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The role of the EU in promoting tourism in border areas:

Lapland as a case study

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ABSTACT

In the new European context tourism has become an important contributor to economic growth and a tough strength for maintaining environmental and cultural resources. The purpose of this study is to examine the role of the **European Union** in promoting tourism in the border areas through cross-border cooperation measures. The following research questions were addressed in order to reach the purpose; what is the role of the **EU** in promoting **cross-border cooperation** as a tool for tourism development in border areas? What might be the contribution of cross-border cooperation for the creation of a Lapland tourist district?

Alongside the literature and official documents research, data analysis and a qualitative interview has been used to develop this study.

The first part of this thesis has showed the concept of sustainable tourism, the changing of the functions of the borders, the importance of tourism in border areas and the measure taken by the **EU** to develop a sustainable tourism within the union.

The second part has illustrated the today situation of **cross-border cooperation** in **Lapland** area, which has been delimitated by the author as a potential tourist district made up by different destinations belonging to three different countries (**Finland**, **Sweden** and **Norway**). This part has also illustrated the importance of **Sami** participation in the decision making process and the relevance of tourist planning in such areas.

To conclude, this work has also analyzed the today situation in the **Regio Insubrica** (**Italy** and **Switzerland**) in order to show how the **EU** measures seen in the previous parts are now able to give a common direction to the European cooperation in border areas. The conclusion has illustrated as well the role of the **EU** in promoting tourism, their weakness and how do they influence the case study.

Finally this study has indicated that **cross-border cooperation** within the **EU** is important to enhance a **sustainable tourism development** in border areas, reducing disparities between **EU** regions and being an important tool to reach the principles established in the European cohesion policy.

INTRODUCTION

Europe is going through an important change, new ideas of regionalism have led to a new definition of national boundaries, and the concept of border area has emerged during this period. **Sustainability**, **local development** and **cooperation** have become the keywords of this new scenario, and one of the tools to reach these overall objectives is **Tourism**.

In the last two decades this emerging sector has become a global phenomenon, offering several opportunities for local economic development. However, to achieve this target a tourist area needs to start a process of collaboration among other destinations and different stakeholders (both public and private) and also try to involve the local community in this new context. Planning in border areas is considered as a particular instance, regarded by the academic literature as unique situations in which cooperation can be a crucial instrument for the development of tourism (Timothy, 2006). In fact, these territories, which are far away from the core of central power but under the administrative control of their nations, have always received different treatment. (Whyte, 1999).

In the last decade the **EU** has made many efforts to develop the tourist sector within the community and its border areas. On one hand, the Lisbon **Treaty** (2007) has created a new legal basis entirely devoted to tourism, which has aimed to reinforce the EU as the foremost destination of the world, and on the other hand, the institution of the **European Regional Development Fund** and the establishment of financial measures such as **INTERREG** program and **ENPI** have enhanced tourism as development tool in border regions.

The objectives of this research are to establish:

✓ The role of the EU in promoting cross-border cooperation as a tool for tourism development in border areas

✓ The contribution of cross-border cooperation for the creation of a Lapland tourist district

The area taken into consideration as a case study is the geographic region of **Lapland**, as this is an area of different tourist destinations belonging to three different countries: **Finland**, **Sweden** and **Norway**

PART I – CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

The first part of this work is focused on the analysis of institutional documents and academic literature, to understand the role of the EU in the tourist development within the union and to show how its cooperation tools have evolved over the years.

PART I – CONCEPTUAL ISSUES	ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE
UE Tourism and local development: the role of EU	
EU and the concept of sustainable tourism as a development tool	Literature research / institutional documents
EU tourism policy	Literature research / institutional documents
Financial program for local development	Literature research / institutional documents
Tourism in borderland and cross-border cooperation	
Borders and borderlands in EU	Literature research
Cross border cooperation as a tourist development tool	Literature research
EU measures for cross-border cooperation	Literature research / institutional documents
Fragmentation in EU tourist legal framework	Literature research / institutional documents

PART II – CASE STUDY

The second part of the research concerns the fieldwork. After a brief description of the area and the role of tourism in the development process, the necessary conditions for cooperation among the three states and the creation of a **Lapland** tourism system will be analysed and transboundaries institution activities and **EU** cooperation programme ongoing in the area will be compared. The conclusive part

of this section will focus on the **Sami** condition and their participation level in the tourist decisions. The research work will be supported by a qualitative interview to the head of the **Sami educational institute** of Inari in Finland.

PART II – CASE STUDY	ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE
Lapland	
Historical, geographical, socio-economic and political aspects	Literature research
Lapland as a tourist destination	Literature research
Common features: a Lapland tourist district	Literature research / institutional documents
Cross-border cooperation as an instrument of development in Lapland	
Cross border-cooperation in Lapland	Literature research / institutional documents
Tourist governance and public participation	Literature research / institutional documents
Sami and tourism	Qualitative interviews

PART III – CONCLUSION

The last part of this work will show the situation today in the **Regio Insubrica** and how the **EU** programmes are supporting the cross-border cooperation between **Switzerland** and **Italy**, in order to show how the **EU** measures seen in the previous parts are now able to give a common direction to European cooperation in border areas. In the conclusion pages of this thesis the issues emerged in the research will be linked together; with the advantages and disadvantages of cross-border cooperation for **sustainable tourism development** within the union, how the **EU** weaknesses can influence the area of **Lapland** and what the potentials for the future are.

PART III – CONCLUSION	ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE
Application in the Lombardia Region	
Birth and history of the Regio Insubrica	Literature research
Cross-border cooperation in Regio Insubrica	Literature research / institutional documents
Future prospects in the Regio Insubrica	Epilogue / Literature research
Conclusion	

PART I : CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

CHAPTER 1
TOURISM AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT: THE ROLE OF EU

1.1 EU and the concept of sustainable tourism as a development tool

1.1.1 Definition of sustainable tourism

In the last decades tourism has become one of the most considerable service industries, encouraging the creation of new jobs and economic opportunities. In 2006 the **UNWTO** recorded 842 million international tourist arrivals, 1.6 billion are foreseen by 2020, and the number of domestic arrivals is even higher.

On top of that tourism makes extremely important contributions to economic growth in peripheral regions and has a key role in conserving environmental and cultural resources.

The idea of sustainable development grew from numerous environmental movements in earlier decades and was defined in 1987 by the **World Commission on Environment and Development** as a "*development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*" (Brundtland Commission 1987).

This has contributed to understanding that sustainable development encompasses a number of areas and highlights sustainability as the idea of environmental, economic and social equity, all within the limits of the world's natural resources.

However, the evidence of moving towards sustainability appeared quite poor but, in the last decades the United Nations has taken big steps toward sustainable development. The main one was **Agenda 21**, a comprehensive plan of action to be taken globally, nationally and locally by organizations of the United Nations System, Governments and Major Groups in every area where human impacts on the environment are present. The full text was revealed at the **United Nations Conference on Environment and Development** (Earth Summit), held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, where 178 governments voted to adopt the program.

Following in 1997 the General Assembly of the **UN** held a special session to appraise five years of progress on the implementation of **Agenda 21**; during the plenary a few negative key trends were also discussed, such as increasing globalization, widening inequalities in income and the continued deterioration of the global environment.

The **Johannesburg Plan of Implementation**, presented at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (Earth Summit 2002) has focused the United Nations commitment toward a full implementation of **Agenda 21**, alongside the achievement of the **Millennium Development Goals** and other international agreements.

Ultimately the Commission on Sustainable Development was established, which acts as the secretariat to the Commission and works within the context of Agenda 21.

The connection between tourism and sustainable development has quickly increased over the last few years. Today tourism is seen as an important cause in the environmental, economic and social change, and while continued growth in tourism can provide new economic opportunities, there is increasingly strong evidence that tourism is a significant contributor to undesirable and perhaps irreversible phenomena.

It is not yet clear how much tourism contributes to undesirable change, however it is clear that "*tourism-specific adaptation and mitigation measures are required to sustain both the tourism industry and the resources on which it depends"* (S. Gössling 2010:122).

For the **UNWTO** sustainable tourism can be defined as: "*tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems*"..."*a process which meets the needs of present tourists and host communities whilst protecting and enhancing needs in the future*". (UNWTO Heath Summit 2002).

In the past sustainable tourism development was considered strictly linked with only a few special segments of the tourism market (such as green travel and responsible tourism), but today it has to be considered as a special framework for driving all

kinds of tourism in every destination, even including mass tourism, toward more sustainable templates.

Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic and socio-cultural spheres of tourism development, and the long-term sustainability is guaranteed from the balance among these three dimensions. The territorial resources as natural attractions and cultural heritage need to be preserved in order to maintain the sustainability development process.

According to all the stakeholders, they have to find the best strategies to maintain the development of tourism in the long-term period, undertaking actions aimed to direct the supply and demand toward conservation and valorization of local resources. *"Therefore the success of tourism development in the long-term is founded on the ability of tourism sector to mange economic, social and environmental aspects holistically, ensuring the respect of three dimension of sustainability"* (Castellani, Sala 2008:16).

Thence to reach the target of tourism, sustainability is necessary to create economic benefits for all the actors and, at the same time, exploit and preserve the local attractions (social, cultural and environmental heritage). The activities had to be developed respecting the carrying capacity of the area and producing an increase in strategic values related to social and economic prospective.

1.1.2 Tourism and sustainability in the EU

In the **European Union** the concept of sustainability and tourism has become important in the last decade through a few steps: the first one is the **Agenda 2000**, with which for the first time the EU established a long-term integrated plan, defining the aims of the community toward an evolving world (A. Dattilo 2008). Therefore, the EU faced an important change called globalization, which involved every aspect of social life and required a radical economic transformation. This means Europe needs to face the irreversible changes in a way that respects its ideals and concepts of society.

The rapid pace of these changes has also led to taking immediate action to obtain full advantage of the existing opportunities, in order to drastically reduce the socio-economic disparities among European regions, improving social services and quality of life. To face these challenges the **Lisbon Strategy** was introduced in 2000 during the **European council in Lisbon**, which aimed to turn Europe by 2010 into "*the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion*". Achieving this goal required an ***overall strategy*** aimed at: preparing the transition to a knowledge-based economy and society with better policies for the information society and research and development sectors, stepping up the process of structural reform for competitiveness and innovation, renewing the European social model, investing in people, contrasting social exclusion, sustaining the healthy economic outlook and promoting growth prospects by applying an appropriate macro-economic policy mix. (Lisbon European Council, 2000).

The **Lisbon Strategy** foresees:

- ✓ The division into ten areas with different needs and different sectors from which the achievement of the overall objective depends.

- ✓ A series of structural reforms and milestones monitored over the years.

- ✓ A series of sector policies, expressed in terms of quantity and quality, their achievement is necessary to reach the overall objective.

The objective to turn the European economy into the "*most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy*" (IBIDEM) requires the opening of all sectors to the market competition, including tourism, in order to encourage innovations and investments. Therefore, the training systems have to be able to meet the needs of society and the small businesses, which are considered the backbone of the EU economy and the primary source of jobs.

Another important step was made at the **Göteborg Summit** in 2001, where was deliberate the **strategy for sustainable development of the EU**, which has added

a third dimension to the **Lisbon strategy** - environmental sustainability. The **Göteborg strategy** also introduced a new methodology to make policies, which provides a coordinated review of the economic, social and environmental effects of all the EU's policies. For this purpose it was decided to make a monitoring analysis concerning all the potential impacts of the EU's action concerning economic, social and environmental issues. Sustainable development has become the principle with which to measure the policy proposals.

The birth of the tourism infrastructure gives a significant contribute to local development and to the maintenance of jobs in areas of economic decline, therefore the need to improve the attractiveness of a tourist destination encourages many public institutions and stakeholders to turn towards more sustainable plans and policies.

Sustainable tourism has an important role in the preservation and enhancement of cultural and natural heritage (European sustainable development strategy 2005-2010), and its role in the long-term development of a tourist area seems to be crucial. Economic, social and environmental sustainability are "*key factors for the competitiveness of destinations and the welfare of their populations*". (Castellani, Sala 2008:16).

Table 1.1 EU intentions for sustainable tourism within the community

SUTAINIBILITY SPHERES	WEAKNESS AND STRENGTHS FOR TOURISM	EU INTENTIONS
Environmental	Most important element of attractiveness for tourists	Maintaining essential ecological processes
	Decrease of tourist arrivals due to environmental factors	Conserve natural heritage and biodiversity
Socio-cultural	Relevant role for destination of high artistic and cultural value	Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities
	Often tourism becomes the dominant activity and the prevailing source of income and jobs in places where the cultural heritage is the main attraction	Conserve their constructed and living cultural heritage and traditional values
	Dependence from foreign enterprises and tourism operators	Contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance
Economic	Non sustainable tourist development can generate social and environmental costs that in the long term prospective can be greater than the economic benefits	Ensure feasibility
		Long term economic operations
		Providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders
	Where tourism externalities are not taken into consideration for the evaluation of economic success, there is an altered vision of the real situation, which is misleading for planning decisions	Including stable employment, income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities

1.2 EU tourism policy

1.2.1 Current EU context

In international tourist arrival statistics, the European Union is the first tourism destination in the world. With approximately 380 million international arrivals in 2007, the EU received 42% of the total number of international arrivals in the world. Compared to 2000 this represents an increase of 55 million arrivals per year.

In 2007, roughly 70% of EU tourists were EU residents and the remaining 30% were coming mainly from North America and the Asia-Pacific region. In addition to the international tourist arrivals, EU residents also accounted for 700 million domestic arrivals in 2007 (Study on the competitiveness of EU tourism industry 2009).

Europe is expected to maintain its leader position in the next decade; forecasts by the **United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)** suggest that international arrivals in the European area will increase further to 717 million international tourist arrivals over the period 2007 to 2020. This means that the number of international tourist arrivals in Europe will have almost doubled by 2020 (UNWTO 2006).

To maintain this trend and to face the future, in 2006 the European Commission approved **the Renewed European Tourism Policy**, which underlines the importance of tourism for job creation and economic growth, in order to reach the goals of the **renewed Lisbon Strategies**.

Furthermore, the EU commission declares that "*Tourism plays an important role in the development of the vast majority of European regions: travel and tourism industry contributes to about 4% of total employment and about 11% of GDP*", the Renewed European Tourism Policy encourages "*to improve the competitiveness of the European tourism industry and create more and better jobs through the sustainable growth of tourism in Europe and globally*" (European Commission 2006), finding the best use of available resources and exploiting all possible synergies.

The main areas on which the policy focuses are:

- ✓ Mainstreaming measures affecting tourism

- ✓ Promoting tourism sustainability

- ✓ Enhancing the understanding and the visibility

The role of the European commission in this context concerns different kinds of activities, such as coordinating actors to produce and share knowledge, providing economic support through financial instruments and mainstreaming sustainability and competitiveness in Commission policies.

1.2.2 EU measures toward a sustainable tourism

In order to provide input to the process for the sustainability of EU tourism, at the end of 2004 the European Commission launched the **Tourism Sustainability Group (TSG)**.

The **TSG** counts twenty-two members, which have been selected on the basis of a call for expression of interest with the aim to ensure a rich variety of expertise from industry associations, destinations and civil society.

Member States' administrations and international organizations, such as the WTO and the **United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP)**, also nominated experts for discussions within the group.

The main tasks of the Tourism Sustainability Group are:

- ✓ Draft, discuss and table a detailed framework for action which allocates specific activities to the individual stakeholder groups, including an agreed timetable for implementation.

- ✓ Regularly evaluate the implementation of the measures provided for in the framework for action.

- ✓ Provide value also for the players on the ground.

The **TSG** started its work at the beginning of 2005 and formulated its proposals and recommendations in the form of a report in February 2007.

The **Agenda for a sustainable and competitive European tourism**[1], approved by the European Commission in 2007, outlines the future steps for promoting the sustainability of European tourism and further contributes to the implementation of the renewed Lisbon Strategy for growth and Jobs.

The Agenda also introduced the **renewed Sustainable Development Strategy**[2], introduced which is built on the recommendations of the **Tourism Sustainability Group** (European commission, 2007).

This communication outlining the objectives and principles for tourism sustainability calls all the stakeholders to play a role in European tourism and to contribute to its sustainable and competitive development. Tourism stakeholders are invited to accept their responsibilities at the levels where they mostly operate, and they are invited to embrace the opportunities that the sustainability challenge offers as a potential driver for innovation and growth. The Communication builds the framework for the implementation of supportive European policies and actions in the tourism demand and in all other policy areas which wield an impact on tourism and on its sustainability, following a step-by-step approach and providing tourism stakeholders with added value at the European level.

The Communication also commits the European Commission to continue to strengthen its internal cooperation and to present its evaluation of the progress made in 2011.

The main target of the **Agenda for sustainable and competitive European tourism** aims to find the best balance between autonomous destination development and the maintenance of its resources.

To achieve this goal the Commission, through the Agenda, invites all actors to respect the following nine principles:

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[1] COM(2007) 621 final of 19.10.2007

[2] COM(2006) 134 final of 17.03.2006

- ✓ **1 - Take a holistic and integrated approach:** Every plan of development should take into account all the various impacts of tourism. Additionally, tourism should be well balanced and integrated with all the activities which effect the environment and the local community.

- ✓ **2 - Long-term plan:** Sustainable development concerns taking care of the needs of future generations as well as our own. Long term plans need to maintain its initiatives even in the future.

- ✓ **3 - Achieve a suitable pace of development:** the rhythm of development should reflect and respect the character, resources and needs of host communities and destinations.

- ✓ **4 - Involve all stakeholders:** A sustainable approach requires extended and active participation in the decision making process from all the stakeholders within the area.

- ✓ **5 - Use the best available knowledge:** Policies and actions should have the best knowledge available. Information on tourism trends and impacts, skills and experience, should be shared across Europe.

- ✓ **6 - Minimize and manage risks:** A full evaluation and preventative action should be taken to avoid damage to the environment or society.

- ✓ **7 - Reflect impacts in costs:** Prices should reflect the real costs to society of consumption and production activities, not only for pollution but also regarding the use of all the facilities that have significant management costs in tourism.

- ✓ **8 - Set and respect limits, where appropriate:** Recognizing the carrying capacity of individual sites and limit; when necessary, the amount of tourism development and volume of tourist flows.

- ✓ **9 - Undertake continuous monitoring:** sustainability is all about understanding impacts and being always alert to them, so that the necessary changes and improvements can be made.

The agenda is based on the Report **"Actions for more sustainable European Tourism"** made by the Tourism Sustainability Group of the European Commission in 2007, which analyzed the situation of sustainable tourism in the EU, starting from the twelve goals for Sustainable Tourism identified by the **UNWTO** and **UNEP**, which are intended as referential structures for policy makers.

Table 1.2 Twelve sustainable tourism principles by the UNWTO and UNEP (2005)

1- Economic viability	To ensure the viability and competitiveness of tourism destinations and enterprises
2 - Local prosperity	To maximize the contribution of tourism to prosperity of the host destination.
3 - Employment quality	To strengthen the number and quality of local jobs created and supported by tourism.
4 - Social equity	To seek a widespread distribution of economic and social benefits from tourism throughout the recipient community.
5 - Visitor fulfillment	To provide a safe, satisfying and fulfilling experience for visitors, available to all without discrimination by gender, race, disability or in other ways
6 - Local control	To engage and empower local communities in planning and decision making about the management and future development of tourism in their area.
7 - Community well-being	To maintain and strengthen the quality of life in local communities.
8 - Cultural richness	To respect and enhance the historic heritage, authentic culture, traditions and distinctiveness of host communities.
9 - Physical integrity	To maintain and enhance the quality of landscapes, both urban and rural, and avoid the physical and visual degradation of the environment.
10- Biological diversity	To support the conservation of natural areas, habitats and wildlife, and minimize damage to them.
11 - Resource efficiency	To minimize the use of scarce and non-renewable resources in the development and operation of tourism facilities and services.
12 -Environmental purity	To minimize the pollution of air, water and lad and the generation of waste by tourism enterprises and visitors.

1.3 Financial programs for local development

1.3.1 Evolution of the EU programs

The European Union presents different economic and social disparities among most of its member states. This is clear when comparing the **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)**, which is the economic wealth standard measure. For example, there is a big gap between the north-central countries and the southeastern ones. Differences among regions within the community are even greater; more than 200 regions have 75% less GDP per capita of EU's average (Ergder 2002). The importance of regional policy for the EU has grown in the last decades, the wealthiest regions of the community are mainly located in the north-central area (West Germany, England, Northern Italy...) and the poorest are in the southern, western and eastern peripheries (Greece, Southern Italy, Spain, Portugal, Ireland...). To face this problem the EU has instituted the **Structural Founds (SFs)**, the most important instrument to reduce and cancel regional disparities of EU members.

The birth of the SFs policy follows the concept of **economic and social cohesion,** which found its legal basis in the articles 158-162 (title XVII) of the Maastricht treaty and it constitutes one of the three pillars of the EU (alongside the single market and European Economic Union), *"it expresses the notion of solidarity between member states and aims to reduce the disparities between regions and social groups"* (European Commission 2009).

The SFs and others EU financial measures changed over the years; the first structural fund was the **European social Found (ESF)**, born in 1958 during the treaty of Rome. Then the economic crisis of 1973 and the access to the community of Ireland, Spain, and Portugal significantly increased the gaps between some member states; at that time the introduction of a structural policy to reduce the gaps in development and living standards became a priority.

In addiction to the ESF measures, other Structural Funds were introduced over the years, each one with a specific target: the **European Agriculture Guidance and**

Guarantee Fund (EAGGF)[3], introduced 1962, and the **European Regional Development Found (ERDF)** in 1974.

Between 1970 and 1980 few changes were made to the ERDF; they were split into two subcategories: industrial and infrastructure, both of them concerned with jobs creation.

Alongside the **Structural Funds (SFs)**, the **Cohesion Found** was established in 1993 in order to finance transport and environment infrastructure in the member states whose GDP per capita was less than 90% of the EU average.

The prospect of enlargement to new countries with different levels of development made the principles of economic and social cohesion and its main instrument, the ESFs, even more Important. As said before, the path of the financial instruments faced many changes over the years; they had four reforms between 1989 and 2007.

From 1989 to 1993

During this period the total amount of investment from the Community was ECU[4] 71 billion, and the SFs were:

- ✓ **The European Social Fund (ESF)**

- ✓ **The European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)**

- ✓ **The European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGFF)**

They have operated since 1989 under four principles: concentration on a set of priorities, programming of assistance, partnership between parties and the additional Community assistance of national grants.

During the period from 1989 to 1993 the **SFs** were allocated among the members countries with six objectives (European Commission 1988):

- ✓ **Objective 1:** Promoting the development of "less developed" regions.

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[3] COM(2005)633 final

[4] **ECU** means European Currency Unit, conventional monetary system used as the unit of account of the European Community before being replaced by the Euro on January 1, 1999. It was based on a basket of the currencies of the European Community member states.

- ✓ **Objective 2:** Converting the regions seriously affected by industrial decline.

- ✓ **Objective 3:** Combating long-term unemployment; assisting young people for work, helping people from exclusion in the labour market and promoting equal opportunities for men and women.

- ✓ **Objective 4:** Providing support for workers having to adapt to industrial changes.

- ✓ **Objective 5a:** Adjusting the structures of production, processing and marketing in agriculture and forestry.

- ✓ **Objective 5b:** Promoting the development of rural areas

Allocation of SFs was based on a planning period and channeled through three financial instruments: national programmes, community initiatives and innovative measures.

From 1994 to 1999

In this period the total budget of SFs was ECU 145.5 billion (ECU 17 billion for the Cohesion Fund), almost 12% of the EU's GNP (European Commission, 1993).

In the early 90's disparities within the EU states decreased somewhat, but the level of inequality was still worrying. This factor, added to a further enlargement of the community, lead to a second reform of the Structural Fund, which defined three new principles for the structural funds policy: increasing resources for assistance in the poorest regions, improving the integration of regional policies in the other common policies and introducing spatial planning at the European level.

The reform was established at the **European Council in Maastricht** in 1991; it confirmed the efforts to improve the development level in less favoured areas and, for the first time, pointed the **economic and social cohesion** as a pillar of the European Community structure.

The reform, approved in 1993, also planned the creation of the **Committee of the Regions** and encouraged the creation of the **Cohesion Fund**.

Therefore, the concept of **subsidiarity** was considered the pivot of the relationship between the community and national levels.

In 1993 in Edinburgh regulations for the allocation of structural funds was reviewed. Briefly the objectives for the period 1994-1999 were:

- ✓ **Objective 1:** Promoting the development and structural adjustment of regions where development was lagging behind.

- ✓ **Objective 2:** Economic conversion of regions affected by industrial decline.

- ✓ **Objective 3:** Facing long-term unemployment, facilitating the employment of young people and avoiding the risks of being excluded from the labour market.

- ✓ **Objective 4:** Facilitating the adjustment of workers to industrial and production system changes.

- ✓ **Objective 5a:** Adjusting agricultural structures in order to respect the reform of Common agricultural policy and facilitating adjustment measures to the fishing industry in the renew Common Fishing Policy.

- ✓ **Objective 5b:** Enhancing the development and structural adjustment of rural areas.

- ✓ **Objective 6[5]:** Promoting development of regions with low population density.

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[5] The sixth goal was explicitly requested by Finland and Sweden, which joined the EU in 1995.

From 2000 to 2006

This was a crucial period for the EU, the enlargement to twelve states and the accomplishment of the monetary and the economic union led to a new organization for the Structural Fund policy (A. Dattilo 2008)

To face these challenges in July 1997 the European Commission published a strategy document entitled "***Agenda 2000: for a stronger and Wider Union"*** This document discussed the importance of social and economic cohesion as a high priority and proposed an increased budget for SFs and Cohesion Found, for this period € 213 billion were allocated.

The Agenda 2000 simplified the system for structural funds reducing the objectives from six to three: two regional, and one for human resources:

- ✓ **Objective 1:** Promoting the development of the undeveloped regions, this objective took approximately two thirds of the total funding, in order to avoid negative effects caused by the excessive fragmentation of interventions and operating programs.

- ✓ **Objective 2:** Enhancing the social-economic renovation of areas with structural difficulties.

- ✓ **Objective 3:** Supporting the modernization of policies and systems of education, training and employment.

Each Fund financed only a few types of objectives, and the general field of application for each fund was specified. The simplification of the SFs system brought, for the first time, to a decrease in objectives and funds allocated between 2000 and 2006. The following tab shows the EU investments for the social cohesion in this period.

Table 1.3 Breakdown of SF and Cohesion Fund during the period 2000-2006

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Structural Measures	32 045	31 445	30 865	30 285	29 595	29 595	29 170
Structural Funds	29 430	28 840	28 250	27 670	27 080	27 080	26 660
Cohesion Fund	2 615	2 615	2 615	2 615	2 515	2 515	2 510

From 2007 to 2013

New opportunities and new problems arose in the new enlarged EU with 24 members. After the Spring Summit in 2004, the EU discussed the limitations of the Lisbon and Goteborg strategies about knowledge networks, the industrial and service sectors, competitiveness and population ageing.

The assignments of the structural funds needed new frameworks; in the summit a new conception of the cohesion policy regarding all the regions within the community was established and not only the ones with considerable disparities. Moreover, a new strategic program for the cohesion policy was established which defined: clear priorities for the regions and member states, the definition of three new objectives and the reduction to only three Structural Funds.

For the 2007-2013 cohesion policy over €347 billion has been allocated, 35.7% of the entire EU budget: approximately €70 billion for the Cohesion Fund and €278 for the Structural Funds. The distribution is based on the following objectives (European Commission 2006):

- ✓ **Objective 1 - Convergence:** This objective aims to help the least-developed member states and regions catch up more quickly with the EU average by improving conditions for growth and employment. It covers the Member States and regions whose development is lagging behind. The fields of action will be physical and human capital, innovation, knowledge-based society, adaptability to change, the environment and administrative effectiveness.

- ✓ **Objective 2 - Regional Competitiveness and Employment:** The Regional Competitiveness and Employment objective aims to strengthen the competitiveness, employment and attractiveness of regions other than those which are the most disadvantaged. It must help to anticipate economic and social changes, promote innovation, entrepreneurship, and protection of the environment, accessibility, adaptability and the development of inclusive labour markets.

✓ **Objective 3 - Territorial Cooperation Objective:** The European Territorial Cooperation objective aims to strengthen cross-border, transnational and inter-regional cooperation. It is based on the old **INTERREG** initiative and will be financed by the **ERDF**. It aims to promote common solutions for neighboring authorities in the fields of urban, rural and coastal development, the development of economic relations and the creation of networks of small and medium-sized enterprises.

Figure 1.1 Allocation for objectives Choesion Policy 2007-2013
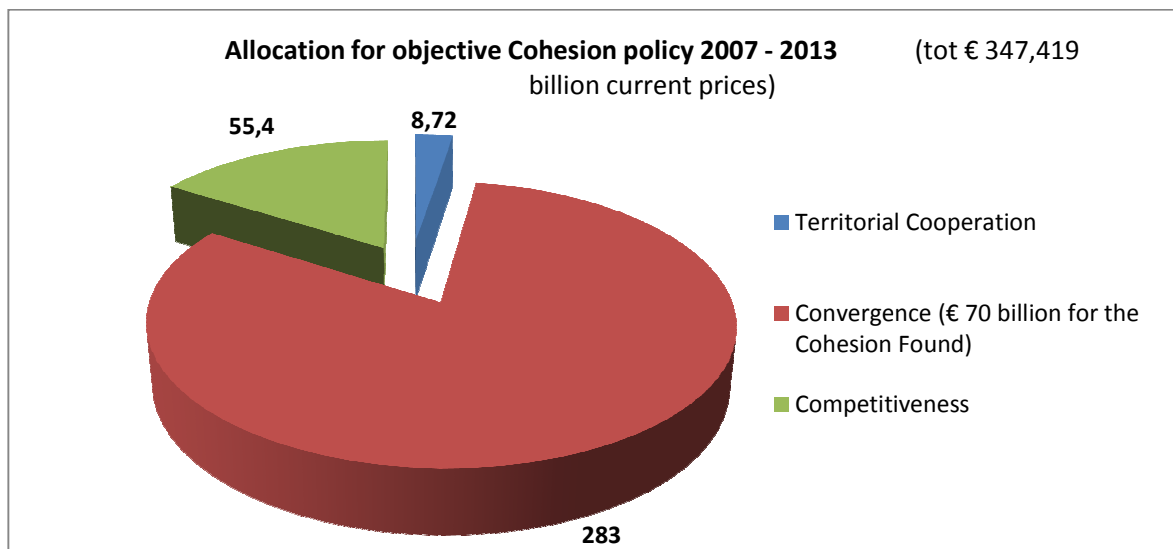
For the period 2007 – 2013 the structural Funds are divided in only three main categories (European Commission 2006):

✓ **The European Social Fund (ESF):** The ESF focuses on four key areas: increasing the adaptability of workers and enterprises, enhancing access to employment and participation in the labour market, reinforcing social inclusion by eliminating discrimination and facilitating access to the labour market for disadvantaged people, and promoting partnership for reform in the fields of employment and inclusion.

✓ **The European Regional Development Fund (ERDF):** The ERDF supports programmes addressing regional development, economic change, enhanced competitiveness and territorial co-operation in the European Union. Funding priorities include modernising economic structures, creating sustainable jobs and economic growth, research and innovation, environmental protection and risk prevention. Investment in infrastructure also retains an important role, especially in the least-developed regions.

✓ **The Cohesion Fund:** The Cohesion Fund contributes to interventions in the field of the environment and trans-European transport networks. It applies to member states with a **Gross National Income (GNI)** of less than 90% of the EU average.

TABLE 1.4 Objective, structural Funds and instruments 2007 - 2013[6]

OBJECTIVES	STRUCTURAL FUNDS AND INSTRUMENTS		
Convergence	ERDF	ESF	COHESION FUND
Regional Competitiveness and Employment	ERDF	ESF	
European territorial Cooperation	ERDF		
	Infrastructure, innovation, investments etc.	Vocational training, employment est.	Environmental, infrastructure, renewable energy
	All member States and regions		Member States with a GNI/head below 90%

[6] *Source:* Colombo, 2010

1.3.2 Tourism and structural Funds

Tourism as a development tool for less-favoured regions also received increasing emphasis in the late 1980s and early 1990s. The Council of the European Union signaled the need to undertake actions regarding tourism at the Community level (92/421/EEC), and **Lisbon Treaty** (2007) has created a new legal basis entirely devoted to tourism, which has aimed to reinforce the EU as the foremost destination of the world.

The European Commission recognized that tourism is a factor of *"economic development for less-favoured regions, rural areas, as well as those areas in industrial decline"* (European Commission 1996). The target regions for development were characterised by low growth, low income and high rates of unemployment (Bull B. 1999).

Alongside the structural funds the **Cohesion Fund** has also had some indirect influences, but is generally viewed as having less direct impact on the tourism sector, and it is eligible for support through a number of **Community initiatives**. The Community initiatives are special assistance programmes initiated by the European Commission (such as the **INTERREG** program), and they have direct influence on tourism. They are mounted in addition to the Community support frameworks and the single programming documents negotiated between the member states and the Commission.

Allocation of structural funds to tourism is determined in the **SFs** or **Single Programming Documents (SPDs)** singed in agreement between each of the member states and the European Commission. Therefore, the degree to which tourism is given priority differs across the countries.

For example, in the period from **2000 - 2006**, in the **Objective 5b** regions, 12.7% of the **EAGGF** and **ERDF** (ECU 780.64 billion) funds was allocated to assist tourism. The priorities differ across countries. In the same period among the 5b areas Denmark has placed strongest emphasis on tourism, with 27.2% of the funds received allocated to tourism, whereas Spain and Germany have allocated only about 7% of the funds to tourism projects (European Commission, 1996).

Tourism projects benefiting from EU funds have aimed to improve and regenerate the regions or establish new visitor attractions such as: museums, galleries, historic buildings, monuments, heritage sites, gardens, cultural interpretative centres, health and sport centres, marine facilities, walkways, trails, urban amenities through regeneration and tourism business networks.

CHAPTER 2

TOURISM IN BORDER AREAS AND CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION

2.1 Borders and border areas in EU

2.1.1 Concept of border

Borders have always been viewed as a political issue, but they are first geographical expressions of the international geopolitical order and human territoriality, they can be drawn by man or follow natural features, such as rivers and mountain ranges. Nevertheless, "*no type of boundary is better than any other, except of course the type that performs the fewest functions, the one falling between good neighbours*" (Glassner 1996:89). All Boundaries are created by humans; it is not natural to divide the plains, mountain ranges or surface and underground water resources.

Boundaries do not only pass across natural resources, they have influences on the economic and sociological aspects of the human experience, impeding mobility and economic transactions; many borders do not respect linguistic borders, ethnic groupings or the cultural landscape (Minghi, 1963).

Therefore, boundaries have several functions: to define the territory of a state, its sovereign and legal authority, filtering the flow of goods across national frontiers through tariffs and duty, to control the flow of people and to create ideological, cultural and linguistic barriers.

During the 20th century more ideas of borders were developed, different scales of boundaries were created, and each of them had its own purpose (Thimoty, 2006):

- ✓ **National or international boundaries:** they are the strongest level of political control. National boundaries have the most visible impacts on the natural environment and on the economic system; they influence socio-cultural interaction. Once a state institution has been recognized with its own border, they become an inseparable part of the activities and mindscape of the citizens.

✓ **Sub-national boundaries**: they divide institutional areas such as provinces, cantons and departments; they can be viewed as second-level boundaries. They can also have considerable effects on the human experience.

✓ **Third-order boundaries:** such as township and municipalities. Those are the weaker frontier levels, but they also have impacts on human interactions. Therefore, this kind of border may influence and determine property tax rates, law enforcement procedures and insurance coverage.

Thus, borders are a complex and multidimensional phenomena; historical development in national border regions shows the border's influence in creating the organization of the life and identity of the inhabitants (ibidem).

2.1.2 Borders and tourism

In accordance with the **WTO** definitions, "*international tourists are people who cross an international boundary and stay at least one night in the destination country*" (WTO 2002).

Together with all the other activities, such as economy, culture, and environment, tourism is affected by the existence of political boundaries (Thicker and Sundberg, 1998). Many factors can influence the tourist sector; Timothy (2006) defined the border function for tourism in three categories: borders as barriers, borders as destinations and borders as modifiers of the tourism landscape

Figure 2.1 Border function for tourism[1]

Borders as Barriers

Borders as Destinations

Borders as Modifiers of the Tourism Landscape
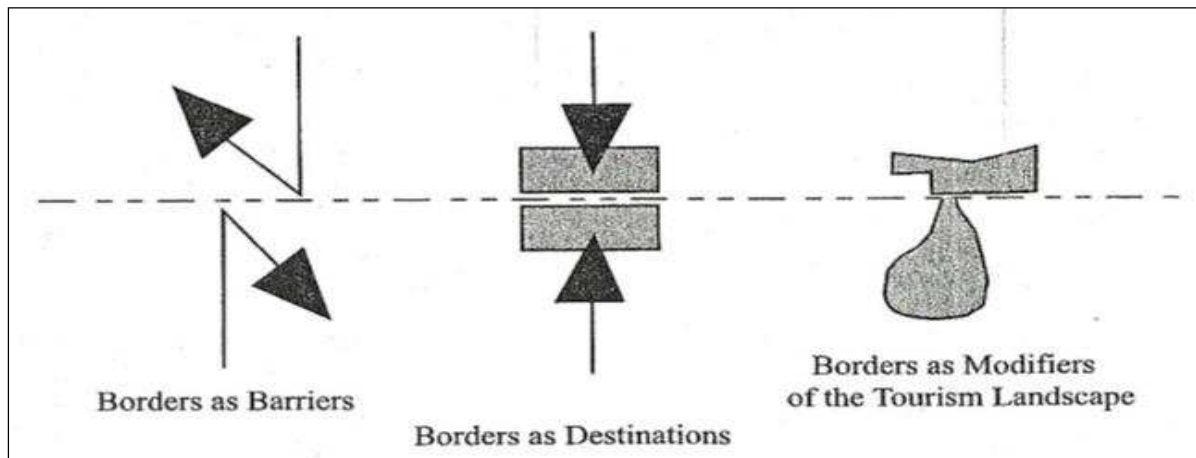
Borders as barriers

According to Timothy (2006) this category can be divided into two, real barriers or perceived barriers:

1 - Real barriers: create different restrictions to tourism because they can obstruct tourist flows physically or through strict border policies, they can make travel difficult or virtually impossible, which are:

- ✓ Unfavourable international relations

- ✓ Restrictions by home countries

- ✓ Restrictions by host country

- ✓ Demarcation methods and fortifications

- ✓ Political conflicts

2 - Perceived barriers: are not real physical obstacles, but they create conditions where border crossing is challenging and even unwanted.

- ✓ Border formalities and restrictions

- ✓ Cultural differences

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[1] *Source: D.J Timothy, 2006*

- ✓ Administrative differences

- ✓ Costs

- ✓ Functional distances

Borders as destinations

Tourism in borderlands can be viewed from two primary perspectives: on one hand the borderlines themselves as a tourist attraction, and on the other hand, tourism areas which are located near the border.

1 - Borderlines: The attraction is the border itself, it represent the gate to another language, culture and politics. It can be a deterrent for some travellers and an attraction for others. The borders attractiveness can be classified in:

- ✓ *Demarcation icons:* Features such as flags, signs, walls and demarcation lines are attractions since they mark the interface of differences in languages and culture, social and economic systems and political realms.

- ✓ *Border theme attractions:* Attractions such as museums, gardens, parks which focus on their international boundaries.

- ✓ *Non political boundary lines:* Elements such as demarcated lines of longitude and latitude like the Arctic Circle or the Equator which divide temporal and spatial elements of the human experience.

- ✓ *Attractions bisected by borders:* Tourist attractions such as buildings, waterfalls, theatres which are present across two different countries.

- ✓ *Human fascination with borders – collecting places:* Tourists cross the border to collect places and then have the possibility to say "I have been there" or "I have been to (number) countries in Europe" or to

impress others by the number and kinds of countries which they have visited.

2 - Borderlands: These areas are located nearby international borders which influence the economy and social conditions (Harsen, 1981). Borders create a favourable environment for the development of certain types of tourism because of the political, cultural, and value differences on the opposite side. When a frontier marks the differences between different political and cultural systems, prices of goods, and policies and regulations, tourist activities grow in response to foreign demand.

- ✓ *Cross-border shopping:* People cross political boundaries to purchase goods and services in foreign jurisdiction for many reasons such as: favourable exchange rate, lower taxes, differences in the opening hours etc.

- ✓ *Tourism of vice:* Tourists cross the boundaries where vice activities like gambling, prostitution, drinking etc. are allowed.

- ✓ *International parks:* They are an important type of destination; tourists visit parks located across the border.

- ✓ *International exclaves:* Those small parts of a country which are totally surrounded by a neighbouring country mostly depend on tourism for their economic well-being.

- ✓ *Mini microstates:* This name is related to small nations with a population under one million; given the small size even if visitors are in the centre of these countries, they are still in effect in the borderland.

- ✓ *Cultural and political day trips:* People visit the area just close to the border for one day to see the political and socio-cultural differences that lie on the other side.

✓ *Attractions:* Other types of tourism attractions that are not directly a consequence of the existence of a border are also present in the border region

3 - Borders as modifiers of the Tourism landscape: The inhabitants behaviour in the border areas has created few alterations in the physical natural environment which are the result of cultural attachments to place (Wachowiak H. 2006). **Cultural landscapes** are produced by the history of a cultural group, value and belief system, settlement patterns, social structures and political practices (Groth, Bressi 1997). They are studied as a vehicle to understand the societies that have produced them in order to demonstrate that nature, symbolism, and design are not static elements of the human, but they change with human historical experience.

One part of the cultural landscape is the **tourism landscape**, which appears when tourism develops in a destination. According to Ringer (1998) tourism landscapes are *"the manner in which the visible structure of a place expresses the emotional attachments held by both its residents and visitors, as well as the means by which it is imagined, produced, contested and enforced".* Tourism landscapes then are those created by and for the tourist.

They are the visible structures that result from tourism's attachment to place, as well the images or myths, of place that are produced, contested, and enforced by various agents such as residents, stakeholders, promoters and governments (Thymoty, 2006).

Borders and the socio-political system create contrasts in spatial and administrative patterns on opposite sides, and they also determine the nature of the tourist landscape and its elements that will develop in the frontier region.

2.1.3 Borders in the EU

Borders in the EU have faced many changes during its life; from its foundation in 1950 as the European Economic Community, the Union has taken several decisions, through which many commercial and human barriers have been eliminated.

To achieve the objective of creating a frontier-free area the turning point was the **Schengen Agreement**. In the **Schengen area** the free movement of persons within the community is guaranteed. The states which signed the agreement have removed all internal borders in lieu of a single external border. Common procedures and rules are applied to visas for short stays, asylum requests and border controls.

At the same time, in order to guarantee security within the Schengen area, cooperation and coordination measures between police services and judicial authorities were instituted.

The **Schengen Agreement** was definitively incorporated into the European Union legal framework in 1997, through the **Treaty of Amsterdam**. However, not every member of the EU belongs to the **Schengen** area. This is because they do not want to eliminate border controls or because they have not yet satisfied the required conditions for the application of the treaty.

The **Schengen area** was born on 14 June 1985, when the Netherlands, Germany, France, Belgium and Luxembourg agreed to create a territory without internal borders. A further convention was signed on 19 June 1990 in order to eliminate frontier controls at the internal borders of the signatory states, which created a single external border where immigration controls are carried out with common procedures. Common rules regarding controls, visas and right of asylum were introduced to allow the free movement of persons within the signatory states without influencing national laws.

The **Schengen area** gradually expanded to include nearly every Member State and three non-EU member states, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland. Italy signed the agreements in 1990, Spain and Portugal joined in 1991, Greece followed on 6 November 1992, then Austria on 28 April 1995 and Denmark, Norway, Iceland, Finland and Sweden on 19 December 1996. The Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia,

Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia joined on 21 December 2007 and Switzerland on 12 December 2008.

The connection between the free movement of the EU area and tourism is such that travellers are often unaware that they are passing a national boundary. The removal of border barriers is one visible pattern of the increasing mobility, new regionalism and supra-national cooperation, which has challenged the functions and meaning of the state borders within the EU area.

Cross-border partnership and cooperation are the keywords to EU border discourse. Boundaries are no longer viewed only as barriers but also resources, bridges and points of contact (Struver, 2002), making Cross-border partnership and cooperation the keywords to the EU border debate.

2.2 Cross-border cooperation as a development tool

2.2.1 Borderland and cross-border region in the EU

In the last decades the concept of the **cross-border region (CBR)** has acquired increasing importance in policy and academic discourses. A **CBR** is a "*territorial unit that comprises contiguous sub-national units from two or more nation-states*" (Perkmann 2002:3). The construction of cross-border regions has become a more or less explicit strategic objective pursued by various social forces within and beyond border regions. New policy and theoretical concerns come from supranational organizations such as the EU.

According to Perkann (2002:4) the proliferation of **CBRs** is linked to two macro tendencies that have influenced the status of national borders in recent years: the growth of economic trans-border activities through increased movement of goods, services and people and the transfer of specific state powers from the national state to other institutions (supranational and sub-national) provide the conditions for the **territorialisation** of political power. The increasing permeability of borders has opened several areas for a variety of interactions which leads to a more or less durable trans-boundary cooperation. When these interactions are caused by spatial

proximity, they can lead to the creation of functional regions that include more contiguous national states, characterized by a high density of interactions.

The **European Union** through its integration policies has provided a series of opportunity structures for sub-national authorities to participate in international activities. These initiatives allow the local actors to improve their autonomy towards their central government more than in the past, and they can obtain resources from third parties such as supranational or international organizations.

The growth and development of international alliances affects the growth and development of the tourism sector; in fact, in the international trading block one of the most common goals is to reduce the barrier effects of borders for people and goods. Three groups of people in tourism tend to be most affected by the abatement of the border barriers: tourists from within the alliance, tourists from outside the alliance and industry workers from within the alliance (Wachowiak, 2006).

The elimination of border controls has created a free movement of EU and non EU citizens within the Union, and it has implemented the tourism flows not only from tourists of the member states but also from elsewhere. The establishment of a common **EU Visa** during the **Maastricht treaty** has increased tourism within the community and especially to Western Europe (ibidem).

Cross-border cooperation is normally examined from regional and institutional perspectives; it can help to reduce regional disparities among its member nations.

Cross border regions are a complex phenomena; it is difficult to include them in a different typology. Nevertheless, the **Euroregion**[2], **Eurodistrict**[3] and other forms of institutionalized cross-border cooperation are present within the EU, which have usually continued through cooperation among border municipalities, district or regions.

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[2]A **Euroregion** is a transfrontier institution, with or without legal personality, involving public and private participants, which establishes transfrontier relations of a promotional nature between local, regional or national authorities, always with the approval, or under the auspices, of the central government. (European commission 2008).

[3]A **Eurodistrict** is a European administrative entity that contains urban agglomerations which lie across the border between two or more states. A eurodistrict offers a program for cooperation and integration of the towns or municipalities. (European Commission 2008).

In order to enable common programs and provide community aids which take into account the specificities of each region, three different types of areas have been divided by the EU policies (Dattilo, 2008):

- ✓ **Trans-border Areas**: These areas belong to the Community level **NUTS[4]III,** placed along the internal borders and certain external borders and some regions along the maritime borders. Border regions of the European countries show common problems in terms of socio-economic and environmental impacts, which can be more easily resolved through cooperation among neighboring states. It is possible to include non member States in EU cooperation programmes using the following instruments: **European instrument for Neighbourhood and Partnership (ENPI)** and **Instrumentfor Pre-Accession Assistance (IPA)**.

- ✓ **Trans-national areas:** These are large groupings of European regions, which show similar geographical and socio-cultural characteristics.

- ✓ **Interregional areas:** These areas are present in the entire territory of the community without a territorial subdivision level.

In order to overcome the problems regarding territorial cooperation, the European Commission has created an institutional body called the **European Groupings of Territorial Cooperation (EGTC)**. The members of an **EGTC** can be member states, regional authorities, local authorities, bodies governed by public law and associations of bodies belonging to one of these four categories (Engl, 2009).

They were instituted in 2006 with the approval of the Regulation of a European Grouping of Territorial Cooperation in order to establish a common framework for the coordination tools between cooperating countries. Its added value is highlighted by

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[4] Nuts is the **Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics** , it is the official geocode standard for referencing the subdivisions of countries for statistical purposes. The Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics is instrumental in the European Union's Structural Fund delivery mechanisms. (Eurostat 2010)

the following statement; "*the adoption of this binding regulation constitutes a major step for territorial cooperation, as it provides public actors at different levels (member states, regional and local authorities, mainly) with a strong legal tool for developing and implementing a territorial cohesion policy, at cross-border, transnational and interregional levels*" (INTERACT, 2009).

The need to adopt the **EGCT** regulation was determined by a series of difficulties which could obstacle the establishment of suitable cooperation structures and the implementation of EU-funded programmes.

The first difficulty is the recent enlargement of the community, which increased the diversity within the EU, not only in cultural but also in economic terms. In fact, some of the new member state regions, especially the border regions, are much less economically developed compared to others. The second difficulty is due to the differences of legal frameworks, administrative structures and financial arrangements among the cooperating regions. Furthermore, many local and regional actors who are not very experienced in the field of cross-border activities often do not have enough knowledge regarding available tools and appropriate measures (Assembly of European Regions, 2006).

In the end, the motivations for the new regulation were aimed at further enhancing the economic cohesion within the European Union through new tools that permit the regions to cooperate more closely with each other.

On the other hand, there is the need for an effective implementation of the EU funded programmes, especially those regarding the new member States. Last but not least, harmonization of the heterogenous forms of cross-border cooperation began in Europe recently.

2.2.2 Tourism in cross border regions

Due to their geographical location in their country's regional system, in most cases border zones have traditionally been regarded by national governments, industries, and residents as peripheral areas in socio-economic terms. Since borderlands are located on the extremity of their respective national traffic and communication networks, they are frequently underdeveloped in terms of transportation and infrastructure, the lack of jobs leads the migration flow to the closest urban centres, and national governments rarely make efforts to improve the conditions in these relatively "unimportant" areas (Timothy, White, 1999).

In the border areas the tourism industry could be a good instrument to face these challenges, with new infrastructures, transportation and new employment.

Many of today's tourists tent to demand pristine environments and off-the beaten-path destinations; much of the tourism growth has taken place in the peripheral and isolated regions of the world. Tourism develops in frontier regions because they "*provide some of the most pristine natural landscapes and engender a mythical frontier image that appeals to tourists*". (Butler, 1996).

Furthermore, another connection between border-regions and tourism is that travel involves crossing a political or another border, thus borderlands are the first and the last areas of a state that travellers pass and see. This relationship has increased in the last few years. Literature has paid attention to perceptions of border crossing tourism policy and management in cross-border regions with cross-border tourism projects (Timothy, 2006). Planning and promotional efforts in some frontier communities focus on their borderland locations as a competitive advantage.

This increase of activity is linked to the EU regional development policy and the new instruments and programme funding for cross-border development, such as the **INTERREG PROGRAMM**. Tourism became an integral part of these initiatives as a form of alternative employment for border residents. Following the **Maastricht treaty**, in 1992, tourism was officially acknowledged by the European Commission as a distinct entity within the EU legal framework. This recognition laid the foundation for continued activity in environmental protection, education, training, culture, and

transportation. In addition to current and former efforts, the European commission has indentified three primary principles for future EU involvement in tourism:

- ✓ **Principle 1:** Supporting improvement in tourism quality by examining more closely the trends of the tourism demand.

- ✓ **Principle 2:** Encouraging the diversification of tourism products by supporting the competitiveness and profitability of tourism.

- ✓ **Principle 3:** Supporting the principles of sustainable tourism by balancing growth and conservation.

During the last few decades border landscapes with European internal border regions have gradually become transformed into open landscapes, and some have turned into arenas for cooperative tourism development (Prokkola, 2007). For example, since 1995 when Finland and Sweden joined the EU, cooperation between the two countries has been intensified by institutional and voluntary initiatives. "*The new cooperative mode of tourism development reflects an ambition to establish functional economic territories and promote integrity across the internal frontiers of the European Union*" (Ibidem: 2). It has been argued that tourism will become the future industry and driving force for regional development in the rural and peripheral parts of Europe, which often consist of national borderlands (Saarinen, 2003).

In the European Commission image, tourism is presented as a development opportunity for border regions. Tourism has become a significant form of co-operative place making in the borderlands of Europe and capable of transforming the spatial organization of the border regions.

2.3 EU measures for cross-border cooperation

2.3.1 Territorial cooperation tools

Europe's bordering areas have been neglected with a historical background: In the past national policy often neglected border areas, especially those that had been considered as peripheral within national boundaries. The presence of border impedes border communities from each other and hinders coherent territorial management of economic, social, and cultural issues (European Commission 2002). However, the single market, the Economic **and Monetary Union (EMU)** and the creation of the **Schengen area** have allowed these areas to grow and use cross-border cooperation as a tool for sustainable development.

As seen in the first chapter, the community regional policy is based on the principle of social and economic cohesion of the EU members. The period 2007-2013 focuses on the territorial cooperation, financed by the **FESR**, to find common solutions through a trans-border, trans-national and interregional approach. Thus, the European Community has finally recognised the importance of cooperation to reach an integrated local development. According to the **EU**, *"Cooperation across EU regions should help speed up economic development and the achievement of higher growth"* (European Regional Commission 2006).

Cross-border cooperation, through the **FESR**, aims to strengthen the local development of each region, implementing cooperative initiative in the border areas.

The main objective of the Cooperation is to avoid national borders from continuing to be obstacles of European territory by restricting its competitiveness.

To enhance the cooperation among EU regions and to accelerate their economic development, the community promotes the following cross-border measures:

Cross-border cooperation

The aim of cross-border cooperation in Europe is to integrate areas divided by national borders that face common problems requiring common solutions. Cooperation programmes should be made specific in order to solve particular problems faced by each border region.

 "*Cross-border cooperation should focus on strengthening the competitiveness of the border regions*" (European Commission 2006). The eligible activities in cross-border cooperation are: **development of economic** and **social and environmental crossborders through joint strategies for sustainable territorial development**.

Actions include promoting knowledge and know-how transfer, the development of cross-border business activities, cross-border education training and healthcare potential and integrating the cross-border labour market (ibidem).

Whether the basic conditions for cross-border cooperation are already in place, a cohesion policy should enhance actions that bring added value to cross-border activities: for example, increasing cross-border competitiveness through innovation and research and development, connecting intangible networks as services or physical networks as transport to strengthen cross-border identity, promoting cross-border labour market integration, etc.

Particular attention needs to be paid to the challenges and opportunities presented by the changing external borders of the Union following enlargement. Here there is the need to promote coherent cross-border actions that encourage economic activity on both sides, and to remove obstacles for development. To this end, "*cohesion policy and the new European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument and, where appropriate, the new Instrument for Pre-Accession, need to create a coherent framework for such actions*" (ibidem).

Transnational cooperation

As we see Transnational cooperation is linked to a specific geographic area and involves regional and local, as well as national authorities situated in this specific area. Transnational collaboration is multilateral and deals with spatial planning, aiming at an integrated and jointly planned spatial development of the respective area, such as the **Baltic Sea Region Programme** (European Commission, 2006). Eligible activities in the transfrontier co-operation are Innovation, **Environment**, **Accessibility** and **Sustainable urban development**.

Interregional cooperation

Interregional cooperation is the collaboration between local and regional authorities which do not share a border. Interregional cooperation can also be formulated both as short-term or long-term programmes. Its main purpose is to foster the exchange of information and experience and to represent common interests (European Commission, 2005).

Possible forms are community or town twinnings, bilateral regional partnerships or multilateral regional networks; they are different from case to case in terms of internal organization and the form of collaboration.

Most of the strategic interregional cooperation occurs in bilateral regional partnerships or multilateral regional networks. Fields of collaboration include regional development, research and innovation and environmental protection or cultural activities. The collaboration aims to enhance the regional economy, an increased cooperation in the areas of art and culture as well as at fostering the political influence of the participants within the European Union (Dattilo, 2007).

2.3.2 EU INTERREG initiative to support Cross-Border Tourism

Territorial cooperation has become an important tool of the renewed European Regional Policy; its initiatives aid in complementing structural fund policies in explicit problem areas. Action programs are set up by the European Commission and are implemented and coordinated by country institutions.

For a long time European commissions have worked to promote social and economic cohesion and to reduce regional disparities; this has often included tourism.

Because the EU is perhaps the most truly integrated of all international regional alliances, it has demonstrated the greatest effort in developing tourism policies. Structural, administrative, and financial support from the Commission has been strong in these areas and continues to be an integral part of the commission efforts.

Although tourism has played a relatively minor role in the Union's economic development of overall goals, some efforts that have included tourism have been made through the **ERDF**. The Commission policies related to **ERDF** for the tourism sector has two aims: to use tourism as a means for economic development and to assist in diversification efforts in regions that are too dependent on tourism or those that are most affected by the seasonal nature of tourism.

Through the **ERDF** and its structural funds, the **EU** has also taken a series of programs that were negotiated between member states and the Commission on the basis of regional or national development plans to encourage more balanced economic and social development, strengthening the cohesion in the Union.

The **INTERREG** program**,** which enhances the sharing of experiences among different European regions, has been the most relevant initiative for tourism development in European border areas, giving possibilities with their programs to improve cross-bordered co-operation in tourism on different levels in the long-term period.

Currently, the **INTERREG** initiative (2007-2013) is in its fourth phase and is continuing from the success of INTERREG I (1989-1993), INTERREG II (1994-1999) and INTERREG III (2000-2006).

INTERREG IV is a European Union initiative, which aims to support the balanced and sustainable development of the territory of the Union at the level of its macro-regions and reduces the "barrier effects" through cross-border cooperation and the exchange of best practices (European Commission 2005), stimulating interregional co-operation in the EU, strengthening cross-border cooperation through joint local initiatives, promoting integrated territorial development at the transnational level and

promoting networking and the exchange of experience (ibidem). It is financed by the **European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)** in addition with national, regional and private means.

In the period 2000-2006 **INTERREG** was a separate community initiative financed by the **ERDF** and was reaching its goals alongside other programs and objectives. It composed 2.2% of the total structural Funds Budget.

Figures 2.2 Structural Funds allocation 2000-2006
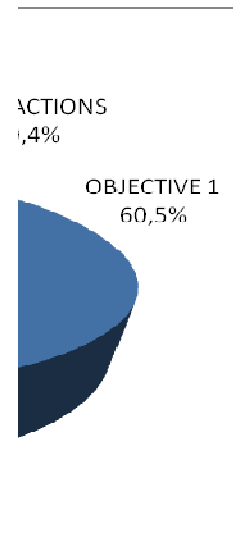
Figures 2.3 Structural Funds allocation 2007-2013

Following the fourth reform the 9 programmes/objectives of 2006 were regrouped into only 3 objectives. **INTERREG** became part of the **European Territorial Cohesion Objectives**. It composed 2.5% of the total structural Funds Budget.

Programm INTERREG IV is divided into three strands: (European Commission, 2007): Strand A concerns cross-border cooperation; it promotes integrated regional development between neighboring border regions, including external borders and some maritime borders. Strand B refers to transnational cooperation, established to contribute to harmonious territorial integrations across the community. The third strand, strand C, promotes inter-regional cooperation by improving regional development and cohesion policies.

Figures 2.4 INTERREG IV resource allocation 2007-2013
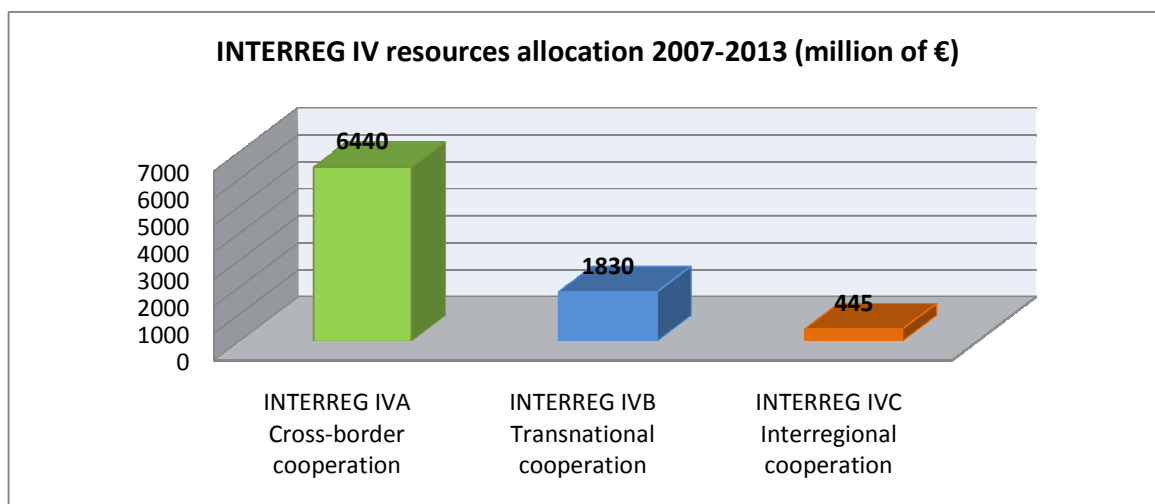
The programming territories and regions, which like to cooperate, must present a **Community Initiative Program (CIP)** to the commission. They have to define their development strategy and demonstrate the cross-border value of the planned operations. The programming has to be based on the general guidelines of the Community policies and Structural Funds. The local, regional, and national authorities, the social and economic partners are encouraged to take a bottom-up approach to development (Wachowwiak, 2006). Transparent publicity allows the widest possible degree of participation by public and private stakeholders.

INTERREG IVA: Cross-border cooperation in tourism

The cross-border cooperation of neighboring areas is intensified with strand A.The **INTERREG IVA** has 52 ongoing projects; it aims to develop cross-border economic and social centers through joint strategies for sustainable territorial development. The areas concerned are areas lying along the Union, which are certain coastal areas and internal and external land borders (figure 2.5). Measures can also be funded in certain non-border areas adjacent to those already mentioned. Only one program is established per border.Projects must correspond to the target of the **INTERREG IVA** program. It is the essential aim to drive the common development of the program areas forward in an economic, socio-cultural, and ecological view. The projects must enter into one of the following main areas: development of small and medium-sized enterprises, local employment initiatives; initiatives for encouraging the shared use of human resources and facilities for research and development; promotion of education, tourism and culture, communication, health and civil protection; encouragement of measures for environmental protection and the improvement of energy efficiency, transport, information, communication networks and services and an increase in cooperation in legal and administrative areas.

Not only the main focus of "tourism and culture" is suitable for the support of tourism projects; in addition, other main emphases make the support of tourist projects possible.

Figure 2.5 Map INTERREG IV A

INTERREG IVB: Transnational cooperation in tourism

As shown in figure 2.6, strand B distinguishes all 13 cooperation areas. It concerns transnational cooperation between national, regional and local authorities in order to promote a higher degree of territorial integration across large groupings of European regions, with a view to achieving sustainable, harmonious and balanced development in the EU and better territorial integration with candidate and other neighboring countries.

Wachowiak (2006) highlights the four key priorities and measures that are shown in table 2.1. These strategic themes are shared by all regions of the community and are closely linked.
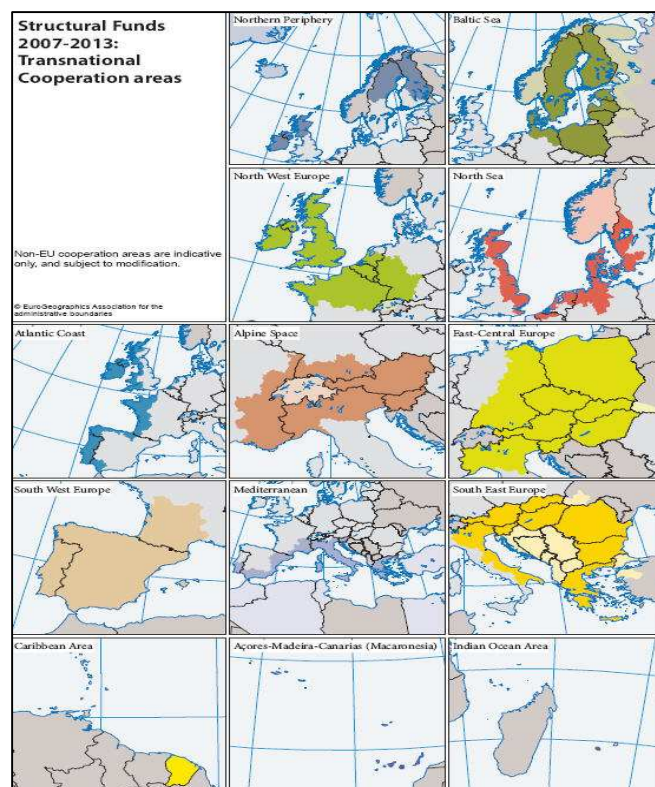
Figure 2.6 Map INTERREG IV B

Table 2.1 INTERREG IVB: Priorities and measures

	Measure 1	**Measure 2**
Priority 1	Capitalising on innovations	Projects aiming to produce transnational partnerships which can enhance the region's capacity to innovate and facilitate the development of knowledge-based activities.
Priority 2	Managing natural resources and risks	This priority calls for intervention based on a broad range of activities which attempt to protect the environment, minimizing and preventing the pollution of land, water and air.
Priority 3	Improving Connectivity	The projects aim to improve the transnational transportation systems and support the strengthening of political institutional frameworks for enhancing the quality and performance of the services.
Priority 4	Strengthening communities	This priority supports transnational actions that facilitate economic and social cohesion within and between cities, towns and rural communities. Projects should aim to enhance the potential of regional assets to improve the attractiveness of environments, examine the potential for energy efficiency in the construction and use of buildings and find solutions to the impacts of demographic change and migration.

Some of the listed Priorities and Measures support projects in the area of transnational cooperation in tourism (fiugure 2.6). This region combines with an intensification of competition between countries and regions of the word to attract tourists and has led to an increased awareness of the role and impact of tourism in economy and on employment, as well as its social and environmental implications. This creates further needs for more detailed statistics and harmonization, which should also be available at regular intervals.

INTERREG IVC: inter-regional cooperation in tourism

Strand C supports cooperation between players all over Europe and not necessarily just those in neighboring regions. INTERREG IVC helps to improve the effectiveness of policies and instruments for regional development and cohesion through networking, sharing experiences and creating structures of cooperation between regions, particularly for those where development is lagging behind and those undergoing conversion.

The Program management show four program areas (Figure 2.7).
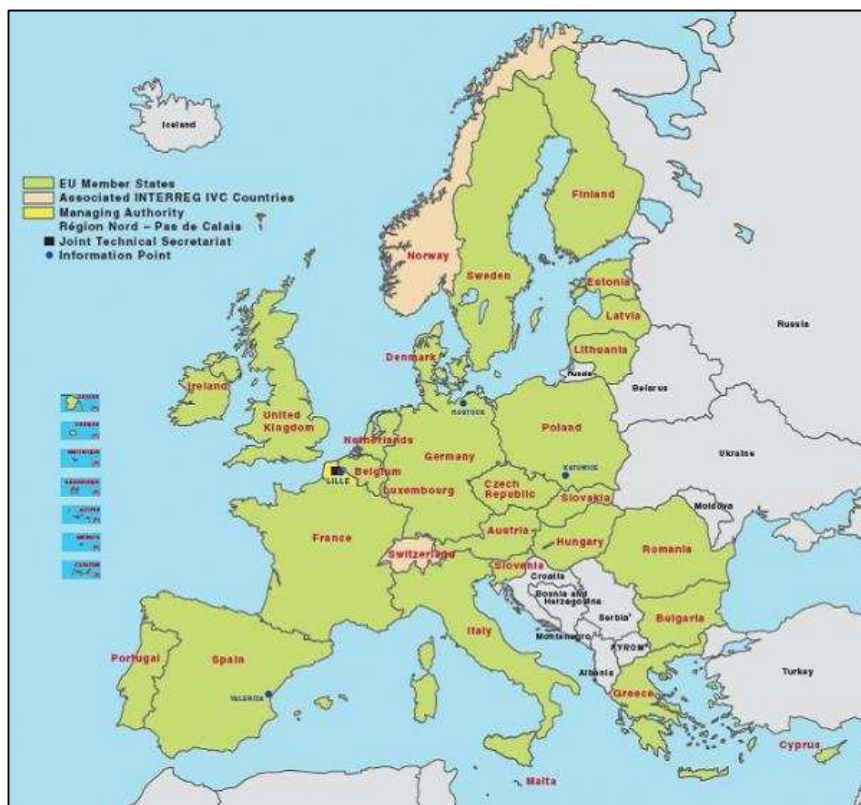
Figure 2.7 Map INTERREG IV C

2.4 Fragmentation in the EU tourist legal framework

The EU is a phenomenon in constant growth and evolution, the constant community enlargements during the years has increased the regional disparities within its member states. These changes do not have to be only considered as an environmental issue, but also in economic and social terms. The new cohesion policy aims to reduce these differences through its instruments, such as the structural funds and cooperation measures.

Tourism is a sector with great potential for reducing differences; the fruition of the services is strictly linked with the mobility of the customers, and consequently their money for consumption in the destination. Furthermore, tourism can turn maintenance of culture and environment from a cost to an opportunity.

Despite the growing economic importance, tourism has been underestimated by the Community institutions for a long time. This has happened essentially for two reasons: on one hand, tourism was always only viewed as a leisure activity, far from any political and social context, and on the other hand, the lack of legal basis in the Treaty of Rome, denied the institution of a legal framework for tourism. (Peroni, 2007).

Regarding Tourism, the Community actions can be divided into two means, direct and indirect: the first one is the actions specifically aimed to tourism and the second is the gradual implementation of autonomy within the community.

Tourism was formally recognized by the Community with the **Treaty of Maastricht** in 1992; article 3 introduces the "*measures relating to energy and civil protection and tourism*" in order to achieve the objectives set out in article 2 of the **Treaty of European Union (TEU)**. However, in the document there are not elements to clarify what measures have to be taken and what objectives have to be achieved, as well as a legal framework on which the Community bases its competences in the tourism field.

Thus, the Community action was linked to article 308 (ex 235), which determines the "implicit powers", through which the institutional bodies of the community have the

opportunity to use their own instruments to achieve the objectives present in the treaty.

Significant changes came with the **Treaty of Lisbon**, which established a legal framework for the tourism field, enacting that the EU has competence in the field of tourism only through the use of supporting, coordinating or complementary action. The art. 1 Title I of this treaty define "*The Union shall have competence to carry out actions to support, coordinate or supplement the actions of the Member States*", including tourism (Lisbon treaty 2007), and at the title XXI – Tourism, Art. 176 B " *1. The Union shall complement the action of the Member States in the tourism sector, in particular by promoting the competitiveness of Union undertakings in that sector*" (Ibidem). Therefore, the **EU tourism support measures** concern fields under the control of the national governments; the community can only support or complete the national actions without taking any rule in the legislative phase (Ibidem).

In sum the **Lisbon Treaty** provides a certain legal base that promotes legal transparency of the laws and also encourages a favourable environment for the development of an integrated approach to tourism issues, overcoming the fragmentation that has so far characterized the Community actions (European Council 2007). Integration of tourism in EU competences will encourage the community institutions to leave behind the mechanism of "implicit powers" without excluding the principle of subsidiary, with the likely effect that the Community institutions will have to harmonize domestic regulations issued concerning tourism (Engl, 2009). Following the principle of the **Lisbon Strategy**, in 2007 the Agenda **for a sustainable and competitive European tourism** was introduced. The document recognizes the steps needed to promote sustainable tourism in Europe, ensuring that the issues mentioned are faced through coherent action supported by appropriate national policies.

However, a hierarchy of the objectives was not established, so the implementation of these objectives will depend on each single situation and local needs.

The community financial support measures, in particular the **ERDF** and the **Cohesion Fund,** have taken an important role in tourism during the years, their use in the new regulatory framework should enhance and facilitate the choices of public

and private stakeholders. These financial measures support an important tool in the tourism field, **territorial cooperation**, which has become a European reality in the last few years.

European integration and some of its instruments such as the Schengen area, the Common Market, the introduction of the Euro and the new cohesion policy, have enhanced the development of numerous cross-border projects and the emergence of cross-border areas.

However, territorial cooperation is a complex phenomenon characterized by a multitude of different forms and structures in its implementation. To face these challenges there are two ways: on one hand, the various forms of territorial cooperation need to be classified in analytical categories and on the other hand, a legal assessment has to be made to provide more homogeneity (Engl, 2009).

The need for territorial cooperation was conditioned by the changing permeability of national borders and the growth of political autonomy, which has invested the regional and local institutions in the last decades.

Border areas have become contact zones between different political, economic and social systems, where natural, human and economic resources can be jointly exploited (ibidem). At the same time, the interest in promoting territorial cooperation has grown, also at international levels. The main reasons were to improve regional cohesion and transportation systems and to enhance the common exploitation of local resources, cultural exchanges and joint initiatives in the fields of culture and tourism. Territorial cooperation is categorized by a bottom up approach as a way of finding solutions to problems by local actors.

Nevertheless, two problems are present: the high complexity of the phenomenon and the lack of transparency. These problems can be explained by the legal ambiguity resulting from the lack of a common European legal framework.

The most important EU instrument for transfrontier cooperation is the **European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation between Territorial Communities or Authorities**, which was provided by the Council of Europe in 1980. This instrument has not produced a common legal framework; rather it is a

normative base which has to be filled by bilateral or multilateral agreements among the involved states that have to define the shape and modality of the cooperation.

To become legal, the convention has to be ratified by the member states, and even after signing there was not a supranational or international authority to supervise the right application of the convention or to solve related controversies. Moreover, thirteen of the forty-seven member states of the Council of Europe have not yet ratified this convention.

The border areas are not covered by international law; the legal basis for territorial cooperation has to be found in each national constitution and in the bilateral or multilateral interstate agreements.

According to the Committee of the region (2007), a competence problem can emerge from this situation, "*when it comes to public national law, authorizing a regional authority to act beyond national borders means either losing control and accepting that cross-border activities will be subject to the territorial sovereignty of the neighbouring state, or trying to extend the scope of a state's own public laws to the territory of the neighbouring State, disregarding its territorial sovereignty*" something which if done unilaterally, is prohibited by public international law.

Until 2006 the EU has provided different cooperation programmes, such as **INTERREG**, without providing any rule about the structure of the collaboration. However, the change comes following the establishment of the **European Groupings of Territorial Cooperation (EGTC)**, which is *"expected to contribute to legal strengthening of cooperation in a given area and to increased visibility and legitimacy of such cooperation" (INTERACT 2008).*

The regulation of the **EGCT** is an instrument to encourage transboundary cooperation and enhance the creation of transfrontier institutions. However, the question is whether this regulation contributes to avoiding the heterogeneity of forms of territorial cooperation.

The **EGCT** has legal personality with its own management and budget shared among the countries involved. This creates a common European legal framework with common rules applicable in all states, but presents some characteristics that can obstruct this process. First, the recourse to an **EGCT** is not mandatory; countries

that have already established another kind of agreement do not have to switch their form of collaboration. Second, the regulation is restricted by the national legal system; many characteristics of an **EGTC** are determined by the respective national laws of the state where the **EGTC** has its headquarter. The third and final one, a non EU member can adopt the **EGCT**; this is in contrast with the efforts made by the Community to enhance cooperation among EU members and non EU members (with instruments such as **ENPI** and **IPA**).

The growth of the tourism sector, its importance in economic, cultural and social value and its impact on the environment has led the member States and Community institutions to recognize a tourism legal framework in the legal community system.

Nevertheless, the lack of dedicated funds leaves the situation very complex and fragmented, the access to the financial measure is still long and difficult; the need to establish one specific financial instrument for tourism has emerged over the years.

The challenge of fragmentation is also present in the territorial cooperation measures; its harmonization is an issue present in today's debate. The **EGCT** seems a good tool to face this problem for many reasons. First of all, it represents an important judicial complementation for areas where no bilateral or multilateral agreement has provided legal instruments yet. Secondly, the **EGTC** turns the state from a monitoring authority into a partner of territorial cooperation. Furthermore, trans-boundary activities already started through the **INTERREG PROGRAMMES** can be institutionalized and sustained through the creation of an **EGTC**.

Finally, the **EGTC** Regulation will be subject to the ruling of the European Court of Justice, which may interpret its scope and whose decisions will be binding for the EU member states. Furthermore, national law remains the crucial legal basis of local and regional institutions for territorial cooperation; according to the Committee of regions (2008) a coherent collaboration depends on the law of each singular entity "*Since many Member States do not have well-developed national legislation in this area, this is certainly one of the interesting positive effects of the Regulation.*"

In the end, community legal frameworks and cross-border legislation are both based on the principle of subsidiary. Giving more managerial autonomy to the field of tourism is important because the core values of this sector are the resources of the

territory. Central governments, local authorities or anybody who deals with their promotion and management has the right to choose how to exploit them. However, there is the need to implement Community legislation in order to solve the problem of fragmentation of decision-making and the lack of an EU model for tourism development, which brings an overlap of actions and a duplication of efforts that impedes the potential for expansion of this growing sector.

PART II : CASE STUDY

CHAPTER 3

LAPLAND

3.1 Historical, geographical, socio-economic e politics aspects

3.1.1. Meanings of Lapland

Lapland is regarded as a non-institutional region, and its area is spread over four countries: **Finland**, **Sweden**, **Russia** and **Norway**. Therefore define its area is a complex task, it could be considered in a geographical and cultural context.

In a **geographical acceptation Lapland** is a region in northern **Fennoscandia**[1] a great part within the Arctic Circle. The North is bounded by the Barents Sea, the West by the Norwegian Sea and the East by the White Sea[2]. The western part is characterized whit fjords, glaciers, mountains and valleys. The Swedish side has large rivers running from the northwest to the southeast. From the Norwegian province of **Finnmark** to the East, the plateau is characterized whit many marshes and lakes, the largest of which is **Lake Inari** in Finnish Lapland. The highest north-eastern part is in the tundra region, but it only has permafrost in certain types of swamps. **Lapland** is full of natural resources, in particular mineral deposits such as iron ore in Sweden, nickel in Russia and copper in Norway. Reindeer breeding and fisheries in the sea and rivers are two of the main economic activities in the region.

The **Lapland** climate is subarctic, fauna is made up of reindeers, elks, wolfves, bears, and birds and flora is spread all over the area, except in the densely forested southern portion. The area is characterized by two natural phenomenons, the polar night in the winter and the midnight sun during the summer; both of them are longer the further north you go.

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[1]**Fennoscandia** (also) **Fenno-Scandianvia**is a geographic term which describe the Scandianavian Peninsula, the Kola Peninsula, Kaelia and Finland. In a cultural sense, Fennoscandia means the historical connections among the Sami, Finnish, Norwegian, Swedish and Russian cultures, unlike the term "Nordic Countries".

[2] http://snl.no/Lappi/landskap i Finland

Table 3.1: Administrative divisions in Lapland[3]

Country	Areas	Institutional level
Finland	Lapland	Region
Sweden	Norbotten	Country
	Vastebotten	Country
	Jämtlands Län	Country
Russia	Murmansk	Oblast
Norway	Finnmark	Country
	Troms	Country
	Nordland	Country

In a **cultural acceptation** Lapland is the common English spelling for the name of the cultural region traditionally inhabited by the **Sami** People. This area has plenty of names and meanings due to the multitude of people who live there. In the **northern Sami Language,**

Lapland is called **Sápmi**, a word which defines the cultural region traditionally inhabited by the Sami. **Sápmi** is located in Northern Europe and includes the northern parts of **Fennoscandia**, this region stretches over four countries: Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Russia.

3.1 Lapland Area

In the history of literature we can find many different names to define this area, from the Swedish names "**Lappmarken**" to the Norwegian "**Finnmark**" or "**Finnmork**". Originally these two names referred to the whole **Sápmi** area, but subsequently they have been used to call the lands exclusively inhabited by the **Sami**. Today they are names of provinces that only constitute parts of Sápmi, but there are different provinces and counties using the "Lapp" based names. (Grünthal 1997).In the past **Lappmarker** was the Swedish name for **Lapland**, but today the area is called **Lapland**, which also covers the regions of **Västerbotten**, **Jutland** and **Härjedalen**. The name "Lappland" in Sweden is not in administrative usage anymore and refers

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[3] http://www.nationmaster.com/encyclopedia/Lapland

only to a historical province. Today the traditional Norwegian name for the area is **Finnmark**, which is sometimes called "Norwegian Lapland", especially by the travel industry (Norway Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2002). The name **Sameland** has recently been used in Norway and Sweden to indicate the entire area where the majority of the Sami people live.

The Russians use the word **Лапландия**, which means "**Laplandia**" and the Finns living in the Lapland province use the name **Lappi** for the land. **Lapland** has traditionally different cultural subdivisions[4]:

- ✓ **East Sápmi:** East Sápmi refers to the **Kola Peninsula** in Russia and the **Lake Inari region** in Finland, this part is the home to the **eastern Sami languages**. This is the most populated part of Sápmi but at the same time is also the region where their culture is weakest.

- ✓ **Central Sápmi:** is an area comprised of the north-western part of Finnish Lapland, the parts of Norway north of the Saltfjellet Mountains and areas of the north-eastern Swedish side. Central Sápmi is the home of the **northern Sami** and is the place where their culture is strongest.

- ✓ **South Sápmi:** South Sápmi consists of the areas south of the Saltfjellet Mountains and the corresponding areas in Sweden; this is the home of the **southern Sami** languages, which is today only spoken by few people.

- ✓ **Lapland:** It refers to the inner parts of Sápmi and this term derives from a name given to the **Sami**, which today is considered derogatory by many of them.

- ✓ **"Sides":** Sápmi may also be divided into sub-cultural regions according to the state borders, this subdivision affects daily life of the people without taking their ethnicity into consideration. By Sami these regions are commonly called "sides"; for example, the Finnish side **suoma bealli** or the Norwegian one is **norgga bealli**.

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[4] http://www.thefullwiki.org/S%C3%A1pmi_(area)#cite_note-0

3.1.2. Sami

The **Sami** or Saami people are an indigenous population living in northern Europe and inhabiting the Sápmi area. They are the biggest indigenous ethnic groups in Europe (Commission of nomadic people, 1983), and they have populated this area since the concept of national border was born. The Sámi have inhabited the northern arctic and sub-arctic regions of Fenno-Scandinavia and Russia for at least 5.000 years. (Broadnen, Noel, 2010).
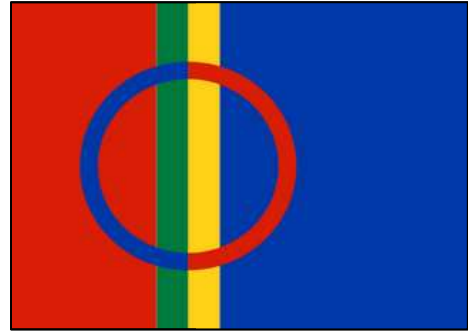
3.2 Sami Flag

This population has its own culture, education system and identity; traditionally they have a variety of livelihoods, including fishing, hunting , and reindeer herding, which involves about 10% of the Sami as full-time activity[5].

Reindeer husbandry is a Sami tradition since the long ago and it is the most important trade in their society. In fact, it is not only a way of achieving an income, but it is also the bearer of a long cultural tradition and a Sami identity. This tradition has developed from the hunting of wild reindeer to modern-day reindeer herding. In the Sami Culture the job of the reindeer herder is to be the reindeer's protector and to create good conditions for earning a livelihood from his trade. In certain regions of the Nordic countries reindeer herding is legally reserved only for Sami.

The number of people living in Lapland is estimated at around 2 million among the four countries, although it is difficult to give the exact number of inhabitants because certain areas only include parts of Sápmi. It is also quite difficult to establish the distribution of ethnic groups since many people have double or multiple identities, Sami could consider themselves as members of their own country and at the same time as part of one or more minority ethnic group (Siuranen, 1976).

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[5]http://www.eng.samer.se/servlet/GetDoc?meta_id=1094

Today, it is estimated there are about 80.000 Sami people in total, around 50.0000 in Norway, 20.000 in Sweden, 7.000 in Finland and 2.000 in Russia (European commission 2010).

The spoken languages are called **Saamic languages,** they are part of the family of the Uralic language, and are most closely related to the Baltic-Finnic languages. These languages are different and intelligible, but originally they formed a dialect continuum crossing from southwest to northeast. Today, however, many of the languages are dying.

The numbers on the following map (table 3.2) show the area of the Sami Languages area. Of these languages Northern Sami is the most vital, however the number of Sami speakers has decreased over the years, whereas languages such as Ter Pite e Lule Sami are endangered. Darkened areas represent municipalities that recognize Sami as an official language (Ethnologies report for Sami, 2000).

Table 3.2: Distribution of the Sami languages

Sámi political conditions are quite complicated. Norway, Finland and Sweden have **Sami Parliaments** which are involved at different degrees in governing the region,

though mostly they only have authority over the matters of the Sami citizens of the states in which they are located.

Norway is the most Sami populated country in Lapland, the Norwegian Sami Parliament was established in 1989 and is located in Kárášjohka. Every Norwegian citizen registered as a Sami has the right to vote in the elections. Elections are held every four years by direct vote and run parallel to the general Norwegian parliamentary elections. This is the Sami Parliament with the most influence over any part of Sápmi, its autonomy was established by the Finnmark Act.

The Sami Parliament of Sweden, situated in Kiruna, was established in 1993 as a publicly elected body and a state authority, with the overall task of working to achieve a living Sami culture. In the Swedish Sami Parliament only registered Sami citizens have the right to vote.

Finland has instituted the first Sami representative body in 1973, it was called the "**Delegation for Sami Affairs"**, and it had the status of advisory function to the Government. This delegation was established in order to monitor the Sami's economic, social and cultural conditions.

In 1996, the Finish Sami Parliament, which is located in Aanaar, was restructured to correspond to the Swedish and Norwegian one, with administrative duties in relation to Sami culture and language; today the authorities in Finland are obliged to negotiate with the Parliament regarding all measures concerning Sami.

Following the decision by the Finnish Parliament in 1996, the Finnish Sami had a relevant autonomy, the Finnish constitution has improved the constitutional reference legislation on order to improve the Sami situation as an indigenous people, with the right to maintain their language and culture,   *"As an indigenous people, the Sami must, in accordance with that stipulated in law, be assured cultural autonomy within their home area on matters concerning their language and culture"* (Finnish Constitution, section 17).

However, the Sami Parliament has relatively few duties, and the Finnish state sets aside less money for the Parliament than Sweden.

The Russian situation is different, on the other side of the border there is not a Sami Parliament, but there are two representative Sami organizations that participate in

RAIPON[6] and represent the Russian Sami in the **Sami Parliamentary Council**. This council was founded on 2000, it is responsible concerns to discuss cross-border cooperation initiatives and represents the Sami people abroad (commission on nomadic people, 1983).

In addition to the parliaments and their council, there is a **Sami Council** based on Sami organizations. This council organizes inter-state cooperation between the Sami, and also often represents the Sami at the international level in different organizations such as the **Barents Euro-Arctic Council (BEAC)**.

Plate 3.1 Sami family in Norway around 1900[7]

3.2 Lapland as a tourist destination

3.2.1 Criteria

The area known as Lapland is an important tourism destination at the international level, and every year host plenty of tourists from all over the word.

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[6]**RAIPON** Is the pan-Russian union of indigenous people

[7] *Source:* http://it.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Saami_Family_1900.jpg

As we see, Lapland spans over multiple states and its borders are the result of political conflicts of the last centuries. The exploitation of its tourist potential has been limited by the disaggregation of the area and the presence of many organizations for territorial management in the region. Thus, Lapland is an area composed of several institutional bodies such as Regions, Provinces Countries, and their administrative boundaries demarcate the area which is considered as Lapland in the tourist's mindscape.

In this paragraph I define an area comprised among Finland, Sweden and Norway in which to develop an integrated tourist system with the purpose of exploiting all the potentials of these destinations.

The selected areas as potential districts have been chosen according to the following criteria:

- ✓ **Tourist resources**

- ✓ **Territorial accessibility**

- ✓ **Access to EU financial programmes**

- ✓ **Common efforts in tourism development**

The Russian part of Lapland has been excluded from the potential district since the criteria of accessibility and access to EU founds are not satisfied. **Lapland** as an administrative institution exists only in **Finland,** the region and the province called by that name are situated near the northern border. In the hypothetical district I include the municipality of **Rukka Kussamo,** a Finnish tourist destination located in the region of **Northern Ostrobornia** which in terms of tourist marketing could be considered as part of Lapland. In Fact the destination of **Rukka Kussamo** has made many efforts to cooperate with the region of Finnish Lapland in order to promote tourism in both areas.

Swedish Lapland is a historical region situated in northern Sweden, which today is mainly included in the provinces of **Västerbotten** and **Län Norbottens** that have been taken as whole in the tourist promotion of the area. In the classic definition **Norwegian Lapland** is better known as **Finmark**, the most northern region of

Northern Norway. The area which I take into consideration also includes the contiguous provinces of **Nordland** and **Troms**, inhabited by Sami and full of homogeneous tourist resources .

In this section I discuss the criteria that have been chosen to draw the borders of the tourist system and I briefly discuss the similarities between Finnish, Swedish and Norwegian Lapland.

Criteria 1 – Tourist resources: These can be categorised as natural or cultural. They could be in the public realm such as a nature park, cultural or historical sites or could be community attractions and services such as culture, heritage or lifestyle. Factors such as authenticity and emotional experiences also attract tourists to destinations. Overall **Lapland** has many common tourist resources such as the Sami culture, the northern lights and Nature based activities.

Tourism in Lapland is based on two pillars: **Nature Based Tourism** and **Heritage Tourism**. In the Nordic region, especially in Lapland, **nature** has been one of the main attractions for tourists. There are a large variety of ecosystems, habitats and landscape types in the region such as: coastal environments, lakes, mountains, meadows and taiga forests. Perhaps the most dominant feature among the images of northern nature and landscape is wilderness (Saarinen 2009). In recent years wildernesses have been important for the development of Nordic tourism, and the tourism industry has become a very significant user and element of change in the wilderness environment. In particular, the growing international trend of nature-based tourism and related forms, such as adventure tourism and ecotourism, have influenced the economic, social and also ecological issues in Lapland. According to Saarinen (2009) *"These forms of tourism are also increasingly competing with traditional uses of wilderness areas and this situation has prompted both political and economic discussions on the relevant meanings, uses and values of these areas".*

The second pillar on which Lapland tourism is based on is **Heritage Tourism**. Sami Cultural resources are strictly linked with cultural heritage tourism in these areas, many visitors come attracted to the cultural heritage of the Sami places. Culture in

tourism has a double meaning, it can serve as a tourist attraction, but also make the tourist experience a cultural one (Robinson, Smith 2006). Hence, culture is used to highlight and utilise the local area for presenting a distinct image in a global market place. This is also true for the Nordic realm, which often, also in marketing, is stereotyped as Europe's last wilderness (Saarinen 2009). Culture, heritage and the arts have long contributed to the appeal of a tourist destination, and for the visitor it means adventure, culture, history, archaeology and interaction with local people. Sami in northern Scandinavia have been occupied with reindeer breeding but during recent decades there has been a decline in reindeer business activity. Because of this situation many Sami have started looking for new occupations, and tourism is often mentioned as an alternative. Cultural heritage tourism in Lapland is important in order to: improve social and economic conditions, establishing and reinforcing community's identity, preserving and supporting culture and helps renew tourism (Richards, 1996). Cultural heritage tourism in Lapland is not only concerned with identification, management and protection of the Sami values but it must also be involved in understanding the impact of tourism on their communities and regions, achieving economic and social benefits, providing financial resources for protection, as well as marketing and promotion.

Criteria 2 - Accessibility: the second criteria is the accessibility of the area, this concept has two aspects: the first one is **physical accessibility**, a destination should be accessible to a large population base via road, air passenger services, rail, cruise ships etc. Other than reaching destination, visitors should also be able to travel with relative ease within the area. The second aspect of accessibility concern the concept of **border's permeability** expressed by Thymoty (2006). Visa requirements, ports of entry, and specific entry conditions should be considered as part of accessibility. As we see in the second chapter, Finland, Sweden and Norway are part of the **Scenghen area**, this fact allows the tourist to move freely within these three countries.

Criteria 3 - Common European Financial programmes: ERSF, INTERREG

The three countries can to access to **ESFR**, which are only for the 27 states (including Finland and Sweden), Switzerland and Norway. In addition, all three countries are included in the **INTERREG IV NORD program**.

Criteria 4 - Common efforts, objectives and promotions: Common efforts have been made to improve the tourist sector in every area, the national objective established by every country have many similarities between each other: improving visibility, increasing tourist incoming flows, improving communications, while enhancing employment and re-population of the northern regions. Following this criteria few areas which were not considered part of Lapland (in the common definition) have been included in the district, such as the province of **Ruka Kuusamo** in Finland.

Figures 3.3 Reasons for tourist cooperation
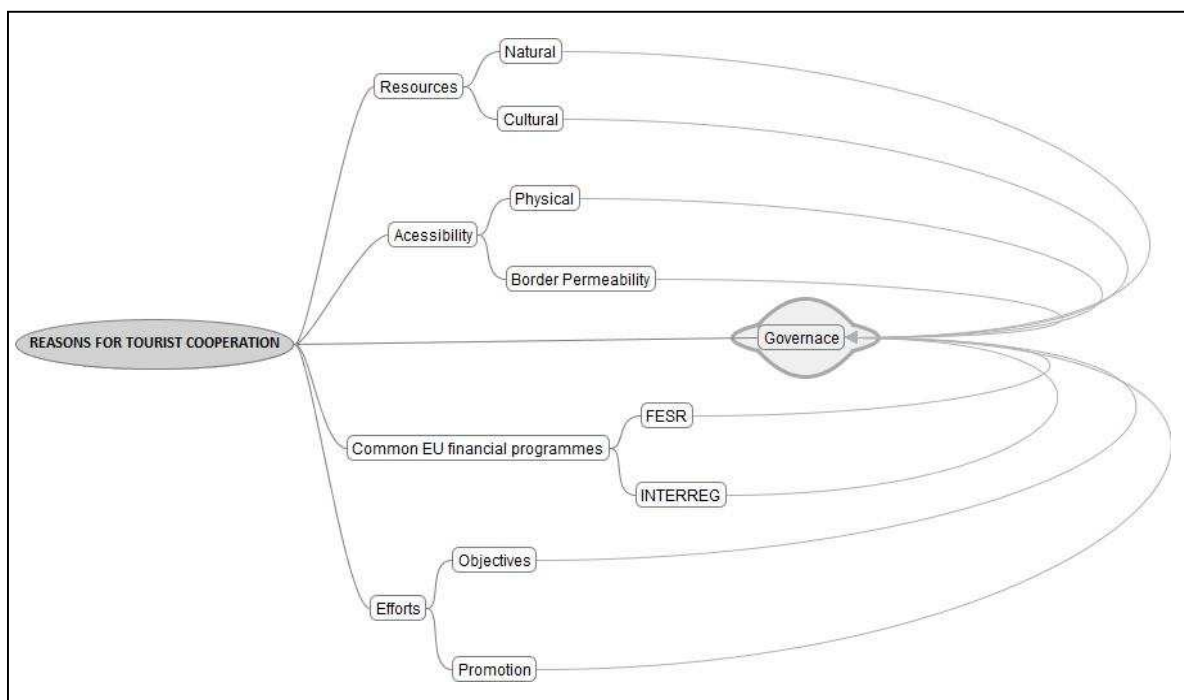
3.2.2 Lapland's area

Tourism in Finnish Lapland: Lapland and Ruka Kuusamo

In tourist guides **Finnish Lapland** is characterized as being the land of waterfalls and northern lights, a place where there is always snow and harsh temperatures in winter. However, Lapland has different tourism seasons spread over the year. Due to the size of Lapland, the cultural differences are remarkable in the various areas.

In west Lapland a tight hundred-year border co-operation with Sweden has characterised the way of life in that area, the most charming feature is the language spoken on both sides of the border called meän-kieli. In east Lapland logging has always been a dominant factor and In north Lapland Saami is the most interesting living form of culture.

Landscapes typical for Lapland other than the grand waterfalls include various hilly regions and expansive river waterways. The most common and best known animal is the reindeer which is an essential part of natural environment of Lapland.

The Lapland culture in Finland is a mixture of influences from every direction. "*The culture of Lapland is a mixture of north and south, east and west. It is Lapp and Finnish but also Swedish, Norwegian and even Russian. The times of logging camps and the gold rush have added spice to the culture*[8]*".* The cultures of the neighbouring regions of Sweden, Finland, Norway and Russia have greatly influenced the Sami and Finish culture. The cultural differences between Lapland's different regions are rather significant. The Swedish influenced of the West Lapland district is worlds apart from the Sami culture of North Lapland with a completely different language and traditions.

Lapland gives particular emphasis to its environment heritage, Sami Culture and to being home of **Santa Claus**, and especially the city of **Rovaniemi**. However, Santa Claus or equivalent brands are also promoted for tourism purposes by the municipality of **Enontekiö** in northern Finish Lapland and **Gallivare** in Swedish Lapland.

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[8]http://www.laplandfinland.com/In_English/About_Lapland/Lappish_Culture.iw3

In 2006, Lapland registered 2.1 million overnight stays, and the share of foreign visitors was approximately 40% (Finnish Council of Lapland, 2006). The average annual growth rate in overnight stays has been 5%. Strong seasonality is characteristic of tourism in Lapland. Christmas is still the most popular season but lately, summer tourism has also had positive development.

the **Ruka-kuusamo** area is other part of Finland taken into consideration, following the Lapland Tourism Strategy 2007-2013 (Ibidem) *"tourism products in Ruka Kuusamo are built on similar elements in Lapland"*.

Kuusamo is located in the province of **Oulu** and is part of the **Northern Ostrobothnia region**, it is one of the major winter sports destination in Finland and receives approximately a million tourists every year (Kuusamo Taskutieto 2002). In the area there are also Sami settlements since the 17th Century.

Plates 3.2 Northern Lights in Finnish Lapland[9]

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[9] http://www.visitfinland.com/it_IT/web/guest/finland-guide/about-finland/photos videoslivecams/gallery/de tail /- /article-de tail/10123/808 1843

The core value of the area, presented in the **Lapland tourism strategy 2007-2013** by the **Finnish council of Lapland**, is divided in to five main focus points (Finnish Council of Lapland, 2006):

- ✓ **Authenticity:** The attractiveness of Lapland is based on genuine assets like unspoiled nature, original Lapland and Sami culture.

- ✓ **Customer satisfaction and high quality:** The individual visitor is the core and focus of tourism service production. A high-standard are one of the priorities of the tourism product.

- ✓ **Innovativeness:** In this point the council underlines the importance of creating innovative tourism packages, services, and operation models.

- ✓ **Safety:** Lapland is a safe and unpolluted destination. Potential safety threats have been analysed and precautions taken to prevent them.

- ✓ **Respect for nature:** Lapland's natural surroundings provide the settings for new and authentic experiences. The tourism industry will adopt principles that guarantee sustainable development in a social, ecological and cultural way. This underlines the importance to keep the opportunities for travel and recreation in Lapland's nature for future generations.

Tourism in Swedish Lapland: historical province and modern conception

Swedish Lapland is a historical province in northernmost Sweden, and it is mainly included in the Provinces **Norrbotten** and **Västerbotten**. It borders Jämtland, Ångermanland, Norway and Finland. Parts of the historical region of Lapland have been named a **UNESCO** World heritage site. In fact, the area contains some of the oldest and most spectacular national parks of northern Europe, like **Sarek National Park**, which was established in 1909.

The historical province of Swedish Lapland was part of the Swedish **Landskap**[10], situated in the northern part of the country and established as an evolution of the **Lappmarken**[11]. Today Swedish Lapland has no officials powers anymore, it is under the administrative control of the provinces of **Norrbotten** and **Västerbotten**.

Tourism in this area is promoted and coordinated by the Destination Manager organization called "**Swedish Lapland**". The DMO promotes under its brand not only the historical part but also the entire Provinces of Norrbotten and Västerbotten.

Sami people have inhabited this area for thousands of years, however in the tourist guides Swedish Lapland is presented as the last wilderness in Europe.

Many tour operators, especially in the city of Gällivare, Jokkmokk, Porjus e Saltuluokta offer several excursions to the area, most of them are combined with Sami people and their culture.

The geographical area of Swedish Lapland makes it possible to have a wide range of types of tourisms, from winter sports to various summer activities.

The core value of the area, presented in the "**Länsturismstrategi 2004-2010**" is divided in three main focus points:

- ✓ **Authenticity:** The tourist product and services should have a natural support to the region's culture, tradition and vision; focusing on the local community and their consciousness to being themselves

- ✓ **Contrast:** the country has multiple natural resouces, culture, climate and geography

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[10]The **provinces of** Sweden, Landskap, are historical, geographical and cultural regions. Sweden has 25 provinces whit no administrative function, but remain historical legacies and the means of cultural identification. Several of them were subdivisions of Sweden until 1634, when they were replaced by the counties of Sweden (län). Some were conquered later on from Denmark–Norway. Others like the provinces of Finland were lost. Lapland is the only province acquired through colonization.

[11]**Lappmarken** was an earlier Swedish name for the northern part of the old Kingdom of Sweden specifically inhabited by the Sami people. In addition to the present-day Swedish Lapland, it also covered Västerbotten, Jämtland and Härjedalen, as well as the Finnish Lapland. As a name, it is related to Finnmark, an old Norwegian name for the Sami area. "Finn" and "Lapp" are mutually exchangeable old names about the Sami people.

✓ **Duties as a host:** The tourist experience should always give more than is expected. The guests expectations should be exceeded by offering the little "extra", which often starts to the first meeting with the tourist.

Plate 3.3 Lookout from Skierffe, Rapadalen in Swedish Lapland[12]

Tourism in Norwegian Lapland:

Norwegian Lapland is a sporadic marketing term for **Northern Norway** which consists of the counties of **Finnmark**, **Troms** and **Nordland**. This area is often described as the land of the midnight sun and the land of the northern lights. The region is multi-cultural, those who inhabit the area are not just Norwegians but also the Sami people, the Norwegian Finns and Russian populations.

Northern Norway's landscape changes from alpine mountains and fjords to endless tundra and wilderness.

Nordland is the southern country of Northern Norway, It comprises the municipality of Vega and is listed in the **UNESCO** World Heritage list.

The history of **Nordland** is connected with the sea, which has been the main resources since ancient times and at the same sea creates a moderate climate.

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[12] Source: http://www.visitsweden.com/sweden/Regions--Cities/Northern-Sweden/Nature-experiences/

Nordland has a rugged coastline with many fjords, which are one of the main attractions of the area.

The Sami have lived in **Nordland** for at least 2.000 years. Not just inland, but also along the fjords and, in the northern part of **Nordland**, even on the coast and larger islands. **Troms** county is characterized by inner waterways and fjords, which are lined with birch forests. Big islands like Senja have green, forested interiors and a barren, mountainous coastline, with smaller islands offshore.

Finnmark county has fjords and glaciers in the far southwest, and the north-western coasts are characterized by big islands.

Tourism is directed to the slightly more southern, but much more accessible North Cape, whereas Kinnarodden on the Nordkinn Peninsula is the northernmost point of Europe's mainland.

Plate 3.4 Lofoten island in Finnmark, Noway[13]

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[13] Source: Picture by the author

One on the main tourist activities in Northern Norway is the safari, to watch the large fauna (whales, eagles, sea birds etc.) and **North Cape,** the northernmost place on mainland Europe which is visited by more than 200.000 tourists every year.

A large Sami settlement is established in this area, tourists can interact with them and learn their traditions like: fishing, hunting and reindeer herding. There is a **Sami theme park** in **Karasjok**

The official board website[14] and institutional documents such as "strategy for increasing added value in the northern areas" from the **Ministry of Local Government and Regional Development of Norway**, shows that the core value of Norwegian Lapland is similar to the Finnish and Swedish one:

- ✓ **Authenticity**

- ✓ **Emphasis on nature based activities and landscape**

- ✓ **Maintenance of the Sami Identity as a tool for tourist development**

Table 3.3: Lapland tourist district

Country	Areas	Institutional level
Finland	Lapland	Region
	Ruka Kuusamo	Municipality
Sweden	Norbotten	Country
	Vastebotten	Country
Norway	Finnmark	Country
	Troms	Country
	Nordland	Country

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[14] www.vistnorway.com

3.3 Common features: a Lapland tourist district

3.3.1 The importance of planning

In Europe tourism has become a growing sector, and its numerous potentials can enhance the local development within the union. These potentials arise from the coordination between the private sector and the tourist resources present in the EU, making planning a pillar for local tourist development.

In fact today, European local destinations have developed substantial organizational and strategically skills, in order to limit the competition from other tourist areas. The term local tourism destination is a physical space in which a tourist spends at least one overnight (UNWTO 2007).

Sound tourism planning is generally viewed as a way of mitigating the negative effects of tourism, while at the same time enhancing the benefits. There has recently been a shift in traditional tourism planning research from "*narrow concerns with physical planning and blind promotion aimed at the masses towards a more balanced approach that supports the development and promotion of more sustainable forms of tourism*" (Timothy 2006:149). **Sustainable tourism development** can be reached by collaborating between private and public stakeholders in decision-making process and by involving residents in benefits of tourism.

Planning is important everywhere to enhance the positive aspects of development and mitigates the negatives aspects. However borderlands are particular situations, and planning in these areas also requires special considerations. In fact, cross-border cooperation has never been simple, and new institutions that facilitate transfrontier coordination are being created. (Sryjakiewicz 1998).

The two sides of a border cannot ignore what is happening to the other side, in regions where cultural and natural tourism resources lie across or adjacent to international boundaries cooperative planning is necessary to exploit their potential and to reach the goals and principles of sustainability (e.g. equity, efficiency, balance, ecological integrity, etc.).

According to Thymoty (1999) cross-border cooperation takes form at various levels and can be divided in to two categories. The first category is composed of institutionalized networks are promoted by government agencies that are authorized to operate on an international level. Examples are **Euroregions**, which are "*cross-border establishments whose purpose is to benefit borderlands in economic development term*" (Berttram 1998). The second category is composed of cooperation established between local authorities, businesses or individuals on two sides of a border, nonetheless it is not normally supported by laws or official treaties. Two communities belonging to opposite sides of a border planning a festival is an example of informal cooperation.

Matinez (1994) and Tymothy (2006) has discussed five different level of cross-border interaction:

- ✓ **Alienation:** alienation exists when little communication and no partnership exist between neighbours. Cultural and political chasm are so weak that it is not possible to make connections and partnerships.

- ✓ **Co-Existence:** co-existence involves minimal levels of partnership, there is tolerance but nation do no interact harmoniously.

- ✓ **Cooperation:** cooperative networks are characterized by initial efforts between adjacent administrations to solve mutual problems.

- ✓ **Collaboration:** occurs in regions where relations are stable and joint efforts are well established.

- ✓ **Integration:** in the last step both sides are functionally coalesced. Each jurisdiction willingly waives some sovereignty in the name of common progress.

Through this process local border tourism destinations switch their role changing from competitors to partners, the factor which determines the level of competition and complementarity is cross-border coordination.

Public and private cross-border schemes realm become commonplace, and several benefits have been identified in the real of tourism (Tymothy 2000). The path from competition to complimentarity is a dynamic process coordinated by a common plan. Territorial management organizations in tourism can operate in the areas of partnership that are particularly important in border regions because they are linked to borderland characteristics, contrasting political systems and issues of sovereignty (Wachowiak 1994):

- ✓ **Natural and cultural resources protection:** Natural and cultural resources are important tourist resources, cross border collaboration can help standardize conservation regulation.

- ✓ **Infrastructure development:**Networking in infrastructure development can decrease inequitable access to common resources, efficiency would be improved through join efforts as the costly and needless duplication of facilities and services, such as airports, hotels and shopping centres, are eliminated (Timothy 2000)

- ✓ **Human resources:** Joint efforts in human resources can encourage more equitable and efficient management and improve ecological and cultural integrity as ideas are shared and knowledge is gained thorough staff exchanges and shared training efforts. New jobs increase regional income and the standard of living.

- ✓ **Marketing and Promotion:** By Joining marketing and promotion efforts budgets can be reorganized so that the founds saved can be spent on other important obligations such as, personnel, conservation and infrastructure.

- ✓ **Border restrictions and formalities:** Common efforts can avoid border restrictions discussed in the previous chapter.

3.3.2 Tourism managing tools

Many forms of managing organizations have been established in the last decades to achieve long-term sustainable development. One of the most used onesin tourism is the **destination management organization (DMO).**

Managing tourism destinations is important for controlling, exploiting and maintain tourists resources and it is important in order to limit and monitor the impacts of tourism. Destination management can include land use planning, business permits and zoning controls, environmental and other regulations, business association initiatives, and a host of other techniques to shape the development and daily operation of tourism-related activities.

Destination management is complicated by the fact that a single, recognizable destination may include several municipalities, provinces, or other government entities - in island environments it may be the entire country.

Participating governance structures led by local authorities, with the involvement of local NGOs, community and indigenous representatives, local chambers of commerce and networks of local tourism business make up what are known as **DMOs**. Often **DMOs** take the form of local tourism boards, councils, or development organizations. The needs, expectations and anticipated benefits of tourism vary greatly from one destination to the next, and there is certainly no "one size fits all" approach to destination management.

A **DMO** includes tourism products such as attractions and support services, it has physical and administrative boundaries for its management and images and perceptions which make it attractive to tourist.

Destinations could be on any scale, from a whole country, a region, to a municipality, town or city. Usually the optimum level for destination management in most countries is below the national level.

The Destination Management Organisation's role should be to lead and coordinate activities under a coherent strategy. They do not control the activities of their partners but bring together resources and expertise and a degree of independence

and objectivity to lead the way forward. It follows that "*DMOs must develop a high level of skill in developing and managing partnerships"* (UNWTO 2006).

As we have seen in the previous paragraph Lapland presents different management organizations within the area (e.g. the Finnish council of Lapland or the DMO Swedish Lapland) but their management approach is almost limited to their own competition area.

According to Dall'Ara & Morandi (2006) a common management system might bring many advantages. On one hand, it can take common marketing initiatives, optimize the coordination, share the know-how, avoid the risk of losing market share because of competitors, enrich the supply, prolong the duration of stay of tourists and rationalize the offer of the area where there present different managing organizations with similar competences. On the other hand, a tourism system can be an important tool for achieveing the objectives of the **EU cohesion policy**, reducing the disparities within its members and enhancing the integration of the inhabitants.

CHAPTER 4
CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION AS A DEVELOPMENT TOOL IN LAPLAND

4.1 Cross border-cooperation in Lapland

4.1.1 Cross-border organizations

As we have seen in the previous chapter Lapland has different institutional contexts in which policy making also affects tourism planning. A key point is that not all agencies have the same prospective regarding tourism development, in fact, they have different approaches and objectives. This context can be classified in four levels:

- ✓ **Local level:** sub-national, local and regional government, such as municipalities.

- ✓ **National level:** The role that government plays in tourism depends on the jurisdiction in which it occurs, political culture and history, the economic significance of tourism in the economy, regulatory and legislative powers and inter-governmental relations (Saarinen 2009). This means that different jurisdictions (nation or municipalities) will have different duties, responsibilities and objectives with respect to tourism.

- ✓ **Supranational and international level:** this level includes organisations with regulatory capacities in the international sphere, and within its area Lapland has many of these organizations. Since the early 1990s because of the increased role of the EU in Nordic public affairs, there have been a range of more Nordic oriented supranational bodies such as the **Nordic Council**, **Arctic Council** and the **Barents Euro-Arctic Council**. All of these bodies, together with national and regional institutions are influence tourism planning and development in the Lapland area.

- ✓ **Trans-territorial level:** these are state related organizations that have territorial boundaries that cross national borders. Such developments are

relatively common in Europe with trans-territorial bodies having received considerable financial support from the EU. Trans-national organizations are the key to obtaining the advantages coming from the tourist district listed in the previous chapter. In Lapland the EU plays an important role in tourism planning in a indirect way, in fact it affects tourism planning through policy and financial instruments.

This paragraph will focus on the last two levels; framework, objective and function of supranational, international, and trans-boundaries organizations in Lapland will be listed and compared. The main institutional bodies operating in this area are:

1 - The Arctic Council: The Arctic council was established in 1996, this organization involves the governments of Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden and the United States of America. Following the **declaration of the establishment of the Arctic Council** (1996), the main objective of this organization can be summarized in "*Provide a means of promoting cooperation, coordination and interaction among the Arctic States, with the involvement of the Arctic indigenous communities and the other Arctic inhabitantants on common issues, in particular those concerning sustainable development and environmental protection in the Arctic areas*". The measures taken to reach this objective are:

- ✓ Adopt, oversee and coordinate a sustainable development program.

- ✓ Disseminate information, encourage education and promote interest in Arctic-related issues.

Besides the issue of sustainable development, the council underlines the importance of the indigenous population living in the area. In fact, associations of indigenous people, such as the **Sami Council** and the **Association of Indigenous Minorities of the North** are permanent participants in the **Arctic Council**.

Council participation is not only restricted to the founding countries, the council is in fact open to: non-Arctic states, Inter-governmental and inter-parliamentary

organizations (global and regional) and non-governmental organizations. The **Arctic Council** has noted the importance of tourism within the region in relation to both economic development and its relationship with environmental change, including the development of a sustainable model for **Arctic regional tourism** and a programme to improve knowledge of the Arctic marine environment.

2 - Barents Euro-Arctic Council: The declaration that established the **Barents Euro-Arctic Council (BEAR)** was signed in 1993 by Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, the Russian Federation, Sweden and the European Commission. Alongside the **Barents Euro-Arctic Council,** which is a forum for intergovernmental cooperation, the Barents **Regional Council (BRC)** has been established, a forum for cooperation between the thirteen regions of the Member States. The overall aim of the **Barents Cooperation** is to "*develop the region both socially and economically and to increase the region's competitiveness in Europe"* (Barents Council, 2010). The main priorities of the Barents **Euro-Arctic Council** can be summarized in five main objectives (Barents Euro-Arctic Council, 2010):

- ✓ To ensure sustainable development in the Barents Region with emphasis on social and economic factors, linking it closely to the compliance with environmental requirements, and also to support for the indigenous peoples, taking their interest into consideration and promoting their participation in cooperation.

- ✓ To implement a multilateral cooperation in the North, the division of labour among the regional councils and to coordinate their activity on rational use of the existing resources and avoid unnecessary duplication of efforts.

- ✓ To improve the visibility of the Barents cooperation and integrate it to other regional and EU levels.

- ✓ To consolidate and develop the cultural integration between the peoples of the region.

- ✓ To encourage the establishment of new multilateral relations in the region

The main tools for implementing cohesion, good governance and sustainable growth of the region are **working groups,** which are based on joint national and regional representation. These groups discuss subjects such as tourism, energy, culture, social issues, etc. Furthermore, project implementation through EU financial schemes, such as the **Baltic Sea Region Programme** and **Kolarctic Programme** took significant importance within the Barents cooperation

3 - Council of the Baltic Sea States: The Council of the **Baltic Sea States (CBSS)**, founded in 1992 in Copenhagen, is an overall political forum for regional intergovernmental cooperation. The members of the Council are: Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland, Russia, Sweden and the European Commission. The main objective of the **CBSS** is "*to contribute to ensuring positive developments within the Baltic Sea region and has served as a driving force for multi-lateral cooperation through regional cooperation"*[1]. To this end, the **CBSS** identifies political goals, creates action-plans, initiates projects and serves as a forum for the exchange of ideas concerning regional issues of common interest such as:

✓ Removing regional economic barriers to trade and investments.

✓ Facilitating cross-border cooperation through the EU programme such as **INTERREG**.

✓ Contributing input to the EU's policy frameworks of Northern Europe.

✓ Building confidence through the promotion of democracy and human rights.

The Council of the Baltic Sea States (CBSS) is open to third parties in order to achieve its goals.

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[1] http://www.cbss.org/

4 - Nordic Council / Nordic Council of Ministers: The Nordic Council was formed in 1952. The Council has 87 elected members from Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden as well as from three autonomous territories; the Faroe Islands, Greenland and Åland. The members of the Council are members of national parliaments, who are nominated by the party groups.

On-going political work in the Nordic Council is conducted through committees and party groups. The **Nordic Council** is managed by a secretariat which shares its authority with the **Nordic Council of Ministers**, which is a governments' cooperation forum. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden have been members of the **Nordic Council of Ministers since** 1971. Many of the **Council of Ministers** activities are carried out in the **Nordic Working groups**, information offices, institutions and co-operative bodies. The **Nordic Council** and the **Nordic Council of Ministers** share human relations. Their aim is to develop social, economic and environmental cooperation toward a sustainable development among these countries[2]. The purpose of Nordic co-operation is, on one hand, to make it attractive to live, work and do business in the Nordic Region, and on the other hand, to strengthen the Nordic countries internationally. This is done by Nordic co-operation in many areas such as: research, environment, welfare and culture. Following the **Framework Programme** (2009) the main activities of the Nordic council and the Nordic Council of Minister can be summarized:

- ✓ Promoting Nordic culture, which is a pillar for Nordic cooperation, in order to improve the visibility of the Nordic countries in the world, and create better conditions for international cooperation.

- ✓ Improving cooperation between the countries of the Council and the **EU** through joint programs on the environment, culture, economy, etc.

- ✓ Keeping the Nordic welfare model as a model of equality, freedom, tolerance and justice through joint projects on employment and education.

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[2] http://www.norden.org/en/nordic-council

- ✓ Maintaining the economic and individual freedom of movement by removing boundaries and barriers.

- ✓ Reduceing environmental impacts through policies for industry.

The actions taken to encourage travels within the area and measures taken on environmental and trade cooperation have considerable influence on tourism.

5 - North Calotte Council: The **North Calotte Council** was founded by the Nordic Council of Ministers in 1967 as a Pan-Nordic cooperation organisation. The North Calotte Council is the closest organization to the area that I have take as a case study, in fact its members comprise the highest administrative authorities in the provinces of **Nordland**, **Troms** and **Finnmark** in Norway, the region of **Lapland** in Finland, and the Province of **Norrbotten** in Sweden. The Council aims to strengthen the position of the North Calotte as a dynamic venue for European cooperation trough two networking groups for cultural and environmental cooperation: The **North Calotte Cultural Council** and the **North Calotte Environmental Council**. The aim is to generate new cross-border cooperation and support existing cooperation. Projects that have been adopted by this organization are focus on:

- ✓ Improving social conditions

- ✓ Promoting regional development and collaboration

- ✓ Developing the business sector and expertise environments

- ✓ Developing transport connection

- ✓ Promoting environmental and cultural resource

As we see many international organizations operate within the area of Lapland, the influence local policies and tourist planning decision. These organizations have different frameworks and policies, while at the same time, they share most of their objectives (figure 4.1). Despite the efforts toward involving third parties in their activities, the trans-territorial organizations actions are still too autonomous,

this leads to the duplication of efforts. The next paragraph focuses on the programmes of these organization with the **EU**' support.

Figures 4.1: Duplication of efforts in Lapland area
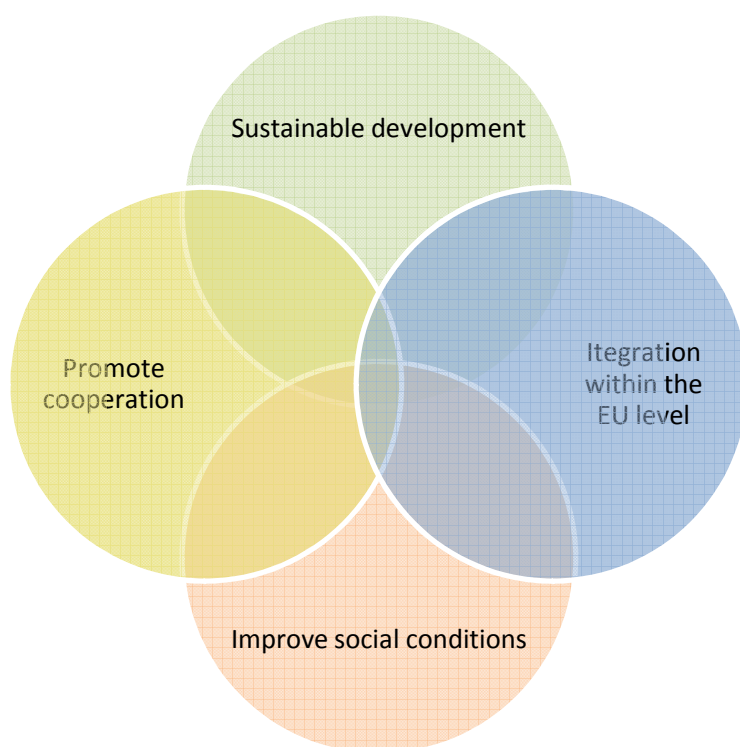
4.1.2 EU Cross-border projects in Lapland

As we see in the second chapter the initiatives of **European Community** are aid to complement structural fund operations, these initiatives are implemented and coordinated by different institutional bodies. In Lapland are present many of these initiatives are promote by the **EU** through the **INTERREG** programme, the most important ones are:

1 - INTERREG IV A North 2007-2013: This programme is the third in a consecutive
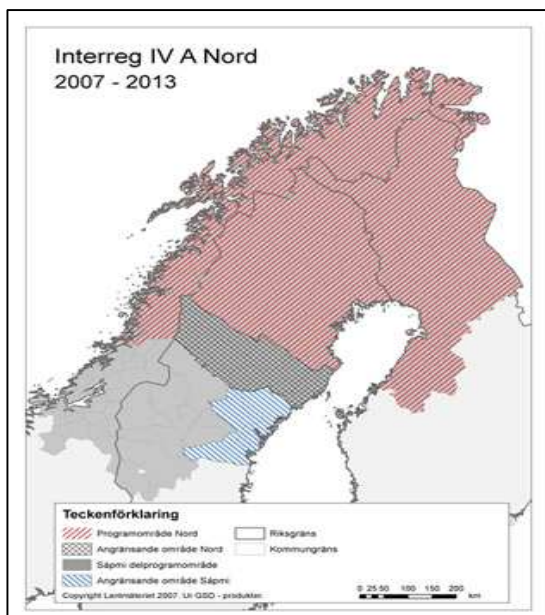
Figure 4.2 INTERREG north 2007-2013

series of cross-border cooperation projects in the northernmost part of Scandinavia; it was approved by Finland, Sweden and Norway for the period 2007-2013 period.

The Programme strategy underlines the needs and common challenges identified in the cross-border region by developing methods and structures that facilitate cooperation between the regions. This strategy aims to coordinate action among member states, regions, the EU, pan-Baltic organisations, financing institutions and non-governmental bodies in order to promote a more balanced development of the Region. The four main overall objectives of the Strategy are to make this area more: **Environmentally sustainable**, **Prosperous**, **Accessible** and **attractive and safe and secure**. One of the Programme's priority axes is the **Sápmi sub-Programme**, the aim is to "*develop Sami cultural life and industry by making use of their resources in an ecological and sustainable way*"[3].

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[3]http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/country/prordn/details_new.cfm?gv_PAY=SE&gv_reg=678&gv_PGM=&gv_defL=4&LAN=7

The total budget of the **INTERREG IV A North 2007-2013** programme is approximately €57 million and includes Community funding through the **ERDF** of some €34 million.

The programme covers the regions of **Lapland**, **Pohjois-Pohjanmaa** and **Keski-Pohjanmaa** in Finland and **Norrbottens län** and parts of **Västerbottens län** in Sweden. Participating regions in Norway are **Finnmarks**, **Troms** and **Nordlands**. The remaining part of the region of **Västerbottens län** Sweden can participate in the projects as an adjacent area, receiving a maximum 20% of the ERDF funding[4]. The priorities of the programme are:

- ✓ **Priority 1- Development of the Economy:** To increase the number of enterprises by 2013.

- ✓ **Priority 2 - Research, Development and Education:** To develop cooperation with higher educational institutions in regions for new project concerning innovation activities and to increase their knowledge of mechanisms used for successful entrepreneurship and innovative environments.

- ✓ **Priority 3 - Regional Functionality and Identity:** To strengthen cohesion through more cross-border connections and contacts, in order to improve the transfer of information and the movement of people, services and goods.

- ✓ **Priority 4 – Sápmi Unbounded Development:** The aim is to strengthen Sami culture and industry by creating opportunities for better structured business cooperation.

- ✓ **Priority 5 - Technical Assistance:** The overall objective of this priority is to support the management, evaluation and monitoring of the Programme.

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[4]http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=MEMO/08/414&format=HTML&aged=0&language=EN&guiL nguge

2 - Kolarctic Programme 2007-2013:
This programme promotes cross-border
cooperation between the countries in the
North Calotte and northeast Russia. The
Programme is funded by the European
Union though the **European
Neighbourhood and Partnership
Instrument (ENPI)**; and funding is
allocated to implement projects operating
in line with the strategy and priorities
commonly agreed by the Finnish,
Swedish, Norwegian and Russian partners.

Figure 4.3 Kolarctic Programme 2007-2013

The **strategic objective** of the Programme is to "*reduce the periphery of the
countries' border regions and its related problems as well as to promote multilateral
cross-border co-operation*" [5]. The Programme aims to develop the economic, social
and environmental