the critical element of all social systems. Institutional approach focuses on consideration of cross-border cooperation from the point of view of the place and role in the integrity

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of social relations at the modern stage of societal development. Besides that, internal structure of the institute is studied, viz. social roles and statuses inherent in it, as well as activities conducted within the respective formal organizations.

The best developed in cross-border cooperation is organizational structure of Euroregions. Organizational structures of all Euroregions are similar, since they were developed using one and the same approach. Normally, the highest cross-border cooperation governance body is the Council of the Euroregion, which appoints the Presidium, sets up the Secretariat/Coordination Centre (coordinating, executive and administrative body), establishes the Auditing Committee and Task Forces. The management bodies perform coordination, advisory and representation functions related to the implementation of the Community’s objectives and tasks.

Along with that, organizational structures of Euroregions have no units aimed to work with residents and promote fundraising from separate organizations, companies for the implementation of cross-border projects, there are no monitoring commissions; current activity is performed by the units of the authorities, and not separate entities.

At the same time, Euroregions involving Ukraine are also characterized by specific approaches to their organizational structure. In particular, there has been created the Euroregion as the module of the Euroregion ‘The Upper Prut’, a separate fund (Carpathian) of supporting cross-border cooperation, with its objectives and assignments, the notion of ‘Euroregion’s partner’ has been introduced, etc. Besides, they all promote the development of cross-border cooperation between local executive authorities and self-government bodies. And lower-level management bodies – rayon, urban village councils – are, in fact, not involved in the system of cross-border cooperation arrangement.

The main characteristics of Euroregions are as follows: geographical – Euroregion is a territory, with a specific geographical location; political – a part of this territory is within the jurisdiction of sovereign states with common border; administrative – Euroregion is formed by the frontier regions of states having common border; functional – Euroregion is a form of cross-border cooperation.
It would also be expedient to point out a list of peculiarities characteristic of the functioning of Euroregions as a form of cross-border cooperation. The first group of special features includes legal aspects of Euroregion functioning:

- establishment of a Euroregion does not lead to the appearance of a new administrative and territorial unit with the status of a legal entity;
- legal regulation in the territory of each member of the Euroregion is performed in accordance with the applicable legislation of the state it belongs to;
- management authorities of the Euroregion perform coordinating functions and have no power authorities, as well as cannot replace the authorities functioning in the territory of each of its members.

The second group of special features can be characterized as political ones. In this sense, Euroregions do not act against the interests of the national state, they are not supra-state formations, in their activity they do not replace foreign political functions of the state's administrative and territorial units of which they are members. The third group of special features is historical ones. In the overwhelming majority of cases Euroregions embrace the territories with common historical past and even once included into one state. Sometimes Euroregions include territories which in a rather recent past had the so called ‘dubious status’ that is the right of ownership of such territory that belonged to one state was contested by the neighbouring one that had a common border with it. Special features that belong to the fourth group are related to the national composition of frontier territories. Normally, these are multinational territories or regions, with the representatives of several ethnic groups. In many cases in the territories of the neighbouring frontier regions there reside representatives of a rather numerous national minority, representing the national majority of the country located on the other side of the border. The fifth group of special features is that the territories or regions included into Euroregions are peripheral in relation to administrative centres of their countries. The sixth group of special features lies in the fact that all the territories or areas included into Euroregions are characterized by availability of common problems of cross-border nature. To solve them it is necessary to combine the efforts of territorial communities or authorities of the neighbouring states. Normally, such problems include environmental and nature conservation ones, development

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of frontier infrastructure, transport and communications, rational use of labour resources, ensuring of conditions for the development of ethnic minorities. The seventh group lies in the need for availability of clearly established common interests of members of Euroregions. This group typically includes interests in the domain of commerce and economy, with due account of the place of the member regions in the inter-territorial labour division, in the field of joint development of tourist activity, mutual services provision across the state border, establishment of the collaboration network in the fields of science, education, and culture. The universal field of common interests for members of any Euroregion is determination of the joint spatial development strategy.

Five stages of Euroregion development can be outlined to substantiate the institutional status of cross-border cooperation: 1) informal contacts; 2) poor institutionalization; 3) high institutionalization; 4) cooperation based on private law; 5) cooperation based on public law. Currently, we can observe the fifth development stage based on the sources of law that now regulate the legal field of cross-border cooperation in Ukraine. An important place there goes to international legal acts and treaties ratified in Ukraine (the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Cooperation between Territorial Communities or Authorities, Additional Protocol and Protocol No. 2 thereto, the European Charter of Local Self-Government, Frontier Regions Cooperation Agreement, the laws of Ukraine regulating cross-border cooperation and development of Euroregions: On Cross-Border Cooperation, On Local Self-Governance and On Local State Administrations, as well as by-laws (presidential decrees and orders, resolutions and orders of the Cabinet of Ministers, etc.). In particular, the Law of Ukraine On Cross-Border Cooperation which considers it as joint actions aimed at the establishment and deepening of economic, cultural and other relations between territorial communities, their representative bodies, local executive authorities of Ukraine and territorial communities, respective authorities of other states within their competence established by the national legislation65.

State bodies play a crucial role in the process of establishment and development of cross-border cooperation, and this role is as follows:

- to determine priority directions of state support provision to cross-border cooperation development, to elaborate and perform respective state programs;
- to adopt the necessary legal acts regulating cross-border cooperation and to create favourable conditions for its development;

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• to co-participate in financial provision of the activity of Euroregions;

• to establish institutional and organizational principles of cross-border cooperation development, to provide methodological and information support to cross-border cooperation entities and participants;

• to carry out contrastive analysis of the activity of Euroregions on the basis of cross-border statistics, that will enable to assess their efficiency, select the main directions for further cooperation and to pass informed managerial decisions.

At the same time, state support of cross-border cooperation development depends a lot on achievement of mutual understanding between the central and local authorities, it promotes stimulation of integration processes, enhanced influence of the state in different regions, activation of trade and economic contacts, investment involvement, removal of obstacles on the way to getting different types of assistance, which leads mainly to the improved social and economic development of the country.

One more important element of cross-border cooperation development is organizational and functional structure of state cross-border cooperation governance, which includes three tiers: national, regional, and local. Perception of cross-border cooperation governance as an integral phenomenon is based on the theories of functionalism, neo-functionalism, constructivism, as well as on regional concepts describing power decentralization processes in the national states and the of regional-level actors role in the process of international cooperation.

At the national level the issue of cross-border cooperation is within the competence of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, the President of Ukraine, the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, and its profile ministries. In particular, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, within which the Committee for European Integration functions, ensures political and legal provision for this field of state interests. An important element of organizational and functional structure of state cross-border cooperation governance is consultative and advisory as well as coordinating bodies. This includes: State Local Self-Government Promotion Fund in Ukraine, which, under its regulation, is a subsidiary body affiliated with the President of Ukraine, the Council of Regions, which is the consultative and advisory body affiliated with the President of Ukraine, Inter-Departmental Commission for Cross-Border Cooperation, which is a permanent consultative and advisory body of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine.
At the regional level, cross-border interaction project implementation is within the competence of regional, Kyiv, and Sevastopol city state administration, as well as regional representative authorities. Participation of regional authorities in cross-border cooperation is becoming a driving engine on the way to regional integration, a catalyst of integration processes at the national level.

Local level of state authorities (local administrations and self-government bodies) are poorly involved in the system of cross-border cooperation governance, and it is this level that should play a critical role in Euroregional cooperation, since specific cooperation between frontier territories’ entities is taking place. Local executive authorities and local self-government bodies initiate establishment of the relations of mutually beneficial partnership and deepening of cross-border cooperation directly in frontier territories, but for this one needs not just to have the necessary mandate, but to improve the level of professional staff training as well.

In general, the organizational and functional structure of cross-border cooperation governance in Ukraine does not meet modern conditions, which fact results from its branch-wise nature and some degree of bureaucracy as well.

Thus, governance activity in the Euroregions set up with the participation of the Ukrainian side is regulated by a rather well-developed regulatory legal base, which has enabled to start and maintain the functioning of seven Euroregions at the state borders, however, the efficiency of regional cross-border cooperation is impeded by the lack of adjustment of domestic norms to the EU legislation and imperfect nature of the elements of the system of state machinery's structural components at all the three administration levels, in particular, the local one. The institute of cross-border cooperation performs a number of functions, and due to this it meets the respective social needs and interests. And the specificity of the institute's functions is largely related to the changes in the economic and political system, in particular, in foreign policy.

The administrative function presupposes division of power and responsibility between the authorities as far as joint implementation of cross-border projects aimed at achievement of strategic goals of Ukraine's European integration, with due account of power decentralization, is concerned.

The educational one ensures development of territorial management, involvement of promising and highly educated specialists in the field of cross-border cooperation
governance, experience exchange relating to different aspects of professional activity, common educational staff training and re-training programs.

The communicative one includes support of public organizations, sports companies, cultural associations, professional unions working in the system of cross-border cooperation, the level of access of cross-border cooperation participants to the resources of telephone and Internet communications.

Social and economic partnership ensures implementation of cross-border cooperation projects and programs, support of cooperation of large and small business of different countries at the cross-border level (for instance, joint tourist itineraries, exhibitions and fairs, setting up of joint ventures, etc.). The innovative function presupposes development of the innovative model of cross-border cooperation and transformation of frontier territories into integrated, mutually reinforcing areas with high level of social and economic development and improved quality of life.

The information and consultative function lies in improved level of residents’ awareness of the opportunities and prospects of using cross-border cooperation tools in professional and daily activity, including intensity of coverage of the problem of cross-border cooperation in mass media.

The cultural and awareness-raising function stands for support of historical and cultural contacts between the residents of frontier area of the neighbouring states, commonness of their interests and traditions, including holding of conferences, seminars, public debates and academic discussions in cross-border cooperation issues.

Hence, by far not all the social institute’s functions are now exercised in the Ukrainian society. Functional complications, or even dysfunctions are related both to external and to internal circumstances. Thus, regulation of cross-border cooperation in Ukraine and in the EU countries is characterized by some legal divergences causing barriers in the development of cross-border activity. This refers to the basic development directions, priority fields and strategic tasks of cross-border cooperation actors, distribution of financial resources, well-established budget relations of central and local authorities and mechanisms of money allocation for the implementation of some cross-border projects. In the opinion of Nadiya Mikula66, in the regulatory and legal sense, criteria are necessary for

assessing the efficiency of cross-border cooperation, since they will enable to subordinate all legislative acts to achievement of one strategic goal, for instance, neutralized negative impact of borders on the development of frontier regions, improved quality of human capital in frontier areas or improved competitive capacity of regional economies.

Cross-border cooperation governance presupposes a clear division of powers and responsibility between the central, regional, and local levels. In the EU Member States bordering on Ukraine special units have been established to perform the functions of working towards cross-border cooperation: establishment of cooperation with the authorities of frontier regions of the neighbouring states, elaboration and implementation of cross-border projects, holding of meetings, exhibitions, etc. These governance units act on the basis and under the management of regional authorities of those countries. While in Ukraine such entities are in majority of cases not existent in regional, rayon, town, urban village or village authorities. In the decentralization conditions there is an urgent need to transfer the majority of functions of cross-border cooperation governance to the regional and local levels and to involve public sector in it.

Added complexity of cross-border cooperation processes is also related to new risks and challenges posing a threat to security at the Ukrainian borders, viz.: illegal migration, human trafficking, drug and arms smuggling, corruption. Such realities require efficient implementation of security policy at all the levels of interaction, which means: establishment of modern control systems, new information and telecommunication systems, access to data bases, rapid response, provision of high-quality administrative services, efficient control over migration processes, combating of illegal migration, protection of the national market of labour resources aimed at reduction of migration of active human capital, mainly highly-qualified, to the EU countries, which, respectively, reduces the intellectual potential of Ukraine, efficient management of the unified state system of civil protection, preparation of residents for behaving in emergency situations.

One of the organizational components of cross-border cooperation is mobility development and activation of migration processes in the field of employment and education. The residents of frontier areas are forced to show a high level of cross-border mobility, using shuttle migration and escort services as a means of survival. A separate phenomenon Ukraine has faced in its cross-border cooperation with the EU countries so far is educational migration, in particular, to Poland as the main importer of educational services of higher educational institutions in Ukraine. Reduced number of students in Poland due to EU accession in 2004 and popularity of the universities of other EU countries among Polish
students has led to active marketing policy of involving students from Ukraine. The executive director of CEDOS analytical centre Yehor Stadnyy states that while analysing educational priorities of Ukrainian youth one should divide the reasons at least into 2 groups. On the one hand – supply. Polish universities, in particular, private ones, are faced with reduced number of applicants due to the demographic downturn of the past years and due to the fact that young people go abroad. Looking for an alternative source of funding, they started moving to the foreign market. On the other hand, there is a demand among young Ukrainians, and it is constantly on the rise67. This process has both positive and negative outcomes. The positive ones include acquisition of experience of multicultural communications by Ukrainian students and faculty, improved educational process in Ukrainian higher educational institutions with due account of foreign experience, improved quality of student knowledge and raised efficiency of their assessment in compliance with the European quality-of-education standards, development of cross-border educational projects, in particular, introduction of the practice of academic exchanges, double degree, joint bachelor and master programs, development of new social capital out of student youth acquiring cross-border education that could further be used to develop and implement international social and business projects, using of the experience of Ukrainian faculty working at the higher educational institutions of the EU countries in the development of national and local (at the level of higher educational institutions) university education development strategies in Ukraine.

Along with that, while managing higher education in Ukraine one should take into account that the growing dynamics of educational migration of Ukrainian students to higher educational institutions of the EU countries leads to the situation when a considerable part of students stay there for permanent employment, the demand for educational services in Ukraine is reducing, there takes place reduction of the number of jobs for scientific and teaching staff in Ukrainian higher educational institutions.

One more direction determining the functioning of cross-border cooperation is improved level of information provision. Cross-border interaction requires information support, due to which all the fields of cross-border cooperation would get efficient information provision, related to efficiency of governance. Without proper information provision the processes of such cooperation may be not just insufficiently efficient, but may often lead to unexpected and negative outcomes. Local authorities have a direct duty to provide information support as far as cross-border programs are concerned, help in looking for foreign

partners for project implementation and organize consultations at the stage of project presentation. At the same time, the level of activity of Ukrainian authorities of regional, rayon and local levels in the field of cross-border cooperation is very low. In the context of further implementation of the state cross-border cooperation support and development policy in Ukraine, it would be expedient to study the opportunities for more comprehensive information, consultative and methodological support of cross-border cooperation development, in particular, through introduction of new information technologies.

Conclusions

Generalization of the institutional problems of cross-border cooperation development in Ukraine shows that:

- cross-border cooperation in Ukraine is a relatively new phenomenon, and today out of the four possible forms of it the most developed is cooperation within Euroregions framework;

- current legislative and regulatory legal base creates favourable conditions for further development of cross-border cooperation, but it needs to be changed in compliance with new social and political as well as economic realities of the Ukrainian society and new priority directions of cooperation with the EU;

- cross-border cooperation within the Euroregion framework is considered in two aspects – as a tool of frontier territories development and as a factor of implementation of Ukraine’s integration strivings;

- cross-border cooperation of the frontier regions of Ukraine and the neighbouring countries can be relatively divided into two directions: 1) at the EU-Ukraine border; 2) in the so called new frontier areas, along the borders of the former Soviet republics;

- the obstacles on the way to cross-border cooperation development are as follows: imperfect system of governance in the field of cross-border cooperation; low level of mandate of territorial communities in inter-territorial and cross-border relations; undeveloped system of state cross-border cooperation support; limited financial resources of local and regional budgets; insufficient participation in international development programs.
In order to create the necessary conditions for successful functioning of the institute of cross-border cooperation in Ukraine, it would be expedient to take a number of practical steps that would make its achievement possible. Here the following is meant: ensuring the functioning of a multi-layer organizational and institutional structure in the issues of cross-border processes regulation, establishment of cross-border cooperation governance bodies, ensuring financial support of cross-border cooperation of frontier regions of Ukraine, primarily via participation in European programs and funds related to regional development, solving the problem of shortage of staff qualified in cross-border cooperation issues. And training of specialists in project management, fundamentals of regional policy (including European one), regulatory and legal provision must be an important mechanism used here. Development and intensification of cross-border cooperation will contribute to the development of a positive image of the state on the international arena, improvement of its foreign economic contacts, optimization of territorial (international, inter-regional) labour division, reduction of territorial disproportions, and, finally, full-fledged integration of Ukraine into the European and global economies.

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Experience of the cross-border cooperation between Poland and Germany: conclusions for the Polish-Ukrainian border area

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

Since the fall of communism and German reunification, the cooperation between communities on both sides of the Polish-German border has been steadily gaining momentum. The first results were already visible in 1991 as the first Euroregion was established in Poland and the neighbouring countries, the Neisse Euroregion on the Polish-German-Czech border. The later significant intensification of the cross-border cooperation was triggered by several historical events including the administrative reform in Poland (1999) and Poland’s accession to the European Union (2004) and Schengen area (2007) - these two recent events changed the appearance of the borders of both countries and opened new fields of cooperation in such areas as disaster prevention, public safety, health care, transport, education and others.

These experiences are also valuable for the Polish-Ukrainian border area, which is currently undergoing similar processes as the Polish-German border area was before Poland’s accession to the EU. This makes e. g. the issue of modernising border crossing points is a much higher priority than e. g. cross-border cycling routes.

However, the status of Ukraine as an EU associated country may open up new perspectives for its cooperation with EU neighbours, including Poland. On the other hand, certain areas equally require cooperation at both borders, e. g. flood protection, school exchanges, and joint upgrading of qualifications. Therefore, the Polish-German experiences are extremely useful for those who plan for joint Polish-Ukrainian initiatives.

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to present the evolution of institutional and civic cross-border relations across the Polish-German border and to compare cross-border relations in the Polish-German border area with those along the Polish-Ukrainian border. After comparing the situation on both borderlands in the times of the Polish People’s Republic, the GDR and the USSR, and outlining the characteristics of the Polish-German borderland, the evolution of cross-border relations there from the 1990s to the present day will be presented. The authors assumed that several turning points existed in the history, which have completely transformed the situation along the border. These are Poland’s accession to the European Union in 2004, which was associated with a radical
simplification of border control on the one hand and of the legal situation of citizens and organisations of both countries on the other, and Poland’s accession to the Schengen area in 2007, which almost completely eliminated all checks at the common border of Poland and Germany and allowed it to be crossed in any location.

Selected aspects such as local government cooperation and cross-border mobility of the population - understood both as the creation of better cross-border public transport connections and as cross-border migration - have been highlighted in the description of the cross-border relations. Particular attention was paid to dual towns, i.e. agglomerations which used to be one tone before the demarcation of the present Polish-German border and became separated after 1945.

In the next part of the paper we will present the evolution in the Polish-Ukrainian border area since the Ukrainian independence. The current situation at this border will be compared to the situation at the Polish-German border. This shall be the basis for conclusions.

Comparison of the situation at the western and eastern borders of Poland before 1989.

When analysing bilateral relations at both borders, we should bear in mind that the underlying conditions were different even before the collapse of the USSR and the reunification of Germany. Although the Polish-Soviet and Polish-German borders (GDR) separated countries belonging to a single political and economic bloc (i.e. the Warsaw Pact and the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance) and despite the declared friendship and even fraternity of the peoples of the socialist community, both borders were basically closed albeit with different degrees of permeability. Above all, a radical simplification of travel procedures for citizens of both countries which took place in the 1970s is worth mentioning. The respective intergovernmental agreement entered into force on 1 January 1972 and abolished not only the need for visas but also dispensed with the use of passports altogether in mutual travel. From the East German point of view, these facilitations were intended to compensate the East German citizens for the closure of their western border and the construction of the Berlin Wall in 1961; similar arrangements were introduced on the border between the GDR and Czechoslovakia. Already in the first year of the new regulations in force, 9.4 million Polish citizens travelled across the border to the GDR, while Poland was visited by 6.7 million East Germans. The arrangement remained in force until
October 1980, when the GDR unilaterally restored the visa requirement for Polish citizens due to their country’s tense political situation. However, the facilitations of the 1970s contributed to a radical expansion of the border infrastructure. In 1982, 11 road border crossings were still in operation on the border between Poland and the GDR, most of which were only accessible for the citizens of the socialist countries with some available exclusively to the citizens of the People’s Republic of Poland and the GDR.

Facilitations for border traffic in the 1970s were used primarily for commercial and tourist purposes by the citizens, but during this period, contacts between enterprises also intensified which helped to establish also private contacts leading to friendly relations and even to the first mixed Polish-German families. But the situation at the Polish-Soviet border was quite different. Organised, inter-institutional contacts were strongly promoted. It is also worth noting that thousands of Russians, Ukrainians and Belarussians had the opportunity to travel to Poland as soldiers and officers of the Soviet troops stationed here. For Polish citizens, on the other hand, there was a possibility of transit through the USSR to other socialist countries, which gave them an opportunity not only to visit the neighbouring country, but also - most probably first of all - to purchase the goods that were common in that country in order to resell them later in Poland. However, keeping in touch privately was more difficult all the way until the collapse of the USSR. Polish citizens had greater difficulties to travel into the Soviet Union to uphold such contacts, than to travel to the GDR or Czechoslovakia. The illustration of this situation is the fact that until 1984 only two road border crossing points operated between the two countries for the handling individual traffic. Those were Terespol-Brest (with the Belarusian SSR) and Medyka-Szehin (with the Ukrainian SSR), which may be an indication of how small the cross-border traffic was.

**Characteristics of the Polish-German border area**

The current Polish-German border was established at the conferences of three powers in Yalta and Tehran in 1945, with minor adjustments introduced in 1949 and 1951. In the vast majority of cases, the German population was forcibly displaced from the areas included in Poland, which in German sources is often referred to as Vertreibung - expulsion. The population, which in turn resettled the area, then called “reclaimed territories”, arrived from other parts of Poland or from the territories incorporated into the USSR. In addition, refugees or victims of the civil war in Greece and Macedonia were first of all sent to the
“reclaimed territories”. In fact, one of the main Greek population centres in Poland was Zgorzelec, located right next to the border with Germany. All this makes the present-day state border of Poland and Germany also a clear ethnic and linguistic border.

The Polish-German border runs mostly along rivers: from the southern end along the Lusatian Neisse, and from the point of its estuary along the Odra River. It is not until the Gryfino-Mescherin line that the border diverges away west from the Odra River leaving the Szczecin agglomeration on the Polish side, and continues up to the Bay of Szczecin. Its last section cuts across the island of Usedom along the Kamminke - Golm - Wohlgast - Ahlbeck line, leaving Świnoujście on the Polish side, and all other towns on the island on the German side.

It was precisely the course of the state border running along the centreline of the Odra and Nysa rivers that gave rise to the phenomenon of dual towns’ (Doppelstädte), i.e. agglomerations which were divided as a result of delimitation. The most important are double-cities are:

- Görlitz – Zgorzelec;
- Bad Muskau - Łęknica (along with Muskau Park Mużakowski on both sides of the Nysa River);
- Guben – Gubin;
- Frankfurt (Oder) - Słubice (Dammvorstadt Housing Estate until 1945);
- Küstrin-Kietz - Kostrzyn (its old town, which was destroyed during the war was on the present-day Polish side, right next to the border. In its place, a memorial and a cemetery of the fallen Soviet Army soldiers and a border crossing point were erected).
German-Polish border after the fall of communism and German reunification

Situation on the Polish-German border in the 1990s.

After the unification of Germany on October 3, 1990, the visa requirement for Poles visiting Germany existed for a short period of time - only until April 8, 1991. On 17 June 1991, both countries signed a Treaty on good neighbourhood and friendly cooperation, which provided for, among others, encouraging the intensification of cross-border cooperation, as well as the expansion and modernisation of border checkpoints. Also, a local border traffic was also introduced in this period, which essentially allowed the residents of specific communes of the frontier of both countries to cross the border on the basis of an identity card.

Passport and customs clearance has become increasingly efficient in such a way that, as early as the late 1990s, travellers by car rarely had to wait more than an hour for crossing the border while pedestrians and cyclists were usually cleared on an ongoing basis (with the exception of the period after 11 September 2001, when controls were tightened especially on the Polish side). Another issue is that in the 1990s, the usual picture of the frontier included small smugglers of cigarettes and alcohol so-called "ants", citizens of third countries attempting to sneak across into Western Europe illegally, as well as petty criminals. All that made crossing the German-Polish border at that time hardly a pleasurable experience.

The efficiency of border and customs clearance on the Polish border with Germany (and also with the Czech Republic and Slovakia) has noticeably increased thanks to establishing jointly manned border crossing points on the territory of either country. The number of checkpoints on the Polish and German sides was kept at a similar level.

Changes at the Polish-German border after Poland’s accession to the EU

The first dramatic change occurred on 1 May 2004, when Poland joined the European Union. Poland’s inclusion into the EU’s economic area entailed a complete abolition of customs controls and the introduction of freedom of movement of persons, goods,

services and capital albeit with transitional restrictions of employment for the citizens of the new Member States in Germany (until 2011) on the one hand and of the possibility to acquire real estate in Poland for citizens of other EU countries on the other. The new rules allowed EU citizens to settle freely on the other side of the border (without having to meet any additional conditions) and to cross the border without a passport, on the basis of an identity card only. Poland’s entry into the Schengen area in December 2007 allowed EU and third country nationals to cross the Polish-German border anywhere and without any checks.

**Dual towns on the Polish-German border**

Among all the towns located on the Polish-German border, the dual towns are where the most vibrant cooperation exists. The following presentation of the examples is therefore intended to give the reader an idea of the possibilities offered by the border location of two localities.

**Görlitz - Zgorzelec**

The agglomeration of Görlitz - Zgorzelec is located in the westernmost part of historical Silesia, close to the highway connecting Wrocław with Dresden, as well as on the main railway line connecting the capital of Saxony with Silesia. It was here that the agreement between Poland and the GDR was signed in 1950 on the demarcation of the existing border between the two countries. Already in 1991, the first cross-border local bus line P was launched on the Polish-German border, which regularly operated between the two cities over what was at that time the only bridge between them. Today, after a few years’ break, the line runs again at 30-minute intervals.

The second bridge, which was located exactly where the old town bridge once stood which was blown up in 1945, opened for use in 2004. The new bridge physically connected the two banks architecturally, enforcing at the same time that suitable investments on the Polish side be made in such a way that both banks now make up a consistent composition of the old city.

In 1998, the authorities of both towns signed a declaration on the establishment of the so-called „European Town“ and on joint use of the name as a brand. In 2010, both towns

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jointly applied for the title of European Capital of Culture, although without success.

Both celebrate their holiday together on the last weekend of August, which on the German side has the name Altstadtfest (the Old Town holiday), and on the Polish side - Jakuby.

Cooperation is also visible in the field of education. Most of the schools on the Polish side offer classes in German, while 7 of the 12 primary schools on the German side offer Polish. In one of the gymnasiums on the German side, there is a German-Polish bilingual class. In addition, there is a possibility to learn Polish in one kindergarten, while another offers a bilingual German-Polish curriculum. Görlitz is also home to the Saxon State Centre for Early Learning of Languages of Neighbouring Countries (LaNa) commissioned by the Saxon Ministry of Education. It focuses, among others, on the issues such as decentralised implementation of the concept of learning of languages of neighbouring countries, Polish and Czech, in Saxony’s educational institutions and kindergartens.

**Bad Muskau – Łęknica**

The main element connecting these two Lusatian towns on the border between Saxony and Lubuskie Province is the Muskauer Park, extending on both banks of the Neisse and obviously divided by the state border. It was founded by Prince Hermann Ludwig Heinrich von Pückler-Muskau in the first half of the 19th century. Most of the park’s structures, including its main residence, Neues Schloss (New Castle) are located on the German side, but most of its area is on the Polish side.

While the reconstruction of the park on the western side was undertaken already in the GDR era, the Polish part was incorporated into the State Forest Holding, and its reconstruction was not initiated until in the 1990s.

Initially, the border could be crossed only outside the park area via a nearby border crossing point. It was only in 2003 that the first bridge within the park was rebuilt which now connects both countries. Until Poland joined the Schengen area, the bridge could be crossed on foot or by bicycle only on Sundays and public holidays. In 2011, construction of a second bridge was completed. In 2004, the park was put on the UNESCO World Heritage List.

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In 2015, another bridge connecting both banks of the Nysa River was opened: on the former railway bridge, a cycling route was marked out which now connects Bad Muskau with Łęknica.

**Frankfurt/Oder - Słubice**

The Frankfurt-Słubice agglomeration is located on the route connecting Berlin with Poznań and Warsaw. Frankfurt (Oder) has 58 thousand inhabitants and Słubice less than 17 thousand, but in the end of the GDR Frankfurt reached its historic record with 88 thousand residents.

Both cities stand out from other agglomerations located along the Polish-German border by the cooperation of universities. Founded in 1994, Frankfurt’s European Viadrina University intended not only to continue the city’s university traditions but also to serve as a bridge between Germany and Poland. From the very outset, the university gathered a great interest among foreign students while the citizens of Poland made up 1/3 of its students already in its first years of operation. In 1998, the Collegium Polonicum was opened in Słubice as a joint institution of the Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań and the European Viadrina University. Students of law, who knew both languages, simultaneously studied German and Polish law at both universities. Both institutions attracted researchers interested in the issues of cross-border relations, international law and economic transformation (one of the facilities is the Frankfurt Transformation Studies Institute). Since 1994, there have also been student dormitories on both sides of the border, which has led to large numbers of students crossing the border every day to attend classes. In the initial period, such solutions required particular flexibility from students from third countries, who, living in the administrative reality of both countries, quickly filled up the pages of their passports with border control stamps.

The bilateral cooperation has also shifted with the university down to the school level. The possibility of learning German in Słubice’s schools is widespread, while on the Frankfurt side one of the junior high schools runs a bilingual Polish-German class. There is also a bilingual Polish-German kindergarten in Słubice.

Co-operation in non-educational areas started with joint organisation of urban celebrations, such as the Oder River festivities, which, originally celebrated separately, with time transformed into the joint Cross-Border Oder Holiday. Similarly since 2008, another
A joint festival named „Bunter Hering & Swawolny Kogucik” has been organized. The bilateral cooperation gained momentum in 2000 when both cities laid the foundation for „The concept of the Integrated Strategy for Słubice and Frankfurt on the Oder River 2003”. In 2004, the „Concept of joint development and cooperation between the cities of Frankfurt on the Oder and Słubice” was adopted, which provides for joint combating of unemployment and a common concept of tourism development. In 2009, at the Słubice-Frankfurt Conference of the Future with the participation of approx. 200 inhabitants, a vision of the European Dual Town by 2020 was developed and a joint institution of both municipal administrations, the Słubice-Frankfurt Cooperation Centre was established in 2010 with the aim to implement this vision.

After Poland’s accession to the European Union, both cities began to consider building a tramway connection but the idea was dropped when the majority of Frankfurt’s inhabitants rejected it in a city referendum in 2006. Yet in December 2012, a regular city line no. 983 was put into operation that run from Frankfurt railway station to Słubice.

In 2015, joint heat exchange between Frankfurt and Słubice started. As a result, the Frankfurt residents can use heat surplus generated in Słubice the in summer while in winter the heat shortage on the Polish side is compensated for by deliveries from Germany.

**Housing**

Following the reunification of Germany, the eastern part of the country has started to suffer from peripheral location and depopulation. It has led to a slump of purchase and lease prices of real estate which the Polish citizens have immediately recognised. Since the accession of Poland to the European Union there has been a steady increase in the number of residents with Polish citizenship in the towns located on the German side of the border. This is particularly true of the towns located near the Szczecin agglomeration on the German side of the border. As early as in 2007-2011, nearly 2000 families from Poland settled in the Brandenburg district of Uckermark and the Mecklenburg district of Uecker-Randow near Szczecin, out of which a large part regularly commutes to work on the Polish side. This situation is facilitated by the fact that German banks started to grant loans to Polish citizens, who earned income on the Polish side. In some localities, Polish citizens already constitute a large part of the population.
Cooperation between local authorities

As early as 1991, the first Euroregion was established in Poland: it was the Nysa Euroregion, which included the communes located near the borders of Poland, Germany and the Czech Republic. In the following years, new Euroregions were created along the entire length of the Polish-German border: Spree-Neisse-Bober, Pro Europa Viadrina, and Pomerania. In each case, a Euroregion formally consists of two associations, each of which comprises municipalities on its side of the border.

Development of institutional cooperation, including inter alia support for local authorities located in the border area quickly made the Euroregions eligible for EU funds. The earliest support mechanism launched was the Phare Poland-Germany Cross-Border Co-operation Programme, which also met the highest funding criteria among all Phare CBC (Cross-Border Co-operation) programmes. The implementation of the Phare CBC programmes was made possible thanks to the decision of the European Parliament of 1994, which obligated the European Commission to allocate 25% of the funds of the Phare Programme (Poland, Hungary - Assistance for Restructuring their Economies) to support cross-border cooperation between the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and their neighbours from the European Union. The underlying document for the implementation of the Phare Poland - Germany Cross-Border Cooperation Programme was the Multian- nual Indicative Programme for Phare CBC Poland - Germany for the years 1995-1999. Approx €415m were earmarked In the Polish-German border region. The beneficiaries could obtain funds from measures under six priority axes: transport, environmental protection, economic development, agriculture, human resources and municipal infrastructure.

Since 1999, under Phare CBC, the greatest emphasis has been placed on supporting the process of accession to the European Union, and at the moment of opening of the accession negotiations it has become a tool for preparation of the border regions of the candidate countries for the Community membership to participate in the INTERREG Community Initiative, to which Poland gained access after accession to the European Union. Thus, in the perspective of 2004-2006, the INTERREG III Community Initiative Programme was implemented in the Polish-German border area and carried on in form of three operational programmes of cross-border cooperation implemented in the perspective of 2007-2013 (Poland - Saxony, Poland - Brandenburg and Poland - Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Brandenburg).
Cross-border cooperation, as well as the other components of inter-regional international cooperation within the borders of the European Union have been steadily developing and more and more funds are now set aside in the Community budget for projects implemented by organisations from two or more countries. A part of the EU’s regional policy, a separate objective - the European Territorial Cooperation - has been established under which, in addition to cross-border cooperation, other components, such as transnational and interregional cooperation, have been listed. The quality requirements for cooperation projects also change. The role of the lead partner has been introduced, and in order to obtain ERDF funding, the partners have to demonstrate unambiguously the positive impact of the project on the relevant area, and also confirm the actual cooperation by meeting the required criteria, i. e. joint preparation, joint financing, joint implementation, and joint staffing. Under the 2007-2013 MFF, the European Union has allocated the largest resources to Objective 3 of the regional policy compared to previous programming periods.

Cross-border cooperation supported by ERDF funds is also implemented in the 2014-2020 MFF. In the Polish-German border region, more than €304m has been allocated to joint projects, and after taking into account national contributions (15%) it amounts to over €357m.

**Transport**

In addition to the numerous intercity bus and small bus connections, the already mentioned local buses operate in the double towns (Görlitz-Zgorzelec and Frankfurt-Słubice). Also, long distance routes (e. g. Görlitz-Bogatynia or lines connecting various places on the island of Usedom) are covered by coach services. There are also numerous local cross-border rail connections. The greatest achievements of the last such time include the opening of the Świnoujście Centrum railway station on the island of Usedom, serving the trains of the German company UBB operating from Stralsund (this station is not connected with the Polish railway network, as the latter only reaches the Wolin Island), or the relaunch of the discontinued direct local connection from Wroclaw to Dresden.

At present, there are 7 border crossings which serve several, sometimes dozen or so cross-border connections a day.
An interesting tariff solution which is already in place on the border between Poland, the Czech Republic and Germany is the common Euro Nysa ticket (it has been up since 2004). The ticket allows for one-day use of local and cross-border rail and bus connections, as well as urban transport in the towns covered by it which comprises the territory of three countries (e.g. Jelenia Góra, Bolesławiec, Liberec, Zgorzelec-Görlitz, Budziszyn/Bautzen).

On the land section of the border, after Poland’s accession to the Schengen area, most of the old roads and ducts were modernised and took shape of car roads, cycle paths and pavements. This shows especially in the attractive holiday area of the island of Usedom, where bicycle trails run through places that were not accessible until 2007, creating a dense network connecting Swinoujscie with the nearby towns on the German side.

**Prospects for the German-Polish cross-border cooperation**

Problems that still need to be resolved often include the cross-border use of health care and emergency medical services. A present, this is only possible to the extent allowed by Directive 2011/24/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 9 March 2011 on the application of patients’ rights in cross-border healthcare. Good practices already exist in other border areas, such as the ZOAST Convention between France and Belgium, which allows border residents insured under their country’s health insurance system to receive medical care on the other side of the border. However, such solutions require appropriate intergovernmental agreements.

Another challenge is the development of a cross-border public transport network and the development of further fare schemes for cross-border travel similar to the Euro Nysa ticket.

As regards the cooperation between universities, opening of the first joint Polish-German legal department of the Viadrina European University in Frankfurt (Oder) and the Adam Mickiewicz University is planned.
Reference to the situation in the Polish-Ukrainian border area

It should be noted that the Polish-Ukrainian frontier is different from the Polish-German border area not only in terms of its course but also of the history of cross-border relations since its establishment. Most of the Polish-Ukrainian border is a land border, except a section in the Volyn region and the Lubelskie Province which runs entirely along the river Bug. It might seem that the lack of natural obstacles at the land border could have favoured mutual contacts. However, they were made impossible by the fact that along the external border of the former USSR, fortifications and a guarded border strip (the so-called „zona”) were constructed which sometimes reached as far as several kilometres deep into the countryside. As a result, there are hardly any municipalities at the border itself, especially on the Ukrainian side; others are located a few kilometres away from the border proper; furthermore, there is no double town phenomenon known from the Polish-German border.

There are eight road border checkpoints on the Polish-Ukrainian border and two passenger rail checkpoints. Pedestrian crossing is only possible at the oldest border crossing point: Medyka-Szehinie. It should also be noted that most of the border checkpoints - in contrast to the situation known from the Polish-German border area - operate as “dual” checkpoints, i. e. the Polish check takes place on the Polish side, while Ukrainian check takes place on the Ukrainian side of the border. This extends the waiting time for the check as was amply demonstrated when joint border checks were introduced on an ad hoc basis during the EURO 2012 Football Championship. Currently, joint border checks are carried out only at the relatively recently opened border crossing points Budomierz-Hruszów (Hrusziw), Dołhobyczów-Uhrynów (Uhryniw), and Krościenko-Smolnica (Smilnycia).

On 1 October 2003, in preparation for its accession to the European Union and, in the longer term, to the Schengen area, Poland introduced the visa requirement for citizens of Ukraine, Russia and Belarus. A similar obligation already existed in the past with regard to the citizens of these countries travelling to the hitherto EU Member States. Ukraine was the only one of these three countries which did not impose a similar obligation for the citizens of Poland on the basis of reciprocity. Although the Polish visas for Ukrainians were free of charge, the necessity of obtaining them at the Polish consulate before each trip to Poland was a major obstacle. The most important problem constantly raised by the media was a long waiting time for the documents to be submitted to the consulate.
On 1 July 2009, local border traffic regime entered into force for the residents of the 30 km wide strip along the border who could travel to Poland without a visa, with passport only and with appropriate permits which were valid for two years. However, the regime did not extend wide enough to cover e.g. inhabitants of the Lviv agglomeration.

It was not until 11 June 2017 that Ukrainian citizens could travel to Poland and other Schengen countries and several other EU Member States without visa. Interestingly, instead of eliminating, the new regulations sometimes even increased the difficulty in crossing the border because of the need to wait in lines for many hours for inspection. The inadequate offer of cross-border rail connections (1 train from Przemyśl to Kiev via Lviv, 1 train from Wroclaw and Przemyśl to Lviv and 1 train from Warsaw to Kiev) does not make the rail a good alternative either. In addition, many, sometimes unofficial, bus connections run between Ukraine and Poland but the quality of service, as reported by Ukrainians living in Poland, may sometimes be unsatisfactory.

Conclusions

In this context, we can compare the current situation on the Polish-Ukrainian border to that on the Polish-German border in the 1990s. Now, the throughput capacity problems overshadow many other aspects of cooperation. For example, the implementation of any joint cross-border projects and initiatives is hampered by the fact that any joint meeting of the participating institutions involves, at least for one party, a longer journey and a waiting time at the border. Only a few months ago though, application for a visa had also to be taken into account when organising such a meeting.

These difficulties have a negative impact on the efficiency of document circulation, mutual settlements, and the possibilities of organising cross-border scientific and cultural events, especially such that take place on both sides of the border at the same time.

Despite these limitations, cross-border cooperation between Polish and Ukrainian authorities is quite vibrant. Thanks to the opportunities offered not only by the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine under the European Neighbourhood Instrument, but also by national programmes for promoting cooperation (e.g. the European Neighbourhood Instrument), the development cooperation programmes of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Poland, NGO programmes, e.g. the Polish-American Freedom Foundation) it seems that the activity of the organisations
on both sides of the border is in no way inferior to that of the Polish-German cooperation in the 1990s. Hence, there is every reason to believe that, as more facilities are introduced at the border between the two countries and as new border crossings are constructed, the cross-border cooperation will reach sufficient stage of development to allow to search for solutions to problems which require a cross-border approach, in addition to merely promoting tourist attractions. This way, the common potential will be exploited which will make the Polish-Ukrainian border disappear in the sense of an obstacle and instead allowing it to become a place of joint meetings.

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Partnership in cross-border projects. The analysis of partnerships established for umbrella projects under the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013. Case study

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

One of the requirements of projects implemented under programmes that support cross-border cooperation is preparation and implementation of projects in a cross-border partnership. The principle was as well binding under the Cross-Border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013, Measure 3.2. Local communities’ initiatives under which so-called umbrella projects were prepared. Partners within each project had to provide members in one of the following partnerships: Polish-Ukrainian, Polish-Belarusian or Polish-Belarusian-Ukrainian.

During the EU programming period 2007-2013, 6 umbrella projects were contracted. The purpose of the paper is to present the importance of a partnership, the role of the lead partner and of partners participating in the project. The indicated problem will be presented based on an analysis of one of the partnerships that were established to implement the project titled Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland. The project consisted of 12 micro-projects implemented by 10 institutions from Poland and 11 from Ukraine, i.e. non-governmental organizations, 2 local governments, and 2 education institutions. Presentation of the role of partnerships and partners involved in project implementation is important due to the fact that partnership is, on the one hand, a necessary element that makes it possible to establish a cross-border co-operation within EU programmes and thus obtain EU co-financing. Also, at the stage of project implementation, partnership and the quality of its management affect the achievement of the assumed results. The problem presented in the paper will be described on the basis of programming documents as well as those related directly to the project.

Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013

The Programme continued and developed cooperation in the borderland of the three countries involved as part of the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI). So far, the established cooperation has been developed within the framework of e.g. the Neighbourhood Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine INTERREG IIIA / Tacis CBC 2004–2006 (Neighbourhood Programme). The Programme facilitated cross-border cooperation through bringing various people and entities together – local inhabitants,
institutions and organizations, enterprises, and communities – to take better advantage of the potential of development of the borderlands in question.  

The main objective of the Programme was to support cross-border development processes. It is important to stress that the said main objective of the Programme was consistent with the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument Cross-Border Cooperation Strategy Paper 2007-2013 and four strategic objectives included in the Strategy Paper. The main objective of the Programme was implemented within a framework of three priorities and seven measures. Three measures undertaken under Priority 1 were consistent with objective 1: (promoting economic and social development in regions on both sides of common borders) as defined in the Strategy Paper. Two measures under Priority 2 were consistent with objective 2. as set out in the Strategy Paper (working together to address common challenges, in fields such as the environment, public health and the prevention of and the fight against organised crime). Moreover, measure 2.2. was consistent with objective 3. referred to in the Strategy Paper as (ensuring efficient and safe borders). Two measures undertaken under Priority 3 were consistent with objective 4: (promoting local cross-border “people-to-people” actions). The Programme involved supporting projects within a framework of three priorities: 1. Increasing competitiveness of the border area (measure: 1.1. Better conditions for entrepreneurship, measure 1.2. Tourism development, measure 1.3. Improvement access to the region), 2. Improving the quality of life (measure: 2.1. Natural environment protection in the borderland, 2.2. Efficient and secure borders), 3. Networking and people-to-people cooperation: (measure: 3.1. Regional and local cross-border cooperation capacity building, 3.2. Local communities’ initiatives, with the latter offering an option to implement umbrella projects being the topic discussed in this paper).

Priority 3 focused on activities promoting and supporting cross-border cooperation through developing institutional capacity and backing local initiatives. The overall objective of measure 3.2 was to contribute to the social, scientific, education, and cultural integration of the border area. The measure made it possible to support the development


75 Guidelines for applicants.
of cross-border people-to-people relationships and social initiatives, scientific and academic cooperation, and the organization of cultural and sports events. The support was granted to improve the cross-border cooperation between schools and higher education institutions, including student exchange programmes addressed to students, pupils, teachers and scientists, and to promote cross-border conferences and scientific seminars. It was also provided to projects aiming at the development of social initiatives, as well as cultural and sports events. Favourable conditions were created to facilitate mutual contacts between the bordering communities. Projects supporting cultural diversity, national minorities, and the development of civil society and local communities could also benefit from the granted support. According to the core assumption of the Programme, it was only possible to support projects implemented as part of a cross-border partnership established among entities from Poland, Ukraine or Belarus.

Partnerhips in umbrella projects

Umbrella projects involved three levels of partnership. The first of them concerned the lead partner of a given umbrella project and the organization that participated in the implementation of the project. In the event the lead partner was an entity from Poland, the project partner had to be an organization from Ukraine or Belarus, and if the lead partner of an umbrella project was an organization from Ukraine or Belarus, the organization participating in the implementation of the project was to be an organization from Poland. Adopting the first level of partnership was not obligatory, though. An umbrella project could be implemented otherwise only be the lead partner thereof (without a partnership on the first level) provided that the rule of cross-EU border partnership is complied with on further levels of the established partnership. The second level of partnership was established between the lead partner of an umbrella project and the lead partners of micro-projects. In the event the lead partner of an umbrella project was based in Poland, at least one of the lead partners of micro-projects had to be based in Ukraine or Belarus. If the lead partner of an umbrella project was an entity from Ukraine or Belarus, at least one of the lead partner of micro-projects had to come from Poland. The last level of partnership was established between the lead partners of micro-projects and the organization(s) participating in the implementation of a given micro-project. Each of such micro-projects had to be implemented together by partners from

76 Ibid.
Poland and Belarus or Ukraine. This means that every umbrella project had to include a cross-EU border partnership77 on the third level and on at least one of the other levels78.

