

EUROREG

State of the art report

**Regions, minorities and European policies:
A state of the art report on the Italian minority in Slovenia
(SLOVENIA)**

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Geographical position

The territory of the Republic of Slovenia (20,256 square kilometres) lies on the border of Central Europe and the Mediterranean between the Bay of Trieste on the Adriatic Sea and the southern areas of the eastern Alps. For this reason Slovenia is one of the countries in the international Alpe-Adria regional community. The Slovene state lies at the juncture of four European regions: the Alps, the Pannonian Plain, the Dinaric Alps, and the Mediterranean Sea. Slovenes are the westernmost nation among the South Slavs.

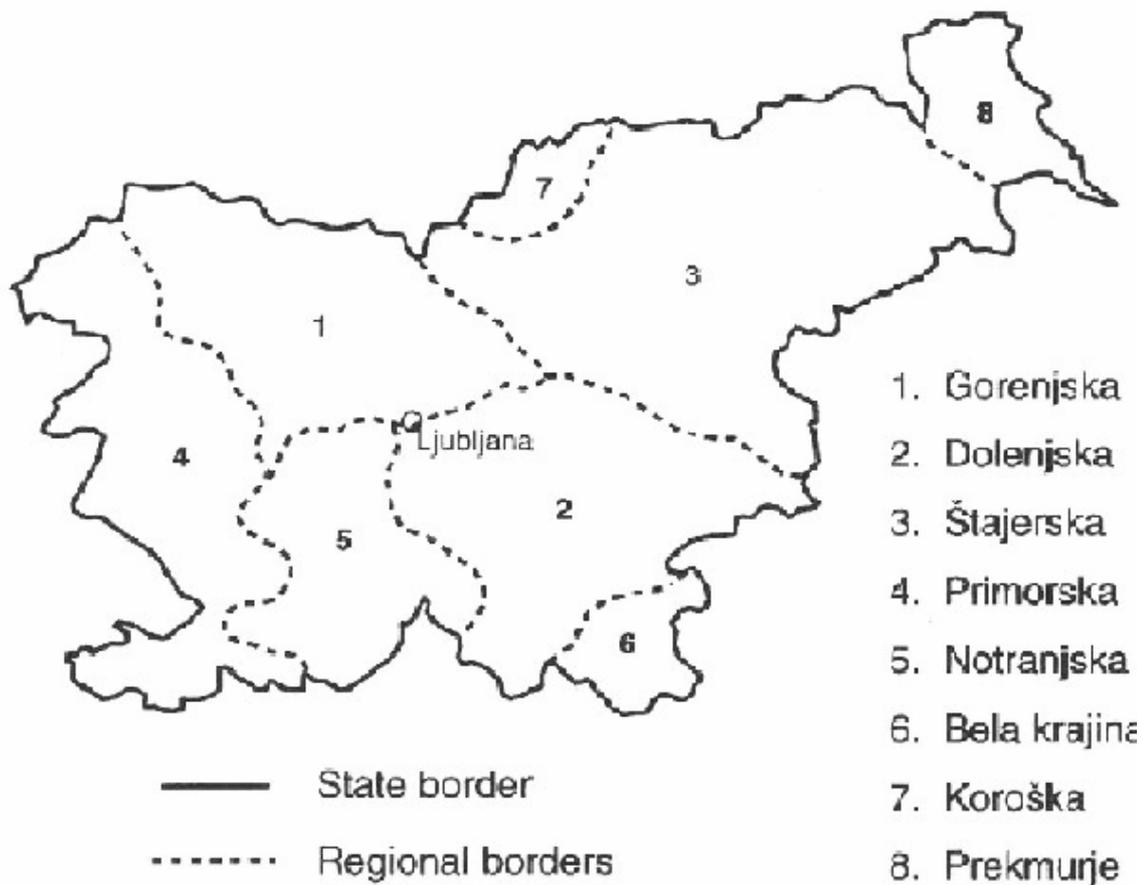
In western Slovenia, along the northern shores of the Istrian Peninsula, and in the northeast, on the border with Hungary, there are two ethnic minorities: Italian and Hungarian. Of Slovenia's approximately 2 million inhabitants, 83.06 % (Statistical Yearbook 2004) declare themselves as Slovenes, 0.11 % are members of the Italian minority and 0.32 % belong to the Hungarian minority. Slovenia's other inhabitants are largely economic immigrants from the former Yugoslav republics (approximately 6.5 %). There are three Slovene minorities in other countries: in Italy (Friuli - Venezia Giulia), Austria (Carinthia) and Hungary (the Porabje/Raba river basin). There are also Slovene immigrants in the United States, Canada, South America, Australia, and several European countries.

Slovenia is divided into 193 municipalities (*občine*), but Slovenes more commonly relate to eight historical and geographic regions (Upper Carniola (*Gorenjska*), Lower Carniola (*Dolenjska*), Styria (*Štajerska*), the Littoral (*Primorska*), Inner Carniola (*Notranjska*), White Carniola (*Bela krajina*), Carinthia (*Koroška*), and the region of eastern Slovenia along the Hungarian border (*Prekmurje*)). The boundaries of these eight regions are somewhat fluid.¹

The Slovene language, which is Slovenia's official language, is part of the South Slavic language family. In ethnically mixed border areas the official languages are also Italian and Hungarian. The Slovene language has been both a unifying and a dividing factor in the history of the nation because it varies enormously between regions (Slovenia has 46 dialects and sub-dialects) and has absorbed many different foreign influences. Most Slovenes identify themselves as Roman Catholic, but there are also Protestant (Evangelical Lutherans), Eastern Orthodox, Jewish, and Muslim communities as well as several new religious movements.

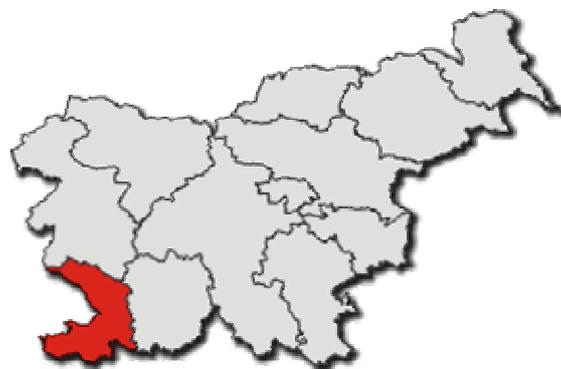
¹ These historical regions do not entirely coincide with Slovenia's statistical regions: *Pomurska*, *Podravska*, *Koroška*, *Savinjska*, *Zasavska*, *Spodnjeposavska*, *Jugovzhodna Slovenija*, *Osrednjeslovenska*, *Gorenjska*, *Notranjskokraška*, *Goriška* and *Obalno-kraška*.

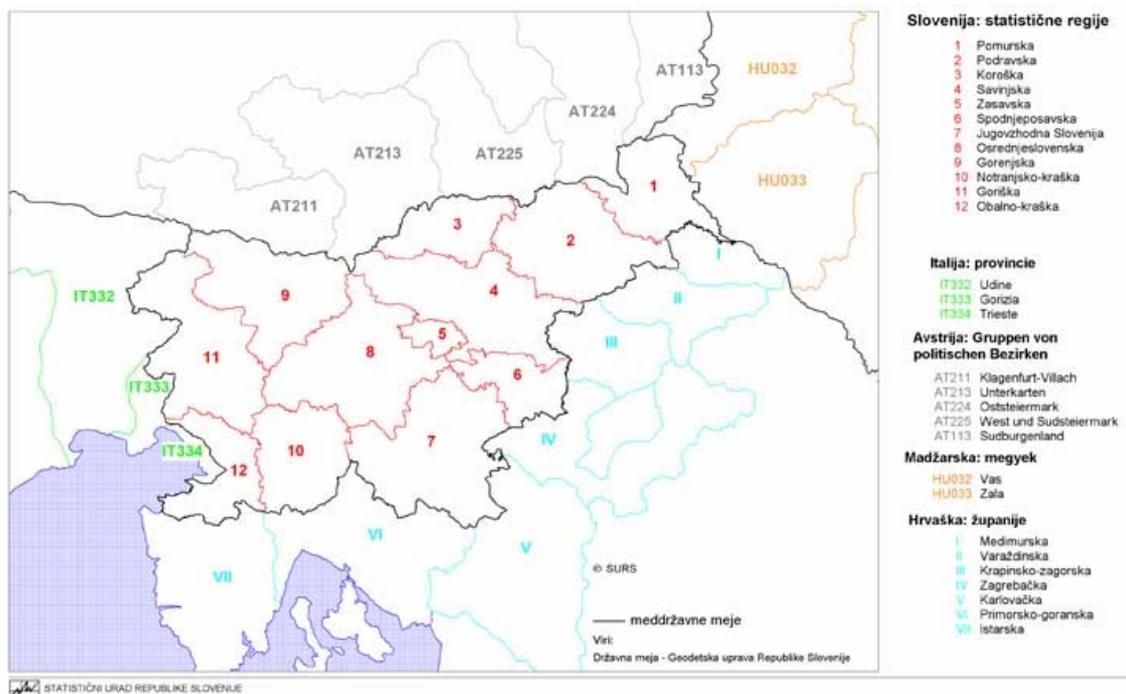
Historical-geographical regional division of Slovenia
The Italian minority is found in the Primorska (Littoral) region.



Statistical regional division of Slovenia

Slovene Istria, where the Italian minority in Slovenia is settled, is part of the Littoral-karstic (Obalno-kraška) statistical region and part of the Primorska historical and geographical region.





Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia

Statistical regions, municipalities and statistical regions, 1. 1. 2004

Statistical region	Municipality	Area ¹ km ² 2004
SLOVENIA		20,256
Pomurska		1,338
Podravska		2,170
Koroška		1,041
Savinjska		2,384
Zasavska		264
Spodnjeposavska		885
Jugovzhodna Slovenija		2,675
Osrednjeslovenska		2,555
Gorenjska		2,137
Notranjskokraška		1,456
Goriška		2,325
Obalno-kraška (Littoral-karstic)		1,044
	Divača	147.8
	Hrpelje - Kozina	192.2
	Izola/Isola	28.6
	Komen	102.7
	Koper/Capodistria	311.2
	Piran/Pirano	44.6
	Sežana	217.4

1) The areas of statistical regions change in accordance with the areas of municipalities due to more detailed measurements. The areas of municipalities are sent to us by the Surveying and Mapping Authority of the Republic of Slovenia and are calculated from digitalised outlines of individual areas on 1:5000 and 1:10,000 maps and then calculated on the basis of affiliation to the higher unit.

2) **In 2004 there were 193 municipalities in Slovenia.**

Source: *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia, 2004*, <http://www.stat.si>, 19. 4. 2005.

Population by statistical region, 30. 6. 2004

	1990	1995	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
SLOVENIA	1,998,090	1,987,505	1,985,557	1,990,272	1,992,035	1,995,718	1,996,773
Pomurska	131,272	126,896	125,037	124,761	124,081	123,776	123,335
Podravska	327,967	320,961	319,468	319,835	319,907	319,941	319,474
Koroška	74,401	74,129	74,012	74,077	74,016	73,994	73,855
Savinjska	257,920	256,061	256,562	256,693	256,976	257,629	257,402
Zasavska	47,797	47,161	46,553	46,365	46,203	46,104	45,885
Spodnjeposavska	73,179	71,208	70,100	70,518	69,807	70,064	70,262
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	135,560	137,047	137,925	137,771	138,177	138,414	138,872
Osrednjeslovenska	483,083	484,919	485,698	489,172	490,956	492,951	494,117
Gorenjska	193,834	194,601	196,436	196,716	197,102	197,487	197,904
Notranjskokraška	50,465	50,782	50,470	50,517	50,715	50,825	50,855
Goriška	120,856	120,723	119,998	120,145	120,222	120,073	119,754
Obalno-kraška (Littoral-karstic)	101,756	103,017	103,298	103,702	103,873	104,460	105,058

Source: *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia, 2004*, <http://www.stat.si>, 19. 4. 2005.

1.2. Historical Background

In the second half of the 6th century, a people speaking a Slav language, the predecessor of today's Slovene, began to gain power over the Romanised inhabitants of the eastern Alps and the upper Adriatic. Through contact with the neighbouring Bavarians, Lombards and Avars, a new social class with a special moral and political reputation began to develop in this tribal society. Through it a kind of protostate of Slovene-speaking people grew from the revolt against the Avars in the east in the years 626-630. This protostate was based in Karantaniya, today's Carinthia. The name "Karantaniya" was used in documents up to the 13th century, and its inhabitants, the present-day Slovenes, were referred to as "Karantanci". In the second half of the 8th century, Christianity began to spread into Karantaniya from Bavaria. At the end of the 1520s, Slovene regions first encountered Protestant influences. In 1551, after his conversion to Protestantism in Trieste and exile to Germany, Primož Trubar, a Slovene priest, printed a catechism and an elementary school grammar in Slovene, thus laying the foundations for the Slovene literary language, which became one of the bases of Slovene national existence (Prunk, 1994).

After 1335 the Hapsburgs, the most powerful feudal force in the region, ruled over all Slovene territories. In the course of development in the late Middle Ages, within the framework of the Holy Roman Empire, the historical Slovene regions developed: Carinthia in the north; Štajerska in the east; Carniola in the central and southern area; and Gorizia, Trieste, and Istria in the west. These regions made up Slovene territory, in an administrative sense, until the end of World War I. By the end of the 13th century, the rising Venetian Republic had secured the western coast and the towns of Istria, and was to keep this region in its possession until its end in 1727 (Prunk, 1994).

The history of Italians on the Slovene territory of today dates back to ancient times and is closely related to that of the western coast of the Istrian peninsula. Due to the growing influence of Venice starting in the early Middle Ages, the coastal cities acquired a typical Venetian identity, language (the Venetian dialect) and culture. Even after the fall of Venice in 1797 (following Napoleon's intervention), and a period of Hapsburg rule in the 19th century, the situation did not change much. The Hapsburgs allowed the use of the Slovene language in education, but the urban settlements along the coast remained largely Italian-speaking.

The rise of national awareness among the Slovene population began in the 19th century. After Napoleon's defeat at Leipzig in 1813, and subsequent dissolution of the Illyrian provinces (founded in 1809, included western Carinthia, Gorizia, Trieste, Istria, and Carniola, among other regions with the capital in Ljubljana, today's capital of Slovenia), Metternich's absolutism was established in Austrian and Slovene regions. However, the intensive development of Slovene culture and national awareness couldn't be prevented. This was also the period of the beginning of industry in Slovene areas.

The revolution of 1848 brought Slovene peasants emancipation from feudalism and the possibility to take part in political life. In 1848, the Slovenes also achieved recognition of their ethnic integrity in language studies and in official statistics, but administratively and politically they remained divided among the historical regions until the end of the Hapsburg monarchy. After the collapse of absolutism during the Spring of Nations in 1848, several groups of Slovenes began to formulate nationalist movements. Slovene intellectuals issued a programme known as *Zedinjena Slovenija* (United Slovenia). As part of the programme they requested, for the first time, that all regions inhabited by Slovenes should be joined in a United Slovenia with Slovene the official language, but within the Austrian empire. Although the programme failed in its objectives, it contributed (together with similar requests by other nations within Austria-Hungary) to the collapse of the Hapsburg monarchy in 1918. In October 1918, Slovenes were liberated from the territory of the former Austro-Hungarian monarchy (Roter, 2001).

In 1915, during World War I, the London Pact promised Italy a large part of Slovene territory (Slovene Primorska (Littoral), spreading eastward into Carniola, Istria, and Dalmatia)) as a reward for joining the Triple Entente. The Slovene nationalist movement demanded, with the May Declaration of 1917, a union with the Croatian and Serbian provinces of the Hapsburg monarchy and the creation of an independent state within its borders. Because no agreement with the Austrian rulers could be reached, the Slovenes, Croats and some Serbs left the Hapsburg monarchy at the end of World War I, and after a one-month existence an independent state with its capital in Zagreb (Croatia) joined the Kingdom of Serbia to form the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes (called from 1929 on the Kingdom of Yugoslavia). The state was formed due to the imperialistic pressure of Italy and the constant demands of Serbs for unification. In addition, the Slovenes lost more than a quarter of their ethnic territory (including two important cities, Trieste and Gorizia) and population, appropriated by Italy (the new border ran from just west of Kranjska Gora in the Gorenjska region, skirting past Triglav and Planina, and divided Rijeka/Fiume in Croatia) and Austria (Carinthia) through the Rapallo treaty and 1920 plebiscite in Austria (Prunk, 1994; Repe, 2004).

The Slovenes who found themselves in Italy (at least 300,000) and Austria were subjected to the most severe denationalising pressure with the aim of assimilating the populations of both Slovene minorities as quickly as possible. The Kingdom of Yugoslavia neither could nor wished to intervene. As early as 1923, the ruling Fascist government forbade the use of Slovene in schools throughout Primorska (Littoral), which they called Venezia Giulia, and also attempted to ban it from public life. Nationally-conscious Slovenes in the civil service (teachers, clerks, etc.) were moved from Primorska (Littoral) far into the interior of the Italian state, or exiled to Slovenia and other parts of Yugoslavia, Europe, and South America. The Fascists Italianised Slovene surnames and place names, and in 1926 Mussolini dissolved all political parties. In 1928 the Slovene national organisation *Edinost* (Unity) in Trieste and Gorizia was dissolved as well. Legal Slovene newspapers were closed and all political dialogue between the Slovenes and the Italian government was discontinued. The Fascists also attacked Slovene economic, educational, and cultural organisations (in July 1920 the *Narodni dom* (National Centre) in Trieste was burned down). The church was the only place where Slovene could still be used. With the rise of Fascism in Italy and the annexation of Austria by Nazi Germany, the treatment of the minorities acquired all the characteristics of “ethnic cleansing”, which after the occupation of Slovenia in 1941 affected all Slovenes. Within the first Yugoslavia, Slovene participation in government improved, Slovenia had its own administrative autonomy and internally it developed autonomously (Prunk, 1994).

After the collapse of the Kingdom in 1941, Slovenia was occupied and its territory divided between German and Italian occupiers (the Italians controlled the Ljubljana province and the lands to the west), and Hungarian forces as well. In the wake of World War II, the Italian fascist regime carried out a harsh assimilation policy. Italian was imposed on the Slovene population in the Trieste and Littoral regions during World War II. Hitler and Mussolini quite clearly announced their intention to exterminate the Slovenes and subsequently began to realize their goal by resettling, imprisoning, deporting, and executing intellectuals, teachers, priests, etc. At the time of joining the first Yugoslavia, the Slovene population numbered almost one million (with about 350,000 outside Yugoslavia’s borders in Italy and Austria), while before the occupation in 1941 the Slovene nation in Yugoslavia was believed to number around 1,150,000 (Prunk, 1994). Due to denationalisation pressures, the demographic development of the Slovene nation in Austria and Italy was curtailed and Slovene numbers decreased. Throughout occupied Yugoslavia armed resistance began, in which the Communist Party played a leading role and dominated all other political groups.

After World War II, Slovenia became a part of the Yugoslav Federation with its Federal Constitution, which preserved in principle the right of federation members (republics) to self-determination and autonomous educational and cultural life. Because of Allied pressure, the new federation couldn’t retain the Primorska region with Trieste and Gorizia or Slovene Carinthia, both of which Yugoslav forces had liberated. On June 12th 1945, the Yugoslav army had to withdraw from Trieste and its surroundings as far as the line dictated by General Morgan, chief-of-staff of the Anglo-American forces in the Mediterranean. Slovenia kept liberated Primorska (Littoral) to the Morgan Line, including access to the Adriatic at Koper. A year later, this demarcation line was also adopted at the Paris peace conference, together with the Free Trieste Territory, a small state under the auspices of the United Nations called “Zone A” (Trieste and its surroundings with a Slovene minority) under Anglo-American administration and “Zone B”, the Koper and Buje areas (with an Italian minority) under Yugoslav administration. This was the only adjustment of European borders following World War II.

Italian speakers, who represented a local majority in the towns and rural settlements of the Istrian part of Slovenia whereas in the greater part of the hinterland of Slovene Istria there were practically none, moved away before World War II, contributing largely to the present ethnically mixed structure of the population. The situation was thus changed significantly. The Italian population became a minority in the cities as well, coming to represent less than 5% of the total population. The proportion of Italians in the post-war period continuously declined, particularly because of steady emigration (Roter, 2003).

The absolute and relative number of Italian inhabitants in the ethnically mixed areas of Slovene Istria in the period from 1961 to 1991 (Komac, 1999)

Year	Total inhabitants	Number of Italians	Proportion of Italians
1961	34,063	2,581	7.6
1971	43,894	2,467	5.6
1981	55,465	1,849	3.3
1991	61,078	2,575	4.2

Upon the Tito-Stalin dispute (*informbiro*) in 1948, when Yugoslavia introduced innovation into its Marxist ideology (reformatory evolutionary development and workers' self-management) and the threat from the Soviet Union, the question of a Slovenia united with its minorities outside Yugoslavia was pushed completely into the background. The settlement of the ethnic minority status of these Slovene minorities was left to Italy and Austria, and even today their status is not satisfactory. In the autumn of 1953, the Anglo-American authorities announced that they would hand over control of Zone A to Italy. Yugoslavia protested vociferously. The short Trieste Crisis followed, and a year later the Free Trieste Territory was abolished. Zone A of the Free Trieste Territory was given to Italy, while Zone B remained under Yugoslav authority. The provisional London Memorandum of 1954 (signed by Italy, Yugoslavia, the United Kingdom, and the United States, but ratified only by the Yugoslav Parliament, and not by the Italian Parliament) lasted until 1975 when Italy and the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia signed an international agreement in Osimo, which confirmed the boundaries established by the London Memorandum. A special statute in the London Memorandum, which was the first official document to protect the Slovene minority in Italy, assured the protection of the national minorities in both states. The Treaty of Osimo refined the legal position of the respective minorities and retained the London Agreement's special statute on minorities and their protection. After World War II, many Italians, the so called "ezuli", who were concentrated in Istria and Dalmatia, immigrated to Italy for various reasons.

The 1974 Yugoslav constitution gave greater power and independence to the republics. Slovenia produced at that time a national income of twice the Yugoslav average, its export total was disproportionately high compared to the exports of other republics, and it also supplied the Yugoslav market. However, the Slovene economy was largely based on cheap labour from other republics, particularly from Bosnia and Herzegovina. In spite of the new constitution, the mutual dissatisfaction of the republics grew.

With the death of Yugoslavia's historical leaders (Tito and Kardelj) and growing economic difficulties, inter-republic and inter-ethnic conflicts in the eighties also increased. Tensions in Kosovo and the proclamation of the Greater Serbia movement caused reactions against the existing arrangement of Yugoslavia and demands for a multiparty system and democracy. The Slovene reaction culminated in the May Declaration (May 1989) on independence and democracy. The one-party Slovene Parliament adopted amendments to the

Slovene constitution on sovereignty. With the 1990 spring elections, a pluralistic political system was introduced in Slovenia. The Slovene-Croatian proposal to reorganise Yugoslavia as a confederation was rejected by all federal institutions. The Slovene Parliament decided to hold a plebiscite in December 1990, at which Slovenes voted almost unanimously for independence. Slovenia proclaimed its independence in June 1991, followed by a ten-day struggle with the Yugoslav Army. In the following days, the Army withdrew from Slovenia. The European Community recognized Slovenia in January 1992, and in May of the same year the Republic of Slovenia became a full member of the United Nations.

2. PRESENTATION OF A SPECIFIC CASE: THE ITALIAN MINORITY IN SLOVENIA

2.1. The Italian minority in Slovenia: geographical position

Italians in Slovenia live in the border region adjacent to Italy (in the Primorska (Littoral) historical and geographical region and in the Obalno-kraška (Littoral-Karstic) statistical region). The ethnically mixed areas within the **Koper**, **Izola** and **Piran** municipalities are comprised of the following towns:

- in the Koper municipality: Koper/Capodistria, Škocijan/S. Canziano, Semedela/Semedella, Šalara/Salara, Bertoki/Bertocchi, Ankaran/Ancarano, Hrvatini/Crevattini, Škofije/Valmarin
- in the Izola municipality: the Izola/Isola municipal centre
- in the Piran municipality: Piran/Pirano, Portorož/Portorose, Lucija/Lucia, Strunjan/Strugnano, Seča/Sezza, Sečovelje/Siccirole, Parecag/Parezzago.

Within the structure of the ethnically mixed areas defined above, the proportion of Italians in the total number of inhabitants is somewhat more pronounced only in Strunjan/Strugnano (approximately 20%), while elsewhere it rarely exceeds 10% with the total percentage being under 5%. Most of the Italian minority in Slovenia – some 75% - live in urban centres, where they represent only a small portion of the population (Komac, 1999).

Slovene Istria with all three municipalities where the Italian minority is settled: Koper/Capodistria, Izola/Isola, and Piran/Pirano.



2.2. Demographic, social and economic conditions of the Italian ethnic minority

The number of »historical« ethnic minority members (Hungarian and Italian) is 8,501 (0.43%) persons (or 11,747 (0.6%) persons, if taking into account the number of members of the Romany community according to the 2002 census). The state assigns to this category of citizens the status of “ethnic community” and guarantees full legal protection of their collective and individual rights. A group of 272,338 persons (13.85% of Slovenia’s population), composed of members of different nationalities, is added to these to make up the total of the non-Slovene population of the Republic of Slovenia as established by the 2002 census. To this second group the constitution (Article 61) also guarantees expression of their ethnic affiliation. Slovenia’s Hungarians (6,243 (0,32%)) and Italians (2,258 (0.11% according to 2002 census) are regarded as ethnic communities or classic, territorial minorities. The Romany people in Slovenia (0.17 % according to 2002 census) have special constitutional rights, however, there are constant conflicts between them and the local communities where they are settled. The Slovene government has not taken proper measures to resolve disputes between majority and minority inhabitants and to integrate Romany people into society.

In the period from 1961 to 1991, the number of Italians in Slovenia changed little. Among the Italian population, there was at the beginning of the 1990s a large proportion of older people and only a small increase in the younger generation. There was renewed growth afterwards because a part of the Italian ethnic group is statistically hidden in other categories, while at the same time a part of other ethnic and regional populations declared Italian affiliation.

The number of inhabitants who declared their mother tongue to be Italian is greater than the number of people who declared Italian ethnic affiliation (in 1991, there was a total of 3882 persons (0.2%) in Slovenia with Italian as their mother tongue; in 2002, 3,762 (0.2%) according to 2002 census). Approximately two-thirds of the people who listed Italian as their mother tongue declared themselves to be Italians (Komac, 1999). In its age structure, the Italian community has retained the characteristics of a rather aged population (the most numerous age group is from 50 to 65 years); in this there are no significant differences between the Italian community at large and Italians in the autochthonous area.

Population by mother tongue, 1991 and 2002 censuses

Mother tongue	Number		Proportions (%)	
	1991	2002	1991	2002
TOTAL	1,913,355	1,964,036	100	100
Slovene	1,690,388	1,723,434	88.3	87.7
Italian	3,882	3,762	0.2	0.2
Hungarian	8,720	7,713	0.5	0.4
Romany	2,752	3,834	0.1	0.2
Albanian	3,903	7,177	0.2	0.4
English	75	345	0.0	0.0
Arabic	...	130	...	0.0
Bulgarian	131	159	0.0	0.0
Bosnian	...	31,499	...	1.6
Czech	445	421	0.0	0.0
Montenegrin	...	462	...	0.0
Danish	4	20	0.0	0.0
French	73	206	0.0	0.0
Greek	29	40	0.0	0.0
Croatian	50,699	54,079	2.6	2.8
Croatian-Serbian	3,208	126	0.2	0.0
Chinese	...	216	...	0.0
Macedonian	4,525	4,760	0.2	0.2
German	1,093	1,628	0.1	0.1
Dutch	27	74	0.0	0.0
Polish	309	267	0.0	0.0
Romanian	295	251	0.0	0.0
Russinian	49	42	0.0	0.0
Russian	229	766	0.0	0.0
Slovak	163	294	0.0	0.0
Serbian	18,123	31,329	0.9	1.6
Serbo-Croatian	80,325	36,265	4.2	1.8
Spanish	...	129	...	0.0
Swedish	51	34	0.0	0.0
Turkish	172	226	0.0	0.0
Ukrainian	171	399	0.0	0.0
Vlach	55	45	0.0	0.0
Other	2,260	1,588	0.1	0.1
Unknown	41,199	52,316	2.2	2.7

Source: *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia, 2004*, <http://www.stat.si>, 19. 4. 2005.

However, the autochthonous settlement area of the Italian minority is one of the principal immigration areas in Slovenia, which is an important factor in the growth of the total population of the coastal towns and nearby suburban areas. Alongside the Slovene and Italian populations, there has been a constant increase in immigration from the Yugoslav republics, which has resulted in a collection of members of some 20 nationalities with a total of just under a third of the whole population. The area has become a multi-ethnic, multi-lingual and multi-cultural environment. Considering the noticeable old age of the minority population, the proportion of those who have completed their primary school education is significantly lower than the state average. However, the proportion of Italians with a secondary school education is higher than that of the total population of Slovenia.

According to Sedmak (2004a) different socio-political organizations in ethnically mixed territories include people who shared the same views irrespective of nationality. Therefore the Italian minority does not have its own political party. The Italian community (*Comunità Italiana/COMI*), a political party from Piran that had been formed before the first democratic elections in 1990, represented more an experiment or an exception than a serious political attempt. Several years later the party was abolished. Today, its members are to be found in various political parties and actively participate in municipal and regional party organizations. Following the constitutional changes within Yugoslavia in 1974 (i.e. greater autonomy of individual Yugoslav republics), the Italian community became socio-politically and independently organized within the framework of the newly established Self-Governing Interest Communities of Italian Nationality of Koper, Izola and Piran (*Comunità autogestite della nazionalità italiana di Capodistria, Isola e Pirano*), and the Coastal Self-Governing Community of Italian Nationality (*Comunità costiera autogestite della nazionalità italiana*). These organizations serve as an instrument for the protection of the special rights guaranteed to its minorities by the state. In the period of socialist Yugoslavia, the Italian Union (*Unione degli Italiani*), with its seat in Rijeka (Croatia), was a joint organization of the Italian communities in Slovenia and Croatia. Today it is registered as an association for the preservation and development of the Italian national culture and linguistic identity of the Italian national community. Its purpose is to maintain and foster relationships with the Italian community in Croatia and in the mother nation. It is registered both in Slovenia and Croatia, with seats in Koper and Rijeka respectively. The census of 1976 did not record the existence of registered active Italian associations, whereas in 1998 six associations were active. One of these is the Italian Community (*Comunità degli Italiani*), which encompasses various groups and organizes a variety of activities (lectures, trips etc.) It has a drama group, a sport section, a group of young singers, and stages folk festivals. The distinguishing factor between it and the Self-Governing Community of Italian Nationality lies in the fact that it bears no political imprint. Its only purpose is the preservation and development of Italian culture. Prior to the creation of this organization, the Italian Circle of People's Culture (*Circolo Italiano di Cultura Popolare*) had been established in 1948, which in turn became a constituent part of the Italian Union of the Istrian District (*Unione degli Italiani del Circondario dell'Istria*). In 1953 all newly constituted Italian cultural circles (*Circoli Italiani di Cultura*) in Koper, Izola and Piran, joined the Italian Union of Istria and Rijeka (*Unione degli Italiani dell'Istria e di Fiume*). Today, despite some functional overlap between the Italian Community and those of Self-Governing Community of the Italian Nationality, both play a very

important role in the preservation of the Italian culture. The work of the self-governing national community is financed by the municipalities and by the state, which also subsidizes the organizations and public institutions of the Italian (and Hungarian) minority. Self-governing national communities can submit proposals, initiatives and opinions to the National Assembly concerning matters of importance to the national community, the government and other state organs and organs of local communities. Cultural societies of the Italian national minority exist in numerous towns and settlements within the nationally mixed area (See the map *Societies and institutions of the Italian national minority in the communes of Izola, Koper and Piran in the year 1999*, p. 16).

By Slovene standards, most members of the minority belong to the middle class, in which various independent occupations (officials, teachers, etc.) are mainly represented. The class of businessmen is increasing because of frequent individual contacts with Italy; at the same time cross-border co-operation is one of the economic foundations of the minority, especially in the area of trade. Cross-border co-operation has increased also through various joint-venture trading enterprises. Most members of the Italian minority are employed in various tertiary occupations (particularly in the fields of education and culture), which creates an appearance of its socioethnic homogeneity. According to Komac (1999) this is a reflection of how the community has adapted to circumstances at the open border in an urban, economically extremely dynamic area. Daily cross-border migration from Slovenia across the “Schengen” border into Austria and Italy², as well as from Croatia and Hungary into Slovenia, forms an important phenomenon at borderlands. According to the results of field research work done in the years 2000 and 2001, more than 8,000 Slovenes cross the Slovene-Italian border daily because of work. During the spring and autumn period the number is much higher because of seasonal workers. Daily cross-border commuters are from different fields. Looking at the results the percentage of highly-educated specialists has increased significantly, and the daily cross-border commuters have an important socio-economic, spatial, demographic and ethno-cultural effect on both sides of the border (Zupančič, 2003).

² At the time this article was published, Slovenia had not yet become a member of the European Union.

NATIONALLY MIXED AREA IN THE COMMUNES OF IZOLA, KOPER AND PIRAN AFTER THE YEAR 1991

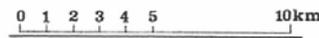
Vsebina / Research: dr. MIRAN KOMAC
 Karta / Design and production: Z. DROLE
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Legenda / Key:

- DRŽAVNA MEJA
INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY
- OBČINSKE MEJE
COMMUNAL BOUNDARY
- MEJA OBČINE KOPER PRED LETOM 1995
BOUNDARY OF THE COMMUNE OF KOPER BEFORE THE YEAR 1995
- MEDNARODNI CESTNI MEJNI PREHOD
INTERNATIONAL ROAD BORDER CROSSING
- OBMEJNI CESTNI PREHOD
LOCAL ROAD BORDER CROSSING
- ŽELEZNISKI MEJNI PREHOD
RAILWAY BORDER CROSSING
- POMORSKI MEJNI PREHOD
MARITIME BORDER CROSSING
- NARODNOSTNO MEŠANO OBMOČJE
NATIONALLY MIXED AREA

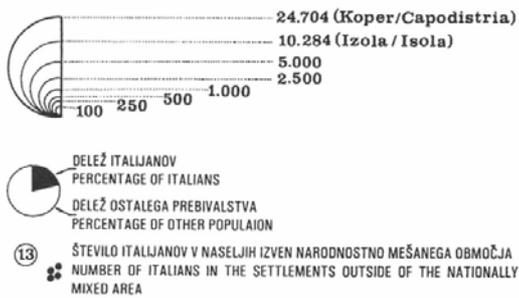
Merilo / Scale:



Viri / Sources :

ZAKON O LOKALNI SAMOUPRAVI. URADNI LIST REPUBLIKE SLOVENIJE, ŠT. 72/93 IN ŠT. 57/94.
 ZAKON O USTANOVITVI OBČIN IN DOLOČITVI NJIHOVIH OBMOČIJ. URADNI LIST REPUBLIKE SLOVENIJE, ŠT. 60/94 IN 69/94.
 STATUT OBČINE IZOLA (STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI ISOLA).
 STATUT OBČINE KOPER (STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI CAPODISTRIA).
 STATUT OBČINE PIRAN (STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI PIRANO).
 POPIS PREBIVALSTVA 1991: PREBIVALSTVO PO NARODNOSTNI PRIPADNOSTI. LJUBLJANA, 1992.

ŠTEVILO PREBIVALCEV V NASELJIH NA NARODNOSTNO MEŠANEM OBMOČJU LETA 1991 NUMBER OF INHABITANTS IN THE SETTLEMENTS IN THE NATIONALLY MIXED AREA IN THE YEAR 1991



Source: Miran Komac (1999): Protection of ethnic communities in the Republic of Slovenia: vademecum. Ljubljana: Institute for Ethnic Studies.

SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS OF THE ITALIAN NATIONAL MINORITY IN THE COMMUNES OF IZOLA, KOPER AND PIRAN IN THE YEAR 1999

Vsebina / Research: dr. MIRAN KOMAC
 Karta / Design and production: Z. DROLE
 © INV, Ljubljana, SI, 1999



Legenda / Key:

- DRŽAVNA MEJA
INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY
- OBČINSKA MEJA
COMMUNAL BOUNDARY
- NARODNOSTNO MEŠANO OBMOČJE
NATIONALLY MIXED AREA

DRUŠTVA IN USTANOVE ITALJANSKE MANJŠINE SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS OF THE ITALIAN NATIONAL MINORITY

- VRTEC Z ITALJANSKIM UČNIM JEZIKOM
KINDERGARTEN IN ITALIAN LANGUAGE
- PODRUŽNIČNA OSNOVNA ŠOLA Z ITALJANSKIM UČNIM JEZIKOM
LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN ITALIAN LANGUAGE
- CENTRALNA OSNOVNA ŠOLA Z ITALJANSKIM UČNIM JEZIKOM
CENTRAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN ITALIAN LANGUAGE
- SREDNJA ŠOLA Z ITALJANSKIM UČNIM JEZIKOM
SECONDARY SCHOOL IN ITALIAN LANGUAGE
- KULTURNO-UMETNIŠKO DRUŠTVO ITALJANSKE MANJŠINE
CULTURAL SOCIETY OF THE ITALIAN NATIONAL MINORITY
- RADIO-TELEVIZIJSKI CENTER S PROGRAMOM V ITALJANSKEM JEZIKU
RADIO-TV CENTER BROADCASTING IN ITALIAN LANGUAGE
- UREDNIŠTVO ČASOPISA ALI BILTEN V ITALJANSKEM JEZIKU
EDITORIAL BOARD OR BULLETIN IN ITALIAN LANGUAGE
- SAMOUPRAVNA SKUPNOST ITALJANSKE NARODNOSTI
SELF-MANAGING COMMUNITY OF THE ITALIAN MINORITY

Merilo / Scale:



Viri / Sources :

- STATUT OBČINE IZOLA [STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI ISOLA].
- STATUT OBČINE KOPER [STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI CAPODISTRIA].
- STATUT OBČINE PIRANO [STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI PIRANO].
- DOKUMENTACIJA OBALE SAMOUPRAVNE SKUPNOSTI ITALJANSKE NARODNOSTI [DOCUMENTAZIONE DELLA COMUNITA' AUTOGESTITA COSTIERA DELLA NAZIONALITA' ITALIANA].



Source: Miran Komac (1999): Protection of ethnic communities in the Republic of Slovenia: vademecum. Ljubljana: Institute for Ethnic Studies.

2.3. Overall assessment

In western Slovenia, along the northern shores of the Istrian Peninsula, and in the northeast, on the border with Hungary, there are two ethnic minorities: Italian and Hungarian. Of Slovenia's approximately 2 million inhabitants, 83.06 % (Statistical Yearbook 2004) declare themselves as Slovenes, 0.11 % are members of the Italian minority and 0.32 % belong to the Hungarian minority. Slovenia's other inhabitants are largely economic immigrants from former Yugoslav republics (approximately. 6.5 %). There are three Slovene minorities in other countries: in Italy (Friuli - Venezia Giulia), Austria (Carinthia) and Hungary (Porabje/Raba river basin); as well as Slovene immigrants in the United States, Canada, South America, Australia, and several European countries.

Members of the Italian community are distinguished from ethnic Slovenes in Slovene Istria mostly by their everyday use of Italian. Thus members of the Italian community often define themselves as such merely on the basis of language. At the same time a high level of loyalty towards the Slovene state is apparent; they feel Slovene Istria to be their home (Sedmak, 2004a). The presence of the Italian minority in Slovene Istria is made evident by bilingual public inscriptions, bilingual identity cards and passports, a high number of mixed marriages etc. According to Sedmak due to the absence of interethnic conflict, the case of Slovene Istria can be referred to as a working example of multi/inter-culturalism.

However, there is a broader socio-political context, which should be taken into consideration. From the point of view of international law, relations between Slovenia and Italy contain no open questions. Yet, legal aspects of relations between both countries are burdened by a series of political and pseudo-legal interpretations, the sources of which must be sought in the various corresponding institutions. Most important is the fact that shortly after the exchange of notes in July 1992, Italian foreign policy gradually began to incline towards the standpoints, which the Trieste neo-irridentist circle had been attempting to revive since 1985 and which had their roots in the rejection in principle of the Yugoslav-Italian Osimo Treaty from 1975 (Drčar-Murko, 1996). The problems concerned the area, which straddled the border between the two countries, and property questions arising from the end of World War II. The cross-border area is ethnically mixed on both sides and was the subject of disputes at the end of the war.

From the very beginning of the Yugoslav crises Italy has been generally favourable towards Slovenia's strivings for recognition as a sovereign state. Yet, Italy seemed to have been concerned for the fate and status of its minority on the territory that was once Yugoslavia and would now be divided between two new sovereign states. A few weeks before recognition by EU members became effective (on 15 January 1992), Italy submitted to Croatia and Slovenia a Memorandum of Understanding for signature. This trilateral treaty was *inter alia* a promise to conclude bilateral treaties in favour of the Italian minority in the future and also immediately guaranteed certain rights to the Italian minority (e.g. the recognition of a common representative body for the minorities in both states, free movement of members of the minority across borders etc.). The Slovenian government supplemented the trilateral treaty with a proposal of a bilateral treaty between Italy and Slovenia in favour of the Slovenian minority in Italy. The Slovenian parliamentary Committee on International Relations thought that minority rights were already better-protected in Slovenia as compared to Italy and amended the bilateral proposal accordingly. After Italy refused to sign both agreements

simultaneously and the Slovenian parliamentary Committee on International Relations instructed the Foreign Minister to decline his signature of the trilateral treaty. Despite the fact that Italy recognised Slovenia as a state on 15 January 1992 it kept accusing Slovenia for not respecting the rights of the Italian minority and tried to block Slovenia's accession to the Council of Europe. Certain foreign observer missions were sent to Slovenia who only found that the rights of the Italian minority in Slovenia were properly protected. Furthermore, many experts on minorities consider Slovenia somewhat of a model for an adequate protection of minorities, while in Slovenia there is a general awareness of the poor protection enjoyed by the Slovenian minority in Italy. The double standards of the West-European states perplexed the public opinion in Slovenia. Since both minorities (Slovenian minority in Italy and Italian minority in Slovenia) do not present a considerable part of the respective nations on both sides of the border, the minority issue may rightfully be considered an instrument of national policy. Minorities are often (mis)used by states to achieve quite other national interests (Bučar, 1999).

Relations between Slovenia and Italy became particularly sensitive in the 1990s because of the acts of forcible expulsion, migration and expropriation of property that occurred in the 1940s. The Italian government raised the property issue in negotiations between the EU and Slovenia for an association agreement. As a member of both NATO and the EU, Italy was suspected in Ljubljana of blocking Slovene moves towards closer relations with both bodies as a means of inducing Slovenia to revise the Osimo Treaty. The suggestion was that the Osimo Treaty might be revised (restitution of property to pre-1945 Italian owners who had emigrated from Yugoslavia), given that it was made between Italy and Yugoslavia. Since Slovenia had just gained independence the situation was thus changed. From the Slovene side, therefore, there was no question of tampering with the treaty and Italy's position was viewed as aggressive. Payment of compensation was the most that Slovenia regarded as appropriate for discussion. The issue at stake was commonly reported as Italy's "blocking" Slovenia's association agreement. More accurately it was a matter of Italy setting a particular condition for association: harmonisation of property rights with EU countries. This would enable Italians to purchase property in Slovenia – satisfying the desire of the Italians who, for any of a variety of reasons, left Slovenia at the time of the communist takeover, to regain their old family homes, or at least to have the right to buy the property (Gow and Carmichael, 2000). In spite of Italian demands for Slovenia to liberalise trade with real estate property even before signing the association agreement with the EU, Italy never disclosed the number of the bank account at Banca d'Italia in Rome where payments of the two previous Yugoslav installments had already been made. Therefore, in September 1994 Slovenia opened a fiduciary bank account at Dresdner Bank in Luxembourg, where it deposits installments as they are due (according to mass media reports some 53 mil. USD until February 1998). Italy still refused to draw from the fiduciary bank account (Bučar, 1999).

Progress came after the EU took measures to move the process along in 1997. However, there is the ever-present issue of minorities on either side of the border. For Slovenes, the resurgence of Italian irredentism toward areas of the former Yugoslavia that had been a part of Italy between the world wars is most troubling. Prompted partly by this irredentism, in the spring of 1993, Rome raised the abovementioned issue of property rights of post-World War II refugees, Italian president Ciampi summoned Italian filmmakers to return to the cinema screen stories of the »fathers of the homeland« from the age of *risorgimento*, an incident happened when the BBC started airing a broadcast about Italian crimes from Ethiopia to Yugoslavi entitled *Fascist Legacy*, but which was withdrawn after protests from the Italian ambassador, in 2005 the Italian state proclaimed and celebrated Memorial Day (February 10th) etc. Part of the Memorial Day celebration was meant to reawaken memories of the "Italian

Exodus” from Istria and Dalmatia after World War II and the issue of “fojbe”, which were the caves where Tito’s army and post-war Communist government took revenge on anti-communists and the Italian people. In this respect, the Slovene state and media (there was no serious response in Slovenia to the threat from the Fabrizio Radin, a representative of the Union of Italians, against Slovene and Croat parents sending their children to Italian schools “not to expect to get back a Slovene or a Croat but an Italian in the true, Mazzini sense of the word”), as well as representatives of the Italian minority media which expresses its support, remain carefully silent. According to historian Jože Pirjevec (2003), the attitude of Italy towards the Slovenes within its borders merely mirrors the attitude of the Slovene state towards its minority in Italy.

A debate about past historical events continues in both states. While e.g. Slovenia considers that many Italians left the territory ceded to Yugoslavia of their own free will (so-called optants), voices on the Italian side are heard that the population had really been driven out of their homes (a version of »ethnic cleansing« or genocide) and that a kind of a refugee status was granted to this population in Italy (so-called esuli). Slovenians were practically accused of genocide after World War II and the public prosecutor in Rome (Giuseppe Pittito) announced the prosecution of those Slovenians who were guilty of alleged mass murders. Slovenia pointed out that Italy never prosecuted its own war criminals nor individuals guilty of crimes under the fascist regime before the war and published a white book on past events that had come under discussion (Bučar, 1999). The historical dispute between both states arises regarding the political situation in Slovenia in Italy, when open questions seem to have been set aside, but not resolved.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

There are several characteristics that influence the nature and amount of literature published on ethnic and national minorities, especially the Italian minority, in Slovenia. The most important is certainly the historical background. In the past the Slovene researchers whose research topic was ethnic and national minorities were mostly just curious about the Slovene minority that lived in Italy. However, it should be noted that this occurred only to a certain degree because of Ljubljana’s centralism and the silence of the majority of the Slovene public, which has done almost nothing to help the integration of people residing in the broader Slovene ethnic territory into a broader cultural area. They simply neglected to study the Italian minority in Slovenia.

Before Slovenia gained its independence, it was always assumed that the Slovene minority in Italy, in comparison to the Italian minority, should get more “scientific” attention due to the violation of their rights, while the Italian minority is in fact legally well protected and in reality well treated. After 1991, the situation significantly improved, partly because the Italian minority once again became the object of political dialogue between Slovenia and Italy, and partially because a new university, the University of Primorska, was founded in the region. At the beginning of the 1990s, preparation of the expert study of the development of higher education in the region of Primorska began, and in 2003 the University of Primorska was officially established.

The main goal of the scholars who work at the University of Primorska is to “cover” the specifics of the region, among them the role and the position of the Italian minority. The latter is an important research subject of the Institute for Ethnic Studies in Ljubljana, the University of Ljubljana, and the Science and Research Centre of Ljubljana and Koper.

Kristen, in his article *“Specialistično proučevanje zakonsko zaščitene narodnostnih manjšin v Sloveniji do obdobja državne osamosvojitve”* (2004), provides an excellent review of the history of Slovene legislation in the case of national and ethnic minorities. The article discusses the historiography of specialised research of legally protected minorities in Slovene territory over three time periods: from the middle of the 1920s, a period which coincides with the first institutional beginnings of such research in the Kingdom of Yugoslavia; the Second World War and its aftermath; and up to the disintegration of the Yugoslav federation in the middle of the 1990s, which brought about the creation of an independent Slovene state. Contrary to the situation involving the Slovene minority population in Italy, Austria and Hungary, the research of legally acknowledged national minorities has not always been an obvious, and even less so a privileged, topic in the tradition of the Slovene national question. Nonetheless, the activity of the Minority Institute in Ljubljana aimed at the topic of national minorities to some extent from the middle of the 1920s to the early 1940s. After a relatively long interruption of activity, the research focusing on the Hungarian and Italian minorities intensified substantially. It diversified interdisciplinarily and institutionally in the early 1960s and expanded constantly in the 1970s and 1980s, reaching its unprecedented quantitative climax a few years after Slovenia’s independence, before its accession to the European Union.

3.2. Minority-majority relations and the issue of ethnic-national identities in the Slovenian-Italian borderland

The territory on which the independent state of Slovenia was created in the early 1990s has never been ethnically homogenous. The number of ethnic minorities, their size and their real economic and political power has historically changed in accordance with changing political boundaries. The most recent change of state borders has left Slovenia a numerous collection of members of non-Slovene ethnic groups. These can be classified into two groups: the “historical” (territorially-concentrated) minorities, and the newly-formed ethnic communities (comprising mostly members of the nations of the former Yugoslavia), which emerged as a result of contemporary processes of economic immigration (Komac, 1999).

The covenant to protect both “historical” ethnic communities, as well as members of other nations living in Slovenia, may be found in the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia³ in all documents which deal with the attainment of Slovene independence⁴, as

³ Article 3 of the Constitution states that Slovenia is a “state of all its citizens, based on the permanent and inalienable right of Slovenes to self-determination”. Article 5 declares that the state shall, within its territory, “uphold and guarantee the rights of the autochthonous Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities”. In Article 11 the Constitution states that “the official language of Slovenia shall be Slovene. In the areas where the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities reside, the official language shall also be Italian or Hungarian. Article 64 outlines a collection of special rights of both autochthonous ethnic communities.

⁴ For example, in the special agreement, which was signed on December 6th 1990 by all political parties represented in Parliament, as well as the club of ethnic community deputies and the club of independent deputies. The signatories promised, “the Republic of Slovenia shall ensure to the Italian and Hungarian

well as in all basic documents at the universal (i.e. United Nations) and regional level (i.e. the Council of Europe) which deal with issues of human rights and freedoms. Slovenia signed the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages on July 3rd 1997 and the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities on February 1st 1995, ratifying it on March 23rd 1998. The same year, Slovenia submitted a special declaration stating: “Considering that the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities does not contain a definition of the notion of national minorities and it is therefore up to the individual Contracting Party to determine the groups which it shall consider as national minorities, the Government of the Republic of Slovenia, in accordance with the constitution and internal legislation of the Republic of Slovenia, declares that these are the autochthonous Italian and Hungarian National Minorities. (...) the provisions of the Framework Convention shall apply also to the members of the Romany community who live in the Republic of Slovenia.”

In accordance with the country’s bilateral agreements with Italy (and Hungary), Slovenia is bound to protect the Italian minority under the Osimo Treaty, in the section which states that both sides (Italy and Yugoslavia or Slovenia) “shall preserve the validity of internal measures which were adopted during the implementation of the Statute mentioned, and shall, within the framework of its internal legislation, guarantee to members of the concerned minorities the same level of protection as was provided by the Special Statute which is terminated”. The Osimo Treaty is on the list of bilateral agreements, which Slovenia inherited as one of the former Yugoslav republic.

The Slovene constitution was designed in the spirit of positive relations towards the ethnic communities. The greatest attention is paid to the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities, but a special interest is expressed also towards the Romany community. Members of the nations and nationalities from the former common state are also recognised,

ethnic communities, as well as to the members of other Yugoslav nations living in Slovenia, that their political status will not change as a result of the referendum’s outcome”. The agreement specifically emphasises the duty of the Republic of Slovenia to protect the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities and to enable members of other Yugoslav nations who have permanent residence in Slovenia to obtain Slovenian citizenship if that is their wish.

The second document is the statement of good intentions adopted by the Assembly of the Republic of Slovenia at the announcement of the referendum (6th December 1990) on independence and sovereignty of the Republic of Slovenia: “1. By the will expressed in the referendum of the Slovenian nation, the Italian and Hungarian ethnic minorities and all other voters in the Republic of Slovenia, may Slovenia finally and effectively become a sovereign, democratic, legal and social state (...) [T]he Slovenian state guarantees to the Italian and Hungarian ethnic minorities in the sovereign Republic of Slovenia all states as provided by the Constitution, the legislation, as well as by the international acts which were concluded and recognised by the SFRJ (Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia). It also guarantees to all members of other nations and nationalities the right to a multi-faceted development of their culture and language, and to all permanent residents of Slovenia the right to obtain Slovenian citizenship if they so wish.”

In the Basic Constitutional Charter on the Sovereignty and Independence of the Republic of Slovenia, adopted on June 25th 1991, the Assembly of the Republic of Slovenia re-emphasised that the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities and their members in the Republic of Slovenia are assured all rights from the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia and valid international agreements. The Slovene state guarantees “the protection of human rights and basic freedoms to all persons within the territory of the Republic of Slovenia, irrespective of their ethnic origin and without any discrimination whatsoever. To the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities and their members are guaranteed (...) all right under the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia and all rights recognised by international agreements.

Finally, the Declaration of Independence states that the Republic of Slovenia is “a legal and social state with a market economy adapted to the capabilities of the environment, in which human rights will be respected, as well as citizens’ freedoms, special rights of autochthonous Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities in the Republic of Slovenia”.

but only on condition that they first become citizens of the Republic of Slovenia.⁵ In comparison with the Yugoslav constitution of 1974, Slovenia's constitution of 1991 introduces an important conceptual novelty. From the traditional ethnic communities (Italian and Hungarian) it removes their status of constitutive ethnic elements (as provided in the constitution of 1974) and grants them the status of »historical« ethnic minorities. It is possible to claim that the Republic of Slovenia strongly respects its (historical) minorities' legislation. When Kristan takes into consideration constitutional rights of both autochthonous ethnic minorities in Slovenia (Italians and Hungarians) explaining in detail the nature of collective and individual rights in the Slovene case, he ascertains that the level of constitutional protection and, in addition, the status of both Slovene autochthonous minorities, is very high compared with international standards or, in some respects, is even higher than prescribed by international standards (Kristan, 1994-1995).

In his article from 2004, Jesih addresses the political organisation of the Italian and the Hungarian minorities in Slovenia in three consecutive periods: before 1974, when the constitution of the Socialist Republic of Slovenia was adopted; from 1974 to 1991; and after Slovene independence in the year 1991. He concludes that the political participation of the constitutionally and legally organised minorities has always been guaranteed on the normative level. The normative development achieved before 1991 directly influenced the formulation of the solutions that were applied after independence and thereby assured certain continuity of contents. The legal regulation of the political participation of the two autochthonous ethnic minorities is exemplary, although there have always been some discordances between the normative regulation and the actual situation. Despite the professional interest in the issue of political participation of the two autochthonous national minorities, the transfer of research results into direct political action and development of a better political solution has been virtually non-existent. I elaborate further on this topic in section 3.2.1.

Romana Bešter's article on constitutional protection of national/ethnic minorities in the European Union member states offers some important and interesting statements. In the article, which is a detailed presentation of individual constitutional rights guaranteed by states to minorities in their territories, the author focuses on five spheres: education, language, religion, culture and political participation. The results of the analysis show that the constitutional protection of minorities is good or reasonably good only in a smaller number of the states concerned. Among the states ensuring their minorities special constitutional rights, the states strongly prevailing are those of Eastern and Central Europe (Bešter, 2002). These findings uncovered an important fact about the minority situation within the European Union, which differs between particular member states and between "old" (Western) and "new" (Eastern and Central) Europe as well.

Petra Roter's article also challenges the popular beliefs that seem to prevail, especially in the wake of the Yugoslav crises, that minorities are problematic in the east, whereas there is no such problem in the west. In order to show that such beliefs appear to be out of touch with reality, the article traces, with the help of historical analysis, the origin of the minority problem in Europe. It shows that it was first a conflict between different religious communities, whereas it has been centred around ethnic identity groups in the era of

⁵ With the independent Slovene state the status of the immigrant groups changed radically. Former members of the constitutive nations of Yugoslavia who had migrated to other republics of the common state in search of employment became practically overnight a statistically established minority with the attributes of economic immigrant communities. The Slovene state does not yet have a document which would provide "global solutions" to issues of the newly-formed ethnic communities.

nationalism. The nation states of Europe have indeed been brought about in different circumstances, roughly corresponding to the geographic division between the west and the east. Accordingly, minorities were created differently in the states that were formed according to the western or eastern models of nation-building and state formation (Roter, 2001).

The report that was done on the bases of international research organised by three institutions from three independent successor states: Slovenia (Institute for Ethnic Studies), Estonia (Estonian Language Institute), and Ukraine (the research was conducted by several independent Ukrainian researchers) shows important and more exact findings on the same issue. They can be categorised into four types. First, disintegrative processes seems to be a more typical phenomenon in ethnically mixed regions, where political status of ethnic and national groups has recently been reversed due to the re-established of independent states, while in the regions with traditional minorities, trans-cultural competence is a more shared value and practice. Second, the establishment of the national language as the state language has the highest priority. Third, policy and practice of respecting human rights and the promotion of ethnic cultures contributes to creative interaction and coexistence. And fourth, empathic insight in other cultures promotes communication and interaction in mixed communities (Nečak Luk, 2000).

Population by ethnic affiliation, 1961 - 2002 censuses

	1961		1971		1981		1991		2002	
	<i>total</i>	<i>share %</i>								
TOTAL	1,591,523	100	1,679,051	100	1,838,381	100	1,913,355	100	1,964,036	100
Declared	1,587,585	99.75	1,664,093	99.11	1,800,680	97.95	1,845,022	96.43	1,766,982	89.97
<i>Slovenes</i>	1,522,248	95.65	1,578,963	94.04	1,668,623	90.77	1,689,657	88.31	1,631,363	83.06
Italians	3,072	0.19	2,987	0.18	2,138	0.12	2,959	0.15	2,258	0.11
<i>Hungarians</i>	10,498	0.66	8,943	0.53	8,777	0.48	8,000	0.42	6,243	0.32
<i>Roma</i>	158	0.01	951	0.06	1,393	0.08	2,259	0.12	3,246	0.17
<i>Albanians</i>	282	0.02	1,266	0.08	1,933	0.11	3,534	0.18	6,186	0.31
<i>Austrians</i>	254	0.02	266	0.02	146	0.01	126	0.01	181	0.01
<i>Bulgarians</i>	180	0.01	138	0.01	103	0.01	168	0.01	138	0.01
<i>Bosnians</i>	21,542	1.10
<i>Czechs</i>	584	0.04	442	0.03	423	0.02	315	0.02	273	0.01
<i>Montenegrins</i>	1,384	0.09	1,950	0.12	3,175	0.17	4,339	0.23	2,667	0.14
<i>Greeks</i>	50	0.00	24	0.00	15	0.00	21	0.00	54	0.00
<i>Croats</i>	31,429	1.97	41,556	2.47	53,882	2.93	52,876	2.76	35,642	1.81
<i>Jews</i>	21	0.00	72	0.00	9	0.00	37	0.00	28	0.00
<i>Macedonians</i>	1,009	0.06	1,572	0.09	3,227	0.18	4,371	0.23	3,972	0.20
<i>Muslims</i>	465	0.03	3,197	0.19	13,339	0.73	26,577	1.39	10,467	0.53
<i>Germans</i>	732	0.05	400	0.02	309	0.02	298	0.02	499	0.03
<i>Poles</i>	222	0.01	191	0.01	200	0.01	196	0.01	140	0.01
<i>Romanians</i>	48	0.00	41	0.00	93	0.01	115	0.01	122	0.01
<i>Russians</i>	295	0.02	297	0.02	189	0.01	167	0.01	451	0.02
<i>Rusinians¹⁾</i>	384	0.02	66	0.00	54	0.00	57	0.00	40	0.00
<i>Slovaks</i>	71	0.00	75	0.00	139	0.01	139	0.01	216	0.01
<i>Serbs</i>	13,609	0.86	20,209	1.20	41,695	2.27	47,401	2.48	38,964	1.98
<i>Turks</i>	135	0.01	52	0.00	86	0.00	142	0.01	259	0.01
<i>Ukrainians¹⁾</i>	138	0.01	190	0.01	210	0.01	470	0.02
<i>Vlachs</i>	6	0.00	4	0.00	16	0.00	37	0.00	13	0.00
<i>Other</i>	449	0.03	293	0.02	526	0.03	1,021	0.05	1,548	0.08
Undeclared	2,784	0.17	12,280	0.73	32,400	1.76	25,978	1.36	22,141	1.13
<i>Declared as Yugoslavs</i>	2,784	0.17*	6,616	0.39	25,615	1.39	12,075	0.63	527	0.03
<i>Declared as Bosnians</i>	8,062	0.41
<i>Regionally declared</i>	-	-	2,652	0.16	3,932	0.21	5,187	0.27	1,467	0.07
<i>Others</i>	-	-	3,012	0.18	2,853	0.16	8,716	0.46	12,085	0.62
Did not want to reply	48,588	2.47
Unknown	1,154	0.07	2,678	0.16	5,301	0.29	42,355	2.21	126,325	6.43

1) In the 1961 census, Russians and the Ukrainians appear under one item.

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia, 2004, <http://www.stat.si>, 19. 4. 2005.

3.2.1. Special rights of ethnic minorities in Slovenia

The system of special minority rights did not come into being until after the independence of Slovenia. Elements of minority protection could be found soon after World War II, and the whole system was more or less in place by the mid-1980s. With the creation of the new state, ethnic community protection only had to be “adapted” into the newly pluralistic political system.

Mitja Žagar believes that the further development of human rights and especially the **special protection and rights of ethnic minorities** should take into account the specific traditions, concepts and culture of every society and the traditional position of distinct communities within it. This would often lead to the strengthening of the collective dimensions of human rights, especially the special rights of ethnic minorities, without reducing or endangering their individual dimension (Žagar, 1997).

A starting point for the protection of ethnic communities in Slovenia is provided by the concepts of ethnically mixed territory and the system of collective rights, which the state grants **irrespective of numerical strength or proportion of members** of ethnic minorities on the ethnically mixed territory (i.e. the absence of a numerical clause). Collective rights pertain to ethnic minorities as objectively existing subjects, but it depends on the individual members of the ethnic communities when and to what degree they will exercise their special rights.

Representatives of both ethnic communities actively participate in the process of building legal norms that apply to the various aspects of the development of ethnic communities. In this process they have the status of subject, the destiny of which may not be decided upon without the explicit consent of legitimate representatives of ethnic communities. Representatives of the ethnic communities have **the right to veto** all decisions of the legislator (from the state to the local level) in matters that relate to the special rights of the ethnic communities, and this is the highest guarantee against possible attempts of representatives of the majority nation forcing upon the ethnic communities’ directions of development that these communities would refuse (Komac, 1999). The positive protection of both ethnic communities also includes a special financial fund reserved exclusively for the preservation and development of the economic foundations of ethnic communities.

The system of special rights of minorities can be divided into:

1. The system of basic special rights: the right to exist, the right to be recognised, the right to group adherence and the right to special protection.

The Italian (and Hungarian) ethnic communities in Slovenia have all those basic special rights assured in the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia and other abovementioned documents.

2. The system of so-called “compensation” rights (the right to special protection): use of minority languages (bilingual signs, use of minority languages in state administration, bilingual documents, bilingual operation in the judiciary,⁶ bilingual transactions in municipal

⁶ A recent report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of the *European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages* (ECRML), however, shows that there is a clear discrepancy between the provisions of the law and daily practice. Between 1991 (the year of Slovenia’s independence) and February 2003, Italian was used in seven proceedings involving members of the Italian-speaking minority, even though interpretation is provided free of charge. There seems to be a clear reluctance to use Italian in

administration, the use of the ethnic communities' languages in church⁷), the right to education, the right to information, the right to their own cultural development, the right to free contacts, the right to economic development, the right to the use of national symbols (flag, anthem, etc.).⁸

The autochthonous settlement area of the Italian ethnic community comprises the ethnically mixed area of three coastal municipalities. Article 7 of the statute of the municipality of Koper/Capodistria states that in the ethnically mixed area of the municipality, where members of the Italian ethnic community live, the official languages are Slovene and Italian.⁹ Article 2 of the statute of the Izola/Isola municipality states that in the ethnically mixed area of the municipality, the Italian language has equal rights with Slovene in public and social life. All public and other signs in this area must be written in both languages.¹⁰ In Article 3 of the statute of the Piran/Pirano municipality it is stated that in the ethnically mixed area of the municipality, where members of the Italian community live (bilingual area), the Italian language has equal rights with Slovene in public life.¹¹

Stipulations on visible bilingualism (in toponymy, signboards, announcements, notices, warnings, etc.) can be found in national legislation as well as in municipal regulations. In the ethnically mixed area in Slovenia, the provisions on visible bilingualism are practiced without any numerical clauses. Members of ethnic communities actively participate in the process of bilingual naming of settlements and streets. However, a recent report of the Committee of Experts on the Application of the *European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages* (ECRML) shows that there is a clear discrepancy between the provisions of the law and daily practice. Despite its co-official character in ethnically mixed areas, and the financial bonus for public employees with active or passive knowledge of Italian, it seems that Italian can almost never be used in dealings with administrative bodies. In most cases people are obliged to switch to Slovene. Most written communication is issued only in Slovene. Sometimes the use of Italian is even refused by officials. A possible explanation here might be the Slovene recruitment policy in the local offices of the state administration. Often, people from the inland part of the country with no knowledge of Italian and no awareness of the bilingual character of the coastal region are installed in public administration (Zavratnik Zimic, 2001).

The number of people who declared Italian as their mother tongue in the 2002 census (3,762 as opposed to 2,258 ethnic Italians) seems to suggest that the majority of the people belonging to the Italian national community in Slovenia have Italian as their

proceedings. Whether this has to do with the lack of knowledge on behalf of the accused or on behalf of the lawyers and judges is not clear (Zavratnik Zimic, 2001).

⁷ The right to use the ethnic community's language in church is not a responsibility of the state. Since the Italian ethnic community has no Italian priest on the territory of the three coastal municipalities, religious services in Italian are conducted by local Slovene priests. Mass is conducted in the Italian language once a week in Koper, Izola and Piran.

⁸ The problem arose in Slovenia when the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities chose the Italian and Hungarian flags as their national flags. The Constitutional Court in Slovenia found that the use of the national symbols of ethnic communities which are identical to the symbols of a neighbouring nation is not unconstitutional and that Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities have the right to use as their own the Italian and Hungarian national symbols.

⁹ Settlements: Ankaran/Ancarano, Barizoni/Barizoni, Bertoki/Bertocchi, Bošamarin/Bosamerino, Cerej/Cerei, Hrvatini/Crevatini, Kampel/Campel, Kolomban/Colombano, Koper/Capodistria, Prade/Prade, Premančan, part of the settlement Spodnje Škofije/Valmarin, Škofije/Valmarin, Šalara/Salara and Škocijan/S. Canziano.

¹⁰ The town Izola/Isola and the settlements: Dobrava pri Izoli, Jagodje, Livade and Polje pri Izoli.

¹¹ The towns and settlements: Piran, Portorož, Lucija, Strunjan, Seča, Sečovlje, Parecag and Dragonja.

mother tongue. A survey conducted by the Euromosaic-team in the ethnically mixed areas where Italians reside shows that it is likely that about 85% of the Italians there have Italian as their mother tongue. Italian is mainly used in the family, in private everyday life, in leisure time and in connection with diverse media. As is often the case with minority languages, all generations are Italian/Slovene bilingual. It is mainly the older generation that makes the most frequent use of Italian as their sole means of communication. They can be described as Italian dominant bilingual. The younger generations show a tendency to use both Italian and Slovene, and the use of Slovene is increasing (Zavratnik Zimic, 2001).

An article by Novak Lukanović (2003) shows that in ethnically mixed regions of Slovenia in most cases there is an asymmetrical convergence, marked only by the speaker–minority member. The latter in formal language situations usually favours the strategy of divergence to the majority language over the strategy of language preservation. One-way language accommodation points out the unbalanced social language status in which diglossia prevails.

It should be noted that within the right to use the minority language and to preserve ethnic characteristics The Law on Personal Names (Article 3) allows the use of personal names and surnames in their original form. Bilingual documents (identity cards, passports, driver's licences, vehicle registration documents, medical insurance booklets and army service booklets) are compulsory for all inhabitants of the ethnically mixed area irrespective of their ethnic affiliation. The two deputies of the ethnic minorities have the right to “submit in oral and written form proposals, initiatives, questions and other submissions, in the Italian or Hungarian language. Their speeches and applications shall be translated into Slovenian” (Standing Orders of the National Assembly).

The Slovene state is obliged to ensure a compulsory bilingual education system in the ethnically mixed (Hungarian-Slovene) area of Prekmurje and a monolingual school system for members of the Italian ethnic community in the coastal bilingual area. This means that instruction in kindergartens, primary schools and secondary schools is conducted in the Italian language, while the study of Slovene is compulsory. Italian is also the schools' administrative language and the language of communication with parents.

The teaching staff and other employees in schools with Italian as the language of instruction are persons whose mother tongue is Italian. In the 2002/2003 school year, there were three pre-school institutions using Italian as the language of instruction in the ethnically mixed areas of the three coastal municipalities: Delfino Blue in Koper, Dante Alighieri in Izola and La Coccinella in Portorož. A total of 280 children attended these pre-school institutions. In the same school year, 416 pupils enrolled in three primary schools with Italian as the language of instruction: Dante Alighieri in Izola, Pier Paolo Vergerio il Vecchio in Koper (with affiliated schools in Semadela, Bertoki and Hrvatini), and Vincenzo de Castro in Piran (with affiliated schools in Lucija, Sečovlje and Strunjan). Also in 2002/2003, 287 students attended three secondary schools with Italian as the language of instruction: Antonio Sema High School in Piran, Gian Rinaldo Carli Secondary School in Koper, and Pietro Coppo Secondary Vocational School in Izola.

At the university level, Italian can be studied at the department for Italian language and literature at the Pedagogical Faculty in Koper as well as at the Chair of Italian Language and Literature at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana. The Decree on the

Establishment of the University of Primorska (*Università della Primorska*) of January 2003 made it possible to study Italian at this university, which is located in Koper. These university institutions educate kindergarten as well as primary school teachers. Slovenia also organises courses on further teacher training and offers the possibility for teacher exchange programmes with Italy. Courses for adults wanting to improve their Italian are organised in 16 places all over Slovenia (Zavratnik Zimic, 2001).

The Agreement on Mutual Recognition of Degree Certificates between Slovenia and Italy (1995) facilitates the study of members of the Italian ethnic community at Italian universities, and, analogously, the study of members of the Slovene minority in Italy at universities in Slovenia. Schools with Italian as the language of instruction are not strictly limited to members of the Italian minority. In educational institutions in the ethnically mixed area where instruction is in the Slovene language, classes in the language of the ethnic community are compulsory.

Italian and bilingual schools¹

	<i>Elementary schools</i>				<i>Upper secondary schools</i>		
	<i>schools</i>	<i>class units</i>	<i>pupils</i>	<i>teaching staff</i>	<i>class units</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>teaching staff</i>
1990/91	19	110	1,928	205	33	534	90
1995/96	19	110	1,828	219	41	602	97
1998/99	19	103	1,578	225	56	938	135
1999/00	19	101	1,532	229	44	642	104
2000/01	17	108	1,415	228*	44	592	98
2001/02	18	109	1,381	226	45	559	99
2002/03	16	111	1,403	243	42	563	97
Italian	9	43	416	93	37	283	58
Bilingual	7	68	987	150	5	280	39

1) Data refer to the end of the school year.

Source: *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia, 2004*, <http://www.stat.si>, 19. 4. 2005.

Regarding the right to information, the Slovene state has bound itself to support, among other things, the development of non-commercial public media, which is intended to inform the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities. A radio station in the Italian language was established in 1949 and today transmits 14 hours of broadcasts in the Italian. In 1971 a TV station that provides information for the Italian population in Slovenia and Croatia was added. It broadcasts 11 hours of programmes daily, 10 hours in Italian and 1 hour in Slovene. The radio and TV station in the Italian language function as part of the state television station. The Italian ethnic community also has printed means of mass communication. The Italian minority in Slovenia publishes printed media in the Italian language together with the Italians living in Croatia.

The main publisher is EDIT (co-financed by Slovenia), established in 1952 with its seat in Rijeka/Fiume, Croatia, and a special correspondence office in Koper (A.I.A. agency, fully financed by Slovenia). Its chief publication is the daily "La voce del

popolo”, which has a circulation of some 3750 copies, of which about 300 are distributed in Slovenia. EDIT also publishes the weekly “Panorama” (2200 copies, 600 of which are distributed in Slovenia); the quarterly literary magazine “La Battana” (1000 copies, 50 in Slovenia) and a children’s newsletter “Acrobaleno” (2500 copies, 350 in Slovenia). Since 1992, “La voce del popolo” has been sold together with the Triestine daily paper “Il Piccolo” – two papers for the price of one. There are some other publications issued occasionally by cultural associations in the ethnically mixed area. The Republic of Slovenia supports the publishing of printed media of an amount which represents 20% of the sum allocated for these activities in the Republic of Croatia. For 40 years now, EDIT has been publishing belletristics and professional literature, textbooks and manuals in Italian. The publication “Il trillo” is supported by the Slovenian Ministry of Culture (Zavratnik Zimic, 2001).

In the coastal region there are six Italian cultural associations. In 2001 the Italian national community began to establish an institute for the culture of the Italian national community (with a start-up capital total of 4.5 million Slovene tolar provided by the Office for Nationalities). Numerous cultural activities are financed with funds from the Ministry of Culture. The Slovene state gives a proportionate financial contribution to support the activities of two important institutions of the Italian ethnic community in Croatia: the Center for Historical Research in Rovinj, and the Italian Drama in Rijeka. More about the interregional relationship along the Slovene-Italian border is represented by Milan Bufon’s work, in which he depicts cultural, social and economic flows between Italy, Slovenia and Croatia, and vice versa (Bufon, 2001; 2004).

The right to free contacts enables the Italians (and Hungarians) living in Slovenia to establish and maintain contacts with members of their group in all territory of Slovenia and cross-border contacts with citizens of the countries of their ethnic origin. The Law on Self-Governing Ethnic Communities states that resources for the preservation of free contacts of the ethnic communities shall be provided from the municipalities, the budget of the Republic of Slovenia, and from other sources.

3. The system of rights arising from the participation in decision-making of members of ethnic minorities (deputies of the ethnic communities in the National Assembly, ethnic community representatives in municipal councils, self-governing ethnic communities).

The Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia guarantees the members of the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities appropriate representation in the National Assembly (one deputy shall be elected from the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities) and in representative bodies of local self-government. They are elected by all members of the ethnic minority with a voting right irrespective of where they live within the state and of their number. Within the National Assembly, the Commission for Minorities has been established as one of the assembly’s four permanent commissions. Both ethnic communities in ethnically mixed areas shall have at least one representative in the municipal council as stated by the Law on Local Self-Government, however, the Law on the Formation of Municipalities and the Determination of Their Territories defines in more detail the number of members of the Italian or Hungarian ethnic communities and the Romany community in the municipal councils (two in Izola; three in Koper and Piran).

Self-governing ethnic communities are the central political institutions of the ethnic communities, enacted by the constitution and adopted by the special Law on Self-Governing Ethnic Communities. The law defines the duties of these communities, the manner and procedures for the realisation of these duties, the organisation of the self-governing communities, their relations with bodies of local self-governing communities and with state bodies and their financing. These organisations represent the only legal partner in the process of dialog between the ethnic communities and the state. The self-governing ethnic communities were established in every municipality inhabited by members of the autochthonous ethnic minorities. The municipal ethnic communities then join to form the Italian (or Hungarian) ethnic community. The two communities are the key partners in relation to the state. The self-governing communities have the right to cooperate with kin-nations and their states, with members of ethnic communities in other states and with international organisations. They also participate in the preparation of interstate agreements relating to the status of ethnic communities and the protection of their rights.

The representation and participation of ethnic groups is, according to Polzer Srienz (2000), indispensable for the protection of interests of ethnic groups in the decision-making process. Ethnic diversity must find its expression in the distribution of power, because self-determination is an essential precondition for a peaceful living of different ethnic groups. On the one hand, ethnic groups are integrated by different models of representation and participation, while, on the other hand, the autonomy arrangement enables an ethnic minority to settle matters which concern their ethnic group independently. As a central right, the principle of equal treatment in the legal system is to be followed. Various models of representation and participation of ethnic groups can be established as group-related equality.

Members of the ethnic communities in Slovenia have the right to become involved in the activities of political parties of the majority nation, and to vote, stand for candidate and be elected also within the framework of the parties' lists of candidates (Komac, 1999). Miran Komac in his article *Narodne manjšine in nacionalni interes* (2002) states, that self-governing (or self-management) of ethnic communities together with active participation are fostered by processes of cultural pluralism. Processes of cultural pluralism are intertwined with processes of more developed adaptation. What is all about is the preservation and development of diverse ethnic characteristics within a nation state. Without efficient organization (and, in the political reflection of the intelligentsia, this was recognized in the State) members of the Slovenian fledgling nation lacked crucial institutions to protect their ethnic diversity.

3.3. Development of regional institutional co-operation

3.3.1. Alps-Adriatic Organisation

The Alps-Adriatic Organisation, also called the Alps-Adriatic Working Community, is an association of provinces, regions, and republics of the Eastern Alps region of Europe. It was founded in Venice on November 20th 1978. Parts of Austria,¹² Germany,¹³ Hungary,¹⁴

¹² Burgenland, Carinthia, Salzburg, Styria, Upper Austria.

Italy,¹⁵ and two republics of today's former Yugoslavia (Slovenia and Croatia) had become regular or observing members by 1988. The territory represented by the organisation covers more than 268,000 square kilometres and has more than 37 million inhabitants. The languages of all the territories are regarded as official languages of the organisation.

The purpose in establishing the community was to address long-ignored regional interests. After World War II, when Europe was divided into opposing camps, the Alps-Adriatic region, which straddled the post-war East-West border, was divided and the region's concerns (economic, cultural, etc.) became peripheral. When Alps-Adriatic was founded in 1978, an important economic barrier between East and West was breached, a full decade before the Berlin Wall collapsed. Its founding also restored historical, political, social, and cultural ties that predated the creation of the area's national states in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The Alps-Adriatic Working Community has 6 commissions with specific interests:

- Land Use and Environment
- Transportation and Traffic
- Culture and Information
- Economics
- Agriculture, Forestry, Wildlife, and Mountain Economy
- Hygiene and Health

The commissions' aims are to promote regional dialogue, support research and publications on regional concerns, and realize co-operation on various levels (e.g. regional tourism, regional cultural events, and regional economic projects). The organisation also has a panel of university rectors and a committee that promotes co-operation in science and learning.

3.3.2. The Central European Initiative

In 1989, four European state governments (Austria, Hungary, Italy, and Yugoslavia) joined to improve relations and address common regional matters. A particular concern was the issue of minorities in the region. When Czechoslovakia became part of the association, it became known as the Pentagonal, and briefly, after Poland joined, the Hexagonal. After the break-up of Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia, in the beginning of the 1990s, the group was again renamed as the Central European Initiative (CEI), now composed of ten central European states (Austria, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, Macedonia, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia). Unlike the Alps-Adriatic Working Community, which began as an association of provinces or regions within some central European states, the CEI is a union of states that are working toward closer political, economic, technological/scientific, and cultural ties.

3.3.3. The Phare Cross-Border Co-operation Programme

The Phare Cross-Border Co-operation Programme is a European Union initiative aimed at implementing changes in two target areas:

¹³ Bavaria.

¹⁴ The counties Vác and Győr-Sopron.

¹⁵ Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Lombardy, Trentino-Alto Adige (South Tyrol), Venetia.

- to influence positively the economical development of the central European border regions
- to prepare the associated member countries of Central Europe for membership in the European Union.

Areas of cross-border co-operation include the following:

1. Economic development: establishing information centres, business and technology parks, setting up databases to aid sustainable farming and a network of tourist trails.
2. Infrastructure and transport: motorway construction, signposting, (re)construction of border crossings, communal and communications facilities.
3. Human resources and cultural co-operation: seminars, courses, workshops, cultural exchanges, and revitalisation of cultural monuments.
4. Environment: research construction of wastewater treatment, plants conservation of protected areas.
5. Technical assistance: CBC programme management, assistance in the project circle, increasing awareness and networking.
6. Small projects fund: cultural, social and economic activities (exhibitions, fairs, presentations, sporting events), development of NGOs, research projects, encouragement of direct contacts ("people to people" exchanges), particularly in the fields of business, sports, culture and social activities in different border areas. Guidelines for the establishment of a Small Projects Fund (transparency and decentralisation) were prepared by the European Commission. Slovenia is at the forefront of countries implementing small-scale projects under the decentralised system.

Slovenia co-operates in the Phare Cross-Border Programme with Austria and Italy. The Phare CBC Programme started covering the Slovene-Italian border in 1994 and in 1995 it was expanded to cover the Austrian and Hungarian borders as well. In this period, more than 180 projects were approved at a total cost of 3.7 million euros. Also the Trilateral Co-operation Programme, involving Slovenia, Austria and Italy, had been implemented. These programmes of cross-border co-operation are closely connected with the INTERREG II Programme initiatives, which operate across the external and internal border regions in the European Union. In charge of the Phare CBC Programme in Slovenia is the National Agency for Regional Development, which functions within the framework of the Ministry of the Economy. The Evaluation Committee (includes representatives from the regional and local authorities and is in charge of evaluating and selecting the project proposals), The Secretariat Regional Development Centre Koper, applicants and selected beneficiaries of the projects and observers, the Delegation of the European Commission and the Ministry of Finance, are the remaining bodies, included in the Programme.

In the period 1994-1999, the European Union committed **40 million euros** in financial grants for Slovenes cross-border co-operation projects. An **additional 8 million euros** was contributed by Slovenia from its own resources. The financial resources are managed at the local level to ensure maximum subsidiarity.¹⁶

¹⁶ Information on the Gross Investment (Gross fixed capital formation) of enterprises, companies and other organisation by purpose and Slovene municipalities concerned in 2003 may serve as an illustration of the relative size of the EU funds and hence their economic weight for the development of the region, e.g. municipalities where the Italian community is settled.

Phare CBC Slovenia - Italy

The Phare CBC Programme between Slovenia and Italy (the Friuli-Venezia Giulia and Veneto regions) was initiated in 1994. In 1995, a Phare Regional Office was set up in Štanjel and has undoubtedly strengthened the co-operation between the two border regions in Slovenia and Italy, as shown by numerous meetings organised at the level of the border municipalities and the number of project proposals with a "real" cross-border impact (such as the establishment of the International Karst park). One project, successfully completed in 1996, was the construction of the Sežana Incubator for SMEs from both sides of the border. The Incubator is also included in the Phare project for the drafting of a development strategy for small business in the border area, the aim being to evaluate the opportunities and to suggest institutional instruments for future integration.

Despite different procedures and areas of interest in the implementation of the projects of the Phare CBC and INTERREG programmes, greater emphasis is laid on joint planning of the Phare CBC / INTERREG III programmes in the period 2000-2006. Namely, in 2000, a five-year period (1995-1999) of the Phare CBC Programme finished and a new one (2000-2002/6) began in which the work has continued. At the same time the programme introduces some novelties in order to harmonize the implementation of the Phare CBC and INTERREG III programmes (see chapter INTERREG). These programmes are prepared mainly in the statistical border regions and the work is monitored and co-ordinated by the Phare regional co-ordinators. Their aim is better preparation of regional institutions for further participation in the fund structure programmes.

Phare CBC/ Slovenia-Italy per sector 1994-1999 (in euros)

Transport and crossings	3,636,000
Environment	8,534,000
Social co-operation	1,892,500
Cultural co-operation	540,000
Technical assistance	1,600,000
Economic co-operation	1,797,500
Total	18,000,000

	Gross fixed capital formation – total (2003) – (in euros)	Share %	In new capacities – (in euros)	Share %	Enlargement, reconstruction, renovation – (in euros)	Share %	Maintenance of existing capacities – (in euros)	Share %
SLOVENIA	4,247,046	100	2,407,618	100	1,472,232	100	367,195	100
Izola/Isola	17,424	0.41	3,280	0.14	11,475	0.78	2,668	0.73
Koper/Capodistria	213,949	5.04	145,523	6.04	57,469	3.90	10,956	2.98
Piran/Pirano	29,506	0.69	10,775	0.45	13,322	0.90	5,408	1.47

Phare CBC for the years 1994-1999 (in euros)

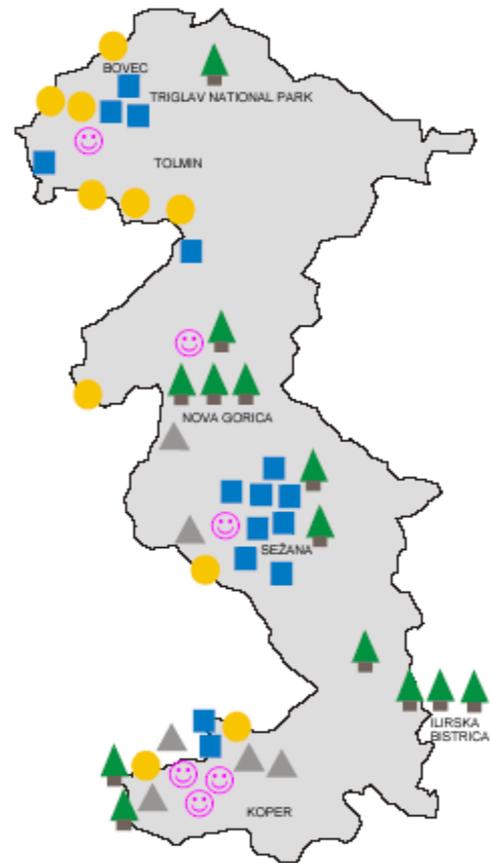
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	TOTAL
CBC – Slovenia/Italy	4,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	5,000,000		18,000,000

Source: Joint Programming Document (2001): Interreg III A / Phare CBC Italy – Slovenia, 2000-2006.

CBS Programme Slovenia – Italy for the period 1995-1999

Legend:

-  Infrastructure and transport:
 - Border Crossing Robič (1994)
 - BC Rateče (1994)
 - Road Žaga-Učjeja (1994)
 - Road Volče-Solarji (1994)
 - BC Predel (1995)
 - BC Učja (1995)
 - Road Livek-Solarji (1995)
 - BC Gorjansko (1997)
-  Economic development:
 - Pilot Orchards, Tolmin (1994)
 - Štanjel (1995)
 - Kras (1995)
 - SME Centre, Sežana (1996)
 - Karst Farms (1996, 1997)
 - Holy Virgin of Carmine (1996)
 - Revitalisation of Alpic Meadows in the Upper Soča Basin (1997)
 - Villages of Breginj Corner (1997)
 - Ankaran Peninsula (1997)
 - Small Business Centre for CBC Sežana (1997)
-  Environment:
 - Timav River Catchment and Carst Park (1994)
 - Flood Protection Nova Gorica (1995)
 - Triglav National Park (1995)
 - ECO Adria (1995)
 - ECO Adria – WWTP Nova Gorica (1996)
 - ECO Adria – WWTP Ajdovščina (1996)
 - ECO Adria – WWTP Ilirska Bistrica (1996)
 - Coastal Oceanographic Station, Piran (1997)
 - Sewage System Sežana (1998/1999)
-  Cultural co-operation:
 - Cultural Co-operation Goriška Region (1995)
 - Praetor Palace, Koper (1996)
 - Apollonio Palace, Piran (1996)
 - Archeological Sub-marine Research (1996)
-  Human resources:
 - Regional Development Policy (1995)
 - Animation and Network Activities (1995)
 - Small Project Fund (1995)
 - Small Project Fund (1996)
 - Small Project Fund (1997)
 - CBC in the field of Public Services (1997)
 - Small Project Fund (1998/1999)



3.3.4. Interreg

In 1990, the European Commission launched the INTERREG initiative with two objectives: to promote economic development and to foster integration. The first objective relates to support of the border regions when overcoming their special development problems. The second is especially geared to the promotion of cross-border networks. Among other cross-border and bilateral national initiatives, Italy and Slovenia participated in the past decade in the Interreg - Phare CBC programmes which contributed to further intensification of cross-border co-operation in this region.

The **INTERREG I** (1990-1993) experience had been rather limited, first, with the administrations involved and implementing bodies, and second, entrepreneurs and private subjects were not very familiar with the programme. These difficulties certainly reduced the impact of cross-border co-operation.

INTERREG II Italy – Slovenia was adopted by the commission in 1997. The implementation period was from 1994 to 1999. The programme was applied in the provinces of Udine/Videm, Gorizia/Gorica, Trieste/Trst and Venice/Benetke and, envisaging the possibility to grant an exception to carry out projects in neighbouring areas, was extended to parts of the provinces of Pordenone and Rovigo. 31.350 million euros were allocated, of which 20.772 million went to the region of Friuli – Venezia Giulia and 10.474 million to the region of Veneto. The operational programme was organised in three thematic priority axes plus a “service” axe dedicated to technical implementation and assistance:

1. Upgrading the region, local resources and environmental protection
2. Institutional co-operation and improvement of communication
3. Co-operation among entrepreneurs

4. Implementation and technical assistance

The information collected from the final beneficiaries highlight some procedural difficulties mainly deriving from the rather unclear legislation and procedures of implementation/reporting, lack of information and bureaucratic intricacies, as well as the short time to plan initiatives. In broad terms, the problems noted by the ex-post evaluators can be summarised as follows:

- Complication and overlapping of administrative and financial procedures
- Legislative limitations
- Technical inadequacy of small local administrations
- Limited time for implementation
- Little co-ordination with CBC Phare
- Measures having little room for manoeuvre
- Little direct information to beneficiaries owing to the limited time
- Insufficient knowledge of the global programme by those responsible for the measures
- Unclear reporting mechanisms (lack of training of financial beneficiaries)
- Almost non-existent contacts with Slovenian beneficiaries and administrations and lack of a mechanism to control whether collaboration actually continues.

In the period 2000-06 the new **INTERREG III** Programme was adopted. Approximately 5.5% of the Structural Funds was devoted to the Community Initiatives, including Interreg, which is governed by the Regulations of the Structural Funds. The new Interreg III A (cross-border co-operation between adjacent border regions in neighbouring countries), is the largest of the Community Initiatives with an allocation of 4.875 million euros in the 2000-06 period financed by the ERDF. Cross-border co-operation will continue to receive, by far, the largest amount of EU funding under Interreg III.

Apart from seeking new ways and opportunities for growth in the area identified, the programme aims for, more than in the past, cross-border collaboration between the institutions involved in designing and carrying out interventions. This element becomes crucial if it is analysed in the prospect of EU enlargement. The strategy adopted, to eliminate still existing social-cultural barriers and to promote environmentally friendly development capable of creating and guaranteeing the conditions for sustainable medium-long term growth, basically develops along three lines. Barriers to cross-border co-operation:

- Slovenia has no division of its national territory other than into municipalities and the regions have only statistical status
- Interreg and Phare CBC programmes are not sufficiently aligned to facilitate the smooth implementation of joint programmes and projects
- No experience on strategy and programme development at the regional level
- Low degree of cross-border networks of enterprises

The land border develops entirely in the region of Friuli Venezia-Giulia, concerning the provinces of Udine/Videm, Gorizia/Gorica, Trieste/Trst and Pordenone, on the Italian side, and in the Goriška and Obalno-Kraška (Littoral-Karstic) statistical regions, on the Slovene side. The region of Veneto, in particular the province of Venice, shares a part of its border with the sea. The Italian-Slovenian border consists of both land and sea and includes, for the Italian part, NUTS III areas Udine/Videm, Gorizia/Gorica and Trieste/Trst belonging to the region Friuli - Venezia Giulia and Venice of the Veneto region, and, for the Slovene side, the NUTS III areas, hereinafter referred to as "Statistical Regions" Obalno-kraška and Goriška region and the Kranjska Gora municipality. On the whole, the 200 km long Italian-Slovene

land border includes 24 municipalities on the Italian side and 13 on the Slovenian side. The maritime border between Italy and Slovenia is in the Upper Adriatic, in the gulf, which includes Venice, Trieste and Koper.

The Interreg III - CBC Phare Italy-Slovenia Community Intervention Programme covers an area of 11,400 square kilometres and a total population, at the end of 1998, of 1.943 million. This area of the Italian-Slovenian border shows significant geographic variety. The characteristic Alpine environment in the northern part changes from a mountainous to a hilly landscape and then, after crossing the Carso and the Venetian Littoral region, finally becomes the Adriatic coastline of the South. This geographic variety is obviously matched by similar environmental variety. The major cities of the programme region are Trieste (217,000 inhabitants, 12.8% of the total population and 1.09% of the cross-border area), Gorizia (37,000 inhabitants, 7.1% of the total population and 4.1% of the cross-border area), Udine (95,000 inhabitants, 23.35% of the total population and 35.79% of the cross-border area), Venice (291,500 inhabitants, 41.9% of the total population and 21.6% of the cross-border area), Koper (24,000 inhabitants) and Nova Gorica (13,500 inhabitants).

The analysis of the division of land and population among the various areas at the end of 1998 highlights that 90% of the population is concentrated in the Italian cross-border area. The remaining 10% of the population lives in Slovenia, in the two border regions:

- Obalno-kraška (Littoral-Karstic) statistical region with 5.3% of the total population and 9.2% of the cross-border area
- Goriška statistical region with 6.2% of the total population and 20.4% of the cross-border area

The Italian-Slovenian cross-border region (PHARE CBC, INTERREG III A)

NUTS III Areas	Dimension (km²)	Population (31.12.98)	Density (inhab/km²)
Trieste	211	248,998	1,176
Gorizia	466	137,909	296
Udine	4,893	518,630	106
Venice	2,460	815,009	331
ITALY/INTERREG REGION	8,031	1,720,546	170
Obalno-kraška	1,044	102,565	98
Goriška	2,325	119,967	52
SLOVENIA/PHARE CBC REGION	3,369	222,532	66

Source: ISTAT, Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.

2,222,232 people live (resident population) in the provinces and regions composing the Interreg Area. The most populated province is Venice with 815,000 inhabitants (1998), while the least populated is Obalno-kraška (102,565 inhabitants).

The natural demographic balance is constantly negative. From 1995 to 1998 the natural balance of the cross-border population on the Italian side was negative in Trieste (2.75%), Udine (1.69%), Gorizia (1.26%) and Venice (0.49%), whereas the negative rates for the Slovene population were lower, 0.50% for Obalno-kraška and 0.48 for the Goriška region. In the Slovene region the immigration balance for the same period was positive for Obalno-kraška (+379 units) and negative for Goriška (-298 units). Also in the Obalno-kraška region,

as for the Italian regions, the negative natural rate was partly balanced by a positive migration rate, whereas in the Goriška region both migration and birth rates were negative.

The Interreg III A programme is organised into four different sectors along with the Small Projects Fund:

1. **Sustainable development of cross-border region** (safeguarding and upgrading environmental and land resources; creating basic conditions for an integrated regional development)
2. **Economic co-operation** (creating an environment favourable to the sustainable development of companies; co-operation between and among economic and/or institutional operators, upgrading local resources)
3. **Human resources, co-operation and systems harmonisation** (upgrading human resources in the cross-border area, developing and strengthening mutual knowledge and co-operation)
4. **Support for co-operation** (guaranteeing the effectiveness and efficiency of the interventions)
5. **Small Projects Fund**

At the first bilateral meeting, organised by Slovene authorities in Štanjel at the end of March 2000, three local working groups had been established. Working Group 1 covered the whole southern border area (Littoral area). On the Slovene side: the municipalities of Piran, Izola, Koper, Hrpelje-Kozina, Sežana, Divača and Komen, and the Agency for Regional Development of Littoral Promotional Enterprises Centre of Sežana. On the Italian side: the provinces of Trieste, Gorizia, Udine, and Venezia, and municipalities. Working Group 2 covered the whole central border area. On the Slovene side: the municipalities of Miren-Kostanjevica, Nova Gorica, Brda, Kanal, Šempeter-Vrtojba, Ajdovščina, Vipava, the Agency for Regional Development of northern Primorska, the Development Agency "ROD". On the Italian side: the province of Gorizia, the province of Venezia, and municipalities. Working Group 3 covered the northern border area. On the Slovenian side: the municipalities of Tolmin, Kobarid, Bovec, Brda, Kanal, the Development Centre of Posočje. On the Italian side: the Province of Udine, the Province of Venezia, and municipalities.

The Slovene initial priorities have been fashioned as follows:

Environment:

- Monitoring of marine environment
- Sewage systems / waste water treatment
- Waste management
- Water quality protection
- Natural (and cultural) heritage protection

Tourism – thematic itineraries:

- “wine routes”
- Co-operation of northern-Adriatic tourist cities
- Naval connections for passengers among Slovene Littoral cities, with connections to Italy and Croatia
- Recreational itineraries

Energy:

- Waste management
- Water and gas supply

SME and Informatisation:

- Technical co-operation among SME
- Craft centres / area (Sežana, Kozina and Piran)
- Revitalisation of historical city centres: Piran, Izola, Koper

Agriculture:

- Development of wine, fruit, olive and vegetable growing

With regards to the abovementioned information, there is no particular item for the Italian minority living in Slovenia and its cross-border co-operation with the central state or other activities. In addition, only little has been done on the research of economic development of the Italian minority in Slovenia (e.g. Sedmak et al., 2002). Social and political scientists have only made the first steps towards the investigation of influences that Interreg and Phare may have on the Italian minority community. Nevertheless, from an economic point of view, work completed by students does represent an exception (Bizjak, 2000; Dražumerič; 2004; Grum, 2000; Mesec, 2003; Mrak, 2000; Podobnik, 2003), however, their work is mainly descriptive.

3.4. Conclusion

On the basis of the reviewed literature and findings presented in this conclusion, I intend to expose at least two potential research questions and issues arising from my specific case study. The first issue concerns the real relevance of cross-border co-operation projects with regards to the selected target groups (i.e. the Italian minority). The second issue concerns the sustainability of those projects (i.e. to what extent will the project have a tangible and long-term impact on its target group).

Undoubtedly, the most favourable element of cross-border projects is the widespread willingness to co-operate at the cross-border level in different social and institutional respects. There is much interest in cross-border co-operation, in particular among local administration, associations and social partners, for the realisation of initiatives and works of common interest, joint management of resources, transport and communication networks, land planning and local development. There is also a precise and clear vision of the fields, which need intervention, and mutual agreement in the areas of common interest and intervention (such as thematic tourism, upgrading natural resources and common heritage).

However, one of the major problems behind these cross-border projects lies in the methodological cause. Social and institutional systems, which were very different and could not communicate for a long time, created difficulties, which has certainly hindered cross-border co-operation. Many statistics, for example, are not even comparable. In some cases there are no instruments to achieve effective co-operation or they exist but are incompatible. One example of these difficulties is the INTERREG and Phare CBC Programmes themselves. Though they were created to reflect and integrate with each other, sometimes, owing to the different timings of operations and methods of implementation and management, the schemes of intervention are not always integrated.

The second problem is more complex and deeper. Whereas the general principle inspiring the formulation of the programme is preventing national borders from hindering a balanced development and integration of the European continent, the isolation of border areas is increased by the existence of frontiers (mental or symbolic more than physical). These

frontiers hinder economic, social and cultural exchanges and prevent a unitary, efficient and effective ecosystem management. With regards to integration, belonging to different social and political realities with different historical backgrounds causes marginality, a characteristic of border areas.

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Annex I: Short version of the state of the art report intended for policy users

Regions, Minorities, and European Policies: A Policy Report on the Italian Minority in Slovenia

1. Presentation of the specific case

The relationship between the Italian and Slovene nations has a long history. Long before Slovenia became independent, the two nations lived side by side, not as two separated cultures, but partially in a mixed cultural environment. Nowadays ethnic minorities can be found on both sides of the border: the Slovene minority in Italy and Italian minority in Slovenia. In Slovenia, the borderland in the south stretches from the Karst region, the lime stone region of Slovenia, to the north where the borders of Italy and Slovenia join Austria's, to the basin of the Alps.

The Italian minority is concentrated in the southern part of this area in the municipalities of Piran - Pirano, Izola – Isola and Koper – Capodistria. The population of Italians in Slovenia is relatively small, in comparison to Slovenes on the Italian side of the border. Residents total 2,258; 0.11% of the total population of Slovenia. In the period 1961 to 1991, the number of Italians in Slovenia changed little. At the beginning of the 1990s elderly people made up a large proportion of the Italian population as the youth generation increased slowly. There was renewed growth afterwards because a part of the Italian ethnic group was statistically hidden in other categories, at the same time parts of other ethnic and regional populations declared Italian affiliation.

Before World War II the region where the Italian minority lives today was a part of Italy, as determined by the Treaty of Rapallo in 1920. During the era of fascism the Slovene population was repressed in many ways. They were not allowed to use their own language, not even in their own homes. While Italians were treated very well, the Slovenes were the subject of, sometimes even brutal, Italianisation. Such treatment spurred much resistance from the Slovene population. During World War II, when Slovenia was occupied by Germany, Hungary and Italy, the situation was even worse. After the Allies defeated Italy and Germany, Tito's partisans took advantage and liberated the whole territory, including Trieste, even risking war with the Allies. Later on they had to withdraw, and under the patronage of the Allies two zones were established, Zone A and Zone B, with the intention of dividing two nations. The division seemed 'too' factitious, and in addition Italy and Yugoslavia claimed both territories for themselves. In 1947, the decision was made that Zone A would belong to Italy, while Zone B would belong to Yugoslavia. The border between Italy and Yugoslavia was recognised as an international boundary with the London Memorandum in 1954. The outcome has resulted in the existence of two minorities, one on either side of the border.

Italians who represented the local majority in the towns and rural settlements of the Istrian part of Slovenia before World War II (in the greater part of the hinterland of Slovenian Istria there was practically none) moved away, which contributed largely to the present ethnically mixed structure of the population. The situation changed significantly. The Italian population became a minority in the cities as well, representing less than 5% of the total population. The proportion of Italians in the post-war period continuously declined, particularly because of steady immigration.

The relationship between Italy and Yugoslavia over the Slovene minority in Italy and Italian minority in Slovenia cooled with the Treaty of Osimo in 1975. The treaty presupposed extensive cross border economic and cultural co-operation of Italian and Slovenian minorities with their central societies. But unfortunately the resolutions of the Treaty of Osimo were never fully carried out, due to lack of political will of both parties. After Slovenia's separation from Yugoslavia in 1991, the border issue with Italy was reopened again. A few right-wing Italian politicians demanded compensation for the property of Italians who emigrated or were driven away after the Second World War by the Yugoslav communist regime. Italy ratified Osimo in 2001, but even now the Slovene minority has less linguistic and thus cultural rights than Slovenia offers to the Italian minority in Slovenia.

Problems in Slovenia's relations with Italy became particularly tense in the early 1990s concerning the area that straddled the border between the two countries along with property issues that had arisen as a result of World War II. The cross-border area is ethnically mixed on both sides and was the subject of dispute at the end of the war. It became particularly sensitive in the 1990s because of the acts of forcible expulsion, migration and expropriation of property that occurred in the 1940s. The Italian government raised the property issue as an association agreement during negotiations between the EU and Slovenia. However, there was the ever-present issue of minorities on either side of the border, but for Slovenes more troubling was the resurgence of Italian irredentism toward areas of the former Yugoslavia that had been a part of Italy between the world wars.

Slovenia is divided into 193 municipalities (*občine*), but Slovenes more commonly relate to eight historical and geographic regions (Upper Carniola (Gorenjska), Lower Carniola (Dolenjska), Styria (Štajerska), the Littoral (Primorska), Inner Carniola (Notranjska), White Carniola (Bela krajina), Carinthia (Koroška), the eastern region of Slovenia along the Hungarian border (Prekmurje)), the boundaries of which are somewhat fluid. These historical regions do not entirely coincide with Slovenia's statistical regions: Pomurska, Podravska, Koroška, Savinjska, Zasavska, Spodnjeposavska, Jugovzhodna Slovenija, Osrednjeslovenska, Gorenjska, Notranjskokraška, Goriška and Obalno-kraška.

Slovene Istria, where the Italian minority in Slovenia is populated, is part of the Littoral-karstic (Obalno-kraška) statistical region and part of the Primorska historical and geographical region. Ethnically mixed areas within the three municipalities include Koper, Izola and Piran. Within the structure of the ethnically mixed areas as defined above, the proportion of Italians in the total number of inhabitants is somewhat more pronounced only in Strunjan/Strugnano (approx. 20%), while elsewhere it rarely exceeds 10%, with the total percentage being under 5%. Most Italians – some 75% - live in urban centres where they represent only a small portion of the population.

The system of special minority rights did not come into existence only after the independence of Slovenia. Elements of minority protection could be found soon after World War II, and the whole system was more or less in place by the mid-1980s. With the creation of the new state, ethnic community protection had only to be "adapted" into the newly pluralistic political system. A starting point for the protection of ethnic communities in Slovenia is provided by the concepts of ethnically mixed territory and the system of collective rights which the state grants irrespective of numerical strength or proportion of members of ethnic minorities on the ethnically mixed territory (i.e. the absence of a numerical clause). Representatives of both ethnic communities actively participate in the process of building legal norms that apply to the various aspects of the

development of ethnic communities. In this process they have the status of subject, the destiny of which may not be decided upon without the explicit consent of legitimate representatives of ethnic communities. Representatives of the ethnic communities have the right to veto all decisions of the legislator (from the state to the local level) in matters that relate to the special rights of the ethnic communities. This being the highest guarantee against possible attempts by representatives, of the majority nation, to force upon the ethnic communities, directions of development rejected by these communities.

The system of special rights of minorities can be divided into:

- The system of basic special rights: the right to exist, the right to be recognised, the right to group adherence and the right to special protection. The Italian (and Hungarian) ethnic communities in Slovenia all have these special rights assured in the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia and other abovementioned documents.
- The system of so-called “compensation” rights (the right to special protection): use of minority languages (bilingual signs, use of minority languages in state administration, bilingual documents, bilingual operation in the judiciary, bilingual transactions in municipal administration, the use of ethnic community languages in the church), the right to education, the right to information, the right to own cultural development, the right to free contacts, the right to economic development, the right to the use of national symbols (flag, anthem).
- The system of rights arising from participation in decision-making of members of ethnic minorities: deputies of the ethnic communities in the National Assembly, ethnic community representatives in municipal councils, self-governing ethnic communities.

2. Overview of the possible impact of EU structural funds on the region

The territory, in which the independent state of Slovenia was created, in the early 1990s, was never ethnically homogenous. The number of ethnic minorities, their size and their real economic and political power has historically changed in accordance with changing political boundaries. The most recent change of state borders has left Slovenia a numerous collection of members of non-Slovene ethnic groups. These can be classified into two groups: the “historical” minorities and the newly formed ethnic communities (comprising mostly of members of nations of the former Yugoslavia), which emerged as a result of contemporary processes of economic immigration.

The number of »historical« ethnic minority members (Hungarian and Italian) is 8,501 (0.43%) persons (or 11,747 (0.6%) persons, if taking into account the number of members of the Romany community according to 2002 census). The state assigns the status of “ethnic community” to this category of citizens and guarantees full legal protection to their collective and individual rights. A group of 272,338 persons (13.85% of Slovenia’s population) composed of members of different nationalities is added to these, to make up the total of the non-Slovene population of the Republic of Slovenia as established by the 2002 census. To this second group the constitution (Article 61) also guarantees expression of their ethnic affiliation. The covenant to protect both “historical” ethnic communities, as well as members of other nations living in Slovenia, may be found in the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia, in all documents, which deal with the attainment of Slovene independence, in all basic documents at the universal (in the United Nations) and regional level (in the Council of Europe) which deal with issues of human rights and freedoms, and by bilateral agreements with Italy and Hungary.

The constitution is designed in the spirit of positive relations with the ethnic communities. In it the greatest attention is paid to the Italian and Hungarian ethnic communities, a special interest is expressed also towards the Romany community and towards members of nations and nationalities from the former common state, however, most of them had to become citizens of the Republic of Slovenia first. In contrast with the constitution of 1974 (from the former Yugoslavia), the constitution of 1991 introduces an important conceptual novelty. From the traditional ethnic communities (Italian and Hungarian) it removes their status of constitutive ethnic elements (as provided in the constitution of 1974) and grants them the status of “historical” ethnic minorities. It is possible to claim that the State of Slovenia well respects its minority’s legislation.

However, the development and / or transformation of sub national / regional institutions is a never-ending story in Slovene politics. Soon after 1991, when Slovenia gained its political and economic independence from Yugoslavia, a debate started regarding the number of regions Slovenia should have. Even up to now there has not been any useful decisions made on that particular issue, although every politician knows that time, slowly but inevitably, is running out. Slovenia should be divided into, at least, two or three regions, unless there will be no structural funds available for their future development. The Italian minority cannot expect it will have its own region, but it will remain a part of a larger (Littoral-Karstic) region. Whether there will be any special treatment for the Italian minority in terms of its own institutions in future regional development, is difficult to tell. All in all, the Ministry of Regional Development and Structural Instruments certainly by designation of a pre-existing NARD satellite office in Štanjel, which main role is cross border co-operation between Slovenia and Italy, made the first step towards regional co-operation.

As the constitutional protection of the Italian minority is strong, the minority / majority relationship can be depicted as one of the finest ethnical relationships not only in Slovenia, but in Europe as well. Only rarely is there any clamor raised by the Italian minority against violations of their rights. The Italian minority has its own representative in the Slovene parliament, Robert Botteri, who, during the last electoral campaign, made some complaints over the execution of rights of the Italian minority, but his endeavour was understood, not only among the population of the majority, but among the Italian population too, as more or less political propaganda. Another aspect is that the Italian minority does not live separate from the rest of the Slovene population in, culturally speaking, a ghetto. The area is in fact ethnically mixed, which as a consequence brings higher integration of both ethnical sides into each other’s culture (intermarriages etc.). Another characteristic that is very interesting for understanding cross border co-operation between Slovenia and Italy are blood relations, which have helped establish cross border co-operation. Which brings us to another aspect of the Italian minority in Slovenia, its ethnic / national identity.

The Italian population is given, as a constitutional right, full linguistic parity. In the regions populated with Italians there are two official languages: Italian and Slovene. But although Italians may speak in Italian, they are in a way, but not literally, forced to speak Slovene as well. This is possible since the Italian minority is so interwoven into the Slovene majority. All the residents, no matter what their nationality may be, of the municipalities where the Italian minority lives, are educated bilingually with primary and secondary levels of education.

Since 1955 a special agreement between Italy and Yugoslavia has allowed Slovenes living in the municipalities near the border, to cross the border as daily economic migrants

without the need of a special work permit. Some five to seven thousand Slovenes cross the Italian – Slovene border in order to work in Italy and earn higher wages. Many of these economic migrants are members of the Italian minority.

On the basis of everything that was said until now, we can expect that the main benefit from the European Regional Development Policy for the Italian minority would be economic, as well as social and cultural. Since the Italian minority in Slovenia is well integrated in Slovenia's majority population, it can be expected that the benefits should go to the rest of Slovene society as well. This is particularly the reason why Slovenia has to be deeply interested in EU structural funds.

Slovenia is a member state of the Alps-Adriatic Organization, also called the Alps-Adriatic Working Community, an association of provinces, regions, and republics of the Eastern Alps region of Europe. The state of Slovenia is also part of the Central European Initiative, which aim is to improve relations and address common regional matters. A particular concern is the issue of minorities in the region.

Slovenia co-operates with Austria and Italy in the Phare Cross-Border Programme. The Phare Programme started covering the Slovene-Italian border in 1994 and in 1995 was expanded to cover the Austrian and Hungarian borders. During this period more than 180 projects were approved at a total cost of 3.7 million euros. Also the Trilateral Co-operation Programme, involving Slovenia, Austria and Italy, had been implemented. Phare CBC Programme intends to foster economic development (establishing information centres, business and technology parks, setting up databases to aid sustainable farming or a network of tourist trails), infrastructure and transport (motorway construction, signposting, (re)construction of border crossings, communal and communications facilities), human resources and cultural co-operation (seminars, courses, workshops, cultural exchanges, revitalisation of cultural monuments), environment protection (research construction of waste water treatment, plants conservation of protected areas), technical assistance (CBC programme management, assistance in the project circle, increasing awareness and networking), small projects fund (cultural, social and economic activities (exhibitions, fairs, presentations, sporting events), development of NGOs, research projects, encouragement of direct contacts ("people to people" exchanges), particularly in the fields of business, sports, culture and social activities in different border areas). Guidelines for the establishment of a Small Projects Fund (transparency and decentralisation) were prepared by the European Commission. Slovenia is at the forefront of countries implementing small-scale projects under the decentralised system.

It seems that regarding the issue of the Italian minority in Slovenia, the latter can be best integrated in the sector of the Small Projects Fund with its "people to people" exchanges and cultural, social and economic activities. These programmes on cross-border co-operation are closely connected with the INTERREG II Programme initiatives, which operate across the external and internal border regions in the European Union. In charge of the Phare CBC Programme in Slovenia is the National Agency for Regional Development, which functions within the framework of the Ministry of the Economy.

The Phare CBC Programme between Slovenia and Italy (the Friuli-Venezia Giulia and Veneto regions) was initiated in 1994. In 1995, a Phare Regional Office was set up in Štanjel and has undoubtedly strengthened the co-operation between the two border regions in Slovenia and Italy, as evidenced by numerous meetings organised at the level of the border

municipalities and the number of project proposals with a "real" cross-border impact (such as the establishment of the International Karst park).

Despite different procedures and areas of interest, implementation of the projects of the Phare CBC and INTERREG programmes, greater emphasis has been laid on joint planning of the Phare CBC / INTERREG III programmes in the period 2000-2006. The Interreg III A programme is organised in four different sectors plus the Small Projects Fund: sustainable development of cross-border regions, economic co-operation, human resources, co-operation and systems harmonisation, and support to co-operation. However, among the initial priorities for Slovenia there is no particular item for the Italian minority living in Slovenia and its cross-border co-operation with the central state or other activities. This, of course, does not inevitably mean that co-operation of representatives of the Italian minority, living in Slovenia, in EU cross-border and regional integrative processes are automatically excluded.

3. Conclusion

According to recent events in the Republic of Italy (the proclamation and celebration of Memorial Day, release of the controversial and extremely propagandistic film "Srce v breznu" (about the post-war executions by Tito's army, constant attacks on the Slovene minority in Trieste, etc.) there is the ever-present issue of minorities on either side of the border. However, for Slovenes, more troubling is the resurgence of Italian irredentism toward areas of the former Yugoslavia that had been a part of Italy between the world wars (property rights, the status of Slovene collection of works of art, taken from autochthonous Slovene places at the beginning of World War II by Italy, etc.).

In my opinion, the political atmosphere in the Italian-Slovene relationship is far tenser, as it was supposed to be before Slovenia became a full member state of the European Union. The broader political situation undoubtedly also affects people's everyday habits and attitudes. EU cross-border cooperation initiatives and programmes contribute to economic, social, and cultural development of particular regions, nevertheless it is hard to say that they can be sufficient measures to overcome historical divisions and discrepancy between two different symbolical geographies, existing on the most eastern Italian and most western Slovene borders.

Therefore, EU projects should be more oriented towards quests for reciprocal cohabitation in a more comprehensive sense: critical discussions on historical disputes between the two nations, exposing different ethnic/national/regional traditions with immediate and explicit emphasis on divergent, often conflicting interrelationships between the Italian and Slovene populations.

NATIONALLY MIXED AREA IN THE COMMUNES OF IZOLA, KOPER AND PIRAN AFTER THE YEAR 1991

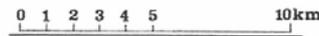
Vsebina / Research: dr. MIRAN KOMAC
 Karta / Design and production: Z. DROLE
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Legenda / Key:

- DRŽAVNA MEJA
INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY
- OBČINSKE MEJE
COMMUNAL BOUNDARY
- MEJA OBČINE KOPER PRED LETOM 1995
BOUNDARY OF THE COMMUNE OF KOPER BEFORE THE YEAR 1995
- MEDNARODNI CESTNI MEJNI PREHOD
INTERNATIONAL ROAD BORDER CROSSING
- OBMEJNI CESTNI PREHOD
LOCAL ROAD BORDER CROSSING
- ŽELEZNISKI MEJNI PREHOD
RAILWAY BORDER CROSSING
- POMORSKI MEJNI PREHOD
MARITIME BORDER CROSSING
- NARODNOSTNO MEŠANO OBMOČJE
NATIONALLY MIXED AREA

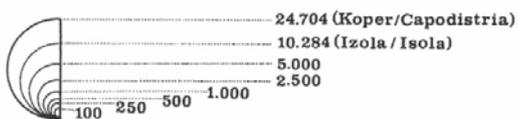
Merilo / Scale:



Viri / Sources :

- ZAKON O LOKALNI SAMOUPRAVI. URADNI LIST REPUBLIKE SLOVENIJE, ŠT. 72/93 IN ŠT. 57/94.
- ZAKON O USTANOVITVI OBČIN IN DOLOČITVI NJIHOVIH OBMOČIJ. URADNI LIST REPUBLIKE SLOVENIJE, ŠT. 60/94 IN 69/94.
- STATUT OBČINE IZOLA (STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI ISOLA).
- STATUT OBČINE KOPER (STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI CAPODISTRIA).
- STATUT OBČINE PIRAN (STATUTO DEL COMUNE DI PIRANO).
- POPIS PREBIVALSTVA 1991: PREBIVALSTVO PO NARODNOSTNI PRIPADNOSTI. LJUBLJANA, 1992.

ŠTEVILO PREBIVALCEV V NASELJIH NA NARODNOSTNO MEŠANEM OBMOČJU LETA 1991 NUMBER OF INHABITANTS IN THE SETTLEMENTS IN THE NATIONALLY MIXED AREA IN THE YEAR 1991



- DELEŽ ITALJANOV
PERCENTAGE OF ITALIANS
- DELEŽ OSTALEGA PREBIVALSTVA
PERCENTAGE OF OTHER POPULATION
- ŠTEVILO ITALJANOV V NASELJIH IZVEN NARODNOSTNO MEŠANEGA OBMOČJA
NUMBER OF ITALIANS IN THE SETTLEMENTS OUTSIDE OF THE NATIONALLY MIXED AREA



Source: Miran Komac (1999): Protection of ethnic communities in the Republic of Slovenia: vademecum. Ljubljana: Institute for Ethnic Studies.

Annex II: Mapping of Research Competences Reports

1. Summary

The institutions listed below, above all, show several major characteristics of the phenomena of the Italian minority living along the Slovene-Italian border. First, regarding the smallness of the Italian minority and the fact that it is well integrated into Slovene society. For Slovenes the Italian minority has not represented any danger in terms of ethnicity since World War II. On the other hand, the Italian minority is sufficiently protected by the constitution and has its own representative in parliament. For that very reason the Italian minority has not had any part of any major problems in the past.

Second, the work of Slovene research institutions, which cover the problems of ethnic and national minorities in Slovenia, were always, in the first place, oriented towards the Slovene nation and thus with Slovene minorities that live outside of Slovenia. Institut za etnična vprašanja – The Institute for Ethnic Studies was primarily established, as a successor of the Institute for Ethnic Minorities, for the investigation of Slovenes who stayed out of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia after World War I. The researchers employed at the institute found the Italian minority interesting to research, no earlier than in the 1970s.

Third, the communist regime before 1991 was not always inclined to support the research of the Italian or Hungarian minorities, despite the fact that both minorities were well protected constitutionally. It was considered of no need, since more effort was put into the enquiry of Slovene minorities that lived in Italy and whose rights were constantly, sometimes even brutally, violated in several ways.

Fourth, at that time research institutions were not allowed to operate independently, although in reality always some level of (political) autonomy was achieved. But to establish a new institution, which prime goal would be the investigation of minority culture and politics connected to it as well, was practically impossible. Only the Institute for Ethnic Studies remained during the whole period of the cold war, all other institutions, especially so-called independent research institutions, were established later. In the beginning of the 1990s some new institutions were established but their existence was later endangered with a new financing policy. Even some older institutions, like the Institute for Ethnic Studies, had serious financial problems, and as a result the researchers hardly managed to preserve their professional standards, i.e. quality and quantity of their work.

Five Slovene research organisations, whose researcher dedicated most or at the least some time on researching social, cultural or economic dimension of minorities living in Slovenia, were selected. The most important was the Institute for Ethnic Studies, not only because the researchers at the institute were the most eligible to cover the area of ethnic minorities in Slovenia, but also because of tradition. The Peace Institute was established in the 1980s and since then has represented an independent critical voice, many times in many ways different from mainstream society. The Science and Research Centre of Koper was selected due to its specialisation. The main purpose of the researcher at the Science and Research Centre of Koper is to cover all aspects of the Karst region with the border of Italy and Slovenia to the border of Slovenia and Croatia, and beyond. It was established only recently, nevertheless the research results have not yet been shown. The fourth and the fifth research institutions are part of the University of Ljubljana. Both research organisations are not

specialised for ethnic studies, which is evident especially in the case of the Department of Sociology, however, they were put on the list since some of the members are, to some degree, involved in researching ethnic minorities.

2. List of leading institutions and scholars

Research Institution 1

Mirovni inštitut / Peace Institute

Address: Metelkova ul. 6
Ljubljana, SI – 1000
Phone: ++386 (0) 1 234 77 20
Fax: ++386 (0) 1 234 77 22
E-mail: info@mirovni-institut.si
Home page: <http://www.mirovni-institut.si/>

Director:
Dr. Lev Kreft
(lev.kreft@guest.arnes.si)

Leading experts:
Mojca Sušnik
(mojca.susnik@mirovni-institut.si)

Description: Initially the Peace Institute focused on peace studies and the issues of violence, war and security. Among the projects dating from this period are "The Sociology of the Army" (1991-1993) and two action research studies - "Yugoslavia-War" (1991-1992) and "The Demilitarization of the Island of Vis" (1991-1992). The activities included a number of conferences and seminars, and a newspaper in English called "The Intruder" (1991-1992) that was published by the Movement for the Culture of Peace and Non-Violence. In 1994 and 1995 our field of interest was extended to embrace a wider range of contemporary social and political studies. Among the topics that were added to our agenda were racism and political conflicts, gender studies, cultural studies, and political and social practice. Our endeavours to integrate academic work with concrete social and political engagement led to a number of action research studies and projects. In addition to the topics mentioned above, we also began to concentrate on political extremism, democratisation and equal opportunity politics in Central and Eastern Europe, independent women's and feminist movements in Slovenia, as well as issues of sexual abuse, refugees, civil service in place of military service, cultural industry and the like. Towards the end of 2000 three additional programmes formerly conducted by the Open Society Institute - Slovenia were transferred to the Peace Institute: Media, Civil Society and East Co-operation programmes. With the inclusion of these programmes our area of work was further extended to the fields of human rights, media studies and topics related to the EU and Stability Pact. We continue to devote close attention to marginalized social and political issues that are usually ignored by mainstream institutions.

Research Institution 2

Inštitut za narodnostna vprašanja (INV) / Institute for Ethnic Studies (INS)

Address: Erjavčeva 26
Ljubljana, SI – 1000
Phone: ++386 (0) 1 200 18 70
Fax: ++386 (0) 1 251 09 64
E-mail: INV@inv.si
Home page: <http://www.inv.si/>

Director:
Dr. Mitja Žagar
(mitja.zagar@guest.arnes.si)

Leading experts:
Dr. Boris Jesih
(boris.jesih@guest.arnes.si)
Dr. Miran Komac
(miran.komac@guest.arnes.si)

Description: The Institute for Ethnic Studies is a public research institution in the field of ethnic studies, which investigates, in an interdisciplinary way, the following issues: Slovene ethnic question, the status of Slovene ethnic communities in Italy, Austria and Hungary, the status of Slovenes in the successor states of the former Yugoslavia, the status of Slovene emigrants of ethnic communities (national minorities and other ethnic groups) in Slovenia, the status of migrants in Slovenia, theory and methodology of the research of ethnic topics, and the forms of ethnic issue (ethnicity, nationalism) in Europe and worldwide

The IES is the successor of the Minority Institute, which in the years 1925-1941 functioned in Ljubljana as one of the first research institutions of its kind in the world, mostly dealing with the status of Slovenes in neighbouring countries, and of German and Hungarian minorities in Slovenia. When the Slovene territory was occupied, the Institute was “liquidated lest its materials should fall into the hands of occupiers”. Yet as early as January 1944, in the liberated territory, the Scientific Institute was founded within the Executive Committee of the Liberation Front. This institute, as the only institution of its kind in occupied Europe, continued the work of the Minority Institute. By 1948 its department for border issues was transformed into the Institute for Ethnic Studies. From 1948 to 1956, the Institute functioned as an entity of the University in Ljubljana, while from then on it has been an independent scientific institution. In 1992 the IES became one of the first public research institutions in Slovenia.

Research Institution 3

Znanstveno raziskovalno središče – Koper / Science and Research Centre of Koper

Address: Garibaldijeva 1
Koper, SI – 6000

Phone: ++386 (0) 5 663 77 00
Fax: ++386 (0) 5 663 77 10
E-mail: annales@zrs.upr.si
Home page: <http://zrs.upr.si/indexs.htm>

Director:

Dr. Darko Darovec
(darko.darovec@zrs-kp.si)

Leading experts:

Dr. Mateja Sedmak
(mateja.sedmak@zrs-kp.si)

Dr. Simona Zavratnik Zimic
(simona.zimic@zrs-kp.si)

Dr. Milan Bufon
(milan.bufon@zrs-kp.si)

Description: It can be seen from the founding decree of the ZRS that its spheres of activity are Mediterranean studies with an emphasis on the research of Slovenian Istria with an interdisciplinary approach to humanistic, social and natural sciences. More precisely; basic and applied research, expert advising and consulting, education, organising meetings of scientists and experts, publicising and publishing, documentation and librarianship. Basic research activities of SCR Koper are carried out within the framework of an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary research programme entitled "Interdisciplinary Aspects of Mediterranean Slovenia and European Areas in Contact". Institute for Mediterranean Humanities and Social Studies deals with historical-anthropological studies and linguistic, social and urban planning studies. Historical-anthropological studies are directed to studying man and society, as well as different quantity problems and features of south-west Slovenia as a cultural area "in contact" in the past and present. Regional history with a special emphasis on the history of the Slovenians in Istria and across the border in Croatia and Italy, offers researchers a challenge that must be accepted. Linguistic, social and area studies – within this framework, researchers are interested in regional socio-economic aspects and characteristics which are connected to regional particularities as well as to the international and wider geopolitical position of Slovene Istria.

Research Institution 4

Oddelek za sociologijo – Filozofska fakulteta (Univerza v Ljubljani) / Department of Sociology – Faculty of Arts (The University of Ljubljana)

Address: Aškerčeva 1
Ljubljana, SI – 1000
Phone: ++386 (0) 1 241 10 10
Fax: ++386 (0) 1 426 25 33
E-mail: dekanat@ff.uni-lj.si
Home page: [http:// www.ff.uni-lj.si:81/Glavna_stran.htm#](http://www.ff.uni-lj.si:81/Glavna_stran.htm#)

Head:

Dr. Milica Antič Gaber
(milica.antic-gaber@guest.arnes.si)

Leading experts:

Dr. Rudi Rizman
(rudi.rizman@ff.uni-lj.si)

Description: The Department of Sociology does not represent an important institution in the field of academic investigation of minorities. It was selected only for the sake of Prof. Rudi Rizman, who is relevant as an expert on minorities.

Research Institution 5

Inštitut za družbene vede – Fakulteta za družbene vede, Univerza v Ljubljani / Institute of Social Sciences – Faculty of Social Sciences (The University of Ljubljana)

Address: Kardeljeva pl. 5
Ljubljana, SI-1000
Phone: ++386 (0) 1 580 51 10
Fax: ++386 (0) 1 580 51 01
E-mail: fdv.faculty@fdv.uni-lj.si
Home page: <http://www.fdv.uni-lj.si>

Head:

Dr. Ivan Svetlik
(ivan.svetlik@fdv.uni-lj.si)

Leading experts:

Dr. Petra Roter
(petra.rotter@fdv.uni-lj.si)

Description: There are 15 research centres within the framework of the institute, which initiate and conduct basic applied and developmental research projects in the social sciences. These centres execute about 80 research projects annually, funded partly by the state and partly by contracts with other organisations or institutions. The International Relations Research Centre (IRRC) has been an integral part of the Institute of Social Sciences since 1981. It engages in research, publication, consultation, and other professional activities in the field of international relations, such as international economic relations, foreign policy, international law, international organisations, international security, and international politics. Current research topics include: European integration processes - the EU and Slovenia; current transformation processes in Central and Eastern Europe; foreign direct investments (FDI) and transformation of former socialist economies; globalisation and regionalisation processes in the world economy; internationalisation of Slovene companies; R&D policies, technology development, national innovation systems; small countries in the changing world system; the role of services in development and international trade; contemporary regionalism; the potential of international parliamentary organs in the international community, with special emphasis on Europe; implication of voting procedures on the

position of states in international organisations: a study of selected cases; codification of modern law of diplomacy; area studies; small states' foreign policy; science (theory and methodology) of international relations; small state theory; small and medium-sized enterprises; international political economy; international studies and related matters.