The lead partner of an umbrella project was responsible for ensuring correct and proper implementation of the project, bore a full legal and financial liability for the implementation of the project, and was answerable only to the Joint Managing Authority (JMA), and bore an indirect responsibility for the operational and financial progress of works, for the expenses incurred by particular micro-project partners, but only in a way ensuring proper delivery of the umbrella project and in a manner granting eligibility and appropriateness of the said expenses in the scope of the measures arranged. The lead partner accepted the financial contribution of JMA and the responsibility for providing the micro-project lead partners participating in the umbrella project with a part of the funding, managed returns of amounts paid unduly under the implemented project, and was obliged to facilitate controlling according to the audit path to the relevant authorities of the European Community, JMA, and national authorities, including keeping documents according to the Programme requirements79. The lead partner became also obliged to determine the relationship with the partner responsible for implementation of the umbrella project (first level of partnership) with the lead partners of particular micro-projects, and, if necessary, with each partner participating in the implementation of the said micro-projects. Determination of these relationships in the partnership agreement(s) was a precondition of concluding a grant contract (contract for implementation of an umbrella project) between the lead partner of a given umbrella project and JMA80.

Partners participating in umbrella projects had to hold the status of a legal person or a legal entity without legal personality81 and operate on a non-profit82 basis at the same time, be a specific organization operating as any of the following: non-governmental

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77 A cross-EU border partnership means a partnership established between Polish and Ukrainian and/or Belarusian organizations.
79 The conditions have been specified in art. 45 of Commission Regulation (EC) no. 951/2007 / and in the relevant provisions of PRAG.
80 Guidelines for applicants, pp. 9-12.
81 This stipulation applied only to partners from Poland (e.g. schools, museums, etc.) with a condition that their representatives were entitled to incur legal obligations on their behalf and accept financial responsibility likewise. Decisions concerning a given entity’s compliance with the conditions on eligibility were made by an Evaluation Committee and approved by the Joint Monitoring Committee.
82 Entities established to satisfy particular public interest needs and operating on a non-industrial or non-commercial basis, or, in the case of institutions other than NGOs: entities financed predominantly by the State, regional or local authorities, or other public law entities; or entities subject to management control of such entities; or entities whose administration, management, or supervisory board is composed at least in half of members appointed by the State, regional or local authorities, or other public law entities (according to the provisions of Directive 2004 /18/EC).
organization, public finance entity, local authority, public law entity, international (inter-
governmental) organization and be a Polish, Belarusian, or Ukrainian entity, and be reg-
istered and based in an area included in the Programme (a cooperation area or an adjacent cooperation area).

The lead partners of micro-projects were obliged to accept responsibility for implementa-
tion of their micro-projects within their area of competence, according to the application submitted as part of the umbrella project and to the plan of action for a given micro-pro-
ject. They were also obliged to work with the lead partner and other partners participating in the implementation of the umbrella project and micro-projects, taking reporting and monitoring requirements into account. They also became responsible for all instances of irregularities in the scope of own declared expenses incurred as part of micro-projects, and for effective returns of all unduly paid amounts to the lead partner of the umbrella project. Furthermore, they were obliged to facilitate the controlling procedure according to the audit path to the relevant authorities of the European Community, the Joint Man-
aging Authority, and national authorities, including keeping documents according to the Programme requirements. At the same time, all partners - on all partnership levels - had to confirm the acceptance of their obligations as part of implementation of the umbrella project by signing partnership declarations. The lead partners of micro-projects and each of the partners participating in the implementation of a given micro-project were obliged to sign a partnership agreement.

It is important to emphasize that cross-border cooperation and the actual involvement of partners in the implementation of an umbrella project at each of its stages were one of the essential elements of evaluation of implementation of such umbrella project.

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83 According to art. 43 of the implementing provisions of EC Financial Regulation, the term included public sector organizations established on the basis of intergovernmental agreements and other special agencies established likewise; the International Committee of the Red Cross and the International Federation of National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies; the European Investment Bank (EIB) and the European Investment Fund (EIF) are also considered international organizations.

84 Nationality was determined on the basis of the founding act of a given organization, which was to evidence that the organization was established by an instrument governed by the national law of a given country. The criterion did not apply to international organizations.


86 Ibid.

87 Ibid.
“Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland”

The umbrella project entitled “Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland”, as one of the six umbrella projects that were granted the funds applied for, according to agreement no. IPBU.03.02.00-18-832/12-00 dated 23 December 2013 was awarded a financial support in the amount of EUR 579,400.78, with the total budget of EUR 643,778.65. The project was scheduled to be implemented from January to December 2014.

The project – the origin and the main assumptions

The Polish-Ukrainian borderland benefitting from the project ranks relatively low in economic terms in both countries. The immediate borderland area is especially underdeveloped. The rate of unemployment is particularly high in this area as well. Moreover, the economic significance of near-border voivodeships has been seen decreasing over the recent several years. But the area benefitting from the project is marked out for tourist development because of its cultural and natural assets. According to a 2010 study by Polish Tourist Organisation, it’s Podkarpacie (next to Polesie) that is the most recognizable Polish region among tourists from Ukraine.

As set out in the application, the Polish-Ukrainian borderland used to be once a magical land of mountain pastures, broad mountain ranges, and shepherds. A land whose cultural heritage was the legacy of the Boykos, Lemkos, Pogórzanie, and Dolinianie. The quite exotic culture of these people has been drawing attraction of many scientists, researchers, poets, and artists for centuries. It is also an area that offers exceptional, breath-taking nature. This is thanks to its wide diversity of natural conditions (with numerous submontane and mountain areas, the richness of forest complexes, water bodies, flora and fauna) and the rich common cultural heritage. Podkarpacie is also a place where many spas and

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88 Other projects implemented under measure 3.2: “Borderland Culture as an integration platform of local communities in Bug Euroregion” (IPBU.03.02.00-06-828/12), “Cross-border Labour Market Support Center” (IPBU.03.02.00-06-827/12), “Promotion of a common historical and cultural heritage of Poland and Ukraine – Fortress of Przemyśl” (IPBU.03.02.00-06-826/12), “Integrated Promotion of Tourism Opportunities and Cultural-Historical Heritage of Lviv Region, Podkarpackie and Lublin Voivodeships” (IPBU.03.02.00-18-820/12), “Support of cross-border local communities initiatives in the Białowieża Forest Euroregion” (IPBU.03.02.00-76-816/12): http://www.pl-by-ua.eu/contract.php?cfp=3 (6.10.2017).
89 Grant contract for project implementation dated 23 December 2013, ref. no. IPBU.03.02.00-18-832/12-00.
90 Annex A Application Form (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).
health resorts can be found: on the Polish side of the border (the Podkarpackie voivodship): Iwonicz Zdrój - the oldest spa of Podkarpacie, Rymanów Zdrój, Polańczyk; on the Ukrainian side of the border (Lviv oblast): Truskavets – one of the oldest spas in Europe, Skhidnytysa (Drohobych raion), Morshyn (Stryi raion), Nemyriv, Shklo (Javorivskyj raion), Zakarpattia oblast: Kvasy, Ivano-Frankivsk oblast: Yaremche91.

One of the reasons to take a decision to prepare an umbrella project was the dispersion of activities, lack of coordination, and limited information flow in the area of tourism. Implementing particular micro-projects independently of each other would not contribute to elimination of the abovementioned issues. In order to achieve noticeable changes in the consciousness of the local communities, actions, and behaviour of the tourist industry, recognition of the region, it was necessary to create a multi-entity platform of cooperation, join forces of representatives of many social groups (local authorities, NGOs, tourist industry, local communities)92.

The general objective of the project was to develop cross-border cooperation in the health tourism industry in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland. The objective was to be achieved through implementation of four specific objectives listed in the table below.

Table 1. Specific objectives of the project entitled “Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland” implemented within a framework of particular micro-projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific objectives</th>
<th>MP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analysing the potential of the natural and cultural heritage and developing tools</td>
<td>MP1, MP7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to promote health tourism offered in the area of the Polish-Ukrainian border</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting the natural and cultural potential of the project area</td>
<td>MP2, MP5, MP6, MP9,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MP11, MP12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalization of service offered to tourists, boarders</td>
<td>MP 4, MP8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting healthy behaviour</td>
<td>MP 3, MP10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: developed on the basis of Annex E English summary of the Umbrella Project (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).

91 Ibid.
92 Ibid.
The biggest number of micro-projects assumed achieving an objective concerning promotion of the natural and cultural potential of the project area (specific objective 2.)\(^{93}\).

To address the said issues, it was necessary to take a number of measures aiming at taking advantage of the potential of the Polish-Ukrainian borderland and the cross-border partnership to support the development of the region. All activities focused on one of the biggest assets of the region – spas.

The project involved creation of 12 micro-projects, each of the value of up to 50 thousand euro. Details of each micro-project and organizations participating in implementation thereof have been provided in the table below.

**Table 2. Micro-projects (MP) and organizations implementing them**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MP</th>
<th>Micro-project title</th>
<th>Partners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| MP1| “Strategy of the spa tourism development in the Polish-Ukrainian part of the Carpathian Euroregion” | • Association of Carpathian Euroregion Poland  
• Association of Self-Government “Carpathian Euroregion – Ukraine” |
| MP2| “Carpathian potential promotion – creating a cross-border promotion platform”      | • Association of Self-Government “Carpathian Euroregion – Ukraine”  
• Association of Carpathian Euroregion Poland |
| MP3| “Development and promotion of health resort treatment in the Polish-Ukrainian part of the Carpathian Euroregion, including Lvivska Oblast and Podkarpackie voivodeship” | • Borysław non-governmental town organization “Development Agency of the Skhidnytsya Resort”  
• Association of Carpathian Euroregion Poland |
| MP4| “Agrotourism in health resorts”                                                    | • Non-governmental organization “Local Development Agency of Drohobych”  
• Local Action Group “Petro Land”  
• Foundation for Local Development INTEGRACJA |
| MP5| “The health-resort tourism fair – the Polish-Ukrainian borderland promotion”      | • “European Dialogue” non-governmental organization  
• Rzeszów Regional Development Agency, joint stock company |
| MP6| “Development and promotion of tourism in the resort Commune of Rymanów and Truskavets health resort” | • Commune Rymanów  
• City of Truskavets non-governmental organization of Ukrainian association “Lemkivshchyna” |

93 Podkarpacie region, Lviv oblast, Zakarpattia oblast, and Ivano-Frankivsk oblast (in the scope included in the Programme).
| MP7 | “Meeting with Polish and Ukrainian Culture in Iwonicz-Zdrój” | • Commune Iwonicz-Zdrój  
• Public Organization “Center of regional Yavorivshchyna initiatives” |
| MP8 | “Transfer of green tourism idea to Ukraine on the basis of Gotocarpathia certification system” | • Bieszczady Foundation  
• Ecological and Geographical Fund “Ecogeofund” |
| MP9 | “Wild Carpathians - development of nature tourism in Polish-Ukrainian eastern Carpathians” | • Bieszczady Foundation  
• Transcarpathian Regional Charitable Fund “Uzh Valley Ecotourism Development Foundation” |
| MP10 | “Creating pro-health attitudes among the youth in the Polish-Ukrainian border area” | • State Higher Vocational School in Krosno  
• Lviv In-Service Teacher Training Institute |
| MP11 | “Establishment of the school of recreational tourism” | • Lviv City Public Organization “Tourists club Manivci”  
• Association “Local Action Group - Green Bieszczady” |
| MP12 | “By traces of Ukrainian Carpathians. Promotion of tourism product” | • Lviv Municipal Public Organization “Ecoterra”  
• Bieszczady Foundation |

Source: developed on the basis of Annex E English summary of the Umbrella Project (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).

**Partnership in the project entitled “Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland”**

All micro-projects were implemented within the framework of the Polish-Ukrainian partnership. They were developed through joint efforts of 10 institutions from Poland and 11 from Ukraine, i.e. 17 non-governmental organizations, 2 local governments, and 2 education institutions. In most cases, those institutions worked with each in formal partnerships (as part of implemented projects) or on the basis of informal arrangements. Given the extensive nature of the partnership, one of the biggest challenges was to coordinate the activities and tasks related to preparation of the project, which required a compromise on various needs, expectations, and working styles. Details of organizations forming the partnership in question have been given in table no. 3.

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94 Annex E English summary of the Umbrella Project (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).
Table 3. Polish and Ukrainian partners participating in implementation of the project entitled “Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Polish partners</th>
<th>Ukrainian partners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Association “Pro Carpathia”</td>
<td>Association of Self-Government “Carpathian Euroregion - Ukraine”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Association of Carpathian Euroregion Poland</td>
<td>Boryslav non-governmental town organization “Development Agency of the Skhidnytsya Resort”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Local Action Group “Petro Land”</td>
<td>Non-governmental organization “Local Development Agency of Drohobych”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Foundation for Local Development INTEGRACJIA</td>
<td>“European Dialogue” non-governmental organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Rzeszów Regional Development Agency, joint stock company</td>
<td>City of Truskavets non-governmental organization of Ukrainian association “Lemkivshchyna”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Commune Rymanów</td>
<td>Public Organization “Center of regional Yavorivshchyna initiatives”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Commune Iwonicz-Zdrój</td>
<td>Ecological and Geographical Fund “Ecogefund”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Bieszczady Foundation</td>
<td>Transcarpathian Regional Charitable Fund “Uzh Valley Ecotourism Development Foundation”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>State Higher Vocational School in Krosno</td>
<td>Lviv In-Service Teacher Training Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The Association - “Local Action Group - Green Bieszczady”</td>
<td>Lviv City Public Organization “Tourists club Manivci”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lviv Municipal Public Organization “Ecoterra”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: developed on the basis of Annex E English summary of the Umbrella Project (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).

In most cases, one organization took part in implementation of one micro-project, as the leader or a partner, with the exception of three organizations that participated in more than one micro-project. These were: Association of Carpathian Euroregion Poland (MP1,
MP2, MP3), Bieszczady Foundation (MP8, MP9, MP12), and Association of Self-Govern-
ment “Carpathian Euroregion - Ukraine” (MP1, MP2).95

The lead partner of the umbrella project was the Association for Development and
Promotion of Podkarpacie “Pro Carpathia”, an NGO established in Rzeszów in 2004,
with a headcount of 17 salary employees96, working with a group of experts in vari-
ous areas, including e.g. enterprise, management, marketing, promotion, fundraising,
activation of various social groups, rural communities, and a group of volunteers. “Pro
Carpathia” develops and implements projects to support NGOs and the labour market,
to promote the tourist and cultural potential of the Podkarpacie voivodeship. The un-
dertaking was implemented individually and in partnership (NGOs, local government)
- also on an international scale (e.g. with institutions from Ukraine, Slovakia, Hungary,
Norway, Italy, and Switzerland)97.

An analysis of the legal forms of other partners resulted in the following conclusions:
11 associations, including 2 associations of legal persons (1 from Poland, 1 from
Ukraine), 4 foundations, 2 communes, 2 education institutions, and 1 joint stock com-
pany (regional development agency). The group includes also 2 local action groups:
“Petro Land” and “Green Bieszczady”98.

Polish NGOs and entities involved in project implementation were based in the Podkar-
packie voivodeship (Rzeszów, Krosno, Krosno district, Bieszczady district), and Ukraini-
an ones were seated mainly in Lviv oblast (Lviv, raions: Starysambor, Drohobych, Lviv,
Yavoriv). One entity involved was based in Zakarpattia oblast: Perechyn raion (Transcar-
pathian Regional Charitable Fund “Uzh Valley Ecotourism Development Foundation”)99.

The partnership established to implement the project was formed mainly by entities oper-
ating for several years by that time. The youngest participant was the Foundation for Local
Development INTEGRACJA (Bieszczady district, Podkarpackie voivodeship), founded in
2011. The oldest participants were non-governmental organization “European Dialogue”
(1998), State Higher Vocational School in Krosno (1999), and the communes of Rymanów
and Iwonicz Zdrój (1999).100

95 Ibid.
96 As of the date of submission of the application: June 2012.
97 Annex E English summary of the Umbrella Project (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-
Ukrainian borderland).
98 Ibid.
99 Ibid.
100 Annex A Application Form (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).
Looking into the human resources of the organizations participating in the project, it is important to notice that most of them had salary employees, and only 3 of them had declared, at the stage of project development, that they had no such employees. These were: Foundation for Local Development INTEGRACJA, City of Truskavets non-governmental organization of Ukrainian association “Lemkivshchyna”, and Lviv City Public Organization “Tourists club Manivci”. State Higher Vocational School in Krosno employed the biggest number of employees (290), followed by: Rzeszów Regional Development Agency joint stock company (161), Lviv In-Service Teacher Training Institute (140), and two communes: Rymanów (106) and Iwonicz Zdrój (56). Among the participating NGOs, the Association of Carpathian Euroregion Poland declared to have the highest number of employees (18)101.

In most cases, partners involved in the project “Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland” had previous experience in implementing projects financed from public funds. Only 2 organizations admitted that they didn’t have any previous experience with projects financed from public funds; these were: Boryslav non-governmental town organization “Development Agency of the Skhidnytsya Resort” (MP3 leader) and City of Truskavets non-governmental organization of Ukrainian association “Lemkivshchyna” (MP6 partner). An analysis of the project documentation leads to a conclusion that the Ukrainian organizations reported smaller experience in that scope, which shouldn’t come as a surprise taking into consideration the availability of public – including EU – funds to entities from Ukraine. Organizations from Ukraine had some experience in implementing projects from other public funds – mostly domestic, but sometimes also obtained from abroad (e.g. from the USA)102.

101 As of the date of submission of the application: June 2012, Annex A Application Form (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).
102 Annex A Application Form (Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland).
Partnership agreement

The commencement of implementation of the umbrella project was preceded by drawing up and signing a partnership agreement between the lead partner of the entire project and the lead partners of particular micro-projects\textsuperscript{103}.

The agreement defined the terms and conditions of joint implementation of the project, and the principles of cooperation between the umbrella project leader (“Pro Carpathia”) – the Beneficiary, and the leaders of particular micro-projects. The agreement became binding at the moment when the grant contract was signed by the last of the two parties (the Beneficiary or the Joint Managing Authority) and remained so until the Beneficiary’s and/or project partners’ obligations under the grant contract could be challenged by the Joint Managing Authority. The activities to be undertaken as part of the project were supposed to follow a schedule defined in the agreement concluded between the Beneficiary and the Joint Managing Authority. The agreement specified also the rights, obligations, and the scope of responsibility of the parties thereto\textsuperscript{104}. Partnership members had the right to manage the partnership, receive information about the partnership’s activity, make suggestions concerning the ongoing implementation of the project, and take part in sessions of the Steering Committee\textsuperscript{105}.

On the basis of such partnership agreement, the Beneficiary was obliged to implement the project according to the requirements set out in the agreement, ensure joint coordination, management, and implementation of the project, appoint a project coordinator who was to be responsible for joint coordination of project activities, appoint a financial manager to supervise project finance activities, introduce an effective system of control, coordination, and audit, monitor the progress of the project, ensure fair and appropriate utilization of financial resources allocated to the project - including returns of unduly paid amounts, ensure project co-financing, supervise the expenditure incurred within particular micro-projects to make sure the funds were used for project-related objectives


\textsuperscript{104} Partnership agreement on implementation of the project entitled “Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland” as part of the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013.

\textsuperscript{105} Ibid.
and corresponded to the activities agreed between the partners in advance. The lead partner was also obliged to develop and then present an overall report on expenditure to the Joint Technical Secretariat, assist and support auditing companies in preparing a report on expenditure control, support the relevant authorities of the European Community, the Joint Managing Authority, and national authorities in controlling activities, submit requests for advance payments to the Joint Technical Secretariat, provide particular partners with funds from advance payments, submit progress reports and the final report to the Joint Technical Secretariat, contact the Joint Technical Secretariat and inform JTS of any difficulties in implementation of the project, of any changes in the schedule of project implementation, or any other changes concerning project partners. The lead partner was also obliged to contact the leaders of micro-projects on a regular basis and other partners via those leaders, provide them with complete information about the progress in project implementation, notify them immediately of any situations that could affect project implementation or put it at risk, make every effort to support partners in the event of occurrence of difficulties, including also providing for assistance of the Joint Technical Secretariat/Joint Managing Authority.

Micro-project leaders, in turn, were obliged to ensure implementation of the micro-projects they became responsible for under the grant contract, appoint micro-project coordinators, accountants (financial assistants) to supervise micro-project finance activities, keep the relevant records, introduce an effective system of control, coordination, and audit of micro-projects, facilitate auditing activities on the overall project level, provide assistance to all relevant EU institutions, the Joint Managing Authority, and the national controlling authorities in auditing activities. Micro-project lead partners were obliged to keep absolutely within the project budget in the part concerning their respective micro-projects, spend funds only for the purpose of carrying out activities that were agreed and described in advance in the application, ensure fair and appropriate utilization of financial resources. In the event of improper spending, a given micro-project leader was obliged to return the amounts spent in an undue manner. Leaders were also obliged to react immediately to any requests made by the Beneficiary or the Joint Technical Secretariat/Joint Managing Authority, especially those concerning coordination and implementation of micro-projects, notify the Beneficiary immediately of any events that could make it impossible to complete the planned activities - or delay the completion thereof, which could affect the overall project implementation or put it at risk.

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106 Ibid.
107 Ibid.
The partnership agreement regulated also the matters related to project management and the internal organizational structure of the partnership. The bodies to manage the partnership included: Steering Committee and Project Office. The Steering Committee was composed of all members of the partnership. Each partner had one vote, regardless of the actual number of their representatives. The Steering Committee could be summoned whenever there was a need to do so, but not less often than once every quarter. The Steering Committee’s scope of competence included: determining the strategic objectives and activities to be undertaken by the partnership, accepting and approving public announcements, appeals, and petitions on behalf of the partnership, examine reports developed by the project coordinator - in cooperation with coordinators of particular micro-projects.

The right to call a session of the Steering Committee could be exercised the lead partner (Project Office) or by representatives of at least six members of the partnership. The announcement of the date, place, and time of the session and the suggested agenda of the meeting was to be sent to partnership members at least 7 calendar days in advance of the planned date. The Steering Committee was considered empowered to take decisions provided that its session was held in the presence of at least 1/3 of the partnership members (including the Beneficiary’s representatives). The Steering Committee made its decisions by a simple majority of votes. The Steering Committee was also able to make decisions on the basis of consultation sessions organized between partnership members in an electronic format. Such form of decision-making could be initiated by the Project Office. The procedure of making decisions through e-consultations involved: the Project Office sending an e-mail with a draft of a given decision to each of the partnership member; setting the deadline for submitting remarks and suggestions of modifications to the draft; compiling the collected remarks and suggestions; the Project Office developing and sending the final version of the decision to each partnership member; partnership members voting on the final decision by presenting their standpoints in the exchanged e-mails. If the said form of decision-making was applied, each partnership member had to be asked about their standpoint on a given matter. A decision was considered made if at least half of partnership members voted for it108.

The Project Office, appointed by the Beneficiary (“Pro Carpathia”) for the duration of project implementation, handled organization- and information-related matters of the partnership. The Project Office was composed of: a project coordinator, a financial manager,
and an administration assistant. The personal composition of the Project Office could be changed only by the Beneficiary. The partnership agreement defined also the scope of activities to be carried out by the Project Office. Examples of such activities included: developing drafts of agendas of the Steering Committee sessions taking the partnership members’ suggestions into account; developing minutes from the Steering Committee sessions; announcing decisions made by the partnership and sharing them with recipients indicated by the partnership; controlling the execution of the partnership’s decisions; providing information about the partnership’s activity, ensuring public access to information about the partnership’s activity and the decisions it made; cooperating on behalf of the partnership with public authorities, enterprises, institutions, and organizations in Poland and in Ukraine, and beyond their borders if necessary; representing the partnership before public authorities, community organizations, mass media in Poland and in Ukraine, and beyond their borders\textsuperscript{109}.

The partnership agreement defined also the rules of communication within the partnership. The Beneficiary was obliged to ensure smooth exchange of information between the Joint Managing Authority/Joint Technical Secretariat and partnership members. The partnership could take advantage of different means of internal communication exchanged between the partners, including mass mailing tools. The concluded agreement included e-mail addresses provided by the parties to exchange communication. At the same time, the parties obliged themselves to keep the communication exchanged between the Beneficiary and project partners confidential, as set out in the grant contract.

\textsuperscript{109} Ibid.
Evaluation

When analysing the results of evaluation carried out at the end of project implementation in 2014\(^{110}\), it is important to notice that this evaluation covered also issues concerning partnership cooperation in micro-projects. This cooperation was evaluated rather positively, taking the relationships of leader – partner (within a micro-project) and lead partner – micro-project leaders into consideration. Most representatives of the evaluated organizations mentioned keeping in constant touch within the partnership, good information flow, and diligence in carrying out the accepted responsibilities. But in the case of partnerships composed of less-experienced entities, especially when a micro-project leader was the more experienced entity in the relationship, there was often a mention of difficulties in communication, haphazardness in action, no knowledge about management.

- The respondents asked about the measures that should be undertaken to improve cooperation and micro-project management pointed to e.g. a need for training in the scope of project management. Micro-project representatives had also certain remarks regarding the scope of management of the whole project and of the adopted solutions:
  - a need to modify the cash flow system was signalled\(^{111}\),
  - improvement of report verification,

\(^{110}\) The interviews were conducted in December 2014, via phone calls, direct interviews, and e-mail messages (only when it was not possible to take advantage of the first two methods). Representatives of all micro-projects and of the lead partner were interviewed. It wasn’t possible to obtain answers from both leaders and partners (e.g. MP3 – only the partner, MP4 – partners, MP6, MP7 – leaders, MP9 – the leader, MP11 – the leader). Answers were given most often by persons involved in implementation of micro-projects, acting also in some cases as legal representatives of entities taking part in the project. In most cases, at the time of evaluation, the micro-projects were finished or were at the final stage of implementation. The author of this paper took part in the conducted evaluation.

\(^{111}\) All funds granted within the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI) for the implementation of the project were paid to the Beneficiary’s bank account number as given in the financial identification form. The Beneficiary was responsible for administrative and financial management of the funds obtained as part of the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument to implement the project. They were responsible for providing the said funds to micro-project leaders in the following order: the first and the next tranche of the advance payment in the amount defined in the grant contract were to be paid by the Beneficiary to micro-project leaders by a wire transfer immediately within 7 working days from the moment of receipt of the advance payment. The expected final payment (a balance of a maximum of 10% of the amount to finance a given micro-project) was paid within 7 working days of the moment of receipt of the remaining funds under the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument. The Beneficiary was obliged to pay a part of the amount of ENPI funds to micro-project leaders by making a wire transfer to their bank account numbers indicated before the commencement of each micro-project. The micro-project leaders were obliged to pay a part of the amount of ENPI funds to their partners. The Beneficiary and the micro-project leaders were obliged to divide the budget according to Annex III of the grant contract (draft budget).
• simplification of the settlement procedure, arguing for adoption of simpler solutions,

• increasing the availability of project-related documentation (e.g. report forms) in the respective native languages. Most of the questioned institutions pointed to difficulties in this scope, actually. The adopted solutions were especially problematic in the case of local governments. Those involved in implementation of micro-projects pointed to a necessity for official translations of the applicable forms to be available in the respective native languages,

• a need for training in the scope of reporting and settlement of expenditure,

• in one case, there was a mention of a need for more frequent direct contact as part of implementation of the whole project, and for making an effort in the scope of improvement of the flow of information about activities carried out as part of particular micro-projects.

Remarks made by representatives of the lead partner:

• A need for modification of the system of cash flow within the project.

The lead partner had a different view on the solutions concerning the flow of financial resources. The reasonability of transfer of the whole amount of the advance payment (which was what virtually all representatives of the evaluated micro-projects argued for) was questioned, with the suggested alternative solution involving: transfer of the full amount of the advance payment to cover the costs related to project management, with the remaining amount to be paid out on the basis of a statement of expenditures at the end of the month. The following advantages of such solution were named:

• greater control over the transferred funds (the amount of the advance payment commensurate to the expenses incurred),

• improved cash flow within the project (advance payment independent of report submission; the experience gained from implementation of the project proves that timely reporting, taking the variety of experience of particular micro-project leaders with implementation of projects financed from public funds into account, is actually very difficult to ensure)\(^{112}\).

\(^{112}\) Evaluation report on the project entitled "Cross-border cooperation for health tourism of Polish-Ukrainian borderland" (IPBU.03.02.00-18-832/12-00) implemented as part of the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013.
Conclusions

The “Cross-border cooperation for the health tourism sector in the Polish-Ukrainian borderland” project was implemented in the most numerous partnership (12 micro-projects, 10 organizations from Poland, 11 organizations from Ukraine). The lead partner was a non-governmental organization from Poland. A first-level partnership was not established. But despite no formalized partnership on this level, the role was assumed by one of the Ukrainian organizations, also taking part in project implementation. Functioning of the partnership on the second level was regulated by a partnership agreement concluded between the lead partner and the leaders of particular micro-projects. The agreement governed also the functioning of the partnership as a whole. It served as the basis for the lead partners of particular micro-projects to be obliged to conclude partnership agreements with their partners as part of particular micro-projects.

A post-project evaluation report, which included also references to partnership management, offered some interesting insights - also into the functioning of the partnership. As part of an analysis of all the material collected, it is important to point to a number of solutions that could improve the process of implementation of similar projects in the future. These solutions concern: organization of training in the scope of project management (a demand raised by the least experienced organizations), reporting and assessment of target achievement, improvement of the exchange of information about the undertaken activities and about any problems related thereto (such information may help control irregularities), making official versions of forms available in the respective native languages, and modification of the system of cash flow adopted for the project. In the case of the latter, it should be noted that particular micro-project partners and the lead partner presented slightly different views on the issue.

These conclusions may be used as an input to improve partnership management, as well as to determine the rules of cooperation on the level of Programme guidelines.
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The specificity of cross-border mobility in the context of Ukrainian-Polish cooperation

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Summary

The intensity and extent of cross-border mobility at the Ukrainian-Polish border are caused by various types of movement of residents of the frontier areas such as tourist trips, shuttle migration or trade, obtaining of various types of residence permits in Poland, etc.

Several millions of Ukrainian tourists annually come to Poland. In terms of spendings during the stay in Poland, Ukraine takes one of the first places. This is facilitated by several factors: a tourist visa to Poland is more affordable in our country, and people can use their personal transport and avoid spending money on airline tickets.

Shuttle migration or even shuttle trade is growing due to residents of seven frontier areas, who mainly travel for the purposes of goods sale/purchase. These are the so-called shopping visas obtained following a simplified procedure, which are mainly issued for travel for goods purchasing purposes.

Ukrainians receive a variety of residence permits in Poland. These include: a permission to stay permanently; a temporary residence permit; a Pole’s card, or a residence permit issued on the basis of provided evidence of their Polish ethnic origin; a resident of the European Union. Multifunctional document ‘a permission to stay permanently’, for permanent residence, gives you an opportunity to study, work and do business in Poland. Most often, the basis for obtaining a temporary residence permit is work, studying in Poland with the issuance of ‘a temporary residence permit; the other reason may be family reunification.

All these types of cross-border mobility are caused by various factors: travel motives, financial opportunities, visa policy etc., and regulated both by Ukrainian and Polish legislative acts. An important aspect of statutory regulation of these movements is timely response to the public challenges in the field of Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation at the state and regional levels.
Introduction

Currently, official strategic partnership has already been established between Ukraine and Poland. Due to strong cultural and historical links between the Ukrainian and Polish peoples, the changes in the system of interstate relations are distinguished for positive dynamics and are manifested in the development of many directions: economic cooperation, achievement of foreign policy goals, cooperation in the academic community, population migration regulation, etc. The similarity between Ukraine and the Republic of Poland, caused by common history, geographical position, commensurability of territory and demographic factors, has shaped the situation when both countries are faced with similar problems in the field of migration. In particular, both Polish and Ukrainian citizens leave for abroad en masse looking for employment; both countries are transit territories for the international flow of illegal migration; both Poland and Ukraine are gradually being transformed into the final destination for migrants from remote third world countries.

The intensity and the scope of cross-border mobility at the Ukrainian-Polish border are caused by various relocations of the residents of frontier territories – these are tourist trips, shuttle migration or trade, getting various permissions for study, work or residence in Poland, etc. Thus, cross-border mobility stands for relocation of individuals who cross interstate borders for any purpose and for a rather short period. In this case horizontal relocations, limited in time, which do not presuppose employment and inclusion into the system of social relations of the host society, are meant. In general, there should be outlined the following varieties of cross-border mobility: tourism; pilgrimage; educational and scholarly mobility; shuttle migration of small businessmen buying goods in the neighbouring country and selling them already in the Ukrainian territory, unregulated mobility, etc. And migration of individuals for remunerated employment purposes in the country of which (s)he is not a citizen is called cross-border labour migration by the researchers. Here a rather long migration is meant, during which the individual is included into the system of social relations, holds a certain position in the social structure of the recipient society. Temporary labour migrants mainly employed at seasonal works in agriculture or construction; long-term labour migrants; persons who have obtained residence permit due to marriage, etc. may serve as an example here.

Due to this there is a need to study the specificity and the trends of current cross-border mobility to Poland. Due to the fact that modern processes of cross-border mobility between Ukraine and Poland are becoming more and more intense and constitute an important component of the foreign policy of both states, this issue constitutes the subject of study for many Polish and Ukrainian authors. Such range of problems in Poland, based on numerous field studies, is described by K. Gmaj, K. Iglicka, P. Karczmarczyk, M. Kindler, M. Jaroszewicz. As far as Ukrainian authors are concerned, their papers are mainly done in the context of general overview of Polish-Ukrainian migration processes. Among them there can be pointed out O. Malynovska, I. Markov, O. Poznyak, O. Pyatkovska, U. Sadova.

An important component of strategic partnership between Ukraine and the Republic of Poland is interregional cooperation, which serves as a practical mechanism of implementation of the European standards regionally and locally. Currently, Ukraine has got the best developed network of interregional cooperation with the Republic of Poland. Many regions of Ukraine and voivodships of Poland have concluded agreements of interregional cooperation. Moreover, the process of bilateral partnership agreement conclusion at the level of cities, towns, raions and urban villages from the Ukrainian side and cities, towns, poviats and gminas from the Polish side shows a sustainable upward tendency.

Now Poland as the EU Member State, as compared to other Member States, particularly focuses on relations with its eastern partners. This work is most active in this context in particular, with such countries as Belarus and Ukraine. This ‘eastern flow’ is also present at the national level in the Polish immigration legislation.

Assessing the scale of potential mobility of Ukrainians, let us address the results of the survey conducted by the Sociology Group ‘Rating’ in September 2017. 61% of the respondents claimed that they would not be willing to go abroad for permanent residence. At the same time, 35% claimed that they would have such a wish, 4% more – that they are not yet clear with their answer. The highest percentage of those who would like to change their place of residence can be traced among the residents of Western

115 The Audience: Ukrainian Residents Aged 18 and Above. A Representative Selection by Age, Gender, Region and Type of Settlement. Selective integrity: 1,200 respondents. Personal formalized interview (face-to-face). Representation error in the study: no more than 2.8%. The period of holding: September 8-18, 2017. The study has been ordered by the All-Ukrainian Association of Companies Dealing with International Employment. – Access mode: http://ratinggroup.ua/research/ukraine/dinamika_migracionnyh_nastroeniy_ukraincev.html (20.09.2017)
Ukraine (41%). In the south there are 34% of them, in the centre – 33%, in the east – 33%. Among young people (aged 18-35) the number of those willing to move for a permanent place of residence abroad is 54%. While among the representatives of the senior generation only 19% would be eager to. The percentage of those who would like to emigrate is a bit higher among people with higher education and wealthier ones. At the same time, attention should be paid to the fact that among those who have worked abroad, the number of prospective migrants is smaller than among those who are only willing to find a job abroad.

The most frequent reasons urging the respondents to think of emigration are the hope to get better conditions for living (64%). The wish to provide a better future for children as the reason for moving to another country has been mentioned by 34%, absence of decent job in Ukraine – 23%, the wish to get better education – 12%. Less than 10% have indicated lack of security in Ukraine, the possibility of getting better health care provision, better conditions for doing business, the wish for self-fulfilment, family reasons. No more than 1% of the respondents are willing to leave due to value conflict and political persecution. Getting better conditions for living as the reason for possible emigration was mostly frequently mentioned by the residents in the east of the country, the wish to provide a better future for children – in the south, absence of decent job – in the west. Young people mention the wish to emigrate due to absence of jobs and self-fulfilment opportunities a bit more frequently, while older people rather mention the sense of danger and better medicine. 44% of the respondents expressed their wish to work / get a job abroad. In the regional cross-section the difference in the issue is not substantial. But a considerable difference in age categories can be traced: among young people 68% are willing to get a job abroad, among middle-aged people – 52%, and among the oldest – only 20%.

The main motivation for working abroad mostly mentioned by the respondents is higher salary rate in other countries (72%). Better working conditions, the wish to earn money for housing (study of children, medical treatment of relatives, etc.), self-fulfilment as professionals, higher quality of social protection as the reason for the willingness to get a job abroad has been mentioned by 16-20% of the respondents. 7% determined the possibility to start one’s own business and the willingness to get the experience of working in international companies as the reasons, for each.
Most frequently the country where the respondents who have expressed their wish to get a job abroad would be willing to work was Germany (37%). 26% would like to work in Poland, 22% – in the USA, 21% – in Canada, 16% – in Czech, 15% – in Italy, 14% – in Great Britain, 12% – in France or Sweden, 11% – in Israel, 9% – in Spain, 7% – in the Netherlands, 6% – in Russia. Less than 5% of the respondents would like to work in other countries. Germany, the USA, Czech and Great Britain as the desirable countries for work were most frequently selected by the residents of the west, Russia – by the respondents from the east.

At the same time, 80% of the respondents claim that visa-free regime with the EU will lead to the increased leaving of the Ukrainian working population abroad, and only 13% think differently. Also, almost three quarters of the respondents are convinced that simplification of the conditions for employment of Ukrainians by Poland and Hungary is rather an action aimed at improvement of the economy of those countries than a friendly step towards Ukraine.116

Thus, one third of Ukrainians are prospective migrants, and half of them are young people; the basic motivation for going abroad is to get better conditions for living and working – due to a higher salary rate in other countries. Poland takes the second place with one third of those willing to get a job abroad.

The reasons for cross-border mobility of Ukrainians to Poland

Traditional factors of cross-border mobility are geographic and cultural proximity of the Ukrainian and Polish peoples. There should be pointed out low migration risks for Ukrainians going to Poland as compared to other recipient countries. The fact is that the easiest way to get to the Polish state is in the status of a legal migrant, if all procedural aspects are taken into account. And recently people have preferred legal stay in that country, which fact is reflected in the statistical data.117

In general, cross-border mobility to the Republic of Poland is caused by various reasons. Some of them are related to personal contacts between the residents of both countries,

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116 Dynamics of Migration Moods of Ukrainians. – Access mode: http://ratinggroup.ua/research/ukraine/dinamika_migracionnyh_nastroeniy_ukraincev.html

and the grounds for this are the so-called guest invitations. Some trips are made within the academic exchange: educational migration, scientific conferences, symposia, probation, etc. Migration to Poland is caused by some cultural factors. In particular, Ukrainian tourists are attracted by the diversity of cultural events that are often recognized and are popular in the world. Also, Poland can be proud of its numerous historical memorials and monuments.

However, the most intensive are economically stipulated border crossings. In particular, the aim of Ukrainians going to Poland for economic purposes is either employment in the neighbouring country, or sale/purchase of goods, the so-called shuttle trade. Political emigration to Poland is also currently topical, viz. for displaced persons from the occupied territories in the east of Ukraine as well as from the AR of Crimea. We provide more detailed information on all the categories of Ukrainians in Poland.

Intensification of cross-border mobility of Ukrainians towards the EU is promoted by the local border traffic agreements concluded with Poland in 2008. Under them the citizens residing in the frontier area may travel to the neighbouring countries without a visa, going to their territory to the distance from 30 km (Poland) up to 50 km (other neighbouring states). For instance, according to the data of surveys of international passengers, the residents of the 30-kilometre frontier area make up almost 65% of all Polish border crossings.\footnote{Border Traffic and Movement of Goods and Services at the European Union’s External Border on the Territory of Poland in 2013 / Central Statistical Office, Statistical Office in Rzeszow. – Warsaw-Rzeszow, 2014. http://rzeszow.stat.gov.pl/en/publications/border-areas/border-traffic-and-movement-of-goods-and-services-at-the-european-unions-external-border-on-the-territory-of-poland-in-2013,2,5.html (10.10.2017)}

**Tourist practices as a type of cross-border mobility**

Lately tourism in Poland has been developing at a fast pace, and this industry has become an important component of the Polish economy. All in all, currently Poland takes the seventh place in the world by the number of foreign tourists coming to the country.\footnote{Ibid.} The reasons for tourism growth in the country are quite clear. Poland is a very diverse country, famous for availability of a large number of cultural and historical monuments, part of which belong to the UNESCO protected heritage. Here one may find some activity and spend time to his or her taste. A great number of Polish tourist companies are now ready to meet tourists and offer various tours to guests: skiing resorts in the Carpathians...
in winter and vacation at the Baltic seaside in summer, excursions to fortresses and castles of Poland and ancient Polish cities and towns, eco-tourism, and many other things. It should be noted that it is much cheaper to have a vacation in Poland than in other countries of the European Union. Several million tourists come to Poland annually from Ukraine. The popularity of Poland in our country is caused by several factors. First, tourist visa to Poland is more accessible in this country. And secondly, it is easy to go to Poland independently, by your own car, saving rather substantial amounts of money on airline tickets.

There should be pointed out the most popular types of tourist practices: excursion and experiential tourism; skiing tourism; recreation and treatment (medical) and religious (pilgrimage) tourism, etc.

All in all, annually Poland is visited by almost two millions of Ukrainian tourists. Over the first three quarters of 2015 the number of Ukrainians going to the country on Vistula increased by 3.6%. And as stated by the Polish radio, currently 40% of all trips made by Ukrainians abroad are to Poland120. The same source tells us that until recently Ukrainians have been the second largest group of tourists visiting Poland, but now they have been outpaced by the British. However, the citizens of Ukraine spend more money in the country on Vistula than Germans, – 460 USD per one trip. In 2016 the Polish Consulate issued 560 thousand visas for short-stay trips, this exceeding 40% of all the Schengen visas issued in Ukraine121. According to the information provided by the Polish tourist organization, recently Ukrainians have been coming to Poland more in summer and have been choosing the following directions: the Baltic seaside, Warmia and Mazury, as well as Podlasie122. According to the data of the Polish statistics agencies, Ukrainians take one of the first places by the amounts of money spent during their stay in Poland. One may often understand who has come from what place by the purchases. Austrians, for example, like to choose souvenirs-amber decorations. Spaniards like buying gift guides in Poland, while Americans like books and maps. Tourists from Ukraine normally take clothes, shoes and cosmetics home from Poland.

Assessing the scope and varieties of tourist practices in Ukraine, one may say that the number of foreign tourists visiting it in 2016, increased by 5.6%, as compared to 2015 – reaching 13.6 mln. persons, as stated in the report of the Ministry of Economic Development and Trade (MEDT) on the basis of the data provided by the State Borderguard Service of Ukraine\textsuperscript{123}. According to this data, foreign tourists visiting Ukraine in 2016 were mainly the citizens of Moldova – they made up 32.9%, or 4.474 mln. persons. At the same time Poles constituted 8.8% (1.195 mln. persons). The document states that 95.3% of tourists visiting Ukraine in 2016 indicated ‘personal goals’ as the motivation behind the trip, 2% – ‘transit’, 1.3% – ‘tourism’, 1.1% – ‘other purposes’, 0.2% – ‘business purposes’. According to the report, in 2015 the number of foreign tourists in Ukraine went down by 1.3% (0.2 mln. persons) as compared to 2014 – up to 12.9 mln. persons.

The structure of foreign tourists is determined by the duration of their stay in the country of destination (the higher income the tourist has and the longer (s)he stays at the destination place, the more money (s)he spends there). Out of all foreign tourists 94% coming to Ukraine and 74% coming to Poland are from the neighbouring countries, with which there are no customs barriers\textsuperscript{124}. Ukraine and Poland have got a common land border with the main countries-suppliers of tourists (Russia for Ukraine and Germany for Poland). As the result, 88% of trips to Ukraine and 77% of trips to Poland are of unorganized nature and are made for private or business reasons. Many visitors come from the frontier territories looking for cheap goods and services. Such trips are short and regular, which makes the income per one arrival considerably smaller. For example, the share of short-stay tourist trips (1–3 nights) to Poland makes 54%.

To sum up the above, it should be noted that Poland carries out an efficient policy in the field of tourism, has got efficient mechanisms of its implementation, based on adequate regulatory legal and institutional provision. Such active policy of Poland is absolutely justified, and according to the data of the World Tourism Organization, it contributes to positive dynamics of tourist practices and income, therefore it could well become a positive sample to follow for the respective Ukrainian authorities. To develop specific recommendations that would be of applied nature, it is worth doing further research in the given direction, study each mechanism of tourist policy implementation separately, and

\textsuperscript{123} The Number of Tourists Coming to Ukraine in 2016 Has Grown by 5.6%. – Access mode: https://ukr.segodnya.ua/ukraine/chislo-turistov-v-ukrainu-v-2016-godu-vyroslo-na-56-1013073.html (10.10.2017)

\textsuperscript{124} Comparative Analysis of the Development of International (Foreign) Tourism in Ukraine and Poland. Access mode: http://infotour.in.ua/korol.htm (10.10.2017)
it would also be expedient to initiate experience exchange programs at the state level for heads of the industry and to use the experience of Poland in Ukraine.

**Medical tourism**

45-50 thousand foreign medical tourists keep coming to Ukraine every year. Foreigners are primarily interested in artificial fertilization, treatment with stem cells, surrogate maternity, ophthalmology and dentistry. There are some branches popular among foreign citizens in Ukraine. For instance, cardiosurgery, treatment of ICP, autism in Prof. Kozia-vkin’s clinic, etc. On average, one foreign medical tourist spends 2-2.5 thousand dollars. Sometimes Europeans have to wait for several months for the necessary surgery in their home country, therefore they try to find treatment in other countries. Ukraine attracts with lower prices, advanced technologies and high-quality servicing. In private medical institutions. The prices of medical services in Ukraine are 30-40% lower than in Europe.

And the market of medical services in Poland has got a considerable capacity and, among other things, is attractive for neighbours from the east, for example, Ukrainians who treat Poland like Polish people treat the USA and who go there to treat their oncological diseases and for the last resort surgeries. Currently, medical services in Poland are sometimes several times cheaper than in the USA and several times cheaper than in Western Europe. According to the estimates of the Institute of Medical Tourism Study and Development, in 2016 Poland was visited by 155 thousand patients from abroad. The overwhelming majority were the British people, Germans and Scandinavians. Also, Polish emigrants, let us say, from the United States have their treatment in their motherland. Polish people have already counted how much foreigners spend on this type of ‘tourism’. According to the declarations, each of them on average leaves 3,700 zlotys. Ukrainians are ready to pay even several thousand zlotys for oncology treatment. And every year Poland can receive over half a million of patients from abroad. Currently, about 100 private institutions and several states ones are ready to host medical tourists.

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Religious tourism

Religious tourism constitutes a component of modern tourism industry. Cathedrals, mosques, cult museums and spiritual centres are the tourist sites that are becoming in ever greater demand. Monuments of religions, history and culture constitute a substantial motivation for visiting this or that region or city. The process of establishment of tourist firms dealing with organization of religious and pilgrimage tours as well as some pilgrimage services, affiliated with monasteries, churches and other religions organizations, can be traced. In general, the researchers outline three forms: pilgrimage, excursion tours in religious topics, and specialized tours uniting pilgrims and excursion participants127.

It is impossible to assess the actual number of religious tourists and excursion participants in Ukraine, since there is no statistics and there are no analytical studies for this type of tourism. The state statistical tourism bulletin takes into account only organized tourists and excursion participants who have bought their tours in the Ukrainian tour agencies; amateur tourists and excursion bureaus are not registered there. In the tables 'distribution by the goal of the trip and types of tourism' there is no column 'religious tourism'; one may only guess where those tourists are registered. In the tables 'outbound tourism' only three goals are recorded – business trip, organized tourism, private trip. In the 'inbound tourism' tables religious trips are included into the column 'others' along with cultural and sports exchange. The line 'religious trip' is available in the questionnaire of the broderguard service, but some problems arise with publication of that data. Only in O. Bordun’s paper128 some data on the inbound religious tourism has been found. He writes that in 2011 64,756 persons came to Ukraine for the sake of visiting religious sacred places. Out of them 41,700 persons (64.4%) were Israeli residents, 8,200 persons – Russians, some 3,000 – Poles, 2,300 – Belarusians, 800 – Slovaks, and 700 – Moldovans. That is from all the inbound flow of 21 mln. persons only 0.3% were there for religious tourism.

The largest pilgrimage flow to Ukraine is shaped by Jews, the second largest pilgrimage flow comes from Russia to orthodox sacred places of Ukraine. The third largest flow of pilgrims is from Poland to Catholic and Greek Catholic sanctuaries. The sites of pilgrimage for Poles are mainly the temples in Lviv, Zhovkva, Belz, Bila Tserkva, Berdychiv, Polonnyy and other cities, mainly in Western Ukraine. Ethnic Ukrainians who emigrated to Poland during the Communist repressions frequently visit the religious complex

in Zarvanytsia, Krekhiv Baslyian monastery, Univ monastery and other scared places of Western Ukraine. Pilgrimage flows from the neighbouring countries: Belarus, Slovakia, Romania, Moldova in their overwhelming majority consist of ethnic Ukrainians, who, due to their frontier location, became the residents of other countries and are now pilgrims of different confessions of Ukraine.

Content analysis of the sites of tourist firms\(^\text{129}\) shows that the absolute majority of tourist operators and tourist agents offer individual, family and group trips to almost all the countries of the world, without caring for shaping pilgrimage groups. Mainly, religious organizations and pilgrimage departments, centres, bureaus, tourist firms deal with promotion and organization of religious tourism in Ukraine.

### Educational and academic mobility

In the modern world education and knowledge are becoming a cross-border and transnational phenomenon. Development of common global educational space takes place via approximation of the approaches of different countries to the organization of education, as well as via recognition of educational documents of other countries. The European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the European Research Area (ERA) shape a modern European society of knowledge. Common European educational space, on the one hand, promotes increased mobility of students and the faculty, and on the other hand – academic mobility constitutes the necessary pre-condition for the development of the very common educational area. External and internal academic mobility can be distinguished in the country. By the way of organization there can be distinguished organized (within the economic, political or interuniversity academic partnership) and individual one (on the student’s own initiative). Depending on the goal, there can be differentiated horizontal (for a certain period during the studies) and vertical mobility (for the sake of getting the next academic or scientific degree)\(^\text{130}\). Academic mobility increases the chances of individuals to professional self-fulfilment as well as improves the quality of labour resources in the national economy. It becomes a reaction of the national educational systems to the challenges of the global educational space, tough competition in the market of educational services.


Educational mobility in the European Union is ensured via a number of special programs with multi-million budgets. Over 20 years the Erasmus program has been used by over 1.7 million of the EU citizens. For academic exchanges between the EU states and other countries within this project there exists the Erasmus-Mundus program. However, in spite of professional support by the EU, it has been used only by occasional higher educational institutions of Ukraine which have real partnership contacts with higher educational institutions of the EU countries. In the leading countries of the world the international component of the national educational policy over the last 20 years has come into the focus of attention of specialists in the field of migration policy, employment, trade, who joined in the process of regulating, organizing and funding academic mobility together with regional non-government agencies and international organizations (UNESCP, OECD, EBRD, the World Bank, etc.).

Improved internal mobility of staff is promoted by exchange of faculty between different higher educational institutions, taking place mainly as the result of combined positions by the lecturers of different higher educational institutions. The cancelling of rectors’ right to prohibit combining jobs contributes to the process. However, this process is of spontaneous, unregulated nature and is mainly caused by low salaries of Ukrainian lecturers. International academic mobility is developing very slowly in Ukraine. Trips abroad are made by Ukrainian students out of the money provided by their parents, donors, foreign charity foundations, etc. Studies and probation abroad at the expense of higher educational institutions or state makes up less than 10 % of the officially announced number of ‘mobile Ukrainian students’. Most academic student exchanges are arranged via conclusion of bilateral agreements between the universities of Ukraine and Europe.

The situation with international academic mobility of staff is even worse: probation of lecturers of Ukrainian higher educational institutions in the leading European universities is not coordinated and funded by the Ukrainian higher educational institutions or state. No common specialist training programs are developed with the leading European universities, and common scientific programs are of occasional nature. Bilateral agreements between universities on staff exchange are concluded on a rare basis and are normally one-sided since foreign universities are capable of funding the stay of their specialists abroad, while home ones are trying to do it ‘at the expense of the hosting party’. Funding of academic mobility should be made, as suggested by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, out of the funds of higher educational institutions,
higher education support and development funds, grants, money of the hosting party or personal money of the academic mobility participants. In the conditions when state funds just salary for lecturers, scholarship for students and part of the money for municipal bills, Ukrainian higher educational institutions are not capable of organizing academic mobility on a proper level.\textsuperscript{131}

Over the last two years the rise in the number of Ukrainians going abroad to study has gained pace. According to the data of annual monitoring of the number of Ukrainian citizens studying in foreign university as full-time students, performed by the analytical centre CEDOS (embraces 34 countries of the world)\textsuperscript{132}, the number of Ukrainians studying in foreign universities as of 2014/2015 academic year made up 59,648 persons. The most desirable countries to study in still remain to be Poland, Germany, Russia, Canada, Italy, Czech, the USA, Spain, Austria, France, and Hungary. The growth dynamics from 2009 to 2015 makes up 129%. If this figure is compared with the last two years, the growth is almost 29%, or 13,266 persons. And two thirds of the growth are made up by Ukrainians studying in Polish universities. They have shown rapid increase both in an absolute and in relative figures, – from 14,951 to 22,833 persons. In particular, in the 2015/2016 academic year already 30,041 Ukrainian citizens studied in Polish universities. Thus, in case in other countries the trend remains the same as in the recent years, one may assume that in the 2015/2016 academic year at least 68,000 Ukrainian citizens studied abroad.

Thus, over three years the number of Ukrainian students in Poland has grown, this being caused by the openness of the Polish educational market for Ukrainian students, similarity of cultures as well as by the fact that paid tuition in Poland and Kyiv costs approximately the same.\textsuperscript{133} According to the data of the Central Statistics Office of Poland, at the end of September 2015 30,600 students from Ukraine were registered in Polish universities. To compare, this is by 30.8% more than in 2014, and twice as much as in 2013.\textsuperscript{134} Half of those students (out of 30,600) as of 2015, besides studying, were active in the labour market. A 33.6% expressed their readiness to work. Answering the question about plans for the future, students claimed that they would like to work in Poland (36.6%) or to maintain

\textsuperscript{131} Academic Mobility as a Factor of Ukraine's Integration into the World Scientific and Educational Area. Analytical note. – Access mode://www.niss.gov.ua/articles/1421/ (10.10.2017)

\textsuperscript{132} The Dynamics in the Number of Ukrainian Students in Universities Abroad. – Access mode: https://cedos.org.ua/uk/osvita/ukrainski-studenty-za-kordonom-skilky-ta-chomu (10.10.2017)

\textsuperscript{133} Petrychenko P. The Number of Students from Ukraine in Poland Is on the Rise // Osvita.ua. – Access mode: http://osvita.ua/abroad/higher_school/poland/33060/ (10.10.2017)

\textsuperscript{134} Chmielewska I., Dobroczeck G., Puzyniewicz J. A New Wave of Ukrainian Migration to Poland / 19. 01. 2017. – Access mode: http://www.financialobserver.eu/ce/ (10.10.2017)
at least partial inclusion into the Polish labour market (32.5%). Other students intend to go to look for jobs to a different country (22.0%), and only a small percentage would like to go back to Ukraine (2.4%)\textsuperscript{135}.

It should be added that the majority of Ukrainian students study in Polish; they mostly prefer private institutions; most of them study in Warsaw, Krakow, and Lublin. If the regions of origin of the Ukrainian students are to be mentioned, the majority of prospective students used to be from Western Ukraine, but the situation is changing, since many students are coming from Central and Eastern Ukraine. In particular, youth from Crimea, Dnipropetrovsk, and Odesa has become more active lately\textsuperscript{136}.

The growing number of Ukrainian students in Polish universities can be accounted for by various reasons. That is the possibility to enter them right after graduation from a Ukrainian secondary school, which is almost impossible for the European system of education; and low price of European-quality education; these are attractive probation options; intense courses of the Polish language at the educational institution and getting the residence permit.

In the opinion of O. Mikheyeva, Ukrainians leave for Poland en masses due to a stereotype that a specialist with a foreign diploma is valued more\textsuperscript{137}. In her words, most residents of our country do believe that European diploma constitutes a guarantee of happy and successful future. And a person possessing it has some special knowledge. But the researcher states that these are just stereotypes not confirmed by facts. Active educational mobility to Poland is also accounted for by the fact that Ukraine cannot provide the graduates of higher educational institutions with the required number of jobs. Besides that, students and scientists may freely stay in the country where they studied for 9 months more. And over that period it is realistic to find a job or even to launch a business.


Shuttle mobility and trade

Intensive cross-border mobility at the Ukrainian-Polish border rises due to the residents of frontier territories, who mainly make their trips for goods sales/purchase purposes. That is the shuttle migration practice, or shuttle trade. This is primarily caused by the fact that the residents of seven frontier regions of Ukraine bordering on Poland may get the so called shopping visas through a simplified procedure. And though these are not full-fledged Schengen visas, they are mainly issued for goods purchasing purposes trips.

Visa privileges are also granted to the citizens of Ukraine, who are ethnically or culturally related to Poland. According to the Polish legislation, such citizens are entitled to obtaining the so called ‘Pole’s card’, that is the residence permit, on the basis of provided evidence of their Polish origin. This multi-functional document enables to study, work and do business in Poland. At the end of 2012 46.1 thousand Ukrainians had the ‘Pole’s card’.138

‘Local border traffic’ agreement, mentioned earlier, enables the residents of one and a half thousand inhabited settlements located within the 30-kilometre frontier area to enter Poland with no visa. These citizens may go there up to the distance of 30 km and stay in the territory of Poland up to 60 days from the date they cross the border. In this context O. Malynovska provides the following data. The document entitling to visa-free travel to Poland within the ‘local border traffic’ has been granted to over 75 thousand residents of Lviv, Volyn and Zakarpattia regions. While in 2009 the number of crossings of the Polish-Ukrainian border within the ‘local border traffic’ hardly exceeded 5% of all the crossings, in 2013 it grew to 51.7%. On average, a year one person residing within the 30-kilometre frontier area makes almost 70 border crossings.139 It should be noted that the above statistics cannot be accurate since it records only the number of border crossings, but not the real number of people involved in such ‘shuttle’ migration.

Over the first half of 2012, for example, Ukrainians, Belarusians, and Russians, according to the estimates of the State Statistics Committee of Poland, left several billion dollars in Polish shops. The figure was the same for the whole 2011. On average, per quarter, Ukrainians buy goods for 250 mln. dollars, as the committee has informed. The demand

139 Malynovska O. Ukrainian-Polish Migration Corridor: Peculiarities and Importance // Demographics and Social Economy, 2015. – No. 2 (24). – Pp. 34
for consumer electronics, construction materials and spare parts for cars is the highest\footnote{Korchun V. Foreign Trade Relations of Poland and Ukraine // Ukraine and Poland: the Past, the Present Days, Prospects. – 2013. – V. 2. – Pp. 57-62. – Access mode: http://nbuv.gov.ua/j-pdf/UPmcp_2013_2_16.pdf (10.10.2017)}. In 2013 Ukrainians spent in Poland 4.4 billion zlotys\footnote{Border Traffic and Movement of Goods and Services at the European Union's External Border on the Territory of Poland in 2013. – Central Statistical Office, Statistical Office in Rzeszow. – Warsaw-Rzeszow, 2014. – Access mode: http://rzeszow.stat.gov.pl/en/publications/borderareas/border-traffic-and-movement-of-goods-and-services-at-the-european-unions-external-border-on-the-territory-of-poland-in-2013,2,5.html (10.10.2017)}. According to other data for 2014, the scope of foreign trade in goods of Ukraine with Poland made up 5,712 mln. USD and went down, as compared to the same period in 2013, by 13.6\%\footnote{Ilchuk І. Ukrainian-Polish Interstate Cooperation in the European-Atlantic Context (1991-2014.) [Text]: thesis for obtaining the Ph. D degree (history): spec. 07.00.02 'World History' / І. Ilchuk. – Ternopil, 2015. – 185 pp.}. Assessment of such ‘shuttle’ trade is ambiguous. On the one hand, it is of great social importance, since in spite of the population employment rate in frontier inhabited settlements being very low, in the opinion of experts, the welfare of their residents is noticeably higher than in general in the region, primarily thanks to the border\footnote{Malynovska О. Ukrainian-Polish Migration Corridor: Peculiarities and Importance // Demographics and Social Economy, 2015. – No. 2 (24). – Pp. 35}. Also, private frontier trade constitutes an important factor in the development of Polish frontier areas. According to researchers’ estimates, private purchases in the frontier area, with some fluctuations, annually made up 12–16\% of foreign trade turnover between Ukraine and Poland\footnote{Ukraine’s Cross-Border Cooperation Development within the Enlarged EU. – Access mode: http://niss.lviv.ua/analytics/ 69.htm (10.10.2017)}. However, on the other hand, experts stress that ‘shuttle’ business should be considered as an evidence of immaturity of the model of economic cooperation between Ukraine and Poland, as well as a logical result of social problems urging population towards ‘commercial-currency’ tourism.

### Unregulated mobility

Ukraine is the country of origin, transit and destination of unregulated movements at the same time. Violations of the rules of staying in the countries by Ukrainians are normally related to having a job with no official labour relations and respective permits, exceeding of the periods of stay. These phenomena were particularly mass ones in the period of labour migration development in the late 1990s. But with time a considerable part of Ukrainians managed to regulate their legal status. The share of migrants with no proper status, according to the data of mass examinations of the State Statistics Service of
Ukraine, went down from 25.6% in 2008 to 20.4% in 2012. However, the study conducted by GFK-Ukraine company to the order of the International Migration Organization in 2015 showed that in the conditions of economic crisis unregulated migration went up again: 41% of the migrants embraced by the survey worked with no official labour relations.

According to the data of the European Border and Coast Guard Agency Frontex, the number of Ukrainian citizens detained at the EU borders increased from 12,472 in 2013 to 16,744 in 2014, and to 17,096 in 2015. Also, the number of Ukrainians deported from the EU territory increased: from 7,763 in 2013 to 9,582 in 2014, and to 15,010 in 2015. Along with that, Ukrainians made up less than one per cent of foreigners detained at the EU borders and 8.6% of those deported from its territory.

Unregulated movements are in any way related to the issues of displaced persons, refugees from Ukraine. Annexation of the Crimea and military actions in the east of Ukraine made Ukrainians residing in those territories look for asylum in other parts of the country and abroad. As far as Poland is concerned, according to the data of the Office for Foreigners, our compatriots have become second after Russians, who most frequently apply for the refugee status in this country. In spite of a relatively large number of applications for refugee status, it should be noted that there are just a few positive decisions in those cases. The Polish authorities normally substantiate their refusals by the fact that, to their belief, the situation is dangerous only in the Crimea, in Donetsk and Luhansk regions, while the situation in the rest of the Ukrainian territory is peaceful, calm and safe. Nevertheless, in 2015 the refugee status was granted to two persons, and in 2016 – to 16 more Ukrainians.

Refugees shape a new wave of Ukrainian economic migration to Poland, which has always been circulating. That means that before 2014 the scale of migration to Poland for the years to come had been developed by that very group of people who regularly ensured cross-border mobility between the two countries. But, as studies show, in the Polish labour market the number of Ukrainians increases with the appearance of the new group

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– migrants who had never been to Poland before 2014 that is before the beginning of the armed conflict and annexation of the Crimea. According to the results of the study, this group constitutes up to 41.3% of migrants from Ukraine\textsuperscript{148}.

The so called ‘new migrants’ differ from other groups, not just taking into account the previous experience of economic migration, but by the basic demographic characteristics. One of the differences is considerable increase in the number of men – 32.9% in the group of experienced migrants who had come to Poland before 2014, as compared to 57.9% among the newcomers. New migrants are also considerably younger. The average age of this group is 33 years, while in the group of experienced migrants it used to be 43.

The latest data gives grounds to state that though economic aspects still constitute the major reasons for Ukrainians going to Poland, but political and social situation in the recent years is becoming more and more significant.

**Conclusions**

It should be noted that, as exemplified by the study of the specificity of Ukrainian cross-border mobility to Poland, there takes place not just merger of different social and cultural spaces (Ukrainian and Polish) within one geographic (Polish) area, but also expansion of the Ukrainian social and cultural space onto the territory with a different geography (Ukraine and Poland). Besides that, Ukrainians in Poland, being a part of the Ukrainian social and cultural space, simultaneously are included into the Polish one. This takes place, in particular, via inclusion in Polish social communities of various types (professional, academic, cultural, family, neighbourhood, etc.) and development of social media involving a wide range of the representatives of the hosting society in Poland. It should also be added that the circulating nature of the cross-border mobility under study and geographical proximity of the two countries enables us to talk about its transnational nature, the main actors of which often live in-between the states, that is between the geographical spaces, however, in one and the same social and cultural space linking the two countries, this partially making the state border between them vague.

Modern processes of cross-border mobility between Ukraine and Poland are becoming more and more intensive and constitute an important component of the foreign policy of both states, which fact is reflected both in the legislation of each country, and in bilateral agreements and international treaties.

As far as categories of Ukrainians in Poland are concerned, currently the neighbouring country is visited both by students, scientists, and tourists. There is a share of people leaving for Poland for a permanent place of residence. But the most intensive are economically stipulated border crossings. These are, in particular, either employment in the neighbouring state, or sales/purchase of goods, that is the so called 'shuttle' trade. Political emigration to Poland is also topical these days, viz. for displaced persons from the occupied territories in the east of Ukraine as well as from the AR of Crimea. Contemporary Ukrainian migrants in Poland can justly be considered trans-migrants since the majority of them develop and maintain multiple economic, social, organizational, religious and political relations transcending the borders.

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Ukraine’s Cross-Border Cooperation Development within the Enlarged EU. – Access mode: http://niss.lviv.ua/analytics/ 69.htm (10.10.2017)


Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation and its effect on the level of population employment.

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Sergiy Legenchuk, PhD
Development of cross-border cooperation has come to be one of the characteristic features of integration and sub-integration processes in Europe at the turn of the 20th – 21st centuries. Ukraine is no exception here, since it now pays more and more attention to this state policy direction.

Cross-border cooperation is a specific field of international and interstate relations, practiced and developed on the basis of clear criteria and principles and constituting an integral component of modern international relations. Establishment of cross-border cooperation system following the European standards in Ukraine is a topical issue of the theory and practice of Ukraine's European integration, since it is the development of this type of cooperation that should become a specific presentation of the European intentions of our state. It is cross-border cooperation as a tool of raising the competitive ability of frontier territories and a factor of integration processes acceleration that is reflected in the EU-Ukraine Association Agreement (signed on June 27, 2014 in Brussels), where Section 27 ‘Cross-Border and Regional Cooperation’ is dedicated to the issues of cross-border interaction regulation as well as in the State Strategy of Regional Development up to 2020. It should also be stressed that, according to the methodology of the Association of European Border Regions (AEBR), there are three types of cooperation, differing by certain characteristics (table 1).

Table 1. Types of cooperation at the borders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cross-border cooperation</th>
<th>Interregional cooperation</th>
<th>Transnational (interstate) cooperation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• direct cooperation of the neighbouring frontier regions, between regional and local authorities along the border in all the sectors of life, which includes all the stakeholders;</td>
<td>• cooperation between regional and local authorities mainly in specific sectors (not in all the sectors of life) and involving only some entities;</td>
<td>• cooperation between countries (sometimes allowing the regions to participate) in relation to a special subject matter, for example, regional development, related to large, interrelated cross-border projects;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• more organized owing to a long-lasting cooperation tradition (regional-local);</td>
<td>• insufficiently organized due to a short-term cooperation tradition;</td>
<td>• organizational structure is not developed;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• inter-branch cooperation within the Association of European Border Regions (AEBR)</td>
<td>• inter-branch cooperation within the Association of European Border Regions (AEBR)</td>
<td>• inter-branch nature is rarely organized, but there are some achievements within international organizations framework (for instance, the Council of Europe)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As home experience proves, certain ignorance of the above typology and absence of such a clear understanding of the difference between types of cooperation at the borders among Ukrainian scientists, politicians and civil servants often leads to replacement of the notion of cross-border cooperation which is generally accepted in Europe. In Ukraine it somewhat artificially also includes both interregional cooperation and cooperation of states at the frontier territories. For example, cross-border cooperation often includes interstate cooperation relating to the development of frontier and transport infrastructure, interstate nature conservation measures, etc. In that way the subject matter of cross-border cooperation from the standpoint of local authorities and self-governed territorial communities is ignored, and the establishment of efficient mechanisms of its organization and governance becomes more complicated.

Frontier regions of Ukraine have perennial traditions of development of cooperation with adjacent administrative and territorial units of the neighbouring states. Their study and generalization enables to trace the main trends in mutual relations and mutual influences of different-level and different-importance integration processes – global, sub-regional, and interregional relations, as well as to clarify the efficiency of state governance systems in the implementation of economic interests of its specific territories. Thus, generalization of Ukraine’s achievements in the development of cross-border cooperation with the countries of the European Union enables to state the following:

- the legislative framework of cross-border cooperation has mainly been developed, though there permanently arises the need to pass new regulatory acts, to make changes in the laws relating in some way to cross-border cooperation and to ratify regulatory acts of the Council of Europe;

- state regional policy of Ukraine in the field of cross-border cooperation is being developed and implemented, in particular, through adoption of the State Program which determines development priorities and embraces cross-border projects to be implemented by the frontier regions;

- European Neighbourhood and Partnership Programs are under implementation;

- systemic staff training in the field of cross-border cooperation has been launched;
cooperation with the neighbouring territories has been established, seven Euroregions have been established, which still do not fully embrace the perimeter of the state border of Ukraine, which means that there is no unified organizational and financial platform for regional cross-border cooperation policy.

Along with certain achievements, some problems of cross-border cooperation should be pointed out, viz.:

1. Insufficient activity of local authorities in using the opportunities provided by cross-border cooperation.

2. Unsatisfactory state of cross-border cooperation infrastructure in the frontier regions of our state.

3. Insufficient level of involvement of non-state sector institutions in the process.

4. Imperfect regulatory framework relating to development of projects to be implemented out of the state budget.

5. Lack of readiness of local authorities to the conditions of cross-border cooperation. This is proven by the fact that in most cases Ukraine lacks such structures in regional, rayon, town, urban village or village authorities.

Since there are current divergence in the legislation of the two countries relating to the mandate of local authorities in the field of cross-border cooperation implementation, figure 1 represents the scheme of cooperation of executive authorities and local self-government bodies on the Ukrainian side with regional authorities of Poland.
Figure 1. The scheme of cooperation of executive authorities and local self-government bodies on the Ukrainian side with regional authorities of Poland within cross-border cooperation

[Diagram showing the cooperation structure]

Direct connection of governance structures of the two countries within cross-border cooperation framework

Possible connection of governance structures of the two countries within cross-border cooperation framework

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Further improvement of the activities of local self-government bodies in cross-border cooperation can take place due to implementation of the following measures:

a) increased mandate of local authorities and local self-government bodies;

b) respective amendments in the draft law on amending the Law of Ukraine *On Local State Administration* (relating to the issues of organization, mandate and agenda of local state administrations);

c) increased economic direction of cooperation within the European frontier cooperation, in particular, in the field of foreign trade, stimulation of cross-border cooperation development of frontier regions and their participation in Euroregional associations, in particular, towards enhanced production and technical cooperation;

d) intensified information support of cross-border programs for the sake of raising the efficiency of cross-border projects implementation via placement of the list and the terms of respective EU technical aid programs as well as own regional cross-border cooperation development strategies on the official web-sites of regional, rayon state administrations, town councils, and dissemination of information on the projects within the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument for partner search purposes via a network of diplomatic and consular institutions of Ukraine in the neighbouring countries;

e) improved quality of education and degree of provision of local self-government bodies with specialists in the field of cross-border cooperation, with a command of foreign languages, involvement of the money of international technical aid;

f) development and introduction of an efficient and transparent system of project management, monitoring and assessment of implemented projects via involvement into cooperation with the authorities of the leading scientific institutions and public organizations shaping public opinion, contributing to the dissemination of European integration ideas among residents and playing an important role in cross-border cooperation development;

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g) the system of actions aimed to combat crime in frontier areas and illegal migration of people via joint territory patrolling as well as the system of actions aimed to ensure efficient information exchange between law-enforcement officers;

h) activation of cross-border cooperation at the regional level via raising the number of communicative events (conferences, round-table discussions, seminars, public debates, discussions, etc.) involving representatives of the authorities, business, and the public, in particular academic circles.

A special place among the partners of our state in cross-border cooperation with the European Union countries goes to Poland which is one of the largest strategic partners of Ukraine in the European continent and the length of border on which is the largest, it constituting 529 kilometres. The legal framework for the Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation was laid down in 1991, when, after Ukraine gained independence on December 18, 1991, in Tomaszów Lubelski Agreement of Cooperation between Frontier Voivodeships of Poland and Regions of Ukraine was signed for the purposes of creating conditions fostering development of multi-layer cooperation between those frontier regions. The Agreement was signed by four voivodes on the Polish side: Holm, Zamość, Przemyśl, and Krosno, with two heads of Ukrainian regional councils of peoples’ deputies, Volyn and Lviv ones. Later the Joint Commission for the Polish-Ukrainian Cross-Border Cooperation was established, and its task was to analyse legal documents regulating the activity of economic entities, improve telecommunication and movement across the border.

Close cross-border cooperation contacts between Ukraine and Poland were established in the conditions of transformation of post-socialist space, when there appeared the possibility to make an open statement of the European intentions of both countries. Today experts indicate that institutionalized Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation is mainly available within the Euroregions framework. Activity of the latter focuses primarily on regional development, development of trade, tourism, education, sports, healthcare and cultural exchange, environmental protection, prevention of natural disasters.

152 Pogranicze polsko-ukraińskie: środowisko, społeczeństwo, gospodarka, Bogdan Kawalko i Andrzej Miszczuk (red.), Centrum Badawczo-Szkoleniowe Wyższej Szkoły Zarządzania i Administracji Lublin, Zamość 2005, 342 s.
Contemporary state of cooperation between Ukraine and Poland can be characterized as satisfactory, and this enables to point out a number of positive elements of such cooperation:

- introduction of new technologies promotes investment attractiveness of the territory both for internal and for external investors;
- improvement and best use of tourist capacity of the region;
- improved quality and accessibility of social and economic infrastructure, in particular, in the field of transport, energy, logistic systems, safety of transport and water supply;
- environmental protection and improvements in environmental protection;
- improvement of the efficiency of functioning of border infrastructure and procedures as well as improved safety at the borders;
- social, scientific, educational and cultural integration of the frontier territories.

However, in order to develop Ukrainian-Polish cross-border cooperation, it is necessary to determine priority directions of activation of the Ukrainian-Polish cooperation aiming to promote dissemination of the European experience of doing business in Ukraine; improve institutional provision and infrastructure of interregional cooperation; change the organizational mandate of local authorities in the field of international and cross-border cooperation.

Now more and more frequently mentioned is the fact that cross-border cooperation between Ukraine and the Republic of Poland constitutes one of the most promising directions of cooperation between the states since it enables to locally develop good relations between the neighbouring countries, jointly settle the problems arising and work for the benefit of whole states. The Republic of Poland is our neighbour, and it is always beneficial to have a wealthy and well-developed country as a neighbour both for economic and for political reasons, therefore for Ukraine it is important to cooperate, to develop this cooperation at all levels. Cooperation contributes to the development of Ukrainian economy and culture, is an important factor improving the reputation of our state on the international arena, enables to create new jobs and improve the living standards of citizens. This is confirmed by the launching and development of Cross-border Cooperation
Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 within the European Neighbourhood Instrument functioning within three priorities (table 2):

- promotion of economic and social development of the regions on both sides of the common border;
- settlement of shared problems relating to the environment, health of residents and protection and crime combating;
- fostering creation of better conditions and tools for ensuring mobility of people, goods, and capital.

Table 2. Priorities of the State Cross-border Cooperation Programme for 2016-2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion of economic and social development of frontier regions of Ukraine</th>
<th>Preservation of historical and cultural heritage</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourist capacity development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Restoration and development of the infrastructure of the historical and ethnographic area ‘SubCarpathia’</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Improving life standards and quality, well-being and ensuring safety of life and environmental protection</th>
<th>Establishment of the system of protection against natural disasters</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction of innovative methods of treatment and reduction of TB rate in frontier regions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improved quality of water of the water intake basin of frontier rivers and introduction of the system of separate collection of solid domestic waste</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion of creation of better conditions and tools for ensuring mobility of people, goods, and capital</th>
<th>Development of the infrastructure of automobile border-crossing point in six regions</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development of IT-infrastructure of the Ukrainian customs and border-guard service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction of motor vehicles weight-checking and construction of transport keeping facilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

153 Negoda V. 2016-2020 Program of cross-border cooperation opens up new opportunities for the regions, the official website of the Ministry Of Regional Development, Construction and Housing and Communal Services of Ukraine www.decentralization.gov.ua/news/item/id/2583.
However, along with numerous positive elements of cooperation between the two states, with a great future, there are still a lot of problems and difficulties arising in the process of cooperation:

- divergence between the goal of cooperation of the two countries, since for Ukraine the primary goal is to develop good neighbourhood relations, while for Poland it is to look for new sales markets;
- lack of coordination between the regulatory legal framework of the two countries;
- discrepancy between the administrative systems of the countries, making cooperation a more complicated thing to ensure;
- high customs tariffs preventing bilateral contacts;
- deficit of payment balance between Ukraine and Poland, therefore it is necessary to create an efficient system of institutional and information provision for Ukrainian-Polish trade;
- introduction of visa regime for Ukrainian citizens, this leading to reduced movement of citizens and affecting the residents of frontier areas (many families in frontier areas have got relatives on the other side of the border);
- poor development of production cooperation between the companies of the neighbouring countries, absence of competition, existence of shadow economy.

One of the problems is the situation with the number of international checkpoints. There are 12 international checkpoints at the joint Ukrainian-Polish border, including six – for cars\(^{154}\). The average distance between car connection border-crossing points is 70–90 km, which does not meet the EU standards (table 3).

\(^{154}\) The list of checkpoints (control points) across the State border: at the border with the Republic of Poland “State Border Guard Service of Ukraine”, 5 (2012), www.dpsu.gov.ua/ua/static_page/46.htm (16.07.2017)
Table 3. The distance between the car border-crossing points at the Ukrainian-Polish border

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Border</th>
<th>Border length, km</th>
<th>Distance between border passages, km</th>
<th>Number of border passages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polish-Ukrainian</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>44.08</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish-Russian</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>38.67</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish-Belarusian</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish-Lithuanian</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>34.33</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish-German</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>12.87</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above problems require solutions, since the risks and threats of their non-settlement may lead to the reduction of the amount of technical aid provided by the European Union due to non-diligent treatment of cooperation, worsening of the image of Ukraine and growing distrust in the Ukrainian institutions as partners for cooperation. Therefore, to activate cross-border cooperation in Ukraine, besides adoption and implementation of the State Program for 2016-2020, it is necessary for the parliament to adopt the Law On Amending Some Legislative Acts of Ukraine Relating to Euroregional Cooperation Associations (No. 4775 of June 03, 2016), which amends the key laws (On Cross-Border Cooperation, On Local Self-Government in Ukraine and On Ratification of Protocol No. 3).

Along with that, the following measures would contribute to accelerated settlement of available problems:

- development of the regulatory legal framework in the field of transport, trade, taxes, and local self-government of frontier territories, that would embrace the national and the international systems;

- development of common preferential tariffs that would be beneficial for both countries and would promote their cooperation;

- since the current border does not meet the European standards, this leading to long queues and dissatisfied citizens, new checkpoints should be built and available ones should be reconstructed, and their capacity should be increased;

155 Yankiv M., Poland and Ukraine: Strategic Partnership Within the System of Geopolitical Coordinates (Political-Economical And Sectoral Analysis), monograph, World, Lviv 2011, p. 223.

• to simplify the border crossing procedure, it is also necessary to introduce the
general control mechanism that would enable to reduce the time of examining
one unit vehicle;
• to ensure local flows within the local border traffic, it would be expedient
to launch a local-level checkpoint;
• improvements in visa-free regime for Ukrainian citizens;
• provision of local authorities, in particular, frontier ones, with a greater mandate
in the field of cross-border cooperation;
• raising of the level of development of institutional infrastructure for cross-border
cooperation as well as training of staff for the cross-border cooperation system.

Currently, frontier regions of Ukraine are considerably lagging behind the other regions
of the country in their development rate\textsuperscript{157}. In particular, by the figures of gross regional
output per capita – by 35-36%, average monthly salary – by 19%, average pension rate
– by 10%, investment per capita – by 35%. At the same time, there remains and keeps
growing the asymmetry in the development levels between the adjacent frontier territo-
ries of Ukraine and the neighbouring countries. And such irregular development is meas-
ured in times: depending on the cross-border region, by the gross regional output per
capita – 3-5 times, average monthly salary – 2-3 times, average pension rate – 2-3 times,
number of companies per 10,000 people – 3-4 times, investment per capita – 4-5 times.
Currently, in the conditions of economic downturn and rapid depreciation of the national
currency, frontier regions of Ukraine by the main social and economic development in-
dicators are equal to, and by some indicators are lagging behind even frontier regions of
Moldova. Development and intensification of such trends testifies to unsatisfactory state
of cross-border cooperation, the capacity of which is currently used not in an efficient
way by Ukraine, unlike the neighbouring countries.

On average, the salary of one Pole in frontier voivodeships of Poland in 2013 made up
802,73 Euros, while the average for the country was 908,07 Euros, which is 13% higher. The
average salary of one Ukrainian in frontier regions of the Ukrainian-Polish cross-border
region made up 171 Euros, while the average figure for Ukraine was 191,3 Euros.

The correlation of unemployment rate within the Ukrainian-Polish cross-border region
proves almost a two-time higher value of this figure in frontier regions of Poland. Partially

\textsuperscript{157} Prytula M., Tsybul'ska Y., Tsinska O., Kalat Y. Development of Transborder Cooperation: Scientific-analytical
Report, Kravtsiv V. (edit.), 2016, p. 125
such situation can be accounted for by the fact that in Ukraine a major part of residents are not registered in employment centres, while a high percentage of people work informally.

On the whole, as sociological studies show, cooperation with the Republic of Poland is extremely beneficial for Ukraine and for the citizens residing in the frontier territories. Poland is valuable for Ukraine as a trade and economic partner, and also as a country representing the interests of our state in the European structures and being our ‘attorney’ on the way to the European Union and NATO. At the same time, for a separate citizen, primarily a resident of frontier regions, the possibility of getting additional income is the first-place priority.

The role of cross-border cooperation in this case largely depends on its influence on the employment of residents through creation of better conditions for their mobility and improved living standards. It should be noted that the problem of employment in home economy, the same as in the economy of any European state, is extremely topical and the one that will never be settled to the full. Each government strives to ensure full employment, since it is in the opinion of classical representatives of economic theory, will be combined with high social and personal consumption. Judging by this, the value of the social field and individual labour force development is a priority in economic development, while provision of all individuals with reasonable access to equal opportunities for their development acquires a great importance in the course of economic development stabilization.  

Ukraine is no exception here, since the problems related to population employment have been the primary reason for the adoption of the Law of Ukraine On Population Employment, under which population employment is defined as the ‘activity of citizens which is related to meeting their personal and societal needs’ and which ‘brings them income in cash or in any other form’. A lot of time has elapsed since the date the Law was adopted in 1991, and the country’s economy has undergone substantial changes on the way to integration into the European Community. In the scientific terminology used by economists and scientists different terms started being used to characterize the role of individual in the economic life of society (table 4), but the problem of employment in home economy is a priority one. This is also confirmed by the data of the State Statistics.

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Service (table 5), according to which the number of economically active residents aged 15-70 on average in the 1st quarter of 2017 was 17.7 mln. people (in the 1st quarter of 2016 – 17.8 mln. people). The level of economic activity among individuals aged 15-70 made up 61.4% (in the 1st quarter of 2016 – 61.7%).

**Table 4. Evolution of the views of the role and place of individuals in economic life and its reflection in the changes of notions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Period of active use in home science</th>
<th>Ideas of the role and place of individuals in the economic life</th>
<th>Reasons for appearance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force</td>
<td>19th c. – till present</td>
<td>Individual as a bearer of capacities and features that may be efficiently used in the working process</td>
<td>The need to determine and take into account personal production factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour resources</td>
<td>1920s of the XXth c. – till present</td>
<td>Individual as a passive subject of external management, a planned and registered unit of all the working-age population</td>
<td>The need to measure labour force reproduction indicators in the conditions of centralized management and mandatory nature of labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>economically active residents</td>
<td>Early 1990s of the XXth c. – till present</td>
<td>Individual as a subject characterized by his/her needs and interests in the labour market</td>
<td>Social and economic conditions, labour market development, cancelling of general mandatory employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human capital</td>
<td>Early 1990s of the XXth c. – till present</td>
<td>Individual as the object of most efficient investment and the subject transforming them into productive capacities for the sake of their further use in production</td>
<td>Sci-tech progress, the need to recognize integral value of individuals and productive nature of investment into human economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour capacity</td>
<td>1970s-1980s of the XXth c. – till present</td>
<td>Individual as the main driving force of societal production, characterized not just by quantitative, but by qualitative characteristics of working-age population as well</td>
<td>Social and economic conditions, the need to activate and efficiently use the possibilities of economically active population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal capacity</td>
<td>Early. 1990s of the XXth c. – till present</td>
<td>Individual is the main driving force of sci-tech progress, ideological, moral, social and cultural field of societal life</td>
<td>The need to more efficiently use dynamic integrity of personal human qualities in different fields of social activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as the structure of economic activity is concerned, the highest level was traced in Dnipropetrovsk, Kharkiv, Mykolayiv, Luhansk regions, and the city of Kyiv, while the lowest – in Donetsk, Ternopil, and Volyn regions.

In the structure of employed population 84.5% are hired staff, 0.9% – employers, 14.3% – self-employed, while others are family members working for free.

Employed residents included 22.3% (or 3.5 mln.) involved in informal sector of economy (in the 1st quarter of 2016 the share of such people made up 23.4%). Out of other types of economic activity most wide-spread is informal employment in agriculture, forestry, and fish economies (41.8%), in wholesale and retail trade, repairing of vehicles (20.2%), and also in construction (15.2%).

Table 5. Economic activity of residents aged 15-70, according to the data of random examination of residents as to their economic activity as well as the data of the State Statistics Service of Ukraine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economically active residents, (thousand people)</td>
<td>20,894.1</td>
<td>20,893.0</td>
<td>20,851.2</td>
<td>20,824.6</td>
<td>19,920.9</td>
<td>18,097.9</td>
<td>17,955.1</td>
<td>17,822.2</td>
<td>17,672.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of economic activity of residents, (%)</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>64.5</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>62.2</td>
<td>61.7</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents carrying out economic activity, (thousand people)</td>
<td>19,180.2</td>
<td>19,231.1</td>
<td>19,261.4</td>
<td>19,314.2</td>
<td>18,073.3</td>
<td>16,443.2</td>
<td>16,276.9</td>
<td>16,054.8</td>
<td>15,885.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population employment rate, (%)</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>59.1</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed population (according to the ILO’s methodology), (thousand people)</td>
<td>1,713.9</td>
<td>1,661.9</td>
<td>1,589.8</td>
<td>1,510.4</td>
<td>1,847.6</td>
<td>1,654.7</td>
<td>1,678.2</td>
<td>1,767.4</td>
<td>1,786.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population unemployment rate (according to the ILO’s methodology), (%)</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically active residents, (thousand people)</td>
<td>11,945.0</td>
<td>11,657.4</td>
<td>11,456.9</td>
<td>11,270.1</td>
<td>12,023.0</td>
<td>10,925.5</td>
<td>10,934.1</td>
<td>11,067.0</td>
<td>11,126.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Almost half of employed citizens are people aged 40-59, 29% – aged 30-39, each fifth is aged 15-29.

One third of all the employed residents of the country are located in Lviv, Kharkiv, Dnipropetrovsk regions, and the city of Kyiv. The level of employment made up 55.2% (in the 1st quarter of 2016 – 55.6%), and among working-age individuals – 63.3%. In particular, in urban areas it was 56.4%, and rural areas – 52.6%. The employment rate among men was higher than among women – 60.4% and 50.4%, respectively.

Among age groups this indicator has been distributed in the following way: the lowest level of employment was traced among individuals above 60 years of age and among young people under 24 (13.9% and 28.2%, respectively). Among individuals aged 50-59 it was 60.8%, and among other age groups it varied from 67.0% to 76.7%.

The highest level of employment was registered in the city of Kyiv (60.5%), Kharkiv (59.3 %), Kyiv (58.0%), and Dnipropetrovsk (57.8%) regions, while the lowest – in Donetsk (49.2%), Ternopil (49.0%), and Volyn (48.0%) regions.

The number of unemployed was 1.8 mln. people, or 10.1% of economically active population, in particular, in urban areas – 1.2 mln. people and 0.6 mln. people – in rural areas.

In the structure of unemployed population, by the reasons for unemployment, the share of people who resigned voluntarily was 33.0%, the share of those dismissed for economic reasons was 22.4%, the share of people who could not find a job after graduation from educational institutions was 15.6%, and 9.7% of unemployed had seasonal jobs.

The number of economically non-active residents in the 1st quarter of 2017 made up 11.1 mln. people, and among working-age residents – 7.0 mln. people. Among economically non-active citizens each second was a pensioner, each fifth – a pupil or a student, the same was the number of those performing their home chores and being maintained by somebody. 60% of the overall number of economically non-active citizens are women. Two thirds of economically non-active citizens reside in cities and towns.

The interpreted data of the State Statistics Service shows that the problem of employment for the home economy is becoming more and more important. Besides that, in Ukraine there are a number of factors leading to the deterioration of the situation in the field. In particular, that is low level of salary, shortage of jobs (this particularly refers to rural
areas), absence of development and professional self-fulfilment prospects, unstable political and economic situation, lack of security for citizens. The aggregate impact of the above factors makes our compatriots look for jobs abroad. Thus, according to the data of the World Bank, over 6.5 mln. Ukrainians study and work abroad, and Ukraine has become the fifth state in the world by the number of emigrants.

Analysis of formal and informal Ukrainian sources, in particular, mass media, enables to state that assessment of the real number of Ukrainian labour migrants who have left Ukraine over the recent years is too complicated a task, since their stay there is mainly illegal, which makes registration and count more complicated.

The largest recipient country for home labour force is Poland, where, according to the data of the National Bank of Poland, starting with 2013, a stable trend towards systematic reduction of labour resources can be traced. Such situation results from the fact that starting with 2006 the share of the elderly people has been permanently on the rise. The ageing of the society is stable and has a negative impact on labour supply. However, if by 2012 the growth of activity, including among older age groups, still somehow reduced the negative impact of demographic processes, after 2012 the trends acquired a threatening nature. Analysts indicate that this yields negative results of professional activity growth promotion. Thus, in 2015-2016 the dynamics of real salaries accelerated, mainly due to productivity growth. The pressure in relation to the rise, primarily in the industry, is increasing slowly. Firms try to convince that even long-term deflation will not lead to salary reduction161.

Besides, the analysis of the NBP has traced the first signs of weakened labour market situation. In spite of low unemployment rate, the flow of staff in the labour market is going down. But the period of job search by unemployed is not (possibly, due to growing financial expectations). Also, staff flow is going down due to the initiative of employers, with the number of those resigning voluntarily growing. The number of jobs for highly-qualified staff is going down162.

Starting with 2014, in the Polish labour market permanent increase in the number of Ukrainians can be traced, this also being confirmed by permanent, dynamic increase in the number of invitations given by Polish employers to our citizens. The year

162 Ibid.
2015 was a record one in this sense, since 760 thousand applications for the Ukrainian citizens were recorded (out of 780 thousand of the general number of registered invitations). The researchers of the issue link it to the fact that the new wave of labour migration from Ukraine that started in 2015 is of a different structure as compared to 2014. Thus, in particular, a much larger share goes to men (57.9% against 32.9%), there prevail young people (the average age is 32.8 years against 42.8 years in the previous migration wave).

A characteristic peculiarity is also the fact that the number of Ukrainian citizens coming from eastern regions and the regions which are in danger due to the armed conflict has increased (28.4% against 6.3 per cent).

As far as the nature of the work performed is concerned, the majority of Ukrainian citizens perform unskilled physical work mainly in household economies (37.6%), in construction as well as in the field of repairing and decoration works (23.6%), and in agriculture (19.3%).

According to the data of NBP, Ukrainians work 54 hours a week, which is much more than Poles (some 41 hours), and their average monthly salary makes up some 2.1 thousand zlotys. According to the data of Polish analysts, Ukrainians do not take jobs from Polish people and do not undercut salaries.

Starting with 2016 there has been traced a significant change in the situation for the better. Thus, in 2016 Polish firms and companies issued 1.3 mln. of permissions for seasonal or temporary work for migrants from the east, the majority of whom are Ukrainians. According to the data of the Ministry for Family, Labour and Social Policy of Poland, this is approximately by two thirds more than in 2015, which testifies to a dramatic increase in the demand for migrants from the neighbouring countries.

According to the data of the same department, last year the number of permissions for permanent employment in Poland also increased. Employers issued 123 thousand of such permissions, and 83% of them were issued for Ukrainians. And that is already employment not in the field of agriculture as it had been the tradition. Here jobs in construction, in service field, at production and at factories as well as in transport companies is meant, where Ukrainian employees are in demand and have a good reputation.
The statement stresses that while in 2010 60% of all migrant employees were employed in agriculture, in 2016 this figure was only 27%\textsuperscript{163}.

It should be indicated that the above statistical data does not take into account the citizens of Ukraine who do not have to get a permit and freely work in Poland. These are primarily owners of the Pole’s card, students.

In spite of a substantial inflow of labour force from Ukraine, Poland still has a lot of industries with the shortage of specialists felt.

It should be noted that labour migration as a global event has both positive and negative consequences, which are directly related to how well-regulated and legalized the process is. As of today, mainly individuals aged 20-40 leave for abroad, 65% of migrants are men, 35% – women. The most wide-spread types of economic activity of labour migrants are construction (45.7%), household economy (18.3%), agriculture (11.3%), and trade (9.1%).

It should be noted that military and political crisis, loss of jobs, reduction of salaries make the moods of Ukrainians even more negative and will reasonably increase the flow of emigration in the future.

To properly regulate labour migration it is important to fill the available gaps and to continue with harmonizing of the national legislation with the acquis communautaire. But upgrading of migration legislation that was taking place in 2011–2013 within the framework of implementation of the Action Plan on Visa Liberalization for Ukraine by the European Union did not settle the main problems.

In the opinion of CEDOS Analytical Centre, it is in Ukraine’s interests now not to create any additional obstacles. Since the income of migrant employees now makes up some 6% of the country’s GDP, and that is an important factor ensuring stable currency situation in the country. Even if this is ‘consumer’ money, it is anyway involved into the country’s economy and supports the development of some of its industries: foodstuff, construction, light industry, and other ones.

Since labour migration is unavoidable, the government should not try and combat the phenomenon, but direct it into a legal flow, this requiring development of scientifically

\textsuperscript{163} Ukrainians Do Not Take the Poles Jobs www.ukrainians.today/ukrayints-ne-zabyrayut-u-polyakiv-robochimistsya.
substantiated migration policy complying with the requirements of the times. Adoption of the Law On External Labour Migration on November 10, 2015, coming into effect starting with January 1, 2016, is one of the stages in the development of such policy. In spite of the fact that in the opinion of many specialists this regulatory legal act is of a declarative nature and does not suggest any direct action norms, mainly containing references to the applicable legislation of Ukraine or international treaties. Besides that, it does not indicate the mechanisms of enforcement of the declared norms, which makes their implementation dependant on further adoption of by-laws; while declarative nature and absence of any specific elements testifies to the attempt to just formally fulfil the respective requirement of the Action Plan on Visa Liberalization and not to the striving to regulate specific social legal relations. Along with that, the role of the Law On External Labour Migration cannot be underestimated. It was, in fact, for the first time that the state signalled to its citizens abroad its readiness to protect their interests, assured them of its interest in cooperating with them and in getting them back to their Motherland. After a long debate the Law started to include a number of provisions suggested by associations of migrants, the need for which was emphasized by experts. Among them the following ones should be pointed out: the effect of the Law is valid for all migrant employees (art. 2), including those working informally, and not just those employed under labour agreement/contract (the way it was in the variant adopted in the first reading). The directions of state policy in the field of labour migration (besides the already customary protection of rights, conclusion of international treaties or combating illegal migration) include ‘creation of conditions for return of labour migrants and their family members to Ukraine and their reintegration into the society’. A separate article of the Law is dedicated to reintegration (art. 14), the central executive body in charge of labour migrants reintegration is mentioned there. This issue had not been mentioned in the Ukrainian legislation before the law had been passed. Under the Law, the state shall promote satisfaction of national and cultural, educational and language needs of labour migrants, ensure enjoyment of the right of labour migrants and their family members to obligatory general secondary education. A separate article is dedicated to the state guarantees of consular assistance provision to labour migrants – the issue migrants had kept drawing attention to all the time. Diplomatic institutions of Ukraine abroad shall take measures to ensure exercising of migrants’ rights, provide free-of-charge advisory and legal assistance. The Law also contains the article dedicated to the activities of public associations of labour migrants, established abroad. They are granted the right to act in accordance with the legislation in the territory of Ukraine, cooperate with central and local authorities and non-governmental organizations, and thus the state acknowledges the important role of self-organization of migrants and shows
its readiness for a productive dialogue with their associations. Under the Law, the state promotes establishment of conditions for making money transfers of labour migrants to their Motherland, in particular, as far as opening of correspondent accounts of Ukrainian banks in foreign banks, consultations with the main international payment systems for the sake of reduced cost of transfers is concerned. In spite of positive novelties, some issues important for labour migrants are indicated in the Law just in passing and in a highly non-specific way, some are not available there at all. Therefore, the Law On External Labour Migration should be considered as an important, but just the first step on the way towards regulation of legal relations arising as the result of labour migration of citizens abroad and their coming back.

State migration policy in modern conditions should, on the one hand, be directed at creation of conditions for improving competitive ability of the national labour market and reducing the scale of external labour migration, and on the other hand – at ensuring protection of the interests of Ukrainian citizens abroad and fostering the spread of legal labour migration.

Global experience shows that active migration policy capable of promoting state development must primarily be characterized by its comprehensive nature, that is the integrity of the approach to all migration flows and stages of the migration process, as well as inclusion of migration issues into all the other directions of the state’s activity – strategic planning, employment policy, educational policy development, elaboration of investment programs both at the central and at the regional level. State actions in the respective field must primarily be aimed: to create conditions for reducing the number of people going abroad to earn their living; to protect the rights of citizens working abroad; to ensure more favourable opportunities for their employment in foreign countries; to encourage migrants to come back to their native land via most efficient use of the results of labour migration in the development interests. It should be developed in a transparent way, on the basis of a wide social dialogue, which is the only one to ensure public support; to be based on accurate and reliable migration statistics and scientific researches; to be implemented on the basis of a well-coordinated activity of different government structures, local authorities, social partners, non-governmental organizations.

Today the Polish government is preparing considerable changes in the Polish migration policy. In case migrants meet the requirements set by the government, it will be easier for them to find a job and to get permanent residence in Poland. The new migration policy will focus on young people under 35, with the respective qualifications.

The new policy in the field of migration focuses primarily on Ukrainians and must become an efficient solution to Polish demographic problems. The main statements of this policy are as follows: counting on young qualified migrants, correspondence of immigration to real labour market needs (‘the map of needs’) and facilitation of daily life for the families of foreigners working in Poland.

Respectively, the government’s intentions include facilitation of long-term residence visa issuance procedures for certain categories of people. Besides that, the government will encourage Ukrainians to get residence and citizenship prospects, and the children of migrants will get a wider access to education in Poland.

Thus, cross-border cooperation as an element of state policy now produces a significant effect on the employment of residents in Ukraine. Besides that, it enables to mitigate the negative elements of regional development, to overcome peripheral status of regions in the state, and to improve the living conditions for residents.

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The list of checkpoints (control points) across the State border: at the border with the Republic of Poland “State Border Guard Service of Ukraine”, 5 (2012), www.dpsu.gov.ua/ua/static_page/46.htm.


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Quality of life, personal and professional aspirations of the young generation in Poland and Ukraine

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

The matter of the quality of life is multifaceted if only for the obvious reason that human existence is multifaceted as well. A comprehensive study of the quality of life should then be conducted with many aspects in mind. The main point of the paper will be to present a set of opinions of Polish and Ukrainian secondary schools pupils on chosen topics related to their personal and professional aspirations and to the quality of life in both Poland and Ukraine.

Introduction

The essential research problem raised in the paper is the question of what the personal and professional aspirations are, and how certain selected factors affecting the quality of life in Poland and Ukraine are evaluated, as illustrated with an example of the youngest generation – secondary school pupils.

The results of the analyses covered in this paper are taken from a study conducted in the period from March to June 2015 in three countries – Poland, Hungary, and Ukraine. It is important to emphasize that although the study was conducted in three countries, its range actually covered borderlands of five countries. The research sample was composed of secondary (upper secondary) school pupils from: Słubice, Zielona Góra, Racibórz, Krośno, Rzeszów, Przemyśl, Hrubieszów (Poland), Debrecen (Hungary), and Drohobych and Uzhhorod (Ukraine). The study was conducted with the application of a random survey carried out in randomly selected schools. The total size of the research sample was 2,900 people.

The theoretical and methodological context of the study

The matter of the quality of life is multifaceted if only for the obvious reason that human existence is multifaceted as well. The concept of the quality of life stirs interest among representatives of many scientific disciplines: education, psychology, economics, sociology, and medicine, which ensures complementarity of points of view and a broad
interdisciplinary perspective on the one hand, and offers many ways of understanding this concept and, as a result, inconsistent operationalization thereof on the other\(^{165}\). These issues make it difficult to point to one holistic definition of the quality of life, which would be fully useful to researchers operating in various disciplines. One of the more often used and commonly quoted definitions has been formulated by the Quality of Life Group acting within the framework of the World Health Organization (WHOQOL Group). Quality of life is defined as an individual’s perception of their position in the context of the culture and the system of values adopted by that individual’s social environment, and in relation to that individual’s life aspirations, expectations, and interests\(^{166}\). The huge interest in this notion among representatives of various scientific disciplines comes also from the matter of diverse operationalization of the notion alone. It seems that a compromise solution stemming from the ambiguity of the notion is one that requires comprehensive studies of the quality of life to be conducted in a multifaceted manner. The beginnings of systematized studies of the quality of life in Poland date back to the 1960s and 1907s. These studies focused on categories such as living standard, life assessment, lifestyle, sense of wellbeing, and satisfaction with one’s conditions and ability to fulfil one’s needs\(^{167}\).

One of the first publications devoted to the quality of life in cities was a book written by multiple authors and edited by Andrzej Siciński, entitled *Style życia w miastach (polskich u progu kryzysu)* (EN: *Lifestyles in cities (of Poland on the eve of a crisis)*)\(^{168}\). Another publication concerning the quality of life was published in 1998. It was a final report on the implementation of a research project, edited by Janusz Czapiński and entitled “Związek między obiektywnymi i subiektywnymi wskaźnikami jakości życia w okresie transformacji systemowej” (EN: “The relationship between objective and subjective indicators of the quality of life in the period of system transformation”). The project was carried out by the Interdepartmental Institute of Social Studies of the University of Warsaw\(^{169}\). The subject was also explored by researchers from the Gdansk Institute for Market Economics, which resulted in publishing a report entitled *Jakość życia w miastach-powiatach grodzkich*


\(^{166}\) Ibid., p. 16.


\(^{169}\) J. Czapiński (ed.), *Jakość życia Polaków w czasie zmiany społecznej: raport końcowy z realizacji projektu badawczego „Związek między obiektywnymi i subiektywnymi wskaźnikami jakości życia w okresie transformacji systemowej”*, MISS UW, Warsaw 1998.
The quality of life in municipal cities with poviat rights in 2000. After the year 2000, some Polish cities were individually covered in a series of reports diagnosing the quality of life of their inhabitants. These cities included e.g. Kielce, Łódź, Częstochowa, Gliwice, Świętochłowice, or Ruda Śląska. It’s also important to dedicate one’s attention to studies conducted by urban sociologists from the University of Wrocław, who carried out a project entitled “Wrocławska diagnoza problemów społecznych” (A diagnosis of the social issues of Wrocław) in 2009. The result of their studies is a set of three publications from the Wrocław Social Diagnosis publishing series: volume I: Problemy społeczne w przestrzeni Wrocławia (Social problems in the urban environment of Wrocław), volume II: Stare i nowe problemy społeczne wielkiego miasta. Socjologiczne studium konsumpcji na przykładzie Wrocławia (Old and new social issues of a big city. A sociological study of consumption illustrated with the example of Wrocław), and volume III: Studia nad strategią rozwoju społecznego miasta Wrocławia (Studies on the strategy of social development of the city of Wrocław). Another matter in the history of research into the quality of life of Poles is a panel-based research initiated in 2000 by a team of researchers working under the direction of Janusz Czapiński and Tomasz Panek. The research project was called Diagnoza społeczna (Social diagnosis). The project was continued in 2003.

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As emphasized by its authors, *Social diagnosis* is an attempt to supplement the diagnosis based on institutional indicators with extensive data concerning households and attitudes, states of mind, and behaviour of people forming these households; it is a diagnosis of the conditions and the quality of life of Poles within the framework of their own report. There are two separate questionnaires to survey households and all members thereof aged 16 and above. In one survey, the research takes into account all major aspects of life of particular households and their members – both economic (e.g. income, wealth, savings, loans) and non-economic (e.g. education, healthcare, methods of dealing with problems, stress, mental wellbeing, lifestyle, pathological behaviour, participation in culture, taking advantage of modern communication technology). It’s also important to consider the research conducted under the direction of Ryszard Cichocki as part of a project entitled “Jakość życia w Poznaniu” (EN: “The quality of life in Poznań”), where a range of useful indicators to study the quality of life in a city has been proposed.

The term of aspirations is highly ambiguous as it is used not only in scientific literature, but also in belles-lettres and in common speech. Aspirations are usually referred to as one of the most important motives behind human activity. The notion of aspirations is defined in different ways. *Słownik języka polskiego* gives the following definition of the term: “(...) usually aiming at something, a desire to achieve something (most often: in relation to ambitious plans, goals, life ideals), ambition, demand” (original Polish definition: “(...) zwykle dążenie do czegoś, pragnienie osiągnięcia czegoś (najczęściej: w odniesieniu do ambitnych zamierzeń, celów, idealów życiowych itp.) ambicja, wymaganie”). Władysław Kopaliński’s vocabularies of foreign words and foreign-language borrowings offer a definition close to the casual understanding of the term, describing aspirations as: “a strive (to achieve something), a yearning (for achieving one’s purpose, for reaching, arriving

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at something)” (original Polish definition: “dążenie (do osiągnięcia czegoś), pragnienie (dopięcia celu, dobicia się czegoś”) 192. Life (or personal) aspirations have been studied by many experts from the field of education, psychology, and sociology. The motivation behind one’s actions, and the choices people make in various areas of their life (personal, professional, social) have been, in fact, always interesting research topics 193. The broad interest in this issue among social science researchers makes it possible to view it from the perspective of education, psychology, and sociology. Educationalists define aspirations striving to achieve one’s goals, to realize one’s ideals 194. Wincenty Okoń argues also that some researchers tend to equate aspirations with needs, while others separate the two, assuming that aspirations as if precede needs and concern the motivation behind the targets set by an individual for themselves 195. An example of a psychological presentation of aspirations is the definition taken from Słownik psychologii, which defines aspirations as “(…) all inclinations pushing human towards some ideal, a strive for achieving something meaningful. In relation to an activity, we can talk about aspirations when completing the said activity is tantamount to fulfilling an individual’s potential. Whether we consider our activity a success or a failure depends on the result we wish to achieve, and on the goal we set ourselves when engaging in an undertaking” (original Polish definition: “(…) ogół skłonności popychających człowieka w stronę jakiegoś ideału, pragnienie osiągnięcia czegoś znaczącego. W odniesieniu do jakiejs czynności mówi się o aspiracjach, gdy zrealizowanie tej czynności jest dla jednostki równoznaczne ze zrealizowaniem swoich możliwości. To, czy oceniamy naszą działalność jako sukces, czy niepowodzenie, zależy od wyniku, jaki chcielibyśmy osiągnąć, oraz od tego, jaki cel wytyczamy sobie, podejmując dane przedsięwzięcie”) 196. In sociological sources, researchers often quote a definition formulated by Antonina Kłoskowska, who has made an attempt to view the issue from a holistic perspective. She defines aspirations as “(…) a category of conscious needs concerning objects and values that one may lack at a given moment, or that need to be restocked, replenished or renewed as considered desirable” (original Polish definition: “(…) kategoria potrzeb świadomich, odnoszących się do przedmiotów i wartości aktualnie nie posiadanych lub takich, które wymagają ciągłego odnawiania, a są uznawane za godne pożądania”) 197. Trying to recapitulate the definitions encountered

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192 W. Kopaliński, Słownik wyrazów obcych i zwrotów obcojęzycznych, Wiedza Powszechna, Warsaw 1971, p. 73.
195 Ibid.
in social sciences, it may be reasonable to define the notion in question using the proposal offered by Łoś, who has argued that aspirations are “a set of hierarchized aims an individual accepts and defines as important, and which determine their life plans” (original Polish version: “zespół dążeń wyznaczonych przez hierarchie celów, które jednostka akceptuje oraz definiuje jako ważne, a które przesądzają o jego planach życiowych”\textsuperscript{198}. Aspirations may therefore concern areas related to an individual’s personal life, education, career, physical activity, etc.

As mentioned before, the study was conducted in the period from March to June 2015 in three countries – Poland, Hungary, and Ukraine. The research sample was composed of pupils of secondary (upper secondary) school from borderland areas, i.e. from: Słubice, Zielona Góra, Racibórz, Krosno, Rzeszów, Przemyśl, Hrubieszów (Poland), Debrecen (Hungary), and Drohobych and Uzhhorod (Ukraine). The applied method involved conducting a random survey carried out in randomly selected schools. The total size of the research sample was 2,900 people. For the purpose of this article, the presented analyses will pertain only to Poland and Ukraine. The studies conducted in Hungary have been excluded from the research analysis.

**Personal and professional aspirations of the young generation**

Researchers generally agree on the fact that the level of personal and professional aspirations, aims, and goals set by an individual depends largely on the stimulation gained from one’s family environment. The cultural capital passed on to an individual in the process of socialization determines the emergence and the shape of the individual’s desires and aims. It is important to stress that one’s family background decides about the person’s aspirations to a significant extent. Scientific sources use the notion of cultural capital mainly in relation to the theory of cultural reproduction of social structure proposed by Pierre Bourdieu and developed together with Jean-Claude Passeron. According to P. Bourdieu and J.C. Passeron, the cultural capital of an individual is determined to the largest degree by father’s profession, and affects the individual’s performance at school\textsuperscript{199}. The cultural capital of students from upper classes gives them a clear advantage over students from lower classes in the process of social selection. Starting from early stages of education,


it lets them get admitted to better studies and perform better in general. To summarize, it may be argued that the concept of cultural capital explained as above contributes to strengthening of the idea that one’s parents’ social status is significant to one’s ability to achieve a higher position.

The main measure of the cultural capital gained from one’s family background includes two factors: parents’ education and the number of books found in home libraries of those surveyed. Based on the answers to these three questions, a synthetic indicator composed of father’s education (significance: 33.3%), mother’s education (significance: 33.3%) and the number of books in collection has been developed.

Table 1. Indicator of family cultural capital and the country of origin (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator level</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Comparing the levels of family cultural capital, it can be noticed that the Ukrainian youth boast a higher level of family cultural capital than their peers from Poland. Another important fact is also that mothers appeared to be better educated than fathers. Also, another interesting observation was that parents’ education level determined the size of the family book collection. Based on the results of the survey concerning the level of the indicator of family cultural capital, it may be fair to say that in the case of secondary school pupils, the ‘inherited’ cultural capital may be a factor determining their access to tertiary education. This may be substantiated by the analysis of answers to the question about the future education and career, and about the preferred field of study to be pursued by the surveyed. The youth characterized by a higher level of cultural capital have declared an interest in pursuing tertiary education more often. They also mentioned pursuing highly prestigious studies such as medicine or law.

200 Ibid., pp. 152-153.
The first of the investigated elements illustrating the level of personal and professional aspirations of representatives of the young generation of Poland and Ukraine was a question about the aims, goals, and desires related to the future of the surveyed, i.e. what they wanted to achieve in their lives, what they aimed at. The results produced some quite interesting research observations. In the case of over eighty percent of young people from Ukraine, happy family life turned out to be a very important goal for the future. The rate was lower in the case of Polish respondents. The issue was considered very important by almost ¾ of the surveyed.

Table 2. Personal and professional aspirations: happy family life (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Happy family life</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>82.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it at all</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Over a dozen years of market economy, arrival of the “risk society” and the trend of individualism on the rise have led to a situation where one of the most important future aims, goals, and desires of young Poles is to find a good job. It was one of the top priorities in the case of over two-thirds of the surveyed. It should be emphasized that it is an important aspect of future plans for over ninety percent of the respondents. In the case of the young generation of Ukrainians, it is also an important goal on the list of aspirations, but it's actually less stressed than among young Poles.

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Table 3. Personal and professional aspirations: finding a good job (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finding a good job</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it at all</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Peers, friends, acquaintances. They form one of the most important groups of reference for a young person. The youth of today value the opinion of their friends and acquaintances more than that of their parents and other members of their families. The high rate of answers revealing that having friends is one of the more important life goals of young people from both Poland and Ukraine is therefore hardly surprising. Almost two-thirds of Ukrainian and over a half of Polish respondents believe that having friends is really important in life.

Table 4. Personal and professional aspirations: having friends (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Having friends</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it at all</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

The need for fulfilment manifested in the form of developing skills and pursuing one’s interests is emphasized more by young Ukrainians than Poles. This aim is something almost sixty percent of respondents from the Ukraine care about a lot, compared to a bit over forty percent of Poles.
Table 5. Personal and professional aspirations: developing skills and pursuing interests (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developing skills and pursuing interests</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>58.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it at all</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

The need for acceptance and respect of others has appeared to be a significant element of the future aims, goals, and desires of the young generation of Poles and Ukrainians. In the case of both nationalities, the resulting rates were very similar. Almost half of young Poles and Ukrainians care about earning respect of other people.

Table 6. Personal and professional aspirations: earning respect of others (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Earning respect of others</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it at all</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Finishing college has turned out to be an element of personal and professional aspirations in the case of which the two nationalities differ most. Young Ukrainians seem to attach a lot of significance to finishing college. This trend is much weaker among young Poles, though. This may be a result of changes on the Polish labour market, where being a university graduate does not give any advantage over those who have not completed any studies. In the last two decades of the 20th century, there was a clear increase in the level of aspirations among the youth, which resulted in a higher level of education.
of Poles in general. This was an effect of the so-called education boom. Continuing one’s learning after primary school – after secondary school, upper secondary school in recent years – became a quite common thing to do. When market economy arrived, university education offered a competitive advantage on the labour market. At the same time, we saw a departure from traditional professions, vocational schools closing, and a depreciation of vocational education. Apart from the changes in the area of education, we also saw a high rate of outbound migration of young Poles after Poland accessed the European Union, especially in recent years. Labourers found employment opportunities in Great Britain, Ireland, the Netherlands, France, or Germany. The progressive outflow of labour force led to gradual but more and more noticeable changes on the Polish labour market. There was a growing demand for people trained vocationally and for engineers and technicians. A university diploma was no longer a trump card, but became a kind of handicap in looking for a job. As illustrated by the above results, young Poles are well able to understand the changes taking place on the labour market, and to adapt their aspirations to market requirements. In the case of Ukraine, the said process has been shifted in time, and it will probably not be as visible as in Poland until EU labour markets become more open to Ukrainians.

Table 7. Personal and professional aspirations: finishing college (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finishing college</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>61.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Young Ukrainians appear to care about independence more than their Polish peers. The will to become independent quite quickly is a goal considered especially important by more than a half of the surveyed Ukrainians, and by a little over forty percent of respondents from Poland. This may stem from the increasingly noticeable trend of ‘learning to stand on one’s own two feet’ among young Poles. The phenomenon is particularly common in the south of Europe, mainly in Italy and Spain, where people referred to as Bamboccioni or kids-boomerangs becoming a growing group in Poland
as well. According to studies carried out by Censis Centre for Social Studies and Policies from Italy, every third Italian lives with their mother. In the age group of 19 to 29, the rate exceeds 60 percent\(^{203}\). In Poland, according to Central Statistical Office’s studies from 2013, the rate of people living with parents in the age group of 25-34 was 43.5 percent, which is much lower than the rate for Italy, but still high compared to other European countries. Men tend to live with parents more often (50.2%) than women (36.6%), which is very characteristic of all EU countries. In Poland, the phenomenon is most common in eastern (47.7%) and southern (46.9%) regions, with the lowest rate (39.3%) reported for central Poland. This is related to different degrees of urbanization\(^{204}\). The findings seem to be proven by the study in question since there’s a high rate of young people who do not treat becoming independent from others as a life priority.

Table 8. Personal and professional aspirations: independence from others (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independence from others</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>51.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Quiet life away from trouble has turned out to be a category where no significant differences among representatives of both young Poles and Ukrainians have been noticed.


Table 9. Personal and professional aspirations: a quiet life away from trouble (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A quiet life away from trouble</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

The willingness to help others has appeared to be more common among young Ukrainians than among young Poles. In the case of the latter, this may be attributed to social apathy and lack of civic attitudes among the youth as observed in recent years. Young Poles tend to rank highest in the category of political passivity. This is also confirmed by data pointing to declarations of young Poles’ readiness to engage in social and political activity. In 1978, such readiness was declared by 41% of young people, in 1988 it was 33%, in 1990 - 28%, and in 1991 - 24%, which is 17% less than 13 years earlier. This is further confirmed by surveys conducted among the youth by Public Opinion Research Center (PL: CBOS) in 2016. Only 13% of the surveyed declared to be involved in social activities undertaken to benefit others people.

Table 10. Personal and professional aspirations: helping other people (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helping other people</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

The idea of consumerism, which has dominated the culture of today and possessed the minds of young Poles, is also manifested in the findings of the study in question. Amassing a fortune seems to be a very important life goal to more than eighty percent of young Poles. The trend is much weaker among the surveyed Ukrainians.

Table 11. Personal and professional aspirations: amassing a fortune (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amassing a fortune</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Aspirations related to holding a high position do not differ much among the two surveyed groups. The young generation does not treat it as a personal or professional ambition.

Table 12. Personal and professional aspirations: holding a high position (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holding a high position</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Young Poles consider issues related to spiritual life, i.e. eternal security, following religious observances, more important than their Ukrainian peers do. The findings are highly correlated with studies concerning religiousness of young Poles. At present, a little over two-thirds of pupils in their final years of upper secondary school (69%) consider themselves religious, including 8% of deeply religious. Almost one-fifth (18%) of them regard themselves as unsure about faith, and every eighth of the surveyed (13%) declares to be a non-believer. According to the trends observed since mid-1990s, the rate of believers tends to decrease gradually, with the rate of the undecided and non-believers being on the rise.

Table 13. Personal and professional aspirations: eternal security - following religious observances (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eternal security - following religious observances</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't care about it at all</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Studies have also shown that young Ukrainians tend to be much more enterprising than their Polish peers. Setting up and running an own business is very important for every fourth young Ukrainian. The trend is proven by the findings of the “Młodzież 2016” study. According to these findings, only one in ten young Poles has expressed a willingness to start an own business.

210 Ibid., p. 73.
Table 14. Personal and professional aspirations: starting an own business (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Starting an own business</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

Political apathy and socio-political indifferentism are what stems from the analysis of young Poles’ declarations regarding their willingness to participate in governance. Only one-fourth of them consider them to be important aspects of their personal and professional aspirations. The rate of young Ukrainians inclined to take advantage of participation in governance was higher, amounting to forty percent. With young Poles clearly oriented on consumption and individual achievements, the findings may imply that we’re dealing with a generation that is egocentric, apolitical, and more committed to career and hedonistic pleasures rather than to acting together for a better quality of the social life of their community211.

Table 15. Personal and professional aspirations: participation in governance (in percentage terms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participation in governance</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it a lot</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I care about it</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t care about it at all</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work

One of the most effective ways of determining the quality of life of young people is to identify and describe how they spend their free time. Such assumption has been adopted for the purpose of the study in question, with the results presented in this paper. The opportunities available to the surveyed in terms of the ways to spend free time make it possible to determine the quality of their life in an indirect but quite objective manner.

The most common forms of pastime of the youth include listening to music, watching TV, playing computer/video games, or passive relaxation (relaxing, resting, doing nothing). Other high-ranking ideas to spend free time include online discussions in social networking services and meetings with friends. Physical activity – doing sports, strolling about the city, or developing one’s skills, learning e.g. foreign languages have turned out to rank lower.

An analysis based on arithmetic means calculated for particular variables determining how young Ukrainians and Poles spend their free time has been carried out for the purpose of this article. The scale for which mean values have been calculated determines the frequency of declarations of engagement in a given pastime (1 = Every day, 2 = A few times a week, 3 = A few times a month, 4 = A few times a year, 5 = Hardly ever). Interpretation of the obtained values makes it possible to determine which of the listed pastimes are the most popular among the surveyed. The lower the mean value, the more frequently a given pastime mentioned by the surveyed.

In the case of some pastimes, the survey has shown certain differences between the youth from Poland and Ukraine. Young Poles tend to spend their free time listening to music, chatting with their friends on social media, watching TV, meeting with friends, relaxing in a passive way, or learning foreign languages much more often than their Ukrainian peers. The latter appear, in turn, to go out to cafés, bars, go to see films, go to discos and clubs, to theatres, to museums, and to concerts more often. They also read belles-lettres, pursue some form of art, belong to special interest clubs, do DIY, play cards, billiards, bowl, and engage in gainful activity in addition more often than young Poles. Pastimes labelled as cleaning, studying, engaging in physical activity (rollerblading, cycling), travelling, trips outside the city, reading newspapers and magazines, and participation in religious practices have not shown significant differences between the two surveyed groups.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pastimes</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to music</td>
<td>1.5358</td>
<td>2.6234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chatting on social media</td>
<td>1.8495</td>
<td>2.4795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching TV</td>
<td>2.0566</td>
<td>2.6993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting with friends</td>
<td>2.1419</td>
<td>2.6512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxing, resting, doing nothing</td>
<td>2.1738</td>
<td>2.6776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing sports</td>
<td>2.2894</td>
<td>2.6452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling about the city</td>
<td>2.3525</td>
<td>2.8614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing computer/video games</td>
<td>2.5190</td>
<td>2.7551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning foreign languages</td>
<td>2.3518</td>
<td>2.9625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
<td>2.7358</td>
<td>2.7039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra learning</td>
<td>2.8099</td>
<td>2.7590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in physical activity such as rollerblading, cycling</td>
<td>2.8867</td>
<td>2.8930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling, taking trips outside the city</td>
<td>3.0653</td>
<td>3.0572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading newspapers, magazines</td>
<td>3.1251</td>
<td>3.0438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to cafés, bars</td>
<td>3.3998</td>
<td>3.0633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading books (belles-lettres)</td>
<td>3.7635</td>
<td>2.8760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to the cinema</td>
<td>3.6752</td>
<td>3.0567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to church, religious practice</td>
<td>3.4381</td>
<td>3.3510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to a disco, to a club</td>
<td>3.6937</td>
<td>3.2152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing cards</td>
<td>3.9422</td>
<td>3.1140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in an additional gainful activity</td>
<td>3.9980</td>
<td>3.0708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing billiards, bowling</td>
<td>4.0545</td>
<td>3.1898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating art</td>
<td>4.2016</td>
<td>3.0880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an active member of a special interest club</td>
<td>4.2513</td>
<td>3.0567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIY, design</td>
<td>4.1236</td>
<td>3.2033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to concerts</td>
<td>4.0330</td>
<td>3.2895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to theatres, museums</td>
<td>4.2034</td>
<td>3.2235</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own work
Conclusions

The study has highlighted the differences in the level of personal and professional aspirations, and in the forms of pastimes of the young generation of Poland and Ukraine. A factor that has appeared to differentiate the two groups of respondents is the level of family cultural capital. In the case of young Poles, it seems that some trends related to the transformation of the Polish society as observed since the early 1990s are becoming more and more visible at present. Progressive consumerism, focus on individual achievements, political apathy, and an increasingly lower level of social engagement have all been seen advancing among young Poles. The surveyed representatives of the young generation of Ukraine do not experience such problems, though. But it is not unlikely that they will have to face them in the next few years to come. The objective of the research project was to distinguish the differences in the scope of the declared personal and professional aspirations, and to evaluate selected factors affecting the quality of life in Poland and Ukraine illustrated with an example of the youngest generation – secondary school pupils. The collected material has made it possible to identify the differences covered in detail in the paper. But the research problem remains still an interesting subject to explore, and because of the dynamics of the observed attitude changes, needs to be investigated in more depth.

References


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Piotr Długosz, PhD
Institute of Sociology, University of Rzeszów
Institute of Sociology, East European State University in Przemyśl

Social aspects of transboundary education. Case study of Ukrainian students studying in the Subcarpathian region.

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

The paper presents the results of research on Ukrainian students studying in the Podkarpackie Province. The purpose of the paper is to show the motivations behind deciding to study in Poland as well as the social practices that appear during studying. For this purpose, a questionnaire research was carried out in 2015 and 2017 on a sample of 250 and 224 students respectively. The data was collected in an auditorium questionnaire. The students choosing to study in Poland were driven mainly by the opportunity to obtain a European degree, high quality of education, possibility to travel abroad and to avoid corruption. Their main problems after arriving in Poland included high prices, limited command of the local language and limited contact with Polish nationals. The surveyed students were most positive about studying conditions, relations with academic staff and modern infrastructure, while limited career opportunities for students and graduates were seen as the greatest downside to studying in Poland. The majority of students declared they would continue their education at master courses. Upon completed education, they intend to stay in Poland or relocate to the west of Poland.

In the era of globalization and commonplace migrations, educational migrations have become very popular among youth. Anthony Giddens wrote that globalization forces people to live a more open, thoughtful life.212 This means that we continuously respond to changes occurring in the world and we constantly adapt to occurring transformations. Apart from its political, economic, technological and cultural aspects, globalization has also its educational aspect. It is clearly apparent in our educational content. As pointed out by Mirosław Szymański, “the command of foreign languages, knowledge of general history, world literature, knowledge that is multicultural in its character must be greater than ever before. It also becomes necessary to master new means of communication, as the Internet and other contemporary media are no less significant in their informational and cultural role than a book has become a long time ago”213. The changes also pertained to institutional solutions. The implementation of the Bologna process in tertiary education have uniformized the structure of education and allowed to extend the scope of student exchanges, e.g. within the framework of the Erasmus program. Along with educational globalization, other changes are also apparent. The abolishment of visa requirements and border control within the Schengen Area, development of low-cost airlines or long-distance coach services makes traveling around the world much easier. Also, recent technology allows students to travel abroad to study and, at the same time, stay in touch with family and friends thanks to various on-line communication tools.

212 A. Giddens, Sociology, PWN, Warsaw 2006, page 84.
In the process of globalization, the convergence of youth is of particular importance. The youth are both a “product” of globalization and its creative subject. They are shaped by popular culture, Internet and the global consumer market. They have similar tastes in music, typically speak English and declare similar aspirations and ambitions. The contemporary youth are under the influence of liberal and meritocratic ideology.

An important component of modern times is the society of knowledge, in which education is the decisive factor in achieving high social status and quality of life. Globalization also causes considerable social inequalities. These result, in turn, in migration processes. Much like in the case of economic migration, student migration generally occurs from peripheries towards city centers. Increasing global instability and disparities in the quality of life between states may also lead to increased student migrations.

According to OECD statistics, the number of international students was 0.8 million in the 1970s, whereas in 2015 it was 4.6 million. The data in the dynamic approach show a successive increase in the number of international students since 1995. It increased every subsequent year214. In terms of percentage, most international students come for Australia (28%), New Zealand (26%), Great Britain (22%), Switzerland (20%), Austria (18%) and Belgium (12%)215.

According to the same data, in terms of percentage of foreign students, Polish universities are at the bottom of the list. However, in recent years the situation in our country started to change because of the influx of Ukrainian students and in 2016 this value equaled 5.15%216. Ukrainians increasingly often choose to study in Poland and, currently, they account for as much as 54% of foreign students. Due to the prevalence of Ukrainians at Polish universities and with their number increasing every year, a question arises as to their functioning in Polish conditions. This article aims to identify the motivations driving students who decide to travel to Poland. It will also be important to highlight the issues they are facing after arriving in Poland. The final objective of the article shall be the presentation of evaluations regarding the functioning of students in the reality of Polish cities and presentation of life goals upon completing education.

Ukrainian students in Poland

According to CEDOS, 59,648 students left Ukraine in 2015. Typically they choose countries such as: Poland, Germany, Russia, Canada, Italy, Czech Republic, Spain and USA. The increase in the number of Ukrainian students studying abroad was very dynamic between 2009 and 2015 (increase by 129%). In this aspect, Poland remains the absolute leader – currently (data for 2016) as many as 35,584 persons from Ukraine study in Poland and they constitute the most numerous group of foreign students. Only 12,568 persons studied in Russia, whereby it should be noted that Russia is the second most popular destination country among Ukrainian students. However, as compared to other foreign students, they account for only 7% of all foreign students in Russia.\textsuperscript{217}

The data clearly shows that Poland does, indeed, constitute the main migration destination for Ukrainian students. The results presented by the Central Statistical Office of Poland (Chart 1) show an increase in the number of Ukrainian students in Poland in the last decade. It is apparent that since 2011 the number of Ukrainian nationals at Polish universities has been steadily increasing. Because of this process, the term of Ukrainization of Polish universities has even been coined.

\textbf{Chart 1. Number of students from Ukraine at Polish universities}

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\hline
Number & 2223 & 2467 & 2831 & 3499 & 4879 & 6321 & 9741 & 15123 & 23392 & 30589 & 35584 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

The major, rapid increase in the number of Ukrainian students in Poland in the recent years may be related to the difficult domestic situation in Ukraine. According to Ukrainian analysts, there may be several factors driving student migrations into Poland. Poland is still a relatively cheap country for Ukrainian students. Monthly subsistence costs calculated in Euro are 208 in Poland, 670 in Germany, 615 in France, 532 in Spain and 417 in Italy. Among the listed countries, Poland is clearly the cheapest and therefore more competitive as compared to other countries.

Furthermore, the fact that Poland was the most popular country to study abroad can also be due to cultural reasons. In terms of language and culture, Poland is similar to Ukraine. Classes for Ukrainian students are carried out in Polish with the aim to help their integration with the Polish-speaking community.

Also the size of Ukrainian diaspora in Poland is a factor of major importance when it comes to choosing to study in Poland. Apart from the Ukrainian minority, according to estimates, as many as 1 to 1.5 million Ukrainians have recently migrated to Poland. Student migration may be the first step towards permanent migration. Students may also be allowed to migrate easier, because their friends and relatives are already in Poland.

Nevertheless, geographical proximity is just as important. Direct neighborhood between Poland and Ukraine, good coach and railway service (a fast train from Kiev to Przemyśl has been launched several months ago and since recently there are two services of this kind available) The Podkarpackie Province benefits from the immediate vicinity of Ukraine. Students may choose to study in Przemyśl, Jarosław or Rzeszów - these cities are located closest to the Ukraine border. If someone chooses to study in the Podkarpackie Province, they may save time and money for travels from Ukraine to their university.

In the case of studying in a neighboring country, transboundary education might be the right term. We already know a lot about Ukrainians studying in Poland. Available data show that approx. 769 students migrated from Poland to Ukraine (medical education) in 2016. A good example of transboundary education is the Podkarpackie Province. The Central Statistical Office of Poland reports 2800 foreigners in 2017 in the Podkarpackie Province. Foreign students accounted for 5.6% of the entire student population in the Podkarpackie Province. Most of them (84%) originated from Ukraine. Most foreign nationals

studied at the University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszów – 1900 persons (65.3% of all studying foreigners), followed by the East European State University in Przemyśl – 318 persons (11.2%), University of Rzeszów – 201 persons (7.1%) and University of Law and Public Administration – 156 persons (5.5%). As mentioned earlier, the vast majority of foreign students at universities in the Podkarpackie Province are from Ukraine. In the initial phase of popularity of studies in Poland among Ukrainians, the Podkarpackie Province benefited from its location. Currently, a decline in the number of students in the Podkarpackie Province is being observed. It is particularly apparent at the University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszów, where the number of Ukrainian students declined by more than 50%219. Most often they choose to travel to large cities. Most Ukrainian students chose to study in the Mazowieckie Province – 8837 persons, Lubelskie Province - 4484 province, Małopolskie Province 4835 and Dolnośląskie Province 2220. Whereby it must be noted that Ukrainian students study in large university cities, such as: Warsaw, Lublin, Kraków, Wrocław. In the Podkarpackie Province, there were 2348 such students according to those estimates.

Based on presented statistics, it may be concluded that in the recent years, the number of Ukrainian students at Polish universities was increasing. 8469 of such students attended state universities and 12224 studied at private universities. Women account for the majority of Ukrainian students in Poland – 58%221. As already mentioned, they typically choose to study in large university cities. This may result from the fact that large cities usually have a developed labor market, extensive cultural offer and varied academic community. Large cities also have more prestigious universities which are increasingly more preferred by Ukrainians. However, potential professional career is also important. International corporations employing students and graduates operate from large cities. It is much easier to find a job in large cities than in Przemyśl or Rzeszów.


Theoretical premises for student migration

The main theoretical premise explaining student migration is globalization. Apart from global flow of information, goods and money, what we currently observe is opening of Polish universities to providing educational services to foreign students\(^{222}\). In part, the increasing internationalization of tertiary education was the effect of 90’s drop in birth rate currently reaching Polish universities. Since 2011, a drop in the number of students at Polish universities is observed and, according to forecasts, it would last until 2020.\(^{223}\). Polish universities, therefore, try to attract students from many countries, but it is Ukraine that is the key country. Intensive promotional campaigns, higher standard of living and social security in Poland mean that there is mass student migration from Ukraine to Poland. The educational market becomes a global university and it is apparent also in Poland, where the internationalization rate reached 5.15 in the year 2016\(^{224}\).

In the analysis of student migrations, also the world-systems theory with its core, semi-peripheries and peripheries is useful\(^{225}\). In less developed countries with high unemployment, corruption, insufficient meritocracy, low wages and low quality of life, with political, ethnic and armed conflicts, people tend to search for better life abroad. Most often they decide to travel to the core regions where higher wages, better quality of life, better life opportunities and stabilization are available. Migration typically occurs from poorer to richer countries. In the world-systems theory, Poland is a semi-periphery, while Ukraine is classified as periphery. The core, i.e. central countries are the “old” European Union states. Migration according to this pattern occurs from peripheries towards semi-peripheries to eventually reach one of the core countries. Studying in Poland or, more precisely, European degree of a Polish university may be considered a pass that enables further migration to the core states. In this context, Polish universities become attractive for Ukrainians as they are a cheaper alternative to western universities. They issue certificates allowing to find a job within the European Union.


\(^{223}\) *Demographic tsunami. Socrates Institute, Warsaw 2011, instytutsokratesa.pl/pliki/Demograficzne_Tsunami_Instytut_Sokratesa.pdf.*


In this approach, one should also note the consequences of migration for peripheral states. According to this theory, there is a belief that the core exploits the peripheries, limiting their development. In the era of knowledge-based economy, high-quality workforce becomes a vital resource. The core countries may develop thanks to human resources, i.e. the creative class. Migration of students from the peripheries is called “brain drain”. The youth migrating from Ukraine reduce its development potential and perpetuates existing situation.

Upon mentioning human capital, the model of investing in the human capital should also be underlined. The Ukrainian analysts trying to adequately explain the migration of students to Poland highlight this problem. The decision to choose Polish universities as the place of study is taken based on economic calculations. When benefits prevail, they youth decide to migrate and, in case of expected losses, they remain in their country of origin. We assume that foreign university courses are chosen by students intending to migrate to western countries to increase their life opportunities. A degree from a Polish university is a means to achieve this goal. A university course in Poland is considered an investment that will pay off in future. Considering the costs of studying in other countries, it is beneficial. Courses at both private and state universities are not very problematic for students. The university teachers are understanding and try to cater for the needs of a client - Ukrainian student, as the number of Polish students is declining. In this calculation, the most important aspect may be the potential rate of return on such investment. In Poland, it is relatively high and, therefore, it becomes an attractive country for migrants from Ukraine.

In summary, in the context of global education, Poland becomes attractive to students from Ukraine. As a result of adverse internal circumstances, such as economic and political crisis as well as armed conflict in the eastern Ukraine, the youth willing to increase their life opportunities decide to take a university course in Poland. Thinking about their future, they try to make the best possible educational investment. The Polish education system, conditions and costs of studying as well as opportunities after graduation make Polish universities very popular among Ukrainian youth.

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Research methods

The purpose of this paper is to present the situation of Ukrainian students studying in Przemyśl and Rzeszów. The research was quantitative in nature, with data being collected in an auditorium questionnaire. The sampling for the research was purposive. The research was conducted in 2005 and 2017. 250 and 224 students gave answers to respective questionnaires. Due to asking the same questions, two cohorts of students will be compared and changes between then will be observed. The research pertained to third-year bachelor’s course students.

The research was intended to answer the following questions:

- What are the motivations for Ukrainian students to migrate to Poland?
- What problems do they encounter upon arriving in Poland?
- How do they evaluate everyday life in Poland?
- What are their life plans?

Causes of migrations to study in Poland

In the deliberations regarding the causes of student migrations, an assumption may be made that the youth intending to take a university course will be more willing to leave their home country if there is no possibility to take their preferred course locally.

Chart 1. Was there a similar course available when you started studying in Poland?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2017</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tak</td>
<td>59</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>nie wiem</td>
<td>10</td>
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</table>
The answers presented in the chart show that majority of Ukrainian students, despite being able to take the same or similar course in Ukraine, still decided to study in Poland. Only 1/3 of the students stated that their desired university course was unavailable in Ukraine. Therefore, it should be noted that student migrations have causes other than university program inadequacy - lack of adequate courses in Ukraine.

The results presented in chart 2 show the factors contributing to taking a university course in Poland. Young Ukrainians mainly highlighted the possibility to obtain a degree from a foreign university. Many students also chose Poland because they wanted to travel the world and visit new places. Corruption at Ukrainian universities was another major factor contributing to the decision to migrate. The answers in the questionnaire also suggest that taking a university course abroad was related to the belief according to which the quality of education in Poland is higher and that it would allow the student to better develop their interests. The students also often indicated the possibility to obtain a European degree and believed that it would allow them to find a job and pursue a professional career easier.

Chart 2. Motivations for migrating to study in Poland

229 The data does not sum up to 100% because students were allowed to indicate more than one answer.
To a lesser degree, student migration was also driven by motivations such as: university course is an opportunity to leave the country, Polish laboratories are equipped better, there are better opportunities for good financial standing, there is democracy and freedom of speech, the university is located closer to home (in the context of Przemyśl and Rzeszów). The decision to take a university course in Poland was also partly motivated with better security in Poland, attractive social life, opportunity to become self-reliant and independent of parents.

The comparative analyses also allow for observation of changes. Firstly, the results of qualitative research demonstrated that students choose a university course in Poland because they can obtain a European degree. This category was implemented in the second research and received 42% votes. Also, the increase in the importance of attractive social life was observed (by 13 per cent).

The observations indicate that the importance of corruption as the motivation to study abroad decreased considerably - by 24 per cent. Would that mean that the Ukrainian youth find corruption to decline? The students also less often indicated that their migration to study in Poland results from the issues of security and possibility to take a university course away from a conflict zone (decline by 16 per cent). This may be related to Ukrainian youth becoming accustomed to the conflict, familiar with the situation. Previously, and particularly in the very beginning, such situation could cause anxiety and concerns about military draft. Presently, the impact of this factor decreased greatly, i.e. by 15 per cent.

Further research showed that importance of motivations such as: “it is easier to become independent” (decrease by 8 per cent), “because I can develop my interests here” (decrease by 8 per cent), “it is easier to find a job, pursue a career” (decrease by 13 per cent).

It follows from these observations, that the will to flee a conflict zone and corrupted state contributed to the decision to take a university course in Poland to a degree lesser than expected. The students asked presently are less concerned about these problems. Taking a university course in Poland is supposed to increase life opportunities by obtaining a European degree rather than to escape inhospitable reality. The student choosing a university course in Poland are driven by will to travel the world and try being independent. However, the key factor contributing to migration of the Ukrainian youth is pursuing high quality education or at least obtaining a degree that will certify the obtained qualifications and open

the door to the European labor market. The main objective behind selecting this strategy is achieving high quality of life, professional position and career. Education in Poland is perceived as a means to achieve this objective. The answers from respondents may be construed as an anomaly of social system and reaction to it. The youth assume that they are unable to achieve the desired standards in Ukraine and, therefore, they use innovative strategies, i.e. by deciding to study in Poland where these goals may be achieved easier.

Everyday life of Ukrainian students

Relocation to a foreign country is quite a challenge for a young person. On one hand, such decision is made with new hopes related to taking a university course in a foreign country, whereas on the other hand, various problems may occur that make the integration more difficult.

In the research, a question was asked regarding the problems occurring after arriving in Poland. The students most often reported financial problems which is hardly surprising, considering the difference in earnings in both countries. Ukrainian students considered lack of knowledge of Polish a major obstruction to effective integration.

Chart 3. Problems faced by Ukrainian students in Poland

<table>
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<td>problem logistyczny (organizacja przeprowadzki)</td>
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<tr>
<td>samotność</td>
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<tr>
<td>lęk o życie rodziny na Ukrainie</td>
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<td>trudności związane z kontaktami z instytucjami</td>
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<td>tęsknota za rodziną</td>
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<td>trudności ze znalezieniem znajomych</td>
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<td>brak pieniędzy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
After arriving in Poland, homesickness and limited contact with Polish people are key factors preventing integration. It is hardly surprising, as this refers to persons aged 16-17 well before their adulthood. A commonplace problem is that Ukrainian students isolate themselves and spend the entire free time in their own groups. Such life style reduces their opportunities to make acquaintances among Poles and makes integration more difficult. To a lesser extent, Ukrainian students mentioned issues such as difficulties in finding friends, problems in finding accommodation, difficulties in contacts with various institutions, concerns about family in Ukraine, loneliness, logistic problem with relocation or difficulties accommodating to urban life (particularly for youth from countryside). Only few students stated that everything is all right and they have no problems related to relocation and studying in Poland.

The data from two measurements also allows for comparison of results. The ratio of answers indicating that the insufficient command of language is a problem increased (increase by 11 per cent). In the second questionnaire, the problem of living with compatriots was introduced; previously, such answer was unavailable in the questionnaire. In turn, the problem with finding friends occurred more often (increase by 13 per cent). Also, “loneliness” was mentioned more often (increase by 8 per cent). Besides, the logistic problem with relocation was mentioned more often (increase by 8 per cent).

At the same time, the decline in the rate of answers regarding insufficient money was observed (decrease by 8 per cent), as were the answers mentioning concerns about the security of family in Ukraine (decrease by 6 per cent). This would suggest that Ukrainians cope better in financial terms (grants and scholarships, part-time jobs). The second observed change confirms that the direct impact of the conflict in the eastern Ukraine on the student migration is diminishing.

It clearly follows from these observations that the main difficulties arising after arrival in Poland are financial issues, insufficient command of language and limited contact with Poles. All three factors pose an obstruction towards integration of Ukrainian students with Polish society. Financial problems translate into lower economic status giving rise to a sense of deprivation. I myself witnessed situations in which the Ukrainian students in Przemyśl at the student canteen ordered only half portion of soup but with plenty of bread. Financial problems may also lead to social exclusion, as the Ukrainian youth cannot afford to frequent the same clubs as their Polish peers. Insufficient command of Polish not only makes social interactions more difficult, meaning that Ukrainian students tend to stick together, but also it constitutes a serious barrier in studying and functioning at the university and in
daily situations. Perhaps it is the language problems that make Ukrainian students tend to isolate themselves. The problem is commonly known in Kraków, Rzeszów and Przemyśl. Students do not know Polish very well and they do not communicate with Poles. In turn, limited relationships make learning the language even harder. This situation entails a negative feedback which ultimately leads to Ukrainian students separating themselves and contacting only their compatriots. Perhaps the increased rate of problems in social interactions among the next cohort of Ukrainian students is caused by competitive fight for university achievements and, thus, better positioning on the labor market. The increase in the number of Ukrainian students in Poland may generate animosity between them, since not everyone will be equally successful in achieving their desired high social status. It should be noted, that Polish youth also struggle for better status and are aware of increasing competition. Unquestionably, living abroad is not easy, particularly with limited funds, limited command of Polish and interacting only with Ukrainians.

The satisfaction was evaluated on a five-point scale with 1 meaning no satisfaction and 5 meaning highest satisfaction. The data collected during two measurements show that the Ukrainian students were satisfied most with Internet accessibility at the university, kindness of university staff including those at the faculty office, level of education. The students were slightly less satisfied with opportunities to develop their interests at the university, kindness of local residents, free time opportunities, cultural offer of cities and public transportation system. The least satisfaction was declared regarding the opportunity to find a good job after graduation, possibility to find a job during education and prices of goods and services.

Chart 4. Level of satisfaction with various aspects of studying in Poland.
As compared to research from 2015, it is apparent in the measurement carried out presently that the satisfaction with education level, service at faculty offices, kindness of university staff, availability of computers and kindness of local residents declined. In turn, evaluation of prices in the city, cultural offer and possibilities to spend free time improved. A significant increase in positive feedback was observed regarding the possibility to find a job during education and after graduation.

The aspect that is assessed best is the relationship between the university and the student. The attitude of Polish university staff, administration personnel and digitalization are all assessed highly by Ukrainian students. In comparison to authoritative education system combined with limited digital infrastructure, contact with a Polish university typically results in positive surprise. The worst assessment refers to economic aspects of living in Polish cities. These primarily include high prices and lack of adequate employment after graduation. However, it should be noted that Przemyśl and Rzeszów are peripheral cities with high unemployment rate, particularly among the youth. It is therefore little surprising that these aspects scored the lowest.

It follows from the data that in the second measurement, the relationships at the university generally were assessed worse and relationships regarding the labor market were assessed better. Perhaps, the improvement of economic situation, decreasing unemployment provide more opportunities for employment and this fact is reflected in students’ opinions. The labor market is a key aspect in the evaluation of studying conditions in a given city. Most youth migrate to Poland with a view to raise their living standard. The work and living conditions are naturally a key factor here. If the opportunities in this aspect are limited, the students tend to leave such universities. This is specifically the case of Rzeszów, where the number of Ukrainian students decreases dramatically. The university authorities explain this with students’ migrations to bigger cities, such as: Kraków, Warsaw, Lublin. For it is much easier to find a job and higher wage in metropolises than in peripheries. Furthermore, private universities were more often chosen when a uniform fee of approx. EUR 2000 was charged by state universities. After the legislation changed, each university independently sets the fees for foreign students. They are similar or lower than fees at private universities, resulting in the loss of students from Ukraine by these universities.
Stay in Poland or return to Ukraine?

The final aspect of the conducted research presented in this paper is the question of the surveyed Ukrainian students’ long-term plans. Having received their baccalaureate degree, almost half of the respondents plans to continue education at a master’s course; a third aims to be working and studying simultaneously. Running an own business or finding a job upon graduation seems to be a less popular option.

Young people are focused on receiving an education – and that it their main life strategy. Estimates show that 75% of students will be continuing their education to eventually achieve a master’s degree. This proves the surveyed students are aware of the demands of the labor market. In an age of an inflation of degrees, the level of education has become more important. With an excess of graduates on the market, even people with good education may become jobless. A higher level of education (master) may protect students against joblessness. For this reason, young people are aiming for a master’s degree.

In order to verify our initial assumptions, it may be worth to look at students’ answers to what are their plans upon completing studies. Most surveyed students plan on remaining in Poland after they’ve received their desired education - in 2015 it was 52%, in 2017 – 44%. A significant group of Ukrainian students plans on leaving for other Western
countries in Europe or USA, though – in 2015 it was 34%, in 2017 – 44%. A relatively small percentage of students prefers to return to Ukraine – 15% in 2015 and 13% two years later.

Most surveyed students do not intend to go back to Ukraine after completing their studies. The theoretical assumptions of the presented paper have been confirmed – engaging in academic courses in Poland is seen as a tool to fulfill dreams of a better life. Sadly, the conclusions are not optimistic for the Ukrainian state - the phenomenon described in this paper can be described as a brain drainage that might lead to Ukraine lacking in the educated youth needed to modernize state structures at a decisive moment in history.

**Conclusions**

The article was intended to present social aspects of Ukrainian student migrations to Poland. As a result of conducted research, it was possible to learn about motivations that driven the respondents in their decision to take a university course in Poland. Also, the analysis allowed to become familiar with problems they faced during relocation and their evaluation of the university course and related aspects. The main conclusion of the research is that the youth choose to study in Poland as they want to fulfill their ambitions for high standard of living. The university course or, more specifically, European degree allows, in the students’ view, to find a job in Poland or Western Europe. The obtained results could be considered a kind of anomie adaptation according to Robert Merton\textsuperscript{231}. The youth equipped probably with resources and, particularly, with economic resources, try to leave the country and start a university course in Poland to improve their life opportunities. A classical innovation strategy arises because in the country with corruption, economic and political crisis, the youth do not see any future. The prefer to invest in the education and achieve higher rate of return in Poland or other countries. They choose university courses in Poland because they are relatively cheap. Besides, Poland is the country that is closest to Ukraine in terms of geography and culture. An assumption that in the global reality, the flow of people between countries intensify is indeed true. Students migrate from peripheries towards semi-peripheries or core areas. The data show that young Ukrainians either stay in Poland or migrate further to Western Europe. The university course in Poland typically is a one-way travel. In consequence, Polish universities

\textsuperscript{231} R. Merton, Social theory and structure. PWN, Warsaw 2002.
benefit from this, as they may compensate for the effects of the demographic low, while Ukraine loses valuable human capital that is crucial for modernization of the state undergoing rapid transformations.

References


Ukrainian-Polish educational space of higher education: challenges and prospects for cross-border cooperation

Paper peer-reviewed by Viktor Borshchevskyy, PhD
The formation of a new geopolitical strategy for the development of Ukraine as a European country which is oriented towards European values and democracy involves deep, radical changes in the country itself on the path towards reforms of its political and economic system. No less important for Ukraine is the development of new educational strategies aimed at modernising its higher education system enabling a painless entry into the European educational space. Among the EU member states, the experience of Poland, Ukraine's strategic partner, is particularly important since Poland is currently one of the leaders in attracting foreign students to its national educational programmes. Ukrainians were the main group of foreign students in Poland in the 2015/2016 academic year (53% or 30,000 students) and this trend will further intensify. According to expert forecasts, the number of foreign students in Poland should increase to 5% by 2020.

Following Ukraine's associate membership in the EU, the educational space will become even more open. This presents a good opportunity for international cooperation and cross-border collaboration for both Ukrainian and Polish higher education institutions. Among the priorities one can mention the maximum use of the potential of international exchange programmes for students and teachers (Erasmus+), efforts to launch joint bachelor's and master's programmes with double diplomas with the Polish partners, overcoming barriers to employment, ensuring social security and protection of students, addressing the problems of mutual recognition (validation) of diplomas at the government level.

Introduction

A new geopolitical strategy for Ukraine as a European country oriented towards European values and democracy involves deep, radical changes in the country itself on the path towards reforming its political and economic system. No less important for Ukraine is the development of new educational strategies aimed at modernising the system of higher education and ensuring its painless entry into the European educational space.

Following Ukraine’s associate membership in the EU, the educational space will become even more open. For higher education institutions, this opens up a good opportunity for international cooperation and intensification of cross-border collaboration, in particular in the educational space. The increasing student and academic mobility is a challenge that should help Ukraine focus on building a competitive educational environment, sharing
experiences and avoiding systemic crises. The global trends in education mean that over 4.5 million people study abroad, which represents approximately 2.5% of the total number of students, and a community of more than 177 million people. The largest numbers of foreign students are enrolled in the United States, United Kingdom, China, Germany and France.\textsuperscript{232} Currently, Ukrainian students have a high awareness of the opportunities and ways of studying abroad, and they can calculate all the costs and benefits of such a decision. An increasing number of Ukrainian students are looking at the advantages of European education. The experience of Poland as a strategic partner of Ukraine plays a key role in the context of Poland’s system of higher education and the opportunities it offers for young people who aspire to find a place on European labour markets. What are the expectations of Ukrainian students, what kinds of benefits do they get through studying in Poland, what worries them, what kinds of problems do they encounter? These are just few questions which this article attempts to answer.

Ukrainian students and higher education in Poland

1. The number of Ukrainian students in higher education institutions in Europe and beyond has been systematically increasing. According to the CEDOS think-tank, the number of Ukrainian students in foreign universities in the 2013/2014 academic year was 40,996 (see Table 1). In the 2014/2015 academic year, the number of Ukrainian students abroad already reached 59,648 people. The growth rate between 2009 and 2015 amounted to 129%\textsuperscript{233} Germany, Canada, Italy, Czech Republic, the USA, Spain, Austria, France and Hungary are among the most desirable student destinations today. However, the most significant increase in foreign students, including those from Ukraine, can be observed in Polish higher education institutions.


Table 1. Number of Ukrainian students abroad (full-time programmes) (in thousands)

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Source: CEDOS Analytical Centre, 2014.

According to the Central Statistical Office of Poland (GUS), a total of 4,259 foreign students were enrolled in all forms of education in Poland in the 1990/1991 academic year, the figure for 2000/2001 was 6,563, with 10,092 for 2005/2006, 17,000 for 2009/2010, 35,983
for 2013/2014, 57,119 for in 2015/2016, while the respective figure in the 2016/2017 academic year rose to 65,793.\footnote{234} In fact, the number of foreign students has increased 15.5 times over the past 25 years. As of 2016, foreign students in Poland accounted for 4.1% of the total number of students. On the one hand, this indicator shows increasing popularity of Polish higher education establishments among foreigners (according to the 2020 projections, this figure will reach 5%), but, on the other, it reflects the shrinking student population. Thus, a total of 1.35 million people studied in Poland in 2016, which was by 65 thousand less than in 2015 (with nearly 2 million in 2006).

Most foreign students choose higher educational institutions in the Mazowieckie Voivodeship (30.5%), especially in Warsaw, which has more than 16.5 thousand (6.4% of all students in the capital city). However, Lublin is the most popular Polish destination among foreign students: it had more than 5.6 thousand foreign students in 2016, or 8.3% of the total number of students in that city. In 2016, the largest number of foreign students (2,210) studied at the University of Warsaw. The second place was taken by the Vistula Academy of Finance and Business (2,150), with the Modrzewski Academy in Cracow coming third (2,140). The Top 10 also include the Jagiellonian University (2,139), the Higher School of Computer Science and Management (WSiIZ) in Rzeszów (2009), the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin (1458), the Warsaw School of Technology (1337), the Economic University in Cracow (1251), the Medical University in Lublin (1234) and the Higher School of Management (WSM) in Warsaw (1184).\footnote{235}

Ukraine is also one of the leaders as regards countries of origin of foreign students in Poland, (see Table 2). The share of Ukrainians among foreign students in Poland is fairly significant and tends to increase. For example, in 1998, only 868 Ukrainians undertook a study programme in Poland.\footnote{236} According to GUS data, 15,123 students studied in Polish higher education institutions in 2013, with 23,392 students in 2014, 30,589 in 2015, and 35,584 students in 2016, which accounts for 54% of all foreign students. The second most numerous group of foreign students in Poland (after Ukrainians) are Belarusian students: 5,119 people (10% of the number of foreign students). About a half (47.8%) of Belarusian students are of Polish descent, with the respective figure of 3,520 among Ukrainians (9.9%).\footnote{237}
In other countries, Ukrainians fell behind other student communities and accounted for up to 7%. For example, in Russia and Germany, Ukrainian students accounted for 6.8% and 2.9% respectively. Although the Czech Republic and Hungary attract a lot of Ukrainians, they are a more desirable destination for young people from the Balkan countries, while Ukrainian students accounted for 5.5% and 4.3% in those countries respectively.238

Table 2. Number of foreign students in Poland including students of Polish origin (in thousands)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Foreign nationals</th>
<th>of which: students of Polish origin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>35584</td>
<td>3520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>5119</td>
<td>2445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2138</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1607</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>1531</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1471</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>1242</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1173</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>1061</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>1055</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>953</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>871</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>802</td>
<td>642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>613</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GUS, data as of 30 November 2016.

238 Almost 60 thousand Ukrainians are studying abroad, mostly in Poland – a study, www.life.pravda.com.ua/society/2016/12/14/221512/ (30.08.2017).
One of the reasons behind the rapid increase in the number of young Ukrainians in higher education institutions in Poland is the active policy pursued by the Polish government and the educational institutions themselves, seeking to internationalise their education services. Higher educational institutions in Poland believe that foreign students are a source of additional funding, with private educational institutions being particularly focused on that goal. There were 302 such institutions in the 2014/2015 academic year, and they taught one third of all students. They are most active in advertising their services in Ukraine, using a wide network of recruiters/intermediaries because, according to statistics, more than 60% of Ukrainian candidates opt for private schools. Among other things, the ‘Study in Poland’ programme, which runs large-scale promotional activities, highlights the advantages of studying in Poland whereas the programme website (www.studyinpoland.pl) lists a wide range of educational programmes (over 400) for potential candidates from Ukraine. Ukrainian candidates and their parents tend to choose educational institutions which have Ukrainian-speaking curators, internship and employment centres. According to T. Domański, the cultural proximity of both countries is a prominent argument in favour of Poland, coupled with the perception of Poland as a place that offers ‘security’ and ‘quality education’.239 In addition, Polish universities are experiencing a shrinking influx of local candidates due to demographic reasons and the fact that young Poles head to Western Europe and North America to receive their degrees. Since 2006, Polish universities have seen a gradual decline in the number of students. Since then, this figure has dropped by 28%. The EU has opened enormous opportunities for academic and scholarly mobility: Polish students receive diplomas from leading European universities that provide competitive advantages in the labour markets of developed European countries and the United States. As of 2014, a total of 48 thousand Polish students studied abroad: 2.6 thousand went to France, 1.8 thousand to the United States, and 6.2 thousand young Poles (the highest figure) went to the United Kingdom.240

According to the report entitled ‘Studenci zagraniczni w Polsce 2016’ (Foreign students in Poland 2016), which is based on statistical data for the 2015/2016 academic year, the largest number of Ukrainian students could be found at the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin: 1,256 people (with 954 people in the 2014/2015 academic year). Among private higher educational institutions, the record was held by the Higher School

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of Computer Science and Management in Rzeszów (WSiIZ), which had 1,600 students from Ukraine. It is worth noting that public educational institutions mainly teach Ukrainians who have documented evidence of their Polish roots. For instance, the University of Rzeszów mainly specialises in teaching Ukrainians who have the so-called Polish Card (Karta Polaka). The local authorities believe that by attracting Ukrainian students they can also attract finance and investments to the region and exchange international experience in the field of education.

In the 2013/2014 academic year, the largest number of Ukrainians were studying in Mazowieckie (2865), Lubelskie (1549), Podkarpackie (1459) and Małopolskie (1407) voivodships. Thus, the number of Ukrainian students in the educational institutions of the Podkarpackie voivodship has increased every year. Those institutions include the Higher School of Computer Science and Management in Rzeszów (WSiIZ), the Higher School of Law and Administration in Przemyśl (WSPiA), the State East European Higher School in Przemyśl (PWSW) and the University of Rzeszów (UR). In particular, in 2006 there were 353 students from Ukraine in that voivodship, with as many as 1,459 in 2013 (or 72% of all foreign students). The figure quadrupled in the course of eight years.241 The proximity of the Lubelskie, Podkarpackie and Małopolskie voivodships to the Ukrainian border, the relatively well developed transport infrastructure and ‘proximity to home’ – all these factors often serve as decisive arguments in favour of studying in Poland.242 In addition, as evidenced by the experience of the higher education institutions in Lublin, Ukrainian students are attracted by a broad educational offering, access to libraries, effective administrative services, fair treatment of people from outside Poland, good teaching conditions (large and spacious lecture halls, lighting), competent lecturers, assistance in finding traineeships and a broad access to student exchanges.243 Importantly, while studying in Poland, Ukrainian students will not only learn things, but also work hard because, as research shows, more than half of Ukrainian students (57.0%) came to Poland to study and work (7.0% declared work as the main purpose of their stay), 33.6% came only for the purpose of studying while 2.3% declared a different goal, going beyond education and work.244 The following fields of study are most popular among the Ukrainian students:

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economics, international relations, computer science, administration, tourism and recreation, English studies and logistics.

Because of the growing number of Ukrainian students in selected Polish educational institutions certain researchers started to speak of the phenomenon of ‘Ukrainisation’ of Polish universities.245 The domination of Ukrainians raises a number of social and communication problems. In particular, D. Izdebska-Długosz246 notes that there is a lack of communicative practices between Ukrainian and Polish students, and a tendency to communicate only with their compatriots, which raises concerns about the integration of Ukrainian students into the Polish society. However, these aspects have no significant impact on the overall positive effects and benefits obtained by foreign students studying in Poland. This is evidenced, by the generally positive opinions about the experienced of studying in Poland, reflected in the opinions of Ukrainians published in the local press.

Ukrainian students’ reflections on studying in Poland (based on content analysis of Ukrainian media)

The education system in Poland opens up new prospects for those who want to get education in this country. Ukrainian media have recently published a number of analytical materials on the prospects of getting higher education. Those materials included opinions expressed by young people, in particular those who are still in education or who have already completed their studies in higher education institutions in Poland. An analysis of this aspect can be an important source of information for us, and can help us to tackle the issues of the Ukrainian-Polish educational space in an unbiased way. However, one must be aware that the Ukrainian media space contains a significant number of advertising content that shifts attention only to the benefits of studying in Poland without focusing on the difficulties faced by potential students (especially during the initial period) when studying in this country.

To begin with, let us look at the advantages of studying in Poland (both here and later on, we have provided statements made by Ukrainian students in Polish higher educational

institutions, posted in leading Ukrainian online media such as Ukrainska Pravda, ZAXID.NET, ZBRUZ.EU, ZN.UA, etc.

‘Studying in Poland is a great thing, everything depends on your knowledge, not on your money. I cannot say anything about employment yet, I haven’t planned it. For me, there is no difference if this is a European diploma or not, people who want to get something will get what they want.’ – Natalia P., student of the State Eastern European High School in Przemyśl.

‘For me, the main advantage is that I can study for free, I get a scholarship because I have the Polish Card. I have the opportunity to take free internships, and you can also travel because air tickets and tickets for special buses are very cheap’ – Mariana P., a master’s student at the John Paul II University in Cracow.

‘I chose Poland because my parents don’t have to work to fill the pockets of teachers but only to finance my future... Here you can even get a scholarship if you come from a poor family, whether you are of Polish descent or have shown good academic performance. Now I’m studying in Wroclaw, doing my master’s. Life looks different here. First of all, foreigners don’t get as much attention; in Przemyśl they wanted to have as many foreigners as possible to improve the rating of their higher educational institutions. Secondly, here you need to fight for work, otherwise others will grab the jobs’ – Elena V., master’s student of the University of Wroclaw.

‘After my master’s I have the opportunity to get a traineeship in a commercial company matching my profile, for three to six months. I worked for three months free of charge, then they gave me a minimum salary of several hundred euros, and now I am a full-time employee with a good salary and I plan to settle in Poland for long’ – Ivan R., a graduate of the Modrzewski Academy in Cracow.

‘What I like the most about the Polish education system is the opportunity to repeat the year, a semester or a course when you haven’t scored enough points. Unlike Ukraine, everything is more free in Poland’ – Sergei P., a student at the University of Rzeszów.

‘Polish universities are much better equipped than in Ukraine, especially in the case of technical specialties. Here I feel that I’m doing something modern. Of course, things here can’t be compared with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology or other world class technical universities, but I can feel I’m living in the present, and sometimes even in the near future’ – Andriy K., a doctoral student at the AGH University of Science and Technology in Cracow.
‘If you study a discipline in Poland, you can be sure that you will be an expert in this field. In Poland, in the first year, all students can study some more general subjects, while in Ukraine this may last until your last year of study. They have a more stable system of education, they are more aware of how things work and what comes out of it. A student who is getting educated in Poland is more likely to get a job not only abroad, but also in Ukraine’ – Elena G., a student at the University of Warsaw.

‘The biggest difference between Polish and Ukrainian higher education is that there are more days off than working days: classes are held 2–4 times a week. At the beginning of the semester, lecturers give you a huge list of literature, and afterwards they make presentations and draw up a curriculum. You have enough free time not only to read the necessary literature but also to get some odd jobs’ – Nikita B., a student of the Higher School of Banking, Toruń.

‘I choose Poland only because it is close to Ukraine, and the tuition is very similar to prices in Ukraine. I was attracted by the fact that the Polish language is very similar to Ukrainian and not difficult. Education in Poland offers more prospects for the future, and exchange programmes (such as Erasmus) allow you to go to another country for free. In addition, teachers’ attitude towards students is really great. Very concrete classes and lectures. In addition, 1–2 days in the week are free, which gives you an opportunity to pay more attention to the subjects you’re studying’ – Irina V., a student of the Markevich State Higher Technical and Economic School in Jarosław.

‘My goal was to gain new experience, to challenge myself and, as they say, ‘get out of my comfort zone’. I am very pleased with my education and life in Poland: both the quality and the prospects. The main advantages are the ability to combine studying with work, open borders, a clear evaluation system and a quality curriculum. Now I’m already working in Poland and I plan to stay here’ – Marina S., graduate student at the Jagiellonian University, Krakow.

‘Why Poland? Because it is closer to home and not as expensive as other European countries. I did my master’s in Ukraine and wanted to get education in another field abroad. My goal is to gain new knowledge, discover new opportunities, and improve my English skills. The overall impression about the teaching quality is positive, teachers are very positive about Ukrainian students, they are always happy to help us’ – Olya P., a student at the Poznań University of Economics and Business.

Based on the verbatim statements quoted above, we can highlight some important advantages of studying in Poland.
First of all, Ukrainians point out the accessibility of higher education. The greatest advantages are available to holders of the Polish Card, which opens the doors to free higher education in Poland. On the other hand, many Ukrainians who come to study in Poland avoid an independent external assessment, which is an essential prerequisite for entering the higher education system in Ukraine. In addition, Polish educational institutions declare flexible forms of entry, offering different forms of preferential treatment for foreign students and substantial tuition discounts. One of the reasons behind choosing Poland is a simplified admission system: in many cases the only requirement is to present a school certificate and a certificate of Polish language skills at level B1.

Ukraine is an important target audience for local educational institutions that host students from abroad. Preferential treatment, especially in private educational institutions, is available to all Ukrainians, as opposed to other foreigners, e.g. Belarusians, Norwegians or Spaniards, who also attend Polish universities. The cost of higher education in Poland ranges from EUR 600 to EUR 4,000 per year (in private universities, tuition is significantly cheaper: an average three thousand zlotys per year). For the sake of comparison, education in Germany is twice as expensive. And although tuition is lowest in Ukraine, from EUR 370 to EUR 1,300, Ukrainian universities annually announce price increases by 20–30% before the admission campaign whereas Polish universities, in contrast, announce discounts for Ukrainian candidates of up to 50%, referring to the difficult financial situation after the devaluation of the hryvnia. Rectors now make the relevant decisions if students substantiate their application by proving the financial status of their families. The Ministry of Science and Higher Education of Poland is now getting ready to permit public universities to set the tuition for foreign students on their own. If this happens, public higher education in Poland may become somewhat more accessible to Ukrainians.247

For example, the Higher School of Banking in Toruń, which is a private educational institution with 8,500 students in 16 departments, offers considerable concessions for candidates from Ukraine. The tuition starts from EUR 785, while student accommodation starts from EUR 70 per month. If the candidate has a mean score of not less than 9 in their school certificate, they can be exempted from paying tuition for one year. Talented foreign students with an average score of above 4.85 (out of 5, in Poland), receive rector scholarships; students can pay their tuition in monthly instalments; the cost of accommodation includes two meals a day and dormitories have convenient locations. The School’s statistics indicate that by the third year of study 100% of students find a job, and there are

no unemployed graduates. The university does not require candidates to prove a command of the Polish language at level B1-B2. Instead, they are only required to present initial A2 level skills. If a candidate decides to enter the Higher School of Banking and registers before the beginning of the previous calendar year, the school administration offers free courses of the Polish language.248

Secondly, what attracts Ukrainian students is the opportunity to obtain a European-style diploma, which offers wide opportunities for employment in European labour markets and in the Schengen area. Young Ukrainians who chose Poland for their tertiary education almost unanimously claim that a Polish diploma is more readily recognised in Europe than a Ukrainian one. To a large extent, by choosing to study abroad, Ukrainian students buy a ‘one way ticket’ since, according to ‘OsvitaPoll,’ almost 70% do not return home once they have received Polish education. A European-style diploma in Poland means that Ukrainian students must show serious intellectual mobilisation, thorough preparation for classes training and self-discipline. As one of the Ukrainian students in Poland noted, ‘...you make your own choices what to study and whether or not to attend lectures. But you know that you will be expected to know everything at the exam. One cannot even think of cheating at the exam!’ For many of the surveyed Ukrainians, studying in Poland involves hard day-to-day work rather than a recreational journey. This is also pointed out by the leading Polish higher education institutions. For example, in its educational offers for Ukrainians the Jagiellonian University in Cracow explicitly states that ‘studying is difficult, and a large number of students do not complete their university education.’ The Warsaw University of Technology announces: ‘It is difficult to study here: more than 50% of students drop out after the first year.’ The Warsaw University of Social Science and Humanities (SWPS) notes: ‘... if a student does not pass an examination on one subject from a module of three subjects, they are forced to re-sit the exams in all three subjects. If you re-sit your exam, you must pay for it, sometimes up to EUR 160.’

Thirdly, the absence of corruption is one of the significant advantages of Poland’s higher education. Many Ukrainians do not want to have anything to do with corruption, which makes Polish universities very attractive for them. As pointed out by a Polish sociologist researching labour migration of highly skilled workers in the Polish labour market, J. Konieczna-Sałamatin: ‘Here (in Poland), even if you must pay tuition, you know whom you pay and what you pay for, you sign an agreement, and make your payments under that agreement. This is not what happens in Ukraine, where there have been corruption

schemes. In general, when it comes to corruption, students from Ukraine often say that they come here because they do not want to have anything to do with corruption. International Relations students in Poland say they wouldn’t have been able to apply for the same education in Ukraine. They say they had no money to give bribes. In their opinion, it is much easier to learn the Polish language and study in Poland.\textsuperscript{249}

Fourthly, \textit{participation in international student exchange programmes} is another important aspect that attracts young Ukrainians who come to study in Poland. Polish higher education institutions actively engage in exchange programme for students, lecturers and scholars, and they also expand networks of foreign partners, which is an important factor stimulating their development, youth mobility and improvements in the quality of education. The Erasmus+ programme, which comprises many different scholarships, grants, internships and student exchanges between Polish and European universities, is the most popular student exchange programme. The duration of study and internship can range from 3 months to one year. The European Commission identified Erasmus (launched in 1987) as the most successful educational programme of the EU and an important tool in combating youth unemployment. According to expert estimates, Ukrainian students show significant interest and take an active part Erasmus+. In some cases, the number of applications from Ukrainians is higher than those filed by Polish students.

Poland offers a wide range of programmes focused on learning the country’s culture and heritage, as well as academic internships for potential candidates from Ukraine. Among such programmes which are popular among Ukrainians we should mention the Polish scholarship programme called \textit{Thesaurus Polonia} (intended for researchers conducting research on the culture, history and cultural heritage of Poland and Central Europe), the Polish grant programme \textit{Gaude Polonia} (created for those who promote Polish literature, cultural figures, artists and translators), a free-of-charge study programme \textit{Study Tours to Poland} (intended for students who want to learn more about Poland’s educational environment, culture and customs), \textit{Teraz Wroclaw} student programme (for those who want to study in Wroclaw but have no Polish Card), the Lynn Kirkland scholarship programme for Ukrainians (\textit{Stypendium im L.Kirkland}) (aimed at young experts, politicians, representatives of non-profit organisations and all those who are interested in developing democracy, economics and civil society in their countries and regions), etc.

\textsuperscript{249} \textit{Ukrainian students choose to study in Poland}, www.radiosvoboda.org/a/27079605.html (18.06.2015).
Fifthly, the quality of teaching and the best technical equipment of higher education institutions is another advantage that speaks in favour of studying in Poland. As one of the surveyed female graduates of a Polish university remarked: ‘The only thing we should learn from them is interactivity in the presentation of the material. Most teachers always prepare presentations for their lectures, invite guests and generally try to stimulate interest in their subject. This is probably the main advantage.’ On the other hand, the European Union has made it possible for Polish universities to develop and build large, modern facilities, laboratories, places where you can touch everything and learn your future profession in depth. The technical back-up for the educational process, the state-of-the-art equipment and facilities offer a kick-start for students, motivate them in the context of further personal growth and academic progress. Another advantage of the educational process is its proximity to practice. According to Olena Hrushevskaya who is studying in Poland, ‘...without practice, your knowledge is worthless. In Poland, there is a chance that your knowledge, which you get here, will be appreciated and used in practice.’

Other advantages mentioned by Ukrainian students in Poland they include: a wide range of scholarship programmes, better living conditions, proximity to the border (home), the possibility to explore another culture, customs, traditions, the open borders and the opportunity to travel. In addition, some Polish universities which hold an accreditation from British or North American universities provide access not only to a diploma from their own institution but also a diploma from another university. This greatly enhances the learning opportunities, particularly at the master’s level, as well as education opportunities in other developed countries.

Ukrainian students in Poland should also brace themselves for some difficulties. If we look at the Ukrainian mass media, much less information is available about the difficulties (disadvantages) during the education process. Nevertheless, we have attempted to identify them and offer a systematic overview.

The drawbacks and difficulties of studying in Poland are mentioned in the following quotes.

‘During the first week, everything was new, everything was interesting, but then I got hysterical and started crying. In parallel with your education, you should fix your everyday living...

250 Ukrainian students choose to study in Poland, https://www.radiosvoboda.org/a/27079605.html (10.10.2017)
problems. You can’t complain to your parents, that makes no sense. Over time, you’ll get used to it.’– Anastasiya I., University of Łódź.

‘It was difficult to understand teachers but only in the first two weeks: they seemed to speak very quickly and not clearly. However, by the end of the first month of education, my Polish wasn’t worse than my Ukrainian.’– Nikita B., student of the Higher School of Banking, Toruń.

‘Life is quite different here. At first it’s difficult but when you gradually adapt to it, you can tell that living here is much easier and more accessible than in Ukraine. But I cannot say that I feel better here than at home. On the other hand, I don’t feel like a stranger here.’ – Victoria D., student of the Lublin University of Technology.

‘After coming to study in Poland, the problem of financing their stay and studying foreign languages is the biggest difficulties for Ukrainian students’ – Dmitry Furchak, Head of the Association of Ukrainian Students in Poland, a graduate of the Warsaw Academy of Social Sciences.

‘At first, we have to adapt to a new cultural environment. Even if you have a command of Polish, this doesn’t guarantee that you’ll understand all phrases or some slang expressions. Some young people feel isolated because of this. And there is another problem: social networks, because the students are far from home, and also far from their friends and relatives.’ – Andriy S., student of the Warsaw University of Technology.

‘International students and their families often do not have enough money to pay tuition and ensure a decent standard of living. Moreover, foreigners usually do not get permission to take out loans or other financial assistance and have no work permit. In many universities, in order to get a scholarship, you need to have excellent grades. This situation increases the pressure on students’ mental condition, and makes them feel uneasy, lonely, disappointed, home-sick, missing their home and relatives, and they also experience debilitation, insomnia, headaches, etc.’ – Bohdana V., a student at the Medical University of Lublin.

‘Due to the large number of migrant workers, especially from the western regions of Ukraine, Poles have certain stereotypes of Ukrainians. They seem to think that Ukrainians come to Poland only to earn money, they work for lower wages and take away their jobs. This biased attitude is projected onto Ukrainian students in Poland.’ – Andriy S., a student at the Warsaw University of Social Sciences and Humanities (SWPS)
At first glance, the statements made by Ukrainian students highlight three main problems. The first problem is associated with the social adaptation in a new country. This is especially true for those who came to Poland for the first time. Things such as not knowing the law, having an insufficient command of the local language, living in a new socio-cultural environment, and facing everyday living problems may disrupt a young person's life for some time, and cause various kinds of stressful situations. Another thing that hampers the adaptation process is that some Ukrainians tend to believe that the Polish language can be learned within one month. On the other hand, Ukrainians who come to Poland often live with their compatriots, spend time only with Ukrainians, go out together, travel home together, communicate only with Ukrainians, believing that they will learn the Polish language anyway. This becomes a problem because they cannot communicate easily and feel uncomfortable when communicating with their Polish colleagues and peers. This is especially true for immigrants from the central, southern and eastern regions of Ukraine, who are mentally more distant from Poland. This problem may be resolved thanks to attitudes demonstrated by higher education establishments, which should actively disseminate information and actively involve foreign students, including those from Ukraine, in building a favourable and friendly educational environment.

Social adaptation is a long-lasting, step-by-step process that may last from one to two years in the case of foreign students. The experience of the Markevich State Higher Technical and Economic School in Jaroslaw shows that the duration of the adaptation process in bachelor's programmes could be reduced to no more than 0.5–1 years, and preferably to 3–4 months. This is facilitated thanks to the traditional ‘open door days’ for potential candidates from Ukraine, where candidates can get information about the terms of admission and get a list of disciplines translated into Ukrainian (also available from the School's website) and information about courses of the Polish language offered by the School. Another important element facilitating the social adaptation is that the management of the School and the faculty take part in trade fairs held in Ukraine. The school also organises integration meetings and joint recreational activities for Polish and Ukrainian students to build the perception of ‘us’ as a united educational community. As stated by Victoria Gerun, who has been working on the Study in Lublin project for five years and is a graduate of the Lublin University of Technology, Ukrainian students in Poland should bear the following in mind: ‘make sure to learn the Polish language – this is the basis, plus English or German, as this will help you to find a job. Make the most of the educational opportunities: go to Erasmus, compete for a scholarship, and sign up for a volunteering programme.'
Stay at a student dormitory, communicate with the Poles more frequently. And don't be afraid of travelling...

The second problem are the financial aspects of staying in Poland. According to the estimates published by Ukrainian journalists, the minimum sum needed to cover the monthly living expenses of a Ukrainian student in Poland is PLN 1,000, provided that the student lives in a dormitory and prepares his/her own meals. The average cost of living is PLN 1,200, which is approx. EUR 280 on average. A lot depends on the parents’ financial capabilities and readiness to support their children. A student’s monthly expenses will vary, depending on the location, living conditions, as well as needs and ambitions. Ukrainian students can expect to spend most during the first month of studying (monthly public transport pass, insurance, books, stationery, rent, and tutors). Later on, the costs will decline to some extent (How much do students spend in Poland and what do they buy?). It should be noted that Ukrainian students in Poland actively combine learning with working in their free time. According to sociological surveys, only 16.0% of the surveyed Ukrainian students in Poland did not show a desire to combine education and work, and 36.5% already worked on a permanent basis. As regards sectors where Ukrainian students found jobs, 26.3% mentioned retail trade; 20.0% hotel and restaurant business. Construction, industry, transport were mentioned by up 10% respectively, household services were mentioned by 8.4%; and other sectors by 17.4%. It should be emphasised that money earned from work is the main source of income for 28.7% of the surveyed students.

The third problem is a certain bias and stereotypes that some Ukrainian students may encounter in Poland. To a large extent, they are connected with the large number of Ukrainian workers in Poland (over 1 million people), as well as the difficult, sometimes dramatic events in the Ukrainian-Polish relations, and certain everyday misunderstandings (accent, poor command of the Polish language, poor manners, etc.). The growing number of Ukrainian migrant workers and students poses certain risks with regard to attitudes towards foreigners. A survey conducted in 2015 by Ipsos for the International Labour Organisation showed that 35% of the surveyed Poles polled believe that Ukrainians may pose a threat to Poland’s security (the respective indices for the Vietnamese, Western

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Europeans, Americans, Canadians, Africans and Hispanics range from 19 to 21%; the only higher figure was recorded for Arabs: 55%), even though 47% of the surveyed Poles consider Ukrainians to be close culturally. The aforementioned survey showed an overall positive effect of the presence of Ukrainians for the Polish economy as a whole. It is interesting that Poles most appreciate the idea to invite migrant workers in sectors such as construction, agriculture and car repairs, but have a negative opinion on migrant workers in positions such as civil servants, teachers, lawyers, doctors, nurses, directors of state-owned companies etc.

Conclusions

Cross-border cooperation is one of the main tasks of the regional development policy in Ukraine, as well as the driving force of European integration. Poland has been recognised as the main cross-border partner of Ukraine due to the intensity of foreign economic relations, active social and humanitarian cooperation and the scale of migration. Close cooperation with Poland at all levels has created real prerequisites for the development of sustainable migration flows and for the increasing migration activity for people from the western regions of Ukraine. Today, Poland sets a new format for its relations with Ukraine, which can help it to address its own socio-economic problems. Poland is actively expanding the network of interregional cooperation with Ukraine, initiating relevant agreements and memoranda at the regional and local level, swiftly opening its borders to Ukrainians, trying to improve the degree of socio-economic security of Ukrainian citizens in its territory.

This applies to educational mobility, which is a powerful factor in scientific, didactic and intercultural exchange between the two countries. In our opinion, the following pressing issues need to be addressed:

- creating the necessary conditions for simplified mutual recognition of education diplomas, as the number of Ukrainians who have received master’s degrees or a PhD abroad has rapidly increased. The existence of a bilateral agreement between Ukraine and Poland on mutual recognition and equivalence of education documents and academic titles does not guarantee automatic validation for

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diploma holders since the re-certification procedure is inevitable, and it may involve additional fees, confirmation of relevant documents etc. and it may take several months. Although Ukraine is a party to the Bologna process and a party to the Lisbon Convention on the recognition of higher education diplomas, this does not mean that diplomas from Ukrainian higher education institutions will be automatically recognised in other countries. For educational institutions in the European Union (and beyond), the compliance of Ukrainian diplomas with their requirements must be proved personally in each individual case. Ukraine is moving towards the simplification of the recognition procedure but not towards full abolition (relevant amendments have been adopted and came into force on 26 June 2015). The right to recognise education documents can be now exercised not only by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine but also by universities. However, recognition procedures are primarily relevant for those who seek to confirm their professional qualifications, to continue their education in the country, and for graduates of foreign universities who are formally employed in government institutions and become civil servants. The diploma recognition procedures are of particular relevance for scholars and academic teachers as they remain complicated and cumbersome. According to T. Dobko, the First Vice-Rector of the Ukrainian Catholic University: ‘A degree from leading Western European universities takes 5 to 7 years of really hard work. After getting their degree, people come back, and Ukraine requires them to undergo an additional procedure, which lasts almost a year. The simplified procedure for legalising academic degrees is the minimum that Ukraine is simply obliged to undertake in order to encourage Ukrainian graduates of Western European universities to return to Ukraine. This will show how we really treat people who are able to bring innovative thinking and added value to the Ukrainian society’\textsuperscript{256};

\begin{itemize}
\item intensified efforts to enhance international cooperation in the sphere of education and science between Ukrainian and Polish higher educational establishments. Student and teacher exchange programs (Erasmus+) are particularly significant, and so are joint research projects that will determine the prospects of cross-border cooperation in areas such as public challenges in the Ukrainian-Polish border region, the economic development strategy of the Carpathian Euroregion, historical and cultural heritage in the context of the harmonisation of Ukrainian-Polish.
\end{itemize}

\textsuperscript{256} Dobko T., A simplified procedure for recognising diplomas is Ukraine’s duty to graduates of Western universities, www. lb.ua/blog/taras_dobko/263522_sproshchena_protsedura_viznannya.html (14.08.2016).
relations, the Ukrainian-Polish educational space in the face of modern challenges. In the context of the latter, initiatives on creating common bachelor’s and master’s programmes are becoming increasingly popular in the Ukrainian and Polish educational circles. For example, the Institute of Eastern Studies at the University of Warsaw, together with the National University of ‘Ostroh Academy’ has invited candidates to study at the joint biennial Polish-Ukrainian Master’s Programme in Political Science (Eastern Studies), which offers a dual Ukrainian-Polish diploma, a stipend and fully paid six-month training in Poland, academic preparation for postgraduate and PhD programmes, direct participation in research projects and the possibility of conducting own fieldwork, courses taught by visiting lecturers from leading universities of the world and Ukraine, as well as an interdisciplinary approach and modern teaching methods. This can be seen as evidence of genuine academic cooperation that enriches young people not only thanks to the European experience they receive, it also focuses on competitive advantages in the labour market, and on returning to their home country with a desire for changing it for the better.

• providing social security for young people studying abroad. One of the priority directions in the public social policy in the field of education is aimed at providing and ensuring social security for young people. In this case, social security involves the creation of comfortable and safe living conditions and education, primarily for students who have chosen to study abroad. A special responsibility here rests with the country that admits students, offering education and jobs. Accordingly, ‘compliance with the social standards of quality and living standards is an important tool for providing social security. The state should prioritise the optimal social standards rather than a minimum social standard and it should provide different population groups with equal social opportunities, the prospects for horizontal and vertical mobility and conditions for personal growth.’ One of the motivations highlighted by Polish sociologists who analysed the reasons behind the educational migration of Ukrainians to Poland, is the safety factor, i.e. distance from the war and economic hardships. In this sense, education in another country is an opportunity for young Ukrainians to leave their home country. However, this understanding of security is somewhat narrowed because

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path to education across the border also helps them to avoid fraud in the filing of documents, enjoy guaranteed conditions of study and residence, social security, tolerance, lack of discrimination in the grounds of nationality etc. Within the framework of cross-border cooperation, the issue of border security remains open. Borders and the border crossing procedures remain the most bothersome element in the context of growing labour migration and especially educational migration. An important task for the authorities on both sides of the border is to build additional pedestrian crossings and transport corridors that can be safely and quickly crossed by both Ukrainian and Polish students.

A good understanding of the existing problems in the education system of both countries paves the way for dialogue and helps them to explore the real mechanisms and causes of educational mobility. Efforts to build relationships on a parity basis and to activate cross-border cooperation are a promising way to build constructive strategies enabling young people in both countries to fulfil their educational aspirations. Importantly, the educational space should not be a one-way street but something that enables two-way traffic. While following this path, it is important to remove barriers that prevent the countries from moving forward. This is especially true for Poland and also for Ukraine, which declared the rule of law and democracy as its vectors towards European integration.

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Cross-border cooperation between Ukraine and EU countries as foundation for development of the Carpathian euroregion

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Sergiy Legenchuk, PhD
Summary

The current status of cooperation between Ukraine and European Union member states was analyzed in the context of the Carpathian Euroregion created thereby. Main priority areas of euroregional cooperation were defined: development of an advanced economic structure in the region, increased foreign capital inflow, shared use of power resources, implementation of regional development programs, manufacture of competitive products; development of the healthcare, social and cultural security system; promotion of tourism, enhancement of transport connections in the Carpathian Euroregion; strengthening of European and Atlantic collaboration et al.

Latest institutional forms of cross-border cooperation spread in EU countries were described, namely: European Grouping of Territorial Cooperation (EGTC), Association of Euroregional Cooperation (AEC), Cross-Border Clusters (CBC), Innovative Cross-Border Projects (ICBP), Cross-Border Industrial Parks (CBIP), Cross-Border Partnerships, Klondiking, Cross-Border Trade etc.; their capacities to promote regional development were identified.

It was emphasized that the positive aspects of establishment of the International Association “Carpathian Euroregion“ include partnership relations with Poland’s Podkarpackie Voivodeship, Slovakia, Romania, Hungary, Czech and German regions.

An investigation into the new opportunities of cross-border cooperation development in the Carpathian Euroregion also revealed a number of issues hampering its full-fledged functioning: overly large geographic scale causing difficulties in multi-sided contacts within the Association; inconsistency of national parties’ competences due to different systems of the administrative and territorial structure in the five countries; lack of single funding sources for the Carpathian Euroregion at large under the European Union cooperation programs; inadequate economic component in the cross-border projects implemented.

To overcome the above deficiencies in the development of cross-border cooperation involving the Interregional Association “Carpathian Euroregion“, the Author stresses the need for creating a new common operational EU program in the 2014-2020 term – “Carpathian Horizon“ for the Carpathian region. Proposals are made for implementing the “Carpathian Horizon“ operational program, in particular: to build efficient cooperative
structures; create coordination mechanisms for interregional partnership; design a development strategy for the cross-border Carpathian region involving EU funding.

It is proposed to implement positive institutional experience of the Alpine Space Euroregion in order to improve the functioning of the Ukrainian side of Carpathian Euroregion.

Introduction

The European integration line of activity was identified as the most important strategic priority of Ukraine’s national policy, defining the nature of modernization processes and the vector of changes in the political, socio-economic and regional development of our country. Hence the new opportunities for accelerating the processes of European integration which generate a need for reforming the national regional policy in Ukraine and set the priorities for bringing its goals and principles in line with the European criteria of stable balanced regional growth.

An expanded participation in the European regional cooperation and development of two-sided state-to-state relations is one of the focal points of Ukraine’s international policy. It is essential that this policy unlock the cross-border cooperation potential and enhance the efficiency of euroregional functioning.

The activities of euroregions are an important constituent of the European system of priorities which when put into practice are ultimately aimed at the integration of states through integration of regions. However, in view of Ukraine’s European prospects, the current focus of its international cooperation consists in the development of euroregions as an important step towards acquiring the status of a full-scale member of the European Union.

Subject Matter

Pursuant to the Law of Ukraine “On Cross-Border Cooperation”\(^{260}\), one of the key principles of cross-border cooperation is coordinated elimination of political, economic, legal, administrative and other obstacles hindering mutual cooperation. It should be noted that

no substantial modifications or amendments were made to this document in 11 years. It was only in 2010 that the Law of Ukraine “On Amendments to the Law of Ukraine “On Cross-Border Cooperation” specified that “to enable shared funding of cross-border cooperation projects (programs) it is allowed to utilize international technical support and credit resources of international financial organizations in keeping with the Ukrainian legislation”261.

At the same time, the basic document in Ukraine defining the regional policy in the domain of cross-border cooperation is the National Strategy of Regional Development in Ukraine for the period till 2020 which identifies the development of cross-border cooperation as one of the main tasks in the context of two strategic development objectives. Furthermore, one of the tools envisaged for the Strategy implementation is represented by state programs of cross-border development which provide for consolidation of efforts designed to promote growth of euroregions, liquidate infrastructural and administrative barriers to activate collaboration of frontier territories, implement joint operations in small and medium business, enhance the competitive ability of regions, develop their production and social infrastructure.262

The experience of European countries shows that the development of cross-border cooperation is directly dependent on the condition of national legal support thereof, as well as state regional and integration policies. And even notwithstanding the fact of signing the Association Agreement between Ukraine and European Union on June 27, 2014 and ratification of Protocol No.3 to the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities, which should have given powerful momentum to activate cross-border cooperation, the process of ratification of the former and implementation of the latter is relatively slow-paced.

Euroregions are currently the most meaningful institutionalized form of cross-border cooperation. Accordingly, the vision and opportunities of euroregional cooperation and interaction are expanded under the framework of institutionalized structures of cross-border cooperation. The role of euroregional collaboration in the system of cross-border cooperation is shown in Figure 1.

Apart from euroregions detailed further herein, there are other institutional forms of cross-border cooperation: European Grouping of Territorial Cooperation (EGTC), Association of Euroregional Cooperation (AEC), Cross-Border Clusters (CBC), Innovative Cross-Border Projects (ICBP), Cross-Border Industrial Parks (CBIP), Cross-Border Partnerships, Klondiking, Cross-Border Trade etc.; implementation of these not only improves the mechanism of assuring competitiveness of frontier territories and eliminates the issues of cross-border cooperation but also expands the opportunities and changes the vision of the essence of euroregional cooperation.

European Grouping of Territorial Cooperation (EGTC) is the new dominant form of cross-border cooperation. The relevant regulatory framework of its functioning was introduced with the approval of EGTC Regulation No. 1082 / 2006 as of July 05, 2006 by the European Parliament and Council of Europe.
The key task of the EGTC institute was to simplify procedures and trigger the processes of cross-border, cross-national, interstate and interregional cooperation with consideration for deepening the processes of socio-economic grouping. Institutional formations of this kind have the status of a legal entity and are established by at least two EU member states in the territory of third countries (non-EU states, i.e. countries with the status of EU associate member).

*Unr-Tisa-Tur-Slana* (incorporating the territories of Hungary, Slovakia and Romania) is an example of a successful EGTC in the EU. However, it should be noted that in the EU countries EGTCs do not cancel the institute of euroregions, only shifting the focus of regional development to implementation of social environmental and infrastructural projects.

Associations of Euroregional Cooperation (AEC) are the latest form of cross-border cooperation. The legislative framework of their operation was laid out on November 16, 2009 upon signing of Protocol No.3 to the European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Cooperation between Territorial Communities or Authorities. The provisions of this protocol envisage creation of AEC – institutional platforms for implementation of cross-border and cross-territory cooperation projects within the scope of authorities granted by the internal laws of countries whose territories are involved in the relevant associations. These can be joined both by EU member states and by countries which are not part of the EU but are members of the Council of Europe and ratified the Framework Convention and additional protocols thereto.

Cross-Border Industrial Parks (CBIP) are another innovative form of cross-border cooperation. As of today 12 industrial parks have been officially registered in Ukraine but only four are in operation: IP “Korosten” in Korosten city; IP “Solomonovo” in Zakarpattia; “Lviv Industrial Park Riasne-2” and IP “Svema” in Shostka city. Another five parks are in the establishment stage now.

It is worth mentioning a common cross-border tourist brand, “Polissia”, set up in October 2014 as a Polish-Belorussian cross-border cluster (CBC) uniting the regions of Lublin Voivodeship, Volyn and Brest which have similar environmental assets, culture and history.

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In 2015 Chelm Economic Chamber and Lesya Ukrainka Eastern European National University signed an agreement for establishment a cross-border cluster, “Cross-Border Innovation Cluster”\textsuperscript{264}. It is designed to create space for the development of new innovative products and services; commercialization of research centers’ potential; realization of scientific research; arrangement of education, practical training, workshops and conferences on the issues of innovation development and commercial operations; creation and servicing of the awareness raising and experience sharing system et al.

Thus, the new forms of cross-border cooperation, and euroregions as well, share the main features of euroregional cooperation, that is: higher degree of institutionalization of cooperation structures or relevant coordinating structure, and the focus on European integration. Therefore it can be said that today’s euroregional cooperation is not limited to euroregions. These functions, as previously noted, may be taken on by EGTC, AEC and other forms of cross-border cooperation which are absolutely new structures of institutional support and have characteristic properties of euroregional cooperation. Collaboration within the limits of border trade or implementation of cross-border projects, however, occurs without creating a dedicated set of bodies, and for this reason these organizational forms of cross-border cooperation cannot perform the functions of euroregional cooperation.

But the principal tool for implementing the principles of cross-border cooperation is creation of euroregions which constitute an organizational form of collaboration between administrative and territorial units of European states, effected under bi- or multilateral agreements for cross-border cooperation.

Even today euroregions remain the most widely spread form of cross-border cooperation supported by Ukraine. In particular, euroregions “Carpathian”, “Bug”, “Lower Danube”, “Upper Prut”, “Donbas”, “Dniester”, Association “Black Sea Euroregion” have significant impact on the resolution of systemic issues pertaining to regional development in Ukraine.

When assessing the effectiveness of operation of euroregions involving Ukraine and considering the positive influence on the promotion of regional development in Ukraine, it is appropriate to define their specialization in the following areas\textsuperscript{265}:

\textsuperscript{264} Cross-Border Innovation Cluster Created, official webpage of Lesya Ukrainka Eastern European National University, www.eenu.edu.ua (03.10.2017).

\textsuperscript{265} S.O. Bila, Carpathian Euroregion as a Factor of European Integration of Ukraine, “Regionalna polityka”, 3 (2013), c. 78–88.
• optimization of cross-border migration and commodity circulation processes, implementation of joint environmental projects. A brilliant example – arrangement of the “Warsaw Bridge” crossing point, creation of UNESCO Biosphere Reserve “Prybuzke Polissia” (Bug Euroregion).

• environmental protection, integration of frontier regions’ cross-border infrastructure into a single network of European transport corridors, formation of a common cultural space in the territory of Danube region, fight against organized crime, prevention of and recovery from manmade disasters. For example, successful implementation of the project “Danube Lakes”, establishment of an informational and analytic center for forecasting and preventing floods etc.

• comprehensive development of commercial and economic relations; activities designed to enforce the environmental policy; development of cross-border and transportations infrastructure; support of regional projects focusing on science, education, culture, tourism;

• contribution to comprehensive balanced socio-economic growth of territories, realization of projects related to environmental protection, promotion of scientific, educational, cultural and sports cooperation. In particular, we can single out the following fruitful projects in this domain: purification of Seversky Donets river basin; development of the tourist infrastructure in Luhansk region, simplification of procedures and elimination of administrative restrictions in transportation and transit connections.

• enhancement of cooperation between regions and municipalities of the Black Sea countries (Bulgaria, Romania, Ukraine, Georgia, Turkey, Greece, Serbia, Albania, Armenia, Moldova and Azerbaijan), including design and implementation of joint environmental infrastructural and energy projects, ecological preservation of coastal zones, management of migration movements and creation of modern border infrastructure facilities. As an example, “Black Sea Euroregion” established as an EGTC.

• stimulation of state-to-state interregional cooperation in the environmental and humanitarian spheres (“Dniester Euroregion”) etc.
The first project of this kind was the Carpathian Euroregion (“Euroregion Karpaty”) established in 1993 in Debrecen city (Hungary), incorporating 19 territorial and administrative units of Poland, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia and Ukraine. It should be noted that the Ukrainian side of the euroregion includes Zakarpattia, Ivano-Frankivsk, Lviv and Chernivtsi regions, hence one may talk of development of the western regions of Ukraine. By this declaration the governments of the above countries had supported the willingness of local governance bodies and local administration in the region of Carpathian Mountains and Tysa river to create the “Carpathian Euroregion” as a structure for maintaining long-term cooperative relations between its participants.

It is worth mentioning the peculiarities of the Carpathian Euroregion as a tool of cross-border activities. First of all, this is an organization established on the territory of the former socialist camp. The regions incorporated in the Carpathian Euroregion have common past, cultural and geopolitical connections. Still, all of them have a different resource potential and economic development level; moreover, they are the depressed territories of their own countries from the viewpoint of socio-economic indicators.

The priority areas of euroregional cooperation include: development of the modern economic structure of the region, increase of foreign capital inflow, shared utilization of power resources, design of regional development programs, manufacture of competitive products; development of the healthcare, social and cultural security system; design of the common environmental policy, multifaceted development of tourism, enhancement of transport connections in the Carpathian Euroregion, overcoming the issue of the underdeveloped infrastructure; strengthening of European and Atlantic collaboration.

The positive aspects of creating the Interregional Association “Carpathian Euroregion” include partnership relations with Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County of Hungary, Košický and Prešovský Kraj of Slovakia, Maramureș and Satu Mare Counties of Romania, Podkarpackie Voivodeship of Poland and a number of regions in the Czech Republic and Germany. This kind of collaboration yields tangible results in the economic and social sphere. Thus, in terms of foreign direct investments made in Zakarpattia economy, Hungary ranks fourth in the EU, Poland ranks sixth, Slovakia – eighth. These Carpathian Euroregion countries account for almost 23.0% of the total foreign direct investments in Ukraine.

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267 Ibid.
Also in this region a Polish-Ukrainian project was implemented, “Developing cities – Using Polish and Ukrainian experience in building modern local governance”. It is also worth mentioning the funding of four projects in Zakarpattia region within the framework of Ukraine-Slovakia-Hungary Neighborhood Program, totaling 2.75 million euro, namely: “Development of Beregovo Transboundary Polder System in Tysa River Basin”, “Pure Water”, “Cross-Border Development Opportunities for Transport Logistics” and “Improving Cross-Border Road Traffic through the Construction of a Bypass Road around Beregovo”.

It should also be emphasized that the Carpathian Euroregion is an important tool of cooperation between local and regional Ukrainian authorities and the European Union at large, not only specific countries. In particular, cooperative relations have been established by now with international structures, including the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, MAAS-Reyin Euroregion.

An investigation into the new opportunities of cross-border cooperation development in the Carpathian Euroregion also revealed a number of issues hampering its full-fledged functioning:

1. Lack of a clear regulatory framework governing the operations of the Karpaty Euroregion, substantially restricting management capabilities of the public authorities. E.g., the Charter of the Carpathian Euroregion does not explain which institutions are national parties. Therefore, Ukrainian and Hungarian regions, Romanian counties and Slovakian kraje should provide for additional coordination of their administrative organizational and financial activities within the framework of the Carpathian Euroregion.

2. An overly large geographic scale causing difficulties in multi-sided contacts within the Association, with cooperation predominantly effected in a bilateral format.

3. Inconsistency of national parties’ competences due to different systems of the administrative and territorial structure in the five countries. This raises the issue of determining similar administrative units with the same powers, especially on the local level, within which cooperation could develop.

4. Lack of single funding sources for the Carpathian Euroregion at large under the European Union cooperation programs.

5. Insufficient program funding, namely Ukraine's share therein, and inconsistent project financing within the Carpathian Euroregion. For instance, cross-border cooperation within “Karpaty” Euroregion is financed by the European Union on account of adjacent cross-border cooperation programs and not under a separate operational EU program.

6. Inadequate economic component in the implemented cross-border projects which pursue predominantly social or cultural objectives. In particular, the indicative financial package for Ukraine under the National Indicative Program for 2007-2013 makes 381.557 million euro (see Table 1). According to this program, three priority areas are financed: support of democratic development and good governance, regulatory reform and development of administration opportunities, infrastructure development. It should be stressed that until now the EU has not viewed the Carpathian region as an integral environmental economic and humanitarian system, and three separate programs (see Table 1) are being implemented in the territory of this project for the Ukrainian Carpathians in 2007-2013, evidencing lack of consistent approach towards treating the Carpathians as common European heritage.
Table 1. Indicative EU allocations for cross-border cooperation programs in 2007-2013, mln EUR\textsuperscript{270}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cross-border program</th>
<th>Amount of funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland/Belorussia/Ukraine</td>
<td>186.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary/Slovakia/Ukraine/Romania</td>
<td>68.638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania/Moldova/Ukraine</td>
<td>126.718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>381.557</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, as a consequence of institutional inconsistency of strategic planning, funding and coordination of regional development processes on the Ukrainian part and on the part of member states of “Karpaty” Euroregion, Ukraine does not fully utilize its resource potential as a regional platform for accelerating European integration.

This urgently calls for working out a common position by the member countries of the International Association “Carpathian Euroregion” regarding the need to implement, in the 2014-2020 term, a single operational EU program (working title – “Carpathian Horizon”) for the Carpathian region, and to submit proposals to the European Commission concerning specific institutional and financial solutions perceived by the governments of Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Hungary and Ukraine.

This initiative was supported by members of the Carpathian Euroregion, resulting in the adoption of decision “On Elaboration of a Separate Operational “Carpathian Program” at the 39\textsuperscript{th} meeting of the International Association “Carpathian Euroregion” Council, Resolution 315 (2010) “Sustainable Development of Mountain Regions and Experience of the Carpathian Mountains” of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe, and Recommendation 296 (2010) on this matter.

Relevant implementation structures are required to realize the EU program design initiative for the Carpathian region. Their creation began in 2000 with the establishment of Association “Carpathian Euroregion Poland”. In 2007 its prototype was set up in Ukraine – Association of Local Self-governments “Euroregion Carpathians – Ukraine” which in 2008 was recognized by the Council of the Carpathian Euroregion as the National Representative Body of Ukraine in the Carpathian Euroregion, and in 2009 Association “Carpathian Euroregion Slovakia – North” was established. Thus, a cooperation triangle was created.

\textsuperscript{270} Ibid.
in the Carpathian Euroregion – the Carpathian Consortium which is to be transformed into a European Grouping of Territorial Cooperation for the Carpathian region. The goal of this structural reorganization of the existing bodies within the Carpathian Euroregion is to adapt to new conditions of territorial cooperation in Europe set forth, inter alia, in Regulation No.1082/2006 as of July 05, 2006 of the European Parliament and Council of Europe on European groupings of territorial cooperation, which determines that the above groupings must become the operators of EU program funds designated for territorial cooperation. As the first step towards achieving this goal, an international agreement for creation of the “Carpathian Consortium” was signed on February 20, 2009 between the Association of Local Self-governments “Euroregion Carpathians – Ukraine”, Association “Carpathian Euroregion Poland” and Association “Carpathian Euroregion Slovakia – North”. The main objective pursued by the Carpathian Consortium is to provide conditions for socio-economic development of the Carpathians through establishment of extended partnership relations between public, private and non-government entities on the local, regional and national levels. The following bodies should be set up to meet the needs of the Carpathian program development initiative: Program Council, Supervisory Committee and Coordinating (Project) Group. Where necessary, additional Project Groups shall be established to perform specific tasks within clearly identified competences.

Conclusions

The institutional potential of the Carpathian Euroregion as a regional platform for Ukraine’s European integration has a number of dimensions.

First of all, it is about the organizational-institutional and legal dimension which provides for harmonization of activities of the Ukrainian party to the “Karpaty” Euroregion with the strategic priorities of Ukraine’s European integration, as well as practical utilization of opportunities granted to the Ukrainian party within the framework of international initiatives and Euroregion projects. The primary task is to improve the situation in the sphere of local access on the regional level; in the sphere of transportation and transit services, development of recreation and “green tourism”; construction of facilities at border crossing points; implementation of environmental projects etc. The principal institutional challenges promoting the process of European integration are: Ukraine must comply with Recommendation 296 “Sustainable Development of Mountain Regions and Experience of the Carpathian Mountains” of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities, and
bring the basic provisions of the National Program for Sustainable Development of the Ukrainian Carpathians in line with the main provisions of the Carpathian Convention and the Carpathian Region Development Strategy envisaged in the Carpathian Convention.

As for the legal platform of Ukraine's European integration, it should be founded upon a set of regulatory legal documents governing regional development, harmonized with basic reference points of the EU legislation in this domain.

Also important for activating Ukraine's European integration efforts is infrastructure development which offers a promising and long-term area of cooperation between our country, member countries of the Carpathian Euroregion and EU member states. In particular, this means interregional and interstate cooperation in the area of infrastructural support of the Carpathian Euroregion's operations. In the first place, this is about the development of the road and transport infrastructure, border infrastructure, information and communications infrastructure, financial and social infrastructures, tourism and recreation infrastructure. Development of advanced logistics networks of transport and transit connections, participation in “European transport corridors”; introduction of facilities at border crossing points etc. are of particular importance for our country.

Provision of organizational and institutional support to stimulate manufacturing processes and enhancement of production cooperation in the Carpathian Euroregion are a power driver capable of accelerating the processes of Ukraine's European integration. Cross-border clusters play a major part here, and their development will contribute to competitive growth of the Ukrainian production and have a positive impact on the promotion of Ukrainian goods in the European markets.

The acceleration of European integration processes in Ukraine is largely reliant on the coordination and harmonization of actions of interstate and interregional cooperation in the area of strategic planning of the “Carpathian Horizon” initiative. In particular, it is instrumental for Ukraine to implement positive institutional experience of the Alpine Space Euroregion; to comply with the strategic priorities of regional development set forth in the Alpine Convention; put these into practice for the development of euroregions involving the Ukrainian party.

Promotion and approval of the strategic initiative of the Polish and Ukrainian sides of the Carpathian Euroregion “Carpathian Horizon” is an effective driver of cross-border
cooperation development which will eventually enable institutional support of the design and approval of the “Carpathian Space” program with the status of an Operational EU Program.

Implementation of the above initiative will help increase the efficiency of operations of the Carpathian Euroregion, create effective cooperation structures and partnerships to assure sustainable development of the cross-border Carpathian region.

References


The role and tasks of non-governmental organisations in the context of the social security

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

The emergence, development and activity of NGOs should be regarded as one of main determinants of the development of the civil society. This type of organizations is defined as the third type of public and market organizations, meeting the collective needs of social services, including the need for the security.

The social security is generally understood as the protection of existential foundations of human life, the provision of the ability to meet individual needs (material and spiritual), and the realization of life aspirations through creating conditions for work and study, the protection of health or the provision of various forms of assistance to individuals and groups who, because of external circumstances (catastrophes, wars) require the support. The particular nature of the security is that it is a value that protects other values such as life, health, freedom, humanity.

This article is an attempt to present the role and mission of NGOs providing the assistance and support to foreigners in the context of functioning of the Caritas Assistance Center for Migrant and Refugee in the Archdiocese of Lublin. It is a specialized center established in 1995 to provide the assistance and support to foreigners residing in Poland.

The Assistance Center for Migrant and Refugee in Lublin offers specialized assistance in counseling and legal aid, psychological counseling and counseling and social assistance, which is addressed to following categories of persons: applicants for the refugee status, persons having the complementary form of protection, recognized refugee, migrants, repatriates.

Non-governmental organizations - introductory notes

One of the most perceptible phenomena of the modern world is the increasing importance of non-governmental organizations. In the case of developed capitalist societies, where NGOs are a permanent and significant part of the sphere of social institutions, the basis for social economy is found in them, whereas in the post-socialist states, the third sector takes on a whole new dimension, with which the hopes for the development of civil society are linked. Currently the most common method of determining the scope of the so-called the third sector is a set of 5 characteristics that an organization must fulfil to qualify as a non-profit sector, prepared in the international study coordinated by Johns Hopkins
According to Andrzej Juros, these are: the existence of organizational structure and formal registration, structural independence from public authorities, non-profit character, sovereignty and self-government, and voluntary of belonging.\textsuperscript{271}

Non-governmental organizations, complementing the institutional structure of the state, become an important element of social cooperation and self-help. Non-governmental organizations can be considered in three dimensions: the social structure of the state, the entities operating within the organizations and the recipients of those activities. Looking at these levels of NGO interactions, we can talk about satisfying needs, shaping attitudes, developing social initiatives. In any case, non-governmental organizations are presented as meaningful social policy actors. The inclusion of public sector institutions and the non-governmental organization in the process of creating the local social policy is the part of building the civil society. Regardless of the concept or interpretation of social policy subjects, its primary purpose is to meet social needs. These needs can be realized by actors of varying levels and formalizations. Today, four groups of social policy actors have been formed, corresponding to four sectors:

- public or state;
- market or commercial, in which satisfying the needs is governed by the market mechanism;
- non-governmental which is based on non-profit organizations;
- informal, in the form of individuals, their families, neighbours and friends, with the lowest degree of organization and formalization.\textsuperscript{272}

The development of the strong non-governmental sector is connected with the democratic socio-political order. There are at least several terms in the literature for organizations which are not public organizations (government, public administration) nor market (business and entrepreneurship). These are civic organizations, which are created on the initiative of private individuals, but similarly as public authorities operate in the public interest, not private. The most commonly used terms are: third sector, social enterprise, non-governmental organizations and the \textit{non-profit} sector. According to the Lexicon of Social Policy: “NGOs are social organizations characterized by a formal, non-commercial

\textsuperscript{271} A.Juros (editor), \textit{Organizacje pozarządowe w społeczeństwie obywatelskim - wyzwanie dla środowisk akademickich}, KUL, Lublin 2002, p. 34.

character, structural independence from the public authorities, self-government and voluntary membership. Non-governmental organizations usually act as associations and foundations. The range and form of action are very diverse. They usually deal with the assistance, support, culture, ecology, human rights, science.

According to Jerzy Boczoń and Małgorzata Załuski, non-governmental organizations should fulfil several basic tasks:

- meeting individual and social needs in a special atmosphere of kindness and solidarity;
- adoption of active citizenship in the field of so-called human and local issues, and demanding in the sense of the community of the good;
- promoting pluralism and the diversity of the social life;
- creating the sector for realization of individual and social tasks as an alternative to government activities;
- creating mechanisms for social participation in decision-making on various problems and levels of functioning of modern society;
- a great sense of independence and subjectivity.

In Poland the scope of the definition of non-governmental organizations is understood broadly and covers, as Piotr Gliński observes: “(...) all not directly involved in political activity, organized groups or social institutions, in which the essential role - at least at some stage of their functioning - is played by freewill (unpaid) and spontaneous participation of citizens. They are also organizations characterized by self-government, considerable independence from state, economic or local government structures, so-called social utility, and finally, involvement in the production and distribution of public and substantive goods, or broader, the active relationship to political issues.”

For over a dozen years Poland has been in the process of creating a new social reality in which more and more responsibility for local social groups is accepted by local institutions,
both public and non-public. Among the citizens there is a conviction that the improve-
ment and change of the existing situation, especially for the most deprived, depends on
the attitudes of man to man, on the wider involvement of citizens in social affairs, and
above all on the fuller understanding of his humanity and his role in it.

In Poland, the constitutional principle of subsidiarity with respect to individual citizens
and non-governmental organizations in which they may associate has been included in
the area of the social assistance - specified by *the Social Welfare Act of 12 March 2004 and
the Act on Public Benefit and Voluntary Activities of 24 April 2003* in which public benefit
activities are defined as “socially useful activities conducted by non-governmental organ-
izations in the sphere of public activities defined in the Act” (art. 3, point 1). It is estimat-
ed that in Poland over non-governmental 4,500 organizations, mainly associations and
foundations, engaged mainly in social assistance and social services operate.276 Organiza-
tions acting in the social assistance and social services stand out from the sector, both in
terms of human potential and financial health. Local government sources, membership
fees, donations from individuals and institutions, and government funding are among
the most important sources of funding for a typical aid organization.

Generally, the role and tasks of the third sector are limited to meeting those social needs
that other sectors do not want or can not satisfy. Non-governmental organizations are
undoubtedly the source of desirable social resources such as: time, specialized services,
information and other measurable forms of assistance. These resources are created and
made available by non-governmental organizations. The Polish non-governmental sec-
tor has such characteristics as: the autonomy and independence from the public sector,
the dynamic growth, the visible, relatively strong structure of church groups, the narrow
scope of their activities. Most non-governmental organizations are small, local, unofficial
groups acting through channels of exchange and associations, with relatively underde-
vloped legal characteristics, with few full-time employees, they have different forms
and levels of participation in the form of volunteering.277 According to Danuta Lalak and

Tadeusz Pilch among the functions performed by non-governmental organizations, the following may be mentioned\textsuperscript{278}:

- affiliate function (the need to belonging to a social group with which he/she can identify);
- expressive function (giving people the possibility of self-realization);
- assistance function (satisfying basic needs of the individual);
- integration function (bringing people together, building social bonds);
- care and education function (creating optimal development opportunities);
- standardization functions;
- function of “the pressure group” (defending the fundamental values of democratic society);
- innovative function;
- advocacy function.

Due to the forms of assistance, Polish social organizations which deal with broadly understood the social security can be divided into three groups:

- aid organizations, established to address specific social problems, e.g.: PCK, Caritas, Towarzystwo im. Brata Alberta, Centrum Praw Kobiet;
- infrastructural organizations, supporting the non-governmental sector with information and training, e.g.: KLON/JAWOR, Fundacja Rozwoju Społeczeństwa Obywatelskiego;
- grantor foundations covering costs of aid organizations or its supporters e.g.; foundations established and operated by private companies.

As noted by Agnieszka Naumiuk: “NGOs teach people active participation in social life, responsibility for themselves and for others, open and critical attitudes towards reality, courage and energy for change, teamwork and group action. They are an internal force that unites human to human bonds of ever more atomized communities.”\textsuperscript{279}


The role and tasks of Caritas as the social security institution

The social activity takes on a variety of organizational forms depending on the type and scope of the activity being planned. Polish organizations are dominated by associations and foundations. A particular type of corporate social organization are ecclesial organizations that associate people belonging to a particular church or religious association. Helping people and giving assistance has always been the part of basic principles of church organizations. From the very beginning of Christianity meeting needs of the needy was inextricably linked to it. It seems that up to this day, the followers of this religion have assistance activity come from two sources: the doctrinal, based on the commandment of the absolute love of neighbour and the most perfect expression of faith through good works and the historical work of the first Christians and their deacons, whose charitable activities were linked with persecution of the Roman Empire which they met at the beginning of the Christianity.

The legal basis on which the work of all ecclesiastical institutions is based is contained in the Constitution and in the relevant statutes. The situation of the Roman Catholic Church is so special that it is regulated by the concordat, and the concordat is an international agreement between the Republic of Poland and the Apostolic Office. In the context of the activity of assistance here, it is worth mentioning the provision contained in the Act on State Relation to the Catholic Church in the Republic of Poland, Art. 39: The Church’s charitable and care work includes in particular:

1. running institutes for orphans, old people, people with disabilities and other categories of people in need of care,
2. running hospitals and other medical facilities and pharmacies,
3. organizing maternity aid,
4. organizing aid for orphans, people affected by natural disasters and epidemics, war victims, persons in difficult financial or health conditions, families and persons, including those deprived of their liberty,
5. running nurseries, orphanages, dormitories and asylums,
6. providing assistance in resting children and young people in need,
7. promoting the idea of helping one’s neighbour and social attitudes,
8. providing overseas assistance to victims of natural disasters and persons in the special need “.
Of course other churches, in accordance with the adopted statutory regulations and the principle of their equality in the Republic of Poland may lead similar activities in this area. According to the law, church institutions as authorized entities may run non-public social care homes, care and education centers, adoptive care centers, and specialized counselling centers, including family ones. In the Polish reality, initiatives initiated by the Catholic Caritas organization play main role, and for several years the actions taken by Evangelical Diaconia or Orthodox Eloes have become more known. The initiatives of church organizations have centuries-old tradition. These actors are present for centuries where people are in need. Also, at times when there was no legal regulations and even when the aversion from the state authorities was visible, these institutions were operating.

The philanthropic activity is most developed in times of wars and crises, as then the number of people most in need increases. This also happened in Poland in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. As a result of the Swedish Deluge and Tatar invasions, the material situation of the Polish population deteriorated. Similarly as in the Middle Ages, the dominant role in social assistance was played by institutions of the Catholic Church, as well as by other religious communities. The ethnic and religious diversity of old Poland has caused that charitable at that time had many sources. In addition to the Catholic Church, the Orthodox Church by the clergy and hospitals, the Muslim community (Tatar), for whom alms were one of the basic elements of the faith, and the Jewish communities that organized charity fraternities for their members were joined to the assistance for poorest.

In the interwar years, the rise of the state and the assumption of social responsibility led to the fact that existing social organizations, as they are now, were supposed to serve as an auxiliary force, but the history of the partition and the war made that the state need much of their experience, and in the days of the new economical crisis the high support what has led that many social activities in many places based solely on the work of charity organizations. Despite poor legal solutions, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare has supported the development of new organizations, especially the associations. At that time, organizations such as the Polish Red Cross and the Caritas Association began to operate in Poland. Shortly after the end of the Second World War, the pre-war social organizations that had helped the government in areas such as humanitarian aid, health care, education, orphan and lone survivors were renewed, which now turned out to be a particularly important activity because of results of the war. Unfortunately, the full recovery of philanthropic organizations during the Polish People’s Republic was impossible, as communist

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authorities were negatively affected to their activity. After the initial freedom of action of most organizations, the policy of the authorities was soon tightened up. During World War II, the social organizations restored or started in the Second Republic were liquidated. The loss of legal personality to many institutions, including the Polish church, has forced both secular and church organizations to disclaiming from the charity work.

At the time of communism, the concept of philanthropy was distorted, the negative and contemptuous meaning as a bourgeois relic was given to it. Philanthropy was treated ironically and conceived as a generosity for show\textsuperscript{281}. Difficulties and repressions were also encountered in the charitable and social work of the Church and other religious associations. In Poland law has defined activities of religious organizations according to three principles: the religious activity in the strict sense (doctrinal and morality activities), the religious activity in the broad sense (doctrinal and organizational activities) and the non-religious activity: education, science and charity, which, unlike to two previous, had no constitutional protection and could be altered or blocked by administrative decisions at any time. By applying this law, the charitable work of the Catholic Church, based on centuries-old tradition, was abolished on January 23, 1950, when the state authorities liquidated Caritas and established the Catholic Association “Caritas” controlled by them. The abolition of Caritas was to reduce the trust of the clergy in the society, and establishing the new institution was to emphasize the role of the state.

As already mentioned the activity of Caritas has a long tradition. Caritas Polska is the charity institution of the Polish Bishops’ Conference. It was reactivated on October 10, 1990. It is probably the most well known aid institution and has the widest range. The quantitative and qualitative development of this activity is impressive. It is active not only in the country, but also in the international arena. Caritas Polska coordinates the work of 44 diocesan and archdiocesan Caritas in Poland, supporting them to carry out their tasks.

The state centre of Caritas is the Catholic charitable organization, which has a wide range of activities in the range of institutional and environmental assistance. Currently, Caritas provides care and support for children, young people, the elderly and the sick, the disabled, the poor and those affected by natural disasters and accidents, and in recent years also for migrants and refugees. In addition, Caritas Polska has a representative role (acting on behalf of Caritas in Poland at national and international level), formation and information (conducting trainings, symposia, identifying the areas and scale of poverty

\textsuperscript{281} Ibid., p. 99.
in Poland), operational (initiating nationwide fundraising for Poland and abroad, organizing humanitarian transports, giving emergency and long-term, material, psychological, legal and financial assistance to the unemployed, homeless, sick, elderly, children from poor families, as well as immigrants and refugees). It running many facilities such as social welfare homes, environmental lounges, restaurants, accommodation, refugee centers. It provides meals and clothing (including the Caritas parish charities), carries out medical care for the elderly and the sick (which includes home care, leasing of rehabilitation equipment), hospice (including home hospice), home day care for seniors (where the assistance is provided mainly by nuns), as well as special centers for victims of violence (where elderly people affected by domestic violence can also be helped). It offers both material (good) assistance as well as the legal counseling and specialist services. Internationally it works with the Pontifical Council “Cor Unum” and is the member of Caritas Internationalis and Caritas Europe.

Since 2004, what is worth noting, Caritas from Gniezno, Kielce, Cracow, Tarnów and Lublin have been granted the status of public benefit organizations, which allows for the use of various privileges, including income tax exemptions, civil-law tax, and obtaining donations (1% income tax from individuals). The acquisition of the status of public benefit organizations thus offers the opportunity to achieve certain financial stability and long-term design of certain activities.

As already mentioned, Caritas is a non-governmental organization that has the right to provide specialist support and assistance to the various categories of people. Migrants and refugees from the onset of Caritas have formed a group that is surrounded by special concern. Since the beginning of the Chechen population influx following the conflict in the Caucasus and Bosniak and Serbs after the war in the former Yugoslavia, in the 1990s, the Assistance Centers for Migrants and Refugees (CPMiU) have been in operation. In the current situation, when we have to deal with the mass exodus of people from the Middle East the operation of local teams of Caritas is especially needed and open to helping deprived. Caritas continues this work and daily support refugees living in Poland. Caritas provides the assistance to foreigners through the implementation of a number of projects aimed at social, psychological and intercultural counseling, providing the social security to the most deprived.

In line with the mission of the organization, a large percentage of beneficiaries of projects are people with special needs, i.e. people with disabilities, single mothers and chronically ill patients who are supported by drugs. Caritas employees are also present with the
assistance in open and guarded centers for foreigners. Within the framework of projects, beneficiaries may count on subsidizing housing and pre-school fees for the youngest, subsidizing the purchase of medicines, small medical procedures, purchasing textbooks and school layettes, and the opportunity to participate in the integration course for children. Apart from the material aid, Caritas has planned a number of intercultural events in which foreigners can showcase their talents. In addition, the Polish staff of the institution draws on the experience of Western national Caritas, which allows them to use good practices developed in the reception of refugees and offer them comprehensive support. The Caritas Departments’ regular meetings responsible for the realization of the assistance to refugees help Caritas Polska become a trusted partner for international and national institutions. Caritas Poland is the member of Caritas Europe and belongs also to the structures of *Caritas Internationalis*, the International Catholic Commission for Migration, and participates regularly in meetings of the Pontifical Council for Pastoral Migrants and Travellers. Thanks to trainings provided by international structures of Catholic organizations dealing with refugees, Caritas is continually developing and strives to propose new actions for refugees. It also undertakes actions to promote the foreigners themselves and for this purpose it conducts the dialogue by organizing meetings with foundations that are founded by migrants. This allows for the exchange of good practices, experiences and the extension of cooperation to the needy.

From the beginning of 2016, Caritas Poland together with 6 Caritas Assistance Centres for Migrants and Refugees is implementing the project “New Home Poland”, which aims to provide comprehensive assistance to migrants and refugees. The project partners are: Office for Foreigners and Caritas of Dioceses: Białystok, Siedlce, Lublin, Zielona Góra-Gorzów and Warsaw.

Within the framework of envisaged integration activities, more than 5 thousand people will receive the aid in the CPMiU in the current and next year. According to CPMiU data, the largest group of refugees are citizens of the Russian Federation of the Chechen nationality, and Ukrainians. Recently, the number of applications submitted by citizens of Tajikistan has increased.

This project is also implemented by the Lublin Assistance Center for Migrants and Refugees. CPMiU is a specialized institution established in 1995 to provide assistance and support to foreigners living in our country. The Office of Caritas of the Lublin Archdioceseis
opened for clients on Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays and Fridays from 9:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m. In particular, the care of CPMiU in Lublin covers:

- applicants for refugee status,
- persons with complementary protection,
- recognized refugees,
- migrants.

The assistance provided by employees is free, confidential, professional, impartial and up to date. The Assistance Center for Migrants and Refugees of Caritas of the Lublin Archdiocese offers assistance to foreigners in the following areas:

1. Counselling and legal assistance:
   - providing legal information on refugees, asylum seekers and migrants;
   - writing applications, appeals and complaints to foreigners, in accordance with the state of the legal and administrative procedure of the foreigner;
   - assistance in writing applications and completing applications to the Voivodship Office, Labour Office etc.;
   - monitoring respecting human rights;
   - assistance in organizing the series of classes concerning Polish culture, law, or other issues in accordance with the need and interests of refugees;
   - cooperation with the Centers for Foreigners, the Office for Foreigners in Warsaw, Voivodship Offices, Family Relief Centers and other institutions (education, health) in case of necessity.

2. Psychological counselling:
   - diagnosis of emotional and psychological problems especially for anxiety disorders, reactions to heavy stress and adaptive disorders;
   - individual and group therapy;
   - assistance to foreign children attending Polish schools;

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282 Information obtained from employees of CPMiU in Lublin and from the web site of lublin.caritas.pl (2.10.2017).
• problem prevention including addiction prevention for children, adolescents and adults;
• supporting the educational and tutorial function of the family of a foreigner;
• caring for women and children.

3. Counselling and social assistance:
• support for integration processes;
• providing the material aid;
• assistance in the access to primary, secondary and higher education;
• assistance in finding housing and work;
• social information programs;
• educational programs for children and youth;
• drawing up forms and applications, completing forms.

Conclusions

As mentioned earlier, active non-governmental organizations are the foundation of civil society. The experience of many European countries has shown that cooperation and support by public authorities in the civic sector are conducive to fuller satisfaction of social needs, the development of new, original forms of community services and services, the rationalization of budget spending, the efficient use and transfer of social resources between public, and voluntary, as well as providing the social security. As Tadeusz Kamiński notes: “In the face of financial difficulties of the public sector, including social assistance, the existence of NGOs is not only a valuable complement to public sector activity, but in many cases the only possibility of providing benefits to people in need. The benefits of proper cooperation between two sectors should be seen not only for the public administration and those working in those organizations, but primarily for those who are the beneficiaries of the services realized.”

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Security aspects of cross-border transport logistics.

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Sergiy Legenchuk, PhD
Summary

Below, a number of approaches aimed at ensuring an acceptable level of safety in the field of cross-border transport logistics have been considered. The current security challenges caused by the European integration process have been cleared. The priority of road transport in the cross-border movement of people between Ukraine and the European Union has been determined. The dangers which the transborder motor traffic causes have been set. The basic directions of Ukrainian cooperation with the countries of the European Union in the field of the security of cross-border transport logistics have been defined. The model of information system and mathematical model of cross-border traffic that can be applied during the implementation of the regional transport and logistics system have been proposed.

Introduction

The establishing of closer relations between Ukraine and the countries of the European Union (EU) increases the higher level of communication between them. Contacts between the countries, political and business structures of both sides have increased. The amount of tourist travel in both directions has grown. The introduction of a visa-free stay for citizens of Ukraine in the EU has led to a significant growth in the flow of individual visits of Ukrainians to the EU countries. Just a week after the beginning of this kind of travel more than 100 thousand Ukrainians benefited from it. The strengthened interest of Ukraine in European countries and the world in general causes the oncoming traffic of tourists to Ukraine, especially from countries that border Ukraine. For the first half of 2017 the number of foreign tourists who visited Ukraine increased by 9% compared with the previous year. This, as well as cross-border travels of the residents from the so-called local border traffic zones, which are set up on the border areas of Ukraine and adjacent countries of the EU, including Poland, cause massive crossings of the border of our state at both sides by the citizens of Ukraine and other countries. According to the observations of a sociologist at Warsaw University Joanna Konieczna-Salamatin made in 2016, the citizens of Ukraine crossed the Ukrainian-Polish border more than 20 million times.

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284 Half a million Ukrainians crossed the border with the EU – how many of them have benefited from bezviz [a visa-free regime], “5 канал” [Channel 5] https://www.5.ua/suspilstvo/pivmiliona-peretnuly-kordon-z-yes-skilky-z-nykh-skorystalys-bezvizom-148255.html (12.09.2017)
times. It is obvious that the total number of crossings of the state frontier of Ukraine at all its sites, taking into consideration not only citizens of our country but also citizens of other countries, greatly exceeds that number.  

The vast majority of people cross the border between Ukraine and the EU countries by car, by train, on foot or by air. And only a small number of them use river and sea transport for crossing the border. At present the number of low-cost carriers that operate flights in Ukraine is rather small and the measures which the country takes and which are aimed to reduce the cost of tickets are inadequate. That is why ticket prices of these airlines in Ukraine are still mostly higher than with similar carriers in the European countries. Taking into account the relatively low level of income of most of the citizens of our country this fact reduces the attractiveness of trips by air for them.

Despite increasing international rail routes, the introduction of high-speed trains that go abroad by the Ukrzaliznytsia [a state owned enterprise of rail transport in Ukraine], the gradual reduction of rail tickets prices for international trips, the number of Ukrainians who travel by train remains small. Though the number of travelers by this means of transport has increased seven times compared with the year 2016, yet, according to “Ukrzaliznytsia” since the beginning of this year only 34.5 thousand Ukrainians reached the EU countries by train.

The cheapest way of crossing the border is the use by travellers passenger or passenger and cycling crossings. However the number of such points between Ukraine and EU countries is still too small. For example, only one pedestrian crossing Shehyni-Medyka, between Ukraine and Poland has extensive hours of operation. Pedestrian and cycling Uhryniv-Dolhobychiv checkpoint operates on a temporary basis which makes it unpopular among travelers. Only now, with the financial support of the EU, building up and arrangement of new crossings on the Ukrainian-Polish border is being planned. In particular, it is being planned to build more infrastructure at the existing automotive Rava-Ruska-Hrebenne crossing point for the years 2018-2019 that will enable it to carry out

286 Y. Savytsky. “Bezviz” [a visa-free regime] and the border with Poland. We have 8 points of control and at least 30 are needed – Loginov, “Радіо Свобода”, https://www.radiosvoboda.org/a/28539960.html (11.06.2017)
cross-border procedures for pedestrians and cyclists. The situation with pedestrian crossing points between Ukraine and other countries of the EU is no better.

Taking all the above into consideration, it can be concluded that the largest share of Ukrainians travelling abroad are those who use cars for their journeys. A large number of citizens of other countries either returning from the EU or going to the EU through our country as transit travelers join them on the borders. It is obvious that the number of cars that cross the state border will only increase.

The fact of constantly growing turnover between Ukraine and EU countries should also be taken into account. For the first (2016) year of introduction of the economic part of the Agreement on Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area (DCFTA) with the EU Ukrainian export to the EU grew by more than 3%, while trade with the EU countries – more than 6%. And during six months of the year 2017, according to the President of Ukraine Petro Poroshenko, foreign trade in goods and services of Ukraine with the EU countries increased by 22%. The volume of freight transported by road abroad (much of which was directed in the EU) in the first half of the year 2017 has made 3384.16 thousand tones. Therefore the cross-border passenger transport flow is added to the growing cargo transport flow.

Taking all the above circumstances into account, it can be concluded that the number of border crossings by road transport has already increased significantly. And a trend towards the intensification of cross-border car traffic will only increase. This creates, and in future will give rise to even more problems not only on the State border of Ukraine but also in the relationship between Ukraine and its neighbors. These issues definitely need to include those of security character.

Analysis of the security situation on the road cross-border communication.

While crossing the state, controlling authorities of Ukraine and adjacent countries conduct a number of procedures such as customs and passport control, car checking, etc. All of that mentioned above require a certain amount of time. It is obvious that the cars at crossings and directly in front of them must wait an increasing time. And keeping in mind the problem of refugees in the EU and the conflict supported by the Russian Federation in the East of Ukraine, as well as the appropriate application of additional security measures on the EU side, even greater delays at the border for road transport travelers can be observed. As a result there are significant queues of cars at the border.

Besides inconvenience for travelers which is related to the time spent at the state border of Ukraine, the queue increases the stress official controlling services workers work under. This reduces the quality of service for people who cross the border. The accumulation of transport in front of crossing points affects the ecology of the border areas and causes discontent among local residents. In addition, in terms of the undeclared but a real war on Ukraine, the large number of people and vehicles clustered on a limited territory as is the border, worsens the situation in the country, negates the efforts which are taken by the Ukrainian State to speed up and deepen integration with the EU. Obviously, the potential threats arising from the Ukrainian side of the border between Ukraine and the EU force the Ukrainian and the opposite side to carry out checks of people who cross the border, their luggage and vehicles which they travel with, in detail. This, in turn, increases the amount of time one needs to spend in order to cross the border. Car queues become even longer.

With the growth of cross-border traffic the problem of car queues at the border is becoming even more challenging for the small number of crossings of the border between Ukraine and the countries of the EU. Thus, only eight checkpoints operate at the Ukrainian-Polish border while according to some experts, there is a need for thirty such points.293

To reduce the number and size of motor transport queues at the state border of Ukraine and, thus, not impede closer cross-border communication, a set of measures that would

contribute to the solution of the problem of queues must be taken, together with the partners from the EU. These are measures of administrative, humanitarian, ecological, technical, technological, security and other matters. The implementation of the interstate policy in the field of cross-border transport logistics (CTL) must be taken into account while introducing such measures.

Currently, logistical approaches applied to any human activities are the key to optimizing a large number of technological processes, reducing the time and financial costs, and improving the quality of service. Modern methods of logistics allow one to integrate the different logistical problems which lead to a synergetic effect. In particular, this effect can be achieved by matching the technology of transport logistics in various countries and measures taken at the state border including security ones. This approach will not only enable efficient sharing the transport infrastructure of the countries of the EU and Ukraine, but also will improve the security situation in the framework of greater Europe significantly.

The implementation of security measures at borders should not interfere with establishing closer cross-border communication between the EU and Ukraine. Therefore, including the Ukrainian side in the development of these measures is necessary. The Ukrainian-Polish cooperation at the common border is a positive example here. It covers different areas of security, nature administrative, humanitarian, environmental, etc.

This collaboration is run under the auspices of the Ukrainian-Polish Intergovernmental Coordinating Council for Interregional Cooperation (ICCIC), which is created at the intergovernmental level in both countries. ICCIC takes decisions on key issues of inter-regional cooperation, defines the overall directions and the main principles of its development, provides the relevant offers to the competent authorities of Ukraine and Poland, develops joint programs and activities aimed at the development of interregional cooperation and generally coordinates the interregional cooperation at the level of regions of Ukraine and voivodships of the Republic of Poland. The Commissions such as on crossings of the border and border infrastructure, spatial planning, cross-border cooperation and on rescue and protection in emergencies have been made part of ICCIC functioning.294

Obviously, the agreements as for the methods of transport logistics and security objective measures at the borders of countries can be carried out within the CTL, which implement

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adjacent states or international associations. The field of cross-border logistics cooperation with neighbors that are part of the EU as well as with the European Community is the most important for Ukraine.

Within the framework of cooperation of our country with the governing structures of the EU in the field of automotive cross-border logistics it is necessary to point out the following directions:

- the development of the concept of Pan-European transport corridors (PETC) which cross the territory of Ukraine;
- agreeing on technological approaches for building up these corridors;
- creating coherent regulations and technical protocols relating to the crossing of the border between Ukraine and the Member States of the EU;
- the introduction of common security standards, which relate to cross-border movement of people and goods.

Starting with the approval in Luxembourg on October 9th, 2013 by the Ministers of transport of the EU countries and the countries that joined the Eastern partnership policy (EaP), Ukraine takes an active part in the creation of regional transport and logistics systems (TLS) EaP. This network is created with the support of the EU in accordance with the concept of infrastructure project, approved by governing bodies of the EU on July 23, 1996, The Trans-European Transport Networks (Eng. -European Transport Networks, TEN-T). This project is accomplished within the framework of transport-logistic strategy of the EU, which has received the name eurologistics. PETC is a component of structures of TEN-T – existing and those that will be created in the future, in particular during the accomplishment of CLS EaP.295

Ukraine is important in eurologistics projects due to its extremely profitable geographic location for transport communications between the EU and CIS countries and Asia. A number of PETC that are in the table already exist or are planned to go through Ukraine.

295 Decyzja Nr 1692/96 Parlamentu Europejskiego i Rady z dnia 23 lipca 1996 r. w sprawie wspólnotowych wytycznych dotyczących rozwoju transeuropejskiej sieci transportowej. W: Dziennik Urzędowy L 228, 09/09/1996 P. 0001 – 0104
Table 1. International transport corridors that pass through the territory of Ukraine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The corridor number</th>
<th>Transport corridor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.3</td>
<td>Berlin – Poznan – Katowice – Lviv – Kiev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.5</td>
<td>Lisbon – Barcelona – Trieste – Budapest – Kiev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.7</td>
<td>(Danube), Germany – Austria – Slovakia – Hungary – Romania – Bulgaria – Moldova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.9</td>
<td>Helsinki-Saint-Petersburg – Vitebsk – Kiev – Kishinev-Plovdiv-Thessaloniki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“TRANCECA”*</td>
<td>The EU, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Bulgaria, Georgia, Iran, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Romania, Tajikistan, Turkey, Ukraine, Uzbekistan because of the black and Caspian seas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*“TRANCECA“-transport-logistics project (Transport Corridor Europe-Caucasus-Asia)

Taking current realities into account, when in Eastern Europe, Middle East, Middle and Central Asia new social or political conflicts as well as military ones already exist and could potentially appear, strengthening security measures at PTEC must be expected from the EU. The EaP countries, in particular Ukraine, will certainly have to collaborate on such measures.

Within the framework of the European cooperation Ukraine together with the Member States of the EU, in particular, should:

- regarding the concept of PTEC begin building and maintaining crossings on the relevant areas of state borders;
- organize and ensure the collaboration of supervisory services of adjacent countries at the common point of crossing the border;
- create the joint information resources for neighboring countries in which cross-border flows are recorded and displayed;
- create and adjust the cross-border flow of cars through the relevant sections of the border.

All the listed directions of cooperation of Ukraine with the EU countries must be backed up not only by the political will, but also the administrative, technical, technological and financial resources. Their implementation must also be based on research and the latest logistical methods in the field of transport logistics.

The individual elements of interaction between the EU and Ukraine as for the above objectives are already being implemented. For example, projects for creating and building new crossings of the Ukrainian-Polish border in the framework of the development of the 3rd PETC between Ukraine and Poland have been developed and gradually implemented. In accordance with the statement of the Chairman of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine Andriy Parubiy, made at the Economic Forum in Krynica-Zdrój, it is planned to provide money in the budgets of Ukraine and Poland for 2018 for the restoration of two already existing common border crossings and the building up of four new points. The Marshal of the Senate of Poland Stanislav Karchevski on his behalf confirmed the interest of the Polish side in fulfilling these plans. According to them, not only the construction or reconstruction of crossings, but also the development of appropriate infrastructure, which should ensure a high level of comfort and meet modern environmental and security requirements is assumed. The heightened security component of the CTL will be the result of the above.

Ukraine strongly insists on creating together with neighbors the EU border crossings, which would function in the mode of cooperative work employees (training, official tax clerks, environmentalists, etc.) of both countries. President Poroshenko made it clear once again on June 11, 2017, during the celebrations on the occasion of entry into force of the agreement on visa-free stay of citizens of Ukraine in the EU. The number of such points is planned to be gradually increased, and with the strengthening of Ukraine’s European integration processes obviously the task of changing into this mode the working of all existing border crossings between Ukraine and its neighbors by all countries-members of the EU appear.

The work of Ukrainian officials and officials of the EU countries at the common border crossings has a number of advantages. First of all, thanks to the immediate learning by the Ukrainian officers the experience of their foreign counterparts in Ukraine EU-wide standards of conducting cross-border procedures will be introduced more quickly. For the EU it will be the signal for loosening the precaution for Ukraine to implement adequate security measures regarding TLS. Secondly, the joint conduct of cross-border procedures for officers of different countries in one location obviously accelerates the

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298 P. Poroshenko. We changed the country and our partners from Europe followed their word and the door to the European Union is opened to the Ukrainian people, President of Ukraine, http://www.president.-gov.ua/news/ mi-razom-zminili-krayinu-nashi-partneri-z-yevropi-dotrimalis-41806 (11.09.2017)
process of crossing the border by travelers and goods. Due to this the specific criteria, basically time, will improve the efficiency of the TLS. In addition, there is no need for travelers to perform the similar procedures twice which often brings discontent to them and, consequently, is not conducive to upholding the security of the regime of work of crossing the border. Thirdly, the joint implementation by the officials of various countries of their functional responsibilities, increases the level of trust between them, and between the states they represent. And increasing the level of trust between the two countries is one of the factors increasing the level of security in the shared region.

Creating information resources common to the EU and Ukraine that reflect the transport flows let us control the loading of transport TLS. This allows us to, if necessary, adjust the routes of these flows in order to remove the excess load on some parts of the TLS by channeling part of flow to less loaded areas. Timeliness of adjusting routes reduces the probability of the formation of traffic jams on separate parts of the TLS, and especially in the most vulnerable parts from this point of view, which are the border crossings. Therefore, operational change of routes allows us to avoid (or reduce the effect of) the formation of queues of motor transport at the border. This, as it was found out previously, increases the level of security.

Shared information resources can be created at various levels, starting with the highest European level, where the Ukrainian information resources provided by the authorities of the EU and its individual members within the framework of the implementation of the policy of EaP or Agreement on Association of Ukraine with the EU. Another level is interstate cooperation between Ukraine and EU member countries, which are direct neighbors of Ukraine. In particular, the joint Ukrainian-Polish information resources can be created within ICCIC at this level. Another lower level (regional) – the shared information resources of border regions of neighboring countries. By using them you can track links of TLS in the adjacent territories. And the lowest level is local. The information resources relating to the processes of direct border crossings are consolidated on it.

Currently at the local level, there are no shared information resources. The information about the condition of the car queue at the border crossings is part of local resources. This information is provided by various public services of the neighboring countries. The situation at the border can be observed even on-line via the broadcast of web cameras which are placed at the border crossings. For example, from the Ukrainian side of the
From the Polish side the information is provided through the website of the State Tax Administration. Anyone using the services of these sites can estimate the time of crossing the border at the selected point. But this estimate would be quite rough as each side (Ukrainian or Polish) while defining the time delay of the car at the border does not have the full information about the current state of progress in cross-border procedures at the checkpoint of the neighboring country. Obviously, the consolidation of information on the situation at crossings of both sides and the creation of a shared information resource will allow us to make more accurate predictions of time needed to cross the border by car. So it will be much easier to predict the emergence of cases of car queues and to take necessary security measures promptly.

**The information supporting system for regional cross-border transport logistics system**

In this article it is proposed, as in the given example, to create the project of information system in which regional and local information resources relating to cross-border TLS are consolidated. In pic. 1 the proposed information model for consolidating information that comes from both sides of the border between Ukraine and its EU member neighbour is shown.

The crossings receive information of the following contents:

- the status of the car queues at and in front of the point of crossing, which is got from the automatic devices (electronic messages MLQ);
- the information about the planned time of arrival at the point of crossing of freight transport companies, carriers and the nomenclature of goods carried (ERC electronic messages and DRC documentary evidence);
- the information about the standards for conducting cross-border procedures (documents TTS);

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• the information about the desire of the owner of the individual vehicle to cross the border in the appropriate point (RIO electronic messages).

**Picture 1. Model of the consolidation of information in cross-border information system TLS**

![Diagram showing the consolidation of information in cross-border information system TLS]

The information received at the border crossings is summed up, coordinated and stored in the appropriate local information arrays: SQL, RRC, RTC and RIN. The corresponding database based on these arrays in which the information on all crossings is consolidated is formed and function on a particular area of the border, namely:

• the information about the status of the queues at all border crossings in the region (SQR database);

• the information about the requests to all points of crossing the border in the region from the owners of individual transport (RRR database);

• information about the status of the queues at all border crossings in the region (DQR database);

• the forecast of the queues status at all border crossings in the region (WQR database);
The users of the information system on the basis of consolidated data get the information of the following contents:

- the visual display of the current status of the queues at all crossings from both sides of the border (QDR webpage);
- an electronic message about the current state of all queues at border crossings (EMQ message);
- the forecast status of queues for a certain time at all border crossings (DPP webpage);
- the documented data on forecast status of the queues at all crossings for a certain time (LPP report).

The results of the regional consolidation of the information will be useful for both those who intend to cross the border and for the state authorities which, in particular, provide security in the TLS.

A software module that implements the algorithm for prediction of future condition of the car queues at border crossings and in front of them is the key element of the proposed information system. The algorithm should be based on a mathematical model that describes the movement of cars through the crossing point. The model must take into account the details of the movement of all vehicles provided the certain administrative influences from the controlling services that work at the border are also taken into account. The analysis of existing models enables us to conclude that these details are taken into account in them, and therefore a new mathematical model is proposed.302

During the construction of the proposed model it is believed that the transport flow to the crossing and at the point of crossing is continuous. Therefore, the principle of conservation the flow can be used

\[ W_1 = W_2, \quad (1) \]

there \( W_1 \) – the intensity of transport flow to the crossing; \( W_2 \) - the intensity of flow at the point of crossing.

In real life there are both cars and trucks in front of the point of the crossing at the same time. And at the point of crossing, the lanes for cars and trucks are usually divided. So the principle of conservation of flow is the following:

\[ w_u = w_c + w_t, \quad (2) \]

where \( w_u \) - the intensity of the total flow of cars (passenger and freight) to the crossing point; \( w_c \) - the intensity of the flow of passenger vehicles at the crossing point; \( w_t \) - the intensity of the flow of trucks at the crossing point.

The intensity of flow at a certain segment of the road connected with the speed of traffic in the flow ratio

\[ w = m \cdot v, \quad (3) \]

where \( m \) – number of cars at a certain segment; \( v \) – the average speed of vehicles on this segment of the road.

With regard to (3) and varying number of lanes the principle (2) is recorded as the following

\[ m_u \cdot v_u = m_c \cdot v_c \cdot n_c + m_t \cdot v_t \cdot n_t, \quad (4) \]

where \( m_u \) – the total number of cars (both passenger cars and trucks) in front of the crossing point; \( v_u \) - the average speed of the total flow; \( m_c \) – the number of cars that are at the crossing point; \( v_c \) – the average speed of cars on one lane of crossing; \( n_c \) – the number of lanes for passenger cars; \( m_t \) – the number of trucks that are at the crossing point; \( v_t \) - the average speed of trucks on one lane of crossing; \( n_t \) – the number of lanes of crossing for trucks.

It is obvious that the total number of cars in front of the crossing point is calculated by the formula:

\[ m_u = m_c + m_t \quad (5) \]

If the average time that the car takes for moving within the crossing points is known, it is not difficult to calculate its average speed on the lane of crossing. Note, due to the
different standards for conducting cross-border procedures, the average speed of passenger and freight transport is different. Taking this into account as well as the ratio of (4) and (5), the average speed for all cars in the general flow is calculated

$$v_u = \frac{m_c \cdot v_c \cdot n_c + m_t \cdot v_t \cdot n_t}{m_c + m_t}.$$  \hfill (6)

Therefore, a car that gets at the end of the queue in a common flow will wait in this queue until getting to the lane at the crossing point of the time interval

$$t_0 = \frac{(m_c + m_t)}{v_u} = \frac{(m_c + m_t)^2}{m_c \cdot v_c \cdot n_c + m_t \cdot v_t \cdot n_t}.$$  \hfill (7)

If the time of the crossing of one passenger car through the crossing point equals \(t_c\), and truck \(t_t\), then the time for crossing the border with regard to waiting in a queue for a passenger car is calculated by the formula

$$T_c = t_0 + t_c,$$  \hfill (8)

and for a truck -

$$T_t = t_0 + t_t.$$  \hfill (9)

The distinctive feature of border crossing is the occurrence of possible delays at the geographical border between the crossing point in the territory of Ukraine on the one hand and the crossing point in the territory of a neighboring country on the other hand. A variety of circumstances, including technological breaks in the work of the customs of the adjacent country can cause these delays. If the time delay at the geographical border is known and it is \(t_s\), then the total time waiting for a passenger car and a truck equals

$$T_c = t_0 + t_c + t_s,$$  \hfill (10)

$$T_t = t_0 + t_t + t_s.$$  \hfill (11)

(10) and (11) formulas with regard to (7) may be interpreted as a mathematical model that describes the time parameters for a particular crossing point. Unfortunately, it is static due to the fact that possible changes in the number of cars that may arrive at the crossing point are not taken into account. This number has a probable character, therefore, the
changes in the formula (10) and (11) to account for the dynamics are needed, namely: adding a stochastic dynamic component $\zeta(t)$, where $t$ – the current time.

The $\zeta(t)$ component is a function where, in particular, the fact that at a certain area of the border there are several crossings where a redistribution of cars that go abroad can occur must be taken into account. Therefore, to determine the structure and parameters of this function, the study of the vehicle flows across the border at the entire area must be done.

The proposed mathematical model should be generalised in case the flows at adjacent crossings from both sides of the common border of the two countries, in the so-called “neutral zone” between these points as well as at the entrance to these points from the appropriate sides of the border are considered. Such generalised model can be applied in the information system where the information from all the crossings on a certain area of the common border between the neighboring countries is consolidated. In this case there is the possibility for appropriate authorities of Ukraine and its neighbor to assess the cross-border situation adequately, coordinate their actions while carrying out certain measures at the border of their own territory, and respond to emerging challenges, particularly, in security.

**Conclusions**

To sum up, it is necessary to note, that in the conditions of European integration processes, which Ukraine supported actively, there is a great need for agreed actions between our country and the EU. This applies to all areas of cooperation, in particular cross-border communication. The process of creating and adapting to the realities of the present of European TLS is especially important here. The security issue in its wide understanding is especially relevant now. It is necessary to conduct a coherent security policy both within the EU and between EU countries and countries, which are members of the EaP to ensure the desired level of security. The key to the effectiveness of such a policy is the application of advanced information, logistics, computer technology as well as scientific methods of management which are based on the use of mathematical and simulation models.


Half a million Ukrainians crossed the border with the EU – how many of them have benefited from bezviz [a visa-free regime], „5 канал” [Channel 5] https://www.5.ua/susplisto/pivmiliona-peretnuly-kordon-z-yes-skilky-z-nykh-skorystalys-bezvizom-148255.html (15.10.2017).


Petro Poroshenko. We changed the country and our partners from Europe followed their word and the door to the European Union is opened to the Ukrainian people, President of Ukraine, http://www.president.gov.ua/news/ mi-razom-zminili-krayinu-nashi-partneri-z-yevropi-dotrimalis-41806 (15.10.2017).

Y. Savytsky. „Bezviz“ [a visa-free regime] and the border with Poland. We have 8 points of control and at least 30 are needed – Loginov, „Radio Liberty“, https://www.radiosvoboda.org/a/28539960.html (11.06.2017)

The agreement between the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine and the Government of the Republic of Poland on the rules for local border traffic, 25.02.2009.

The other four points at Ukrainian-Polish border can be built „Ukrinform“, https://www.ukrinform.ua/rubric-tourism/2299806-na-ukrainskopolskomu-kordoni-mozut-pobuduvati-se-cotiri-punkti-propusku.html (15.10.2017).


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Crime prevention from a cross-border perspective

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

The article brings up common security issues from a cross-border perspective. Crime prevention activities are being conducted in both, Poland and Ukraine, in order to counteract crime and to improve the cooperation between the police and citizens. Within the framework of the European Neighbourhood Instrument there is an opportunity to support joint initiatives aimed at reducing crime in the border regions of Poland and Ukraine.

The need and desire for safety is one of the most important and fundamental problems in each person’s everyday life. The strive for enhancing safety in the modern world originated already from the 1960s. As it has been repeatedly shown in applicable literature, the term “safety” is understood diversely. Dictionary definitions are often based merely on intuitive understanding of this work. However, it is more important to define safety as a condition of things, persons or organisations. Jerzy Konieczny asks: “Safe organisation - which means what?” And he answers this question: “Safe means existing without custody (according to Linde’s dictionary). Nobody has to have custody of it, nobody has to care about it, etc. Moreover, a safe organisation is certainly an organisation which does not want anybody to take care of it, and to bother it with their care.” Is it really possible for states, regions or even local environments (villages, towns) to be such organisations? So Marek Lisiecki claims that ensuring safety, in particular for its citizens, has always been and will be one of the most important tasks to be fulfilled by each state. Simultaneously, he states that it results from various statutory provisions as well as existence of various safety-related institutions.

Thus, in strategic management of all institutions ensuring broadly-defined safety, the most important safety areas include:

1. Physical and technical safety - refers to all physical and technical conditions ensuring person’s safety, so there are no threats or barriers that might result in loss of life or impairment of health caused by infrastructural faults.

2. Social safety - feeling of safety within a local community where a given person resides. There are no threats related with physical or psychological violence.

305 Ibid, p. 11.
here. A person does not encounter situations in which any ideological ideas are imposed on them or where he or she is threatened or manipulated by others.

3. Health-related safety - refers to own general health condition or health condition of persons present in the local environment in which a given person resides, so there are no risks connected with presence of various social diseases that may result in tragedies.

4. Economic safety - feeling of economic stability perceived by a person or organisation in which he or she is forced to exist, so there are no risks connected with financial stability.307

Actions taken to decrease the number of crimes committed and ensure safety for local communities are usually referred to as crime prevention. Historically, crime prevention goes back to the idea of the civil neighbourhood watch.

Contrary to information commonly propagated by mass media, the Civil Neighbourhood Watch is not an American invention from 1970s. The idea came into existence much earlier, i.e. in 700 - 900 A.D. Small Western European towns adopted the French concept of each person’s responsibility for their neighbours and social groups they belonged to. This “Frank-Pledge” system aided local justice systems and protected local communities against other tribes’ aggression. In England, the concept of the civil neighbourhood watch was created during the first millennium A.D., known as the tithe system. In complex groups consisting of ten families (tithe, i.e. one-tenth part of something), each person was responsible for neighbours’ property, and each group was responsible for its members. Ten such groups constituted a sotnya, and several sotnyas created a shire. A person responsible for protection of shire was called “shre’s reeve” (managing officer) and the word “sheriff”, later becoming so popular in the USA, originates from this name. In 1066, England was conquered by the William the Conqueror, a Norman prince who decided that common safety is more important than peace of individuals and created a safety system based on military rules.308 In the age of statehood formation in Western Europe, the civil neighbourhood watch disappeared as attempts were made to institutionalise

307 L. Buller, Sfery bezpieczeństwa szkoły, [in:] L. Buller (red.), Socjotechniczne aspekty bezpieczeństwa w szkole, Warszawa 2014, p. 35.
these natural human activities and, in consequence, its tasks were transferred on the army. The institution of neighbourhood self-defence units originates from basic values of the Western Civilisation, i.e. family, respect for hearth and home and legal rules. In the Judeo-Christian heritage, they constitute the basis for traditional values of individual responsibility, morality and respect for human life. Numerous police forces worldwide (e.g. in USA, Great Britain and Holland) have recalled the ideas of the neighbourhood watch and started nationalising their activities. Nationalisation of police activities just consists in forging a real partnership between the society and the police protecting it. This partnership requires that social preventive actions and social police activities work “hand in hand” and eventually become one. The main objective of police activities targeted at a community is crime prevention on the basis of a local community. “A “local community” will be defined as all families, neighbours’ circles, groups and other communities present in a certain territory, within which units creating this community fulfil their basic vital needs and are bound by a common attitude to the territory they live in.” The most important features of local communities include:

1. Common area.

2. Social interactions among individuals and groups within a community.

3. Various types of common bonds resulting from cooperation aimed at fulfilling needs (e.g. ensuring safety) or growing on the basis of common standards and values, common goals or sense of identity.

As per definition, a local community comprises neighbours’ groups, so the Civil Neighbourhood Watch becomes a centre of this type of crime prevention activities. Thus the law enforcement function becomes democratised. A typical Civil Neighbourhood Watch involves three scopes of operation:

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309 Compare R. Abell, Community Initiatives in Crime Control.
311 Compare B. Olszewska-Dyoniziak, Metodologiczne i socjologiczne problemy badań nad społecznościami lokalnymi, „Studia socjologiczne” 1972, no. 1, p. 99 - 100; compare J. Tarkowski, Socjologia świata polityki, p. 110.
312 Compare R. Abell, Community Initiatives in Crime Control; compare L.J. Buller, Kontakty policji ze społeczeństwem w Stanach Zjednoczonych Ameryki, „Policyjny Biuletyn Szkoleniowy” 1995, no. 3-4.
1. Public surveillance - residents of a certain local area are encouraged to work together being “eyes and ears” of the police; this requires residents’ vigilance as they should pay attention to presence of suspect types or unknown vehicles and inform the police as necessary;

2. Marking of objects - residents can mark their belongings, e.g. with a postal code, house or flat number; this will scare thieves off and facilitate identification of stolen objects. Almost all over Poland, bicycle owners can have their bicycle marked; a number stamped or placed by a method facilitating its readout under UV light, is filed in police records.

3. Household safety - following the establishment of the Civil Neighbourhood Watch, police officers and Watch representatives pay visits to houses/flats and advise on methods of protecting houses/flats against burglaries. In Poland, one of the basic tasks of the police is to initiate and organise activities preventing crimes and offences as well as cooperate with competent state authorities, self-governments and social organisations to achieve this goal. The police can be supported by residents of certain areas or groups chosen by a local community to implement common crime prevention projects. Society’s cooperation in crime prevention entails community members’ active and pro-social attitudes. Common understanding between the society and police results in considerable benefits for both parties. A society feels less threatened by crime and the police is aided in the process of pursuing criminals. The more the police does for a society, the more they can expect in return. This rings especially true when the society understands that by aiding the police, they also help themselves. While mentioning the police’s crime prevention function, attention is paid to the vital issue of cooperation with the society. This shows the necessity of providing a prevention self-defence system understood as all direct activities undertaken by state services, institutions as well as self-government, social units and individual citizens in order to prevent or hinder any possible criminal actions.

In 1990s, Poland underwent significant economic, political and psycho-social changes. This spurred increase in crime, brutality and aggression. Such phenomena undermine applicable legal norms and social coexistence rules as well as raise feelings of fear and insecurity.

313 Art. 1, section 2, subsection 3 of the Act of 6 April 1990, Journal of Laws no. 30 item 179
At that time, in order to meet common expectations regarding enhancement of safety and restoration of social order, the police commenced implementation of a comprehensive crime prevention programme called “Safe City”, all over Poland. Thus citizens organise themselves to prevent crimes from being committed in their territory. See below for a few examples of such activities. In autumn 1991, residents of the town of Łochów in the Siedlce Voivodeship (population: 8 thousand) turned to the Police Station Chief with an initiative entailing creation of a crime prevention self-defence system. At first, 34 owners of shops which had been notoriously robbed (21 burglaries in 1991) participated in police patrols and made a private car available for this purpose. The crime prevention self-defence system comprised 60 shop owners who, in cooperation with the police, apprehended numerous individuals who attempted breaking and entering. The number of burglaries decreased rapidly, i.e. in 1992 - 9 burglaries, 1993 - 8 burglaries, 1994 - 3 burglaries, and no attempts were recorded in 1995 - 1997. Another example of a crime prevention self-defence system is the University Watch. Generally, students are peaceful people, but at times can cause certain problems. Public brawls are usually handled by the police. This, however, does not apply to any misdemeanour in dormitories and on campus premises, as police officers usually do not interfere with the customary autonomy of Universities, which, nevertheless, does not mean that they are forbidden entry in case a crime is committed. In order to handle brawls in dormitories, managements of certain campuses created University Watch units (e.g. on Cracow or Olsztyn university grounds). The University Watch members’ main task is to quiet fellow students down using various means of persuasion. In drastic cases, they resort to force in order to transport brawlers outside a dormitory for the police to collect them. In Lublin, in late 1980s, there was increase in late-night muggings in which lone women were assaulted. As a result, the authorities of the John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin decided to create an organisation protecting students against crime. Members of the organisation were primarily responsible for escorting female students home, to rented flats or dormitories, after any evening classes. Rapt attention was also paid to suspicious types that might have assaulted lone women.

The Polish legal system empowers local communities to create various self-defence groups that are allowed to take preventive actions. Local community members can create self-defence organisations operating in close cooperation with the police and local authorities (e.g. in a form of an association or on the basis of resolutions taken by Commune Councils) or in a totally independent manner (as informal groups whose activities

are restricted to surveillance of areas in the direct vicinity). In certain local communities, correctly organised self-defence organisation acting according to applicable laws constitutes a desirable element that may play an important role within any local system protecting citizens against crime.316

There are certain legal regulations which favour creation of social self-defence groups. The most important ones include:

- defence of provocation;
- state of higher necessity;
- perpetrator caught in the act;
- providing police officers with emergency aid;
- social obligation to make a criminal complaint to law enforcement officers;
- protection of order and citizens’ safety by territorial self-government units;
- freedom of association;
- obligation of the police and commune (municipal) police to cooperate with self-government authorities and social organisations;
- obligation of local self-governments to cooperate with non-governmental organisations.317

The basis for effective actions taken for the benefit of local safety is a direct contact between civil watch members and residents as well as cooperation with entities supporting the civil watch operation (e.g. the police). These entities take advantage of work done by the civil watch within their own operation aimed at ensuring order and safety within local communities.

Applicable laws regulate that civil watch organisations are allowed to make certain undertakings aimed at improving social order and safety within their local communities. Such initiatives include:

1. Guarding certain locations, premises, property (e.g. vehicles in car parks).

316 Compare MSW, Straże Obywatelskie, Warszawa 2007, pp. 3 - 4
317 See ibid, p. 3.
2. Observing incident sites and perpetrators’ methods of operation and behaviour as well as remembering their appearance (clothes, physical description), features of vehicles used by perpetrators (registration plate number, make, body colour).

3. Using available means of communication to inform about incidents during which law has been breached as well as actual and attempted crimes.

4. Propagating safe behaviour among local communities, providing advice, informing about threats and methods of opposing to crime, distributing safety-related informational materials and leaflets.

5. Regular patrolling of locations prone to crime (social patrolling units can move on foot, by bicycle or car).

6. Informing competent services and residential estate administration units about necessary undertakings and interventions as well as detected irregularities (e.g. about the necessity to install speed bumps on housing estate roads, requesting closure of off-licence shops creating inconvenience for residents, necessity to repair street lamps or installing new light sources in dangerous areas, necessity to repair devastated street furniture, informing about illegally dumped waste, pinpointing locations in which hooligans, drug addicts or juvenile offenders often stay).

7. Assisting children on their way to school.

8. Initiating and organising safety-related actions (e.g. neighbourhood aid).

9. Creating notes (records) of all incidents observed during patrols.\textsuperscript{318}

In Ukraine, a reform of law enforcement entities introduced by the Act “On the National Police” of 7 November 2015 is being implemented\textsuperscript{319}. It introduces a series of changes in the law enforcement entity structure, tasks, functions and methods of execution. The Act “On the National Police” defines the following strategic tasks: preventive actions (crime prevention and provision of information) and interventions (justified use of coercive measures). Simultaneously, attention is also paid to crime prevention and forecasting

In Ukraine, fulfilment of tasks faced by the national police authorities is to be based on recognition of common values, respect for human rights and freedoms as well as

\textsuperscript{318} Ibid, p. 8 - 9.
ascertaining their priority in relations with the state. The Crime Prevention Department of
the National Police of Ukraine is responsible for implementation of prophylactic and pre-
ventive actions aimed at ensuring crime prevention. According to the applicable rules,
the Department performs certain functions, some of which are aimed at conducting pre-
ventive and prophylactic activities, i.e.:

- within the framework of its competencies, the Department takes preventive and
  prophylactic actions aimed at crime prevention;

- according to applicable laws, the Department controls if legal requirements and
  other normative legal acts related to legal custody and care of orphans and chil-
  dren without parental care are not breached, uses preventive measures in the
  cases of children neglect, crimes committed in children’s communities as well as
  social patronage over children who served prison terms;

- implements applicable measures aimed at preventing and stopping domestic
  violence;

- ensures, within the limits of its competencies, normative and methodological
  support for and control over activity of subordinated territorial entities and units
  in the Crimea, districts, Kyiv and Sevastopol, regions, cities and town districts
  which, within the limits of their competencies, implement the national policy for
  ensuring social safety and order, ensure road traffic safety, protect human rights
  and freedoms and well as society and state interests, combat crime, prevent and
  stop domestic violence, take preventive and prophylactic actions;

- organises and holds, within the society, events aimed at explaining applica-
  ble laws and other normative acts, in particular the ones related to road traffic
  safety, employing various media to achieve this goal (films, video clips, printed
  matter), conducts evaluation surveys, contests and competitions, contributes to
  trainings (especially juveniles) on the road traffic regulations;

- implements, together with applicable central and local executive entities, meas-
  ures preventing breaches of road traffic regulations committed by juveniles;
• cooperates, within the limits of its competencies, with structural units of the national police, Ministry of the Interior and other law enforcement agencies, state authorities, local authorities and non-governmental organisations responsible for upholding public safety and order, ensuring road traffic safety, protecting human rights and freedoms as well as society and state interests, combating crime and preventing violence;

• elaborates drafts of acts and other legal documents related to ensuring public safety and order, ensuring road traffic safety, protecting human rights and freedoms as well as society and state interests, combating crime and preventing violence;

• performs own preventive work with persons released from prisons or domestic offenders;

• prevent and react to administrative and criminal offences;

• organises individual prophylactic classes to prevent crimes committed by children coming into conflict with the law;

• organises prophylactic meetings with children in their places of residence, schools and educational facilities.

The Ukrainian police cooperates with the society by elaborating and implementing joint projects, programmes and actions aimed at satisfying residents’ needs and improving effectiveness of police’s tasks. The cooperation between the police and the public aims at identifying and eliminating problems connected with implementation of police measures as well as promoting modern methods of enhancing effectiveness and efficiency of such measures.

The police supports legal education initiatives and promotes law-related knowledge in educational institutions, mass media and publishing houses.

320 O zatwierdzeniu Regulaminu Departamentu działań prewencyjnych Narodowej policji Ukrainy, Rozporządzenie MSW Ukrainy № 123 of 27.11.2015.
The cooperation between law enforcement agencies and the society came to life after the Ukraine's Parliament (Verkhovna Rada) passed, on 22 June 2000, the special Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders” aimed at regulating the citizens’ support for state law enforcement agencies in terms of prevention of administrative and criminal offences as well as protection of citizens’ life and health. This Act provides the legal basis for operation of civil formations dealing with protection of social order and state borders and provides regulations pertaining to their organisation and operation, establishment procedures, main tasks, etc.

According to Art. 4 of this Act, civil formations are created on a voluntary basis in workplaces, educational facilities or in places of residence. A civil unit must comprise at least ten members to be registered. Its operation must comply with a statute that should be approved by a competent unit reporting to the Minister of the Interior.

Citizens of Ukraine who are at least 18 years of age, demonstrate high moral standards, have a required health condition and have expressed their desire to participate in protection of the public order and country’s laws are eligible to become members of civil unit ensuring protection of public order.

Persons in breach of social order, with a criminal record for committing intentional crimes, suffering from chronic alcoholism or drug addiction (Art. 12 of the above-mentioned Act) are not eligible to become members of civil formations.

Police officers help to screen candidates to civil formations. After passing all checks, candidates are trained by police officers in terms of applicable legal issues. The training is conducted by police officers with necessary theoretical knowledge and sufficient practical experience. On completion of the training, each candidate is presented with a certificate issued by an applicable entity dealing with internal affairs and well as a document confirming that they belong to a given unit.

Another important aspect of civil units is the authority given to their members in order to protect the social order and state borders. According to Art. 13 of the Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders” civil unit members should:

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1. Actively participate in protection of the social order and state borders, counteract and prevent administrative crimes and offences.

2. While on duty consisting on protecting the social order and state borders, they should hold a document confirming their membership in a unit and wear a special armband.

3. Deliver, to the police, Ukraine's Border Guard units, public order protection points, self-government authorities or executive authorities in a given location, persons who have committed an administrative offence, in order to identify them, create an administrative crime protocol, etc.

4. Helping Members of Ukraine's Parliament, representatives of the state authorities and local self-government entities to undertake lawful activities, and also in case they are in danger.\(^\text{322}\)

Moreover, members of civil units involved in protection of state borders are obliged to be familiar with:

1. The borderland, precise state borders, numbers and locations of border posts.
2. Legal acts concerning state borders and the borderland.
3. Specimens of documents authenticating the right of Ukrainian citizens and other persons to enter and stay within areas controlled by the Ukraine's Border Guard, in particular within the border zone.\(^\text{323}\)

While on duty consisting in protecting the social order and state borders, members of civil units have a right to:

1. Demand that citizens obey the law or refrain from breaking the law.
2. Check identification documents in case a crime or offence is suspected.
3. In cooperation with officers of the Ministry of the Interior and Ukraine's Border Guard, apprehend and escort persons ignoring demands issued by officers (members of civil units) and refusing to stop committing offences to Ministry of the Interior and Ukraine's Border Guard units or public order protection points.
4. Create reports on legal offences.

\(^{322}\) Ibid
\(^{323}\) Ibid
5. With the consent of owners or legal entities, enter clubs, theatres, stadiums and other public places and facilities in order to apprehend perpetrators or prevent crimes.

6. Enter, in company with Ukraine’s Border Guard officers, at any time of night and day, flats, companies, institutions and organisations and control vehicles for persons illegally crossing the state border, with the consent of citizens or owners of the aforementioned companies, institutions and organisations.

7. In emergencies, use vehicles belonging to companies, institutions and organisations or citizens, excluding vehicles belonging to diplomats, consulate personnel and representatives of foreign countries as well as special-purpose vehicles, in order to transport persons requiring immediate medical attention to healthcare units.

8. As regards violation of road traffic regulations, take actions required to stop these violations or crimes, check driver’s licences and vehicle documents, prevent persons without required documents or persons under influence of alcohol or other intoxicating substances from driving a vehicle.

9. Organise informational meetings with members of the society to explain regulations pertaining to Ukraine’s borders, system of operations in the border zone and control of the borderland areas.

10. In justified cases, resorting to force, special measures to ensure individual protection and self-defence.\(^\text{324}\)

As regards enforcing administrative law provisions, according to Art. 255 of the Code of Administrative Offences,\(^\text{325}\) a member of a civil unit involved in protection of public order and state borders has the right to elaborate administrative protocols.

The Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders” provides for certain types of actions taken by citizens in order to ensure public order, i.e. joining patrols, running police stations with police officers, participating in activities aiming

\(^{324}\) Ibid

at ensuring public order during mass events. However, in practice, the forms of cooperation between members of civil units and police officers vary, and can be categorised as follows:

1. Protection of public order and crime prevention. This category entails direct contribution of members of civil units (together with police personnel) to protection of order, which includes: patrolling territories along defined routes, presence in required locations or places where public events are organised, prevention of crimes and detection of crimes and their perpetrators, verification of locations where criminal underworld’s activities are accumulated, implementing measures aimed at preventing road accidents, protection of suburban areas of garden allotments, landscape parks, etc., analysing (within limits of their competencies) reports or information regarding offences, securing crime scenes or locations of accidents, natural disasters, fires, providing immediate medical assistance, implementing measures preventing consequences of emergencies, implementing measures to track persons who have committed a crime and escaped from a crime scene, tracking drivers escaping from road traffic crime scenes, tracking stolen vehicles and persons who commit such crimes, preventing offences committed in households.

2. Preventive actions consisting in detecting perpetrators, reasons and conditions contributing to crime wave, implementing preventive measures and controlling such persons. Police personnel can involve members of civil units to implement individual preventive measures among the following categories of offenders: persons on probation serving suspended sentences, persons susceptible to committing offences in family relations, people suffering from STDs, persons involved in prostitution, people encouraging / inciting juveniles to commit crimes or take other illegal actions, persons failing to fulfil their parental duties in relation to correct upbringing and maintenance of children, juvenile offenders including persons evading work, education, etc.326

As regards preventive actions taken by members of civil units, they are involved in: conversations with persons prone to commit crimes, individual conversations with juvenile offenders and their parents, escorting (together with police personnel) criminals to police stations, controlling behaviour of persons monitored by police units, according to their

326 Instrukcja dotycząca organizacji pracy organów MSW Ukrainy w zakresie zapewnienia współpracy z obywatelami oraz formacjami obywatelskimi w celu ochrony porządku publicznego oraz prewencji przestępstw (approved by the Order of the Ukraine’s Ministry of the Interior on 23.08.2011, № 608).
place of residence or work (education), providing criminals with explanations regarding rights, legal acts and responsibility for offences committed, providing advice and assistance to persons released from penal institutions regarding employment, housing, etc.\textsuperscript{327}

However, an analysis of cooperation between civil units and the police on the basis of the Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders” shows that:

- despite the fact that, according to the Act, cooperation of members of civil units is supposed to have the “unit-police-local authorities” form, and each local self-government or executive body unit has a representative appointed to cooperate with civil units, in reality, this cooperation has only the “unit-police” form;

- current problems consist in the lack of material support for civil units which, according to Art. 19 of the aforementioned Act, should be provided by local self-government or executive body units. For example, this refers to providing dedicated premises with necessary equipment and means of communication. However, only a small fraction of Ukrainian units have been provided with local authorities’ support.

Actual involvement of civil units in cooperation with the Ukraine’s national police has been analysed on the example of the Zakarpattia oblast, i.e. a district unique as far as implementation of the Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders” is concerned, for the following reasons: it is the only Ukrainian district bordering with four EU member states, which intensifies the possibility of crimes connected with illegal border crossing, etc.; it is the only district, 51% of which is covered in forests, which increases the risk connected with crimes consisting in illegal tree clearance, etc.; it is a district with the largest community of the Roma minority (officially 14 thousand, unofficially 50 thousand persons, i.e. half of the Roma minority in Ukraine), i.e. persons prone to committing offences.

According to the Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders”, there are 81 created and operational civil units (1215 members) in the Zakarpattia oblast. During the first four months of 2017, members of the units and police officers

\textsuperscript{327} methodological National Police’s recommendations for involvement citizens in protection of public order and crime preventions, in line with the Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders”. 
jointly took 143 preventive actions in the district. During prevention activities undertaken with the participation of members of civil units during the first four months of 2017, 3 persons who committed crimes were identified, and 28 persons who committed administrative offences were apprehended.

The statistics of cooperation in 2016 are as follows: 454 preventive activities were undertaken in the district; 6 persons who committed crimes were identified; 263 persons who committed administrative offences were apprehended.

The following can be mentioned as positive results of close cooperation with civil units:

1. A particularly positive example of cooperation between the police and the society is the civil unit created on 21 May 2013, in the village of Dertsen, Mukachevo region, Zakarpattia oblast district, according to the Act “On participation of citizens in protection of social order and state borders”, associating 82 members, 5 of whom are assistants to police inspectors.

2. The population of the village of Dertsen is 2793 persons, almost 100% of whom are ethnic Hungarians. From its very beginning, members of the unit have followed a schedule of public order protection in Dertsen and supported the police in organisation of mass events. Every day, 15 members of civil units in 4 cars protect public order in Dertsen.

3. Particular attention should be paid to the “Crow” unit associating 16 members and created on 6 April 2005, in the town of Rakhiv. Police patrols are organised in teams consisting of one police officer and two members of a civil unit, in Rakhiv and other towns, in line with an approved schedule. While on patrol, members of civil units are equipped with special tools and means of communication. Members of the “Crow” unit actively protect the state border.

4. One of the oldest units in the Zakarpattia oblast is “Kniagynia” operating in the Velykyi Bereznyi district established in 1963.

To sum up, one must state that participation of citizens in crime prevention activities is limited, due to the following:

1. Crime prevention must not evolve into restricting citizens’ freedoms. Citizens operating within a preventive self-defence system must not employ any repressive methods as such situations may rapidly deteriorate and result in lynches.
Similarly to all citizens, guards have the right to the defence of provocation as well as to apprehend a perpetrator and transfer them to the police.

2. A society should participate in prophylactic activities whose results will be more favourable than results of repressive measures.

3. Citizens, i.e. participants in prophylactic self-defence, should be correctly selected and demonstrate socially valuable features, e.g. law-abiding behaviour, objectivity, interest in common good, personal etiquette, etc.

4. In order to eliminate the risk of abuse of power by certain public trust groups aimed at achieving own goals, crime prevention undertakings must always be controlled by local authorities.

5. A prerequisite for elaborating an effective prevention system is knowledge of methods employed by criminals. Thus participants in such systems should cooperate with the police and undergo necessary trainings on crime prevention and their own rights.

6. Due to social reasons, it is impossible to fully meet all citizens’ demands. This is connected with escalation of claims. For example, granting a permit to carry firearms to one group of citizens will result in protests of other groups. Thus firearms should be distributed to a considerable part of a society, which is unacceptable.

7. Applicable laws empowers only police officers and similar services in a manner which cannot be applied to all citizens.328

All programmes aimed at reducing the fear factor constitute a very important form of preventive measures implemented by the police. They should consist in creating a stronger bond between police stations and housing estate residents, publishing information regarding crimes committed in a given area, police officers’ visits in homes and organising meetings through churches or schools. Contacts in stress-free situations have positive impact on the bond created between the police and society. Studies and practical experiences confirm that police officers and criminologists more and more strongly believe that the role of the society in crime prevention is as important as the role played by the

328 Such restrictions are imposed in all countries where the idea of the Neighbourhood Watch is still alive; compare also B. Hołyst, *Udział społeczeństwa w zapobieganiu przestępczości (na przykładzie innych Państw)*, „Zeszyty Naukowe ASW” 1974, no. 7.
police force. Thus social initiatives are of such vital importance in nationalisation of police operation.  

As far as cross-border cooperation is concerned, the safety issue is treated as a priority objective in the 2014-2020 financing perspective. However, within frameworks of various priority objectives in the 2007-2013 financing perspective, various safety-related activities were also undertaken. Cooperation of police officers from Lublin and Volyn in combating crime in borderlands started in 1990s. In 2006-2007, they implemented the project “Poland, Belarus, Ukraine - Common Borders. Common safety”. Within the framework of joint undertakings, the need for further cooperation and safety-related actions for the benefit of borderland residents was confirmed, which resulted in the project entitled “Cooperation for the benefit of safety of the Lublin Voivodeship and Volyn oblast”, which was implemented in the 2007-2013 financing perspective.  

In the ongoing 2014-2020 financing perspective the Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine facilitates cooperation and gaining new skills and experiences as well as provides opportunities to acquire funds necessary for various undertakings, including the safety-related ones. Within the framework of the thematic objective 3 Common challenges in the field of safety and security, Priority 3.2. Addressing common security challenges, it is possible to start cross-border cooperation between non-commercial entities (including: the police, non-governmental organisations, self-government administration, state administration, universities) to prevent and combat crime as well as to raise the feeling of safety in local communities. Crime prevention entails actions, so cooperation among entities from borderlands of Poland and Ukraine is possible.

329 Compare R. Abell, Community Initiatives in Crime Control.  
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Instrukcja dotycząca organizacji pracy organów MSW Ukrainy w zakresie zapewnienia współpracy z obywatelami oraz formacjami obywatelskimi w celu ochrony porządku publicznego oraz prewencji przestępstw (zatwierdzona Nakazem MSW Ukrainy w dn. 23.08.2011, № 608).


O zatwierdzeniu Regulaminu Departamentu działań prewencyjnych Narodowej policji Ukrainy, Rozporządzenie MSW Ukrainy № 123 z dn. 27.11.2015 roku.


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Disaster mitigation and prevention in Poland and Ukraine

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Marek Lisiecki, PhD
Summary

The main purpose of the article is to present the functioning of social assistance centres and social workers in the event of mishaps and natural disasters as well as the forms of assistance provided to the victims in Poland and Ukraine.

The paper will present educational and information measures, targeted at the residents of Poland, adopted to reduce the losses caused by natural calamities. It is particularly important to increase the awareness of children and older people about natural hazards and proper behaviour in the event of danger. The article presents the activities of Polish local governments, NGOs and state institutions in the scope of raising awareness among children, young people and adults about ways to prepare for a natural disaster, strategies for survival and restoration of the ensuing damage.

Introduction

We are used to learning about natural disasters (floods, whirlwinds, etc.) from the media, but more and more often we are witness to such events. Statistics show that the scale and the severity of consequences of natural disasters have been on the rise, as presented in fig.1
In Poland and Ukraine natural disasters threaten the safety of several dozen thousand people. It is worth mentioning that natural disasters are not limited to one particular country as they may co-occur across borders. With that in mind, it is crucial that certain prevention tasks are delegated to citizens of a particular country. Safety systems also have to be established. Emergency services such as fire brigades, the army or volunteer fire brigades for that matter are dispatched with the purpose of mitigating losses wherever a mass natural disaster such as flood, drought or whirlwinds occurs. Another entity supporting citizens in overcoming the tragedy are employees of social assistance centres (social inspectors). This article will present activities performed by schools, NGOs, and local government institutions as regards educating and informing about the commonest disaster in Poland – flood. The discussed atmospheric phenomena cause huge damages in the place of their occurrence, but their impact – lost lives and property – can be effectively limited. Apart from developing infrastructure, preventive measures, e.g. educational activities, can be applied.
Educational and information activities in Poland

Educational and information activities in Poland aim to raise awareness of the society, educate the society about particular dangers, propagate the knowledge on what to do in the event of a natural disaster, and to educate the society on how to prevent risks related to natural processes. A geography curriculum became a part of the Polish education system between 2009 and 2017. In the new, reformed system students were expected to acquire the following skills: critical thinking, drawing conclusions, distinguishing the causes from the results. According to the main assumptions of the reform, it is more important that students understand the mechanisms and processes of particular phenomena than learn about them from an encyclopaedia, memorizing definitions and descriptions. Analysing middle-school education in the context of the geography curriculum, one has no choice but to conclude that there were no direct references to natural disasters. However, in point 3. of guidelines to the curriculum the following has been stated: “Using geographical knowledge and skills in practice. The student uses their knowledge and skills to better understand today’s world and their place in it; the student uses their knowledge and skills in everyday life, e.g. by the sustainable use of natural resources.”331 In high school education (basic level) there was no mention of natural disasters either. The subject, however, was mentioned in key stages. “1. The use of different sources of information for the purposes of analysing and presenting natural, economic, social, cultural, and political problems of today’s world. 2. Formulating and reviewing hypotheses about the problems of today. 3. Understanding the man–nature relation – society in the global and regional scale.”332 When analysing the extended level in high school education one has to indicated that there was only an indirect reference to the subject in hand, as the curriculum focused on acquiring problem-solving skills related to problems occurring in the environment as regards the sustainable development principle, and the use of information and communication technologies and GIS, which might be used in the event of a natural disaster to monitor the developments and warn citizens about the approaching danger. As Maciej Lechowicz and Tomasz Nowacki suggest, middle school education put insufficient emphasis on the matters of natural disasters, especially floods. “It is clear that the system lacks sufficient reference to one of the main types of natural disasters occurring in our country – flood. The mentioned deficit is even more noticeable when we conclude that the problems related to tectonics and volcanism, which do not concern

331 The Order of the Minister of National Education of August 27th 2012 on the issue of the curriculum for the preschool and general education in particular types of schools, J. of Law of the Republic of Poland, item 977, 2012
332 ibid.
our country on a similar scale, were on both levels covered to far greater extent”333. Similar were the conclusions of Dorota Rucińska, who also studied the curriculum334 and indicated that, although the term “natural disaster” is mentioned in the curriculum, the extent to which it is presented in books and atlases varies. One has to admit, however, that in 2009 in middle schools and 2012 in high schools, in order to teach students how to react in the event of emergency, the subject safety education was introduced335. In the course of a year students had 1 hour of classes a week. It is worth mentioning that the subject previously taught in high schools – preparation for civil defense – was taught for 2 hours a week. During the safety education classes middle schools and high school students learned what to do when a fire, flood, terrorist attack or a car accident occurs. They also underwent first aid trainings, which consumed the biggest amount of time, as due to numerous classes and limited educational hours there is not enough time to cover the subjects of protection against different types of dangers and preparation for natural disasters. Another reform of the education system is to take place in 2017, following which primary schools (classes 1-6) and middle schools (classes 1-3) will be transformed into 8 years long primary school. In the new primary school geography will be taught in classes 5-8. Analysing the assumptions of the curriculum one might observe that, when it comes to the relation between different elements of geographical environment, students in particular parts of Poland will learn about drainage basin management in the case of surge and flood. It has been stated in the curriculum that students will be able to “determine how the deforestation of a drainage basin, the regulation of the channel of a river, the condition of levees, building development in the floodplain, and artificial reservoir influence surges, the occurrence, and consequences of floods on the example of Lower Silesia and Lesser Poland”336. Moreover, classes will cover the subject of cyclones and floods in South and North America. In class 8 of primary school students will attend the safety education classes, during which they will learn to identify nature-related risks, what to do in the event of a fire, flood danger, collapse of a building, road accidents, radiological contamination, heavy blizzard, the release of hazardous chemical substances, terrorist incidents, etc. After finishing the course, students will know how to act appropriately in the

334 D. Rucińska, Extreme Natural Phenomena versus the Awareness of the Society (Ekstremalne zjawiska przyrodnicze a świadomość społeczna). The University of Warsaw, the Faculty of Geography and Regional Studies, 2012, Warsaw
335 The Order of the Minister of National Education of December 23rd 2008 on the issue of the curriculum for the preschool and general education in particular types of schools, J. of Law of the Republic of Poland 2008, no. 4, item 17
event of emergency”\textsuperscript{337}. When the article was being written, the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Poland was holding public consultations on the introduction of 4 years long high schools, 5 years long technical colleges, and 3 years long trade schools, which is why the final content of the curriculum in the context of flood safety is yet to be known. The Polish education system provides for the use of a textbook describing flood safety measures\textsuperscript{338}. The presented material includes practical information on how to protect property and family from flood, how to respond to warnings about the approaching flood, or what to do in order to minimize the toll of the disaster. The textbook comprises plans for lessons about flood safety as well as plans for short workshops during which pupils will learn in detail how a flood comes. The publication titled “Make It Before the Flood Comes” (Zdążyć przed powodzią) is supposed to provide local government institutions with methodological guidelines on the subject of flood monitoring and warning systems\textsuperscript{339}. The publication – basing on the experience of the 1997 flood – presents the structure of local flood monitoring and warning systems. In the context of the approaching flood, during its occurrence, and after its recedence, access to latest updates on the danger is essential. The discussed field of information activities – the cooperation of local governments, the media, and the society – is presented in the publication issued by the Institute of Meteorology and Water Management\textsuperscript{340}. Another important publication about the support for the victims of disasters is the study by Agnieszka Skowrońska\textsuperscript{341}. Her publication was written above all for people employed in social assistance institutions, performing statutory tasks in the field of support for the victims of natural disasters. The mentioned publication presents general issues related to social work during crises. The textbook fills the gap in the market of publications devoted to the subject of educational and information activities, written for with people employed in institutions specializing in natural disaster support. The experience of the 2010 flood gave rise to a manual\textsuperscript{342}.


\textsuperscript{338} M. Siudak, R. Konieczny, E. Tyrańska-Wojtyszcz, E. What to Do in the Event of a Flood, Educational Materials for Teachers, 5th edition, extended (Jak sobie radzić z powodzią, Materiały dydaktyczne dla nauczycieli, Wydanie V rozszerzone), the Institute of Meteorology and Water Management, the National Research Institute, 2013, Cracow


\textsuperscript{340} U. Podraza, Cooperation with the Media. A Guideline. (Współpraca z mediami. Poradnik) the Institute of Meteorology and Water Management, 2002, Cracow

\textsuperscript{341} A. Skowrońska, Social Assistance in the Event of Complex Crises and Natural Disasters. (Pomoc społeczna w obliczu katastrof i kryzysów złożonych). The Centre of Human Resources Development. 2014, Warsaw

introducing rural communities to the role which they play in averting the consequences and minimizing the losses caused by floods.

Among the initiatives raising the awareness and stimulating the activity of local communities, one should indicate educational programmes organized by local governments in Poland. One of such activities was organized by the Marshall Office of the West Pomerania Voivodeship in cooperation with local partners (the army, emergency services). The year 2017 saw the 9th edition of the programme, concluded with a competition. The initiative targets students of primary school classes 5-6 and middle schools classes 1-3. After the classes, students participate in a competition, whose aim is to “increase the knowledge of communities living in flood areas on the risk involved, as well as to explain that flood is inevitable, everyone should take care of themselves, and that there are effective ways of limiting losses to lives and property. The aim of the competition is also to familiarize participants with the local flood risk now and then.”343 There are also many other local initiatives in the field of community flood education. Organized in 2016 for primary school pupils from the Wyszków commune, the artistic competition titled “The Flood!!! – stay calm” (Powódź!!! - nie tracę głowy) is yet another example of such activities. One more example of educational activities for children and teachers is a project run by the Łódź Voivode titled “Flood – I Have a Plan” (Na powódź mam plan). Thanks to the subsidies from the Environmental Protection and Water Management Regional Fund in Łódź, 16 educational institutions attended by children from flood areas were able to organize exemplary classes on flood safety in 2013. Over 500 children learned what to do before, during, and after a flood. In 2014 and 2015 the project targeted teachers, who obtained knowledge and teaching materials necessary to organize classes on the subject of flood safety.344

Since 2015 Polish citizens have been warned about approaching floods, strong winds, and other dangers by means of the Regional Warning System (Regionalny System Ostrzegania). The system enables Security and Crisis Management Departments in Poland to disseminate the information about the approaching danger on the Internet, in the form of announcements broadcast on public TV channels, as well as via smartphone apps or text messages sent out to mobile phones. The rainstorms of August 11th 2017, which killed 6 people, proved that the system is ineffective. There is a smartphone app

compatible with the system. To be used, however, it has to be installed. The planned improvement of the system will make it possible to send text messages to all people in the danger zone, irrespective of the danger factor. Moreover, the government of the Republic of Poland has declared that a new educational campaign on how to act during natural disasters will be launched.

The Polish Support System for the Victims of Natural Disasters

People who suffered in a natural disaster or another type of an accident are eligible for support offered by the civil service with a view to mitigating the consequences of the disaster. The kind of help available has been stipulated in two legal acts, i.e. The Social Assistance Act\(^{345}\) and the State of Emergency Act\(^{346}\). Furthermore, separate orders are issued during each individual event. It is important to indicate all forms of provided material support as well as the available specialist counselling:

- Aid of up to 6,000 zloty – losses to residential buildings
- Aid of up to 20,000 zloty – losses to residential buildings
- Aid of up to 100,000 zloty – losses to residential buildings
- Aid of up to 200,000 zloty – losses to residential buildings
- Aid of up to 20,000 zloty – losses to outbuildings serving to satisfy basic needs, especially losses to storehouses
- Aid of up to 100,000 zloty – losses to outbuildings serving to satisfy basic needs, especially losses to storehouses

Apart from material support, the victims receive shelter, food and clothes. Social work, specialist counselling, crisis intervention, a stay in a support centre, or temporary accommodation (containers) are other forms of support. In order to obtain aid the victims need to contact their local social assistance institution.

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345  The Social Assistance Act of March 12th 2004, (J. of Laws of 2004, no. 64, item 593, as amended)
The first type of support is purpose benefit of 6,000 zloty. The victims of a natural disaster (like the rainstorm of August 11th 2017) whose households (residential buildings, basic household appliances) have been damaged and who, as a result, have found themselves in a difficult situation, with no way of independently satisfying their basic needs, can apply for purpose benefit. The benefit is granted by a local social assistance institution. The following have to be taken into consideration when granting the benefit: “1) The flat’s condition (whether it provides shelter for the residents, its condition does not pose a threat to the residents, whether another shelter should be temporarily provided); 2) Urgent repairs or purchases necessary for existence; 3) Actual damages to the household (basic household appliances, food, access to drinking water; 4) Whether children from the harmed families will be able to continue or start their education; 5) Whether medical care is available and drugs, especially those not covered by insurance, for the victims can be bought” 347. There is no need to present any invoices in order to obtain the benefit. The benefit is granted on the basis of a community interview carried out by a civil servant following a family community interview questionnaire.

Another form of support is the benefit of up to 20,000 zloty. This amount is reduced by an already granted purpose benefit of 6,000 zloty. Moreover, depending on the scale of damages to the household, an additional benefit of up to 200,000 zloty for renovation of a flat or building can be granted. 348 Until 29th August 2017 the support amounts to 100,000 zloty. 349 Every time a particular case in which support is granted has to be preceded by a thorough analysis of the needs of the victims and their families. The possibility of applying for benefits when storehouses are damaged by wind is a newly introduced solution. The available amount is 100,000 zloty.

Because of the 2017 rainstorms the government issued an order\textsuperscript{350} which will enable more efficient loss assessment. According to the legal article, not only experts but also employees of Construction Supervision Inspectorates can run the assessment. Additionally, the procedures related to obtaining permission for rebuilding or renovation of buildings have been simplified. Now only a notification that the works have started is required. Renovation can be performed without formalities. Commissioning of a renovated or rebuilt building will also be simplified.

Moreover, an additional order has been issued\textsuperscript{351}, according to which 5,000,000 zloty will be made available for children from the areas affected by rainstorms (there is a possibility of increasing the funding if necessary). The target of the support are children starting education in reception classes and attending all schools, excluding those for adults. Students can receive:

- The purpose benefit of 500 or 1,000 zloty. The amount of the benefit depends on the value of the purpose benefit which the student's parents received from the social assistance institution. The amount of benefit available for one child is: (i) 500 zloty – if the child's parents received up to 3,000 zloty of a purpose benefit on the basis of art. 40 of The Social Assistance Act of March 12\textsuperscript{th} or (ii) 1,000 zloty – if the child's parents received a purpose benefit of more than 3,000 zloty;

- Therapeutic and educational classes.

According to the applicable law, local government officials (mayors of communes and mayors of cities) shall organize therapeutic and educational classes for children who were harmed in the rainstorm.


The Ukrainian Support System for the Victims of Natural Disasters

Similarly to Poland, Ukraine has its own social assistance system. Its competence is to support the victims of natural disasters. The main legal acts regulating the procedure of granting support are The Uniform Prevention and Mitigation of Technical Failures and Natural Disasters Act\textsuperscript{352} and The State of Emergency Act\textsuperscript{353}. The 2008 flood in Ukraine killed 22 people, destroying 40,000 households. After the flood appropriate services organized help for the victims. However, funds allocated for support are often misappropriated, as according to the control run by the National Chamber of Financial Control of Ukraine. It has been concluded that “the controls of the appropriation of the budget funds allocated for natural disaster mitigation that were conducted between 23\textsuperscript{rd} and 27\textsuperscript{th} July 2008 in the Vinnytsia, Ivano-Frankivsk, Zakarpattia, Lviv, Ternopil, and Chernivtsi oblasts revealed that over 410,000,000 hryvna was misappropriated, from which 209,000,000 hryvna was lost\textsuperscript{354}. It has to be indicated that in the Polish commune of Wilków, after a flood in 2010, cases of misappropriation were recorded, too.\textsuperscript{355} It is also worth mentioning that the President of Ukraine, Petro Poroshenko, \textsuperscript{356}signed an amendment to the bill which as of 1\textsuperscript{st} January 2018 enables the spouses whose breadwinners died when they were dealing with the consequences of the Chernobyl disaster to apply for a family allowance.\textsuperscript{357}

\textsuperscript{352} Про єдину державну систему запобігання і реагування на надзвичайні ситуації техногенного та природного характеру http://zakon3.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/1198-98-%D0%BF (13.10.2017)


\textsuperscript{357} Про внесення змін до статті 54 Закону України “Про статус і соціальний захист громадян, які постраждали внаслідок Чорнобильської катастрофи” http://zakon2.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/3285-12 (13.10.2017)
Conclusions

Natural Disasters are not limited to one particular country, but occur across borders. People living in danger zones should be informed about the extent of the threat, who and how is going to inform them about the approaching disaster, and where they should evacuate to in the case of life-threatening situations. It is crucial that the knowledge of both children and the elderly on nature-related dangers and the ways in which such dangers are to be dealt with is expanded. It is up to citizens whether the security and crisis management solutions are effectively implemented, thus minimizing the consequences of a given disaster. If citizens are well prepared for natural disasters, the potential losses and threat to life and health are less severe. Teaching the society how to survive a natural disaster should be perceived as an important challenge for authorities, national security institutions, education system and all concerned. As researchers suggest “in the case of emergency differences in the perception of danger, that is specific local conditions, rather than general rules should be taken into account”. Thus, whenever any actions are planned, both distinctive features of particular disasters, their record in a given area, and the mentality of a local community together with their potential reactions to a natural disasters should be bargained for[^358]. The 2017 rainstorms in Poland proved that it is important to educate local communities on how to act in the event of an approaching natural disaster. Educational activities, as the only way to minimize losses caused by natural disasters, should take place in other countries which are partners to the Cross-Border Cooperation Programme Poland - Belarus - Ukraine 2014-2020. When comparing the two support systems it has to be highlighted that sharing experience is crucial. Understanding how different institutions function in the field of informing about the approaching danger and what types of support are available for the victims is vital.

[^358]: W. Biernacki, A. Bokwa, J. Działek, T. Padło, *Local Communities vs. Natural Dangers and Disasters (Społeczności lokalne wobec zagrożeń przyrodniczych i klęsk żywiołowych)*. The Institute of Geography and Spatial Development of the Jagiellonian University, 2009, Cracow
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*The Social Care Act of March 12th 2004*, (J. of Laws of 2015, item 163, as amended)

*The State of Emergency Act of April 18th 2002*, (J. of Laws of 2014, item 333, as amended)


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Integration of people with special needs into the museum environment in the context of the cross-border cooperation between Poland, Belarus and Ukraine

Paper peer-reviewed by Prof. Sergiy Legenchuk, PhD
Summary

This article considers the process of international cooperation of museums and people with special needs as well as adoption of the experience of cross-border cooperation Poland-Belarus-Ukraine by Ukrainian museums. It analyses implementation of projects relating to cooperation of museums with disabled people in Poland and Ukraine. The main features of the development of the exhibition project for blind and visually impaired visitors are highlighted.

Any excursion is known to be based on the combination of two main elements, i.e. excursion site display and their presentation. Thus, excursion is a visual process of cognition of the environment by individuals, based on pre-selected sites in natural conditions or located in the premises of museums. During excursions individuals learn to watch and see, observe and learn in a correct way. And that is the task of the display. And if excursion is considered to be a visual way of obtaining information or certain knowledge, the question arises, whether all people, including blind people and people with special needs, have a chance to participate in excursions. In the current world there are about 650 million of people with physical and mental disabilities. If their family members are taken into account, the number of people related to disability may well reach 2 billion, which is almost one third of the world population\(^\text{359}\). Resorting to their own physical and spiritual reserves, overcoming psychological problems, people with limited psycho-physical possibilities are often incapable of living a full-fledged life due to certain social and physical barriers as well as challenges they face in the everyday life\(^\text{360}\). But currently a lot of activities are carried out in the world, which introduce innovations for visually impaired people in the museum environment using advanced museum technologies and which overcome stereotypes claiming that visual art is accessible only for those who can see. In Ukraine museums are also gradually getting involved in the practice of carrying out such activities for people with special needs in the museum environment. Therefore, this paper aims to analyse implementation of programs having to do with cross-border cooperation of museums with their disabled visitors in Poland and Ukraine. The research focuses on the modern development status of Ukrainian museums’ cooperation with

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disabled people as compared to the neighbouring Polish experience and the prospects of work in the given direction.

On December 3, 1982 the UN General Assembly adopted Resolution No. 37/52 ‘World Programme of Action concerning Disabled Persons’. That was the first international legal document dedicated to this complex and important range of problems. And 10 years later, on December 3, 1992, the UN General Assembly proclaimed that day as the International Day of Persons with Disabilities361. The goal of proclaiming this day was observance of human rights and more active involvement of persons with disabilities in the life of the society. The International Day of Persons with Disabilities aims to attract attention of the global community to problems of people with special needs, to protect their dignity, rights and wellbeing, as well as to ensure the advantages for the society resulting from involvement of persons with disabilities in the political, social, economic and cultural life.

In Ukraine celebration of this day was established in 1993 by the Presidential Decree. Now some three million Ukrainians are persons with disabilities362. Creation of adequate conditions of life will enable people with special needs to more fully realize their personal potential as well as get integrated in the society. This is urged by the signing of international documents by Ukraine, under which own legal base is being developed and improved and respective social programs are being elaborated. The first and the main Law of Ukraine On Fundamentals of Social Protection of Disabled Persons was adopted in 1991, amended and improved in the following years, and it guarantees equal opportunities for disabled persons and all the other citizens for participation in the economic, political and social domains of the societal life, creation of the necessary conditions which enable this category of people to lead a full-fledged life363. Over the last years a number of legislative and regulatory acts have been passed, ensuring social protection of citizens with disabilities by the state. In 2005 the Law On Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons in Ukraine was approved, as well as On Primary Measures Aimed to Create Favourable Conditions of Life and Activity for Persons with Physical Disabilities, On Approval of the Concept of Early Social Rehabilitation of Disabled Children and the Resolution of the CMU On Improvement of Provision of Some Rehabilitation Means to Visually Impaired Persons364. These laws set the

362 Ibid
basic principles of creating legal, social and economic, organizational conditions for the functioning of the system of supporting physical, mental and social welfare of persons with disabilities.

Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities was signed on December 13, 2006 and took effect for Ukraine on March 6, 2010. The Convention proclaims the principle of full and effective participation and inclusion of people with special needs in society. Article 30 of the Convention proclaims, in particular, that States Parties recognize the right of persons with disabilities to take part on an equal basis with others in cultural life, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that persons with disabilities enjoy access to places for cultural performances or services, such as theatres, museums, cinemas, libraries and tourism services, and, as far as possible, enjoy access to monuments and sites of national cultural importance.

In September 2016 the President of Ukraine signed the law aimed to bring legislative norms of non-discriminatory designation of persons with disabilities in conformity with the UN standards. The document introduces changes into the official Ukrainian translation of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and optional protocol thereto via replacing the term ‘invalid’ with ‘a person with disabilities’. Further enforcement of the law will ensure bringing the national legislation regulating the issues relating to persons with disabilities into conformity with the global standards of civil and non-discriminatory designation of such persons as ‘persons with disabilities’, and not ‘invalids’. This law will ensure the correspondence of the national version of the above documents to their original English texts.

Besides, art therapy is now considered to be a modern method of social adaptation, which is of particular importance for persons with disabilities, who, normally, for the reasons that do not depend on them, are socially not adapted. People with special needs, staying within the four walls of the room, badly need communication, therefore art therapy does not only heal them, but integrates them in the society. Art therapy predominantly

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involves means of non-verbal communication, and that is of utmost importance for those who find it difficult to express their ideas in words. The development of the art therapy direction in Europe dates back to the 1960s-1980s of the past century. It was back then that the first professional associations in the field were established, teaching experience was being accumulated. In Ukraine art therapy is considered not as a separate activity direction, but as an additional major for psychiatrists and psychotherapists. Its methods are used by teachers, kindergarten teachers, psychologists and museum staff in their work.

For instance, in Poland there have long been in place special conditions for the participation of persons with disabilities in social life, and in practice the world museums introduce various projects aimed at involving this category of people into the cultural environment. Polish museums have long and actively been participating in rehabilitation and social adaptation of persons with disabilities. Below there are some examples of cross-border cooperation between Ukraine and Poland – projects implemented within the Poland-Belarus-Ukraine Cross-Border Cooperation Program aimed at cooperation between Polish and Ukrainian museums for persons with special needs.

Most Polish museums have advanced technologies helping people with special needs to get involved in the cultural and social milieu of the area. For instance, in 2012 in Katowice the Silesian Museum opened up its first permanent excursion itinerary for the blind and visually impaired. Its most precious assets include a collection of Polish painting prior to and after 1945, which includes the works by Józef Chełmoński, Artur Grottger, Tadeusz Makowski, Jacek Malczewski, Jan Matejko, Józef Mehoffer, and Stanisław Wyspiański. This museum also has samples of primitivism, Art Brut, folk art, artistic and documentary photography, Polish placard, as well as a large ethnographic collection and a collection of Polish stage plastic arts. In 2013 in the Polish museum the Herbst Palace in the city of Lodz the system ‘Podszepty’ was on display, and thanks to this it became possible for blind and visually impaired people to get acquainted with the items on display on their own. According to the museum staff, Lodz is the first city in Poland with such system in place.

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The regional museum in Stalowa Wola is working at different cross-border programs, for visitors with disabilities to enjoy equal rights with other visitors in the Polish-Ukrainian frontier territories. This museum does not have the slogan ‘don’t touch’, and under the programs of international academies the museum staff members are learning how to make their museum more open to visitors with special needs. Both museum staff members and specially trained volunteers communicate with disabled persons. Since 2008 the Regional Museum in Stalowa Wola started cooperating with local psychologist-teacher consultancy, implementing the program ‘Therapy via Art. A Trip to the World of Sounds, Colours, Tastes, and Aromas’.  

The practice of implementation of jointly developed inter-museum projects in the Polish-Ukrainian frontier areas proves that life of persons with physical disabilities can be made full-fledged. In spite of the difficulties like absence of any special exhibitions which are not yet a commonplace practice or such spatial factors as transport not adjusted to persons with disabilities, absence of the opportunity for equipping the museum premises with special means, let us say, ramps, Braille type, etc. In the opinion of the staff of Ukrainian museums as well as visitors, it is high time that permanent exhibitions for disabled visitors be created and special conditions for people with special needs be introduced in the already functioning expositions. The fact that in the exhibition hall both disabled and fully able persons feel on equal terms is a step towards the integration of the former into the society. That is why currently certain achievements can be traced in Ukraine as far as creation of conditions for persons with disabilities to visit cultural institutions are concerned, i.e., persons with locomotor system disorders and people with visual and hearing impairments.


For example, in the Museum of Folk Architecture and Daily Life in Lviv the category of people with locomotor system disorder, in wheelchairs, can freely move across the territory of the museum. Besides that, museum staff members hold mobile exhibitions for such category of people.

One of the first projects not just in Lviv, but in Ukraine, was the project ‘I touch and see’, which helped make the museum more accessible for blind and visually impaired people. Students of the Lviv National Academy of Arts made copies of twelve artistic portraits from the exposition of the B. Voznytskyy Lviv National Art Gallery. These were unconventional copies, since every image was reproduced in the form of sculpture. Thanks to that project each visitor of the gallery, in particular, blind and visually impaired excursion participants, can touch the sculpture and thus imagine what the person depicted in the picture-portrait looked like. But that is still not everything: besides portrait likeness, the artistic technique applied by the author of the picture is also reproduced, and through every touch you may come to know about the nature of the portrait as a piece of art. Sculptural portraits done by the students are exhibited side by side with their artistic originals, for every visitor with good sight to also be able to compare both ‘versions’ of the portrait.

The problems of accessing museum and cultural values of Ukraine by people with special needs are still far from being solved, therefore one of the first attempts of doing this is cooperation of Polish and Ukrainian museums in professional servicing of visitors with disabilities. Thanks to the project ‘Museums without barriers’ implemented within the Poland – Belarus – Ukraine Cross-Border Cooperation Program in 2007 – 2013, aimed at the development of new teaching and educational solutions in the field of access of persons with special physical needs to culture, the best was done to minimize the barriers on the way to accessing cultural assets by visually impaired persons, people with hearing impairments or movement disorders. In Poland there is an international program ‘Museum without barriers’ supported by the EU, it containing three blocks, in particular, on working with blind and visually impaired people, deaf people and people with hearing impairments as

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well as children with mental disorders. In fact, the staff of Lviv museums got acquainted with all the three directions in a very detailed way, adopting the best practice\textsuperscript{373}.

Lviv museums, which include the Museum of History of Religion, the National Museum in Lviv and the Lviv Museum of History, take part in the innovative program of international cooperation between museums, the goal of which is to expand access to art and national heritage for people with special physical needs. Lviv museums have signed the Agreement of Cooperation Intent within the project ‘Museums without barriers’ in the regional museum of Stalowa Wola, Poland\textsuperscript{374}. This enabled to prepare the museum staff of Lviv for servicing persons with disabilities.

Over 2014 museum staff members of Lviv region had a chance to participate in the project ‘Museums without barriers. The coalition of Polish and Ukrainian museums towards professional servicing of disabled visitors’. That was a cycle of workshops held in Poland in the premises of the Regional Museum in Stalowa Wola, in Lviv in the Museum of History of Religion and the final conference – in the Lviv Potocki Palace. During the workshop the participants had a chance to listen to the lectures delivered by professional experts from Poland, working with people with a certain type of disability: Olgierd Kosiba, Robert Więckowski, Anna Bombińska-Domżal, Marta Walewska, Marcin Szelong, Tomasz Wasilewski, Lucyna Mizera, Edyta Lisek-Lubaś, and others. Also, people with special needs were invited to participate in the workshops, this enabling the museum staff to apply the skills obtained in practice.

On the basis of the knowledge and skills obtained, the staff of the Solomiya Krushelnytska Museum conducted the analysis of current museum opportunities which appeared to be not that wide. We cannot work with people with locomotor system disorders due to absolutely objective reasons since the Museum is located on the second floor of the building constructed in 1884, belonging to the historical and cultural heritage and having no designed lift. Most exposition rooms are small, with narrow passages and thresholds, and the exhibits are located at some height, which does not enable wheel-chaired persons to have a look at them.


Also, certain things were traced by us while working with non-hearing people, as it is indicated by the scientific employee of the museum Halyna Ohorchak, since the museum of the singer Solomiya Krushelnytska is a musical museum, most of our events are based on stories about music and musical figures. And though sign interpretation is not a problem, there still arises an ethical question – how do we talk about music to people who have had hearing impairments since their birth? Thus, cooperation with visually impaired and blind people seems to be most likely and fruitful for us.

The museum’s cooperation with the blind started with a visit paid to the Lviv Centre of UTOS (Ukrainian Society of the Blind) and acquaintance with its head – Mrs. Lyuba Kukuruza. A joint activity was planned, where we tried to use the knowledge obtained during the workshops within the ‘Museum without barriers’ project to the full. The museum staff developed classes consisting of three small parts differing in content. The first one presupposed a story about the singer Solomiya Krushelnytska, listening to a recording with her voice as well as tactile familiarization with a blouse and female hats of the 1920s-1930s of the 20th century. These were not museum items, but the things belonging to the employees of the Museum ‘From the Grandmother’s Chest’, and that allowed us to touch them with no caution, without applying special gloves, which generally change the senses. The second part of the class consisted in listening to the musical fragments and reproducing the impression from the things heard in plastic arts. The third and the most successful part was acquaintance with musical instruments. Our guests were fascinated about and interested in touching those instruments and producing some sounds. These were reed pipe, gusli, and bell lyre.

All in all, the prospects of the Solomiya Krushelnytska Museum for working with visually impaired visitors are rather wide. Music and rhythmic constitute an important part of both aesthetic and physical upbringing of visually impaired children. Specialized schools have such disciplines as logo-rhythmic, fairy-tale-therapy, theatre. That is a favourable soil for our musical museum. For our adult guests we may offer lectures about Ukrainian musicians and the possibility to listen to audio records, thematic concerts and meetings with our contemporaries – famous figures in the musical culture.

The ‘Green Cross’ Society jointly with the Integration Society ‘Magnum Bonum’ (Poland) have completed the project ‘Crossing the borders without any barriers – integration of disabled persons via tourism and culture’. The project has become an important step towards integration of disabled persons, since it has enabled to create conditions for them not just in the museum, but in the tourist and cultural domains of Lviv region, and has contributed to similar processes in the neighbouring Poland. The head of the ‘Green Cross’ society Oleksandr Voloshynskyy has told that within the project implementation, in particular, there have been held four training courses in the topics of accessibility and removal of architectural barriers for disabled persons in the museums of Lviv region, embracing one hundred people, with 8 study tours to Poland after the training sessions. The participants visited the rehabilitation centre in Krasnystaw and other museums in Polish cities to gain experience of working with visitors having special needs. An interactive map with a guide for tourist sites in Lviv region that are accessible for disabled persons has been developed. The coordinator of the program ‘Ukraine without barriers’ Yaroslav Hrybalskyy stressed that implementation of the project ‘Crossing the borders without any barriers’ has enabled its participants, persons with disabilities, to feel on equal terms with those having no disabilities. The head of Lviv Regional Division of the Ukrainian Society of the Blind Lyubov Kukuruza has pointed out that thanks to the project ‘Crossing the borders without any barriers’ more and more museums of Lviv region got interested in the opportunity of cooperating with the society in the issues of refurbishment of their premises and expositions with due account of the requirements set for visually impaired people to visit them.

Thus, there are already some achievements in museums. For example, in Lviv Museum of History of Religion excursions for blind, deaf children and children with mental disorders are conducted. Several adapted excursions for children with special needs, who study in specialized Lviv boarding schools, have already been conducted here. This project aims to integrate disabled persons into the social and art space of Lviv. For example, interactive meeting with children having hearing impairments was conducted in two phases — a theoretical and a practical one. At first they had a familiarization excursion of the museum. The guide’s story was accompanied by sign interpretation done by their teacher. And then deaf children and children with hearing impairments were taught to paint icons on glass.

It was in this museum that the master class ‘Touch the exhibition’ for students of the boarding school for visually impaired children was conducted. In the exposition rooms the guides described the exhibits in a detailed way, and blind children had a chance to hold in their hands items made of clay, back from the period of Trypillia culture, embroidered towels and many other things from the museum’s stock collection. The museum has exhibits from different storage groups — ceramics, fabric, icons, sculpture, painting, old print378. Thus, a peculiarity of the excursion for blind children was that they were allowed to touch some items of the exposition. The museum staff selected the items in the way for students to get the best tactile senses where it had been possible before — to sense the weight of a stone axe, the size of rock used by the primeval people to grind cereals into flour, to touch the Pentateuch, wooden icons, priest’s clothes, chalices. The visit to the museum for disabled children limited in free movement became a real event in itself, and the fact that they could touch the things all the others are not allowed to touch, but for the museum staff, was of great satisfaction for them379.

On November 1, 2015 an interactive social and art project ‘Touching, I see: great Ukrainians’ was presented in Lviv in the Palace of Arts. Thanks to this unique project children and people with special needs may get involved in art. Among the main goals of the project – to disclaim that visual art is accessible only for people who can see. The exhibition enables blind persons and visually impaired persons to get acquainted with 12 sculptural portraits of outstanding Ukrainians, which include portraits of Ivan Franko, Lesya Ukrainka, Serhiy Nihoyan, Andrey Sheptytsky, Georgiy Gongadze, and others. Each portrait sculpture is accompanied by a table with the necessary information in Braille type about each well-known person and with an audio record. Also, the exhibition provides literary pieces in relief and dot font printed in 2016380.

Ensuring of a full-fledged access of persons with hearing impairments to museums requires creation of adequate conditions. Adaptation of the museum space can take place in several ways: through improvement of the permanent exposition, creation of separate permanent or interim exhibitions taking into account special needs, as well as organization of mobile excursions to boarding schools and companies. The best is done for the museum of be as interesting and dynamic an institution as possible. Within this process one

should pay attention to the problems of ensuring access to the exposition for people with special needs. Recently they have become more interested in the museum collections, while most Ukrainian museums have not got adequate conditions to host such visitors. Of particular discomfort it all is for visually impaired people due to exposition of items behind display windows, which makes it impossible to get acquainted with them. Thanks to creation of special conditions for this category of excursion goers, the museum may well become not just a cultural and educational, but a rehabilitation institution as well, this expanding the area of its functioning greatly.

It would be most expedient to start museum work with visually impaired visitors with organizing a temporary exhibition, since there it would be easy to identify the drawbacks and improve. During the direct implementation of the exhibition project the organizers are faced with a number of technical problems, i.e. production of replicas and models, development of summaries in Braille type, exhibition space arrangement. It is important that during the exhibition originals that cannot be damaged in any way while they are touched be used. Such items are articles made of stone, for example, stone instruments of labour, mealing stones, grindstones and small stone plastic works. Metal household items, blunt weapons, ceramic fragments, etc. are also not damaged when touched. For fragile and sharp items it is necessary to produce copies or replicas. One should address local craftsmen to do this. Copies of outfit and clothes can be ordered in reconstructing workshops.

In order to ensure the illustrative, part relief images, maps, pictures, portraits are used. Such images should be ordered in art workshops, where they are produced of gypsum. Now the reliefs are created via such advanced technologies as 3D printing and 3D cutting. Such images are best to be perceived by touching and are more accurate, since they are based on a computer model. If we speak about such services in Ukraine, they currently exist, but, unfortunately, are provided in small amounts and are rather expensive. Therefore, replicas made of gypsum are more popular in Ukrainian museums.

To explain spatial links and life organization of ancient people, models of dwellings, premises are produced, as well as relief plans of streets are made. Different advertising organizations currently offer spatial structures and produce stands with respective

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marking, i.e. in bright colours for visually impaired persons. Local centre of the Ukrainian Society of the Blind helps produce inscriptions in Braille type. They are printed on special cardboard with a Braille printer, but due to brown colour of cardboard such method can be used only for organizing some special exhibitions. For permanent exhibitions inscriptions made on a thick transparent plastic are produced. Both methods are not very costly, therefore they are widely used in Ukraine. A more complicated and more expensive method is to produce metal tables. Arrangement of the museum space in expositions for visually impaired persons requires taking many details into account. For instance, walls and the floor should be marked with contrast bright colours for visually impaired visitors to get oriented in space\textsuperscript{383}.

Since the exhibits are available only for touching them, interactive classes should be conducted, during which all the items can be tried in action. For example, an exhibition-game can be organized, and during it the excursion participants may try on the copies of suits of the medieval epoch or any other epoch. Practice shows that such exhibitions are of interest not just for visually impaired persons, but for children as well. Also, one may arrange a special exhibition for visually impaired visitors. For tourists with all types of visual impairments to be able to get acquainted with famous pictures of the best artists via tactile senses, the exhibition should consist of copies of pictures created using a special technology, where each reproduction would be done with due account of all the peculiarities of the relief texture of the canvas and paint strokes, to clearly reproduce the texture of the original. Pictures selected for such exhibition should belong to different genres and art styles: from religious painting and mythology up to portraiture and landscapes. It would be ideal if such exhibits in the exhibition for visually impaired persons had information stands and tables made in Braille type, as well as if a special audio guide with the text in different languages was developed specially for this excursion for visually impaired persons\textsuperscript{384}.

The experience of cross-border cooperation Poland-Ukraine is brought into life by the Lviv Museum of History, the staff members of which establish contacts with public organizations taking care of people with special needs. As Ihor Zinchuk from Lviv organization ‘Open Hearts’ states, visitors with locomotor system disorders, thanks to assistance provided by volunteers and the director of the Lviv Museum of History Roman Chmelyk,
had a chance to feel like ‘armour-bearers’, because their meeting took place in the ‘Arsenal Museum’ department. Here we were greeted, we had an interesting excursion, a lot of little known facts about the history of weapons from different parts of the world were told. Besides that, the organizer-excursion guide Taras Protsak conducted an interesting competition–quest in which the participants, by pictures, were trying to guess what country this or that type of weapons was from, and the most quick-witted won. And we were also told about the details of the process of restoring a picture with the depiction of the Battle of Grunwald and shown a video on the tedious work of the restorers who had worked with enthusiasm in order to save the art canvas from the destructive influence of merciless time.  

Official opening of the Resource Centre of Information Technologies for Persons with Disabilities in Lviv in 2012 provided guidance in further introduction of information technologies for visually impaired people. The directions of scientific and practical activity of the centre are determined by its head Oksana Potymko. At the same time, thanks to the workshops for museum staff of Lviv and Ukraine, the staff members of the museum domain gain some skills of working with visually impaired people. In Lviv there has been a presentation of copies of museum exhibits that can be touched. Such novelty has been introduced by the ‘Arsenal Museum’ department of the Lviv Museum of History, for the museum to be accessible for visually impaired people as well. As it is well-known, old artifacts cannot be touched, but for visually impaired people an oral excursion will not be a full-fledged one. Therefore, the Museum of History, namely its Arsenal department is among the first museums of Lviv that provide replicas that are safe to touch. A sword, shield, flanged mace and other replicas have blunt blades and ends, and are therefore safe. For better interaction the Lviv Museum of History intends to open a separate room for educational programs, in particular, the ones for visitors with special needs.

As we can see, one of the promising directions of cross-border cooperation for museum activity in Ukraine is gradual implementation of projects for people with special needs. In spite of the barriers and difficulties in the organization of museum exhibitions for

387 The First Excursion for Blind People to the Basements Organized in Lviv [Electronic resource]: according to the data of Zaxid.net. – Access mode: https://zaxid.net/u_lvovi_vpershe_vlashtuvali_ekskursiyu_dlya_nezryachih_u_pidzemellya_n1437450 (09.10.2017)
visitors with disabilities, their organization and holding must become priority directions in the development of the museum business in Ukraine. Such projects are in demand now, which fact is proven by the experience of taking such measures in the world, in particular, in the neighbouring Poland. The social role of such work lies in the need for overcoming the barriers people with disabilities are faced with, as well as the barriers for the rest of the society. Special attention should be paid to adjustment of the museum space to visually impaired people. Besides development of special exhibitions for them, of great importance is introduction of tactile elements in permanent expositions, as well as writing of summaries in Braille font and educational activity. Ukrainian museums are now on their way towards integration of disabled persons into the cultural milieu by adopting the best experience of cross-border cooperation in the museum domain. Polish-Ukrainian cooperation, cross-border experience eliminates obstacles on the way to development of rehabilitation museum projects, implementation of which is of great importance for the integration of persons with disabilities into the life of the society.

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The Cross-border Cooperation Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 and opportunities it provides
General information about the Programme

The Cross-border Cooperation (CBC) Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 (Programme) operates under the framework of the European Neighbourhood Instrument (ENI). It continues and expands the cooperation in the border areas of the three involved countries, which so far has been developed within the framework of the Neighbourhood Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine INTERREG IIIA / Tacis CBC 2004–2006 and ENPI CBC Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2007-2013.

The overall aim of the Programme is to support cross-border development processes in the borderland of Poland, Belarus and Ukraine, in line with the objectives of ENI laid down in ENI Regulation.

The Programming document for EU support to ENI Cross-Border Cooperation (2014-2020) sets out three ENI CBC strategic objectives:

A. Promote economic and social development in regions on both sides of common borders
B. Address common challenges in environment, public health, safety and security
C. Promotion of better conditions and modalities for ensuring the mobility of persons, goods and capital.
The Programme contributes to all of the above mentioned strategic objectives and to the identified regional needs by financing the implementation of non-commercial projects referring to the following four Thematic Objectives (TO) and related priorities:

**Promotion of local culture and preservation of historical heritage - TO HERITAGE**

TO HERITAGE aims at preserving and promoting the cultural and historical heritage of the cross border region, strengthening of cultural links and cooperation, improving the region’s image and attractiveness, and increasing the vitality of local communities. Support under the two Priorities of TO HERITAGE will focus on development of cross border cultural, historical and natural potentials, as well as at development of cross border tourism.

*Priority 1.1 Promotion of local culture and history*
*Priority 1.2 Promotion and preservation of natural heritage*

**Improvement of accessibility to the regions, development of sustainable and climate-proof transport and communication networks and systems - TO ACCESSIBILITY**

TO ACCESSIBILITY shall finance actions related to improvement of transport accessibility, development of environmental-friendly transport, construction and modernization of communication networks and systems and improvement of the informational and communication infrastructure on the Programme area. The focus should be on development of local roads offering important cross-border effects and influence.

*Priority 2.1 Improvement and development of transport services and infrastructure*
*Priority 2.2 Development of ICT infrastructure*
Common challenges in the field of safety and security - TO SECURITY

The implementation of the TO SECURITY shall serve the improvement of the quality of life of the Programme area inhabitants through the facilitation of access to health care system, the counteraction of the spread of diseases across the borders as well as the development of social services and labour market, along with the unemployment minimization.

Priority 3.1 Support to the development of health protection and social services
Priority 3.2 Addressing common security challenges

Promotion of border management and border security, mobility and migration management - TO BORDERS

Implementation of this objective shall serve the enhancement of the effectiveness of the border infrastructure and procedures as well as the improvement of border security.

Priority 4.1 Support to border efficiency and security
Priority 4.2 Improvement of border management operations, customs and visas procedures
First Call for Proposals

The **1st Call for Proposals** within the ENI CBC Programme Poland-Belarus-Ukraine 2014-2020 has been launched on 11th October 2016.

The Call was open for all Thematic Objectives of the Programme: HERITAGE, ACCESSIBILITY, SECURITY and BORDERS and all their priorities. The total allocation for this Call was 108,23 M EUR and the grant value for a project varied from 100 000 to 2 500 000 EUR.

Projects with small budget

The next Call for Proposals will be the **call for projects with small budget** (PSB). The call for PSB is to be organized by the Programme in the middle of September 2018. The call will be organized only in both priorities of the Thematic Objective HERITAGE.

It is intended to give support to projects offering mainly non-investment activities promoting cooperation, building of new cross-border citizens’ contacts, exchange of experiences and social initiatives related to local culture and historical and natural heritage. Touristic and cultural events, promotion and cultivation of common traditions of the borderland areas, cross-border cooperation between schools and higher education institutions, NGOs touristic and cultural endeavors, etc. will be supported. Favorable conditions will be created with a view to facilitate mutual contacts between bordering communities. Projects related to cultural diversity and minorities as well as development of local communities will also be targeted through the PSB.

Total indicative budget for that call is 5.2 MEUR

**General requirements for PSB**

The PSB shall meet the following conditions:

- contribute to the Programme and its objectives;
- have a strong and evident cross-border aspect;
• have reasonable budget;
• be ready for implementation;
• fulfil the partnership criteria.

**Range of grants**

The minimum single grant value for such project shall not be smaller than 20 000 EUR and it cannot be higher than 60 000 EUR.

No grant awarded to the PSBs may exceed 90% of the total eligible costs of this project. The balance must be financed from the beneficiaries’ own resources, or from sources other than the EU budget.

Investment costs (works, supplies) cannot exceed 20% of the small project grant value.

Grants shall not have the purpose or effect of producing a profit within the framework of the project. In the case of a grant, profit is defined as a surplus of receipts over the costs incurred by the Lead Beneficiary/Beneficiaries when the request is made for final payment.

**Duration**

The planned total duration of the project may not exceed 12 months. All grant contracts for PSB shall be signed before 31 December 2021. All project activities financed by the Programme shall end on 31 December 2022 at the latest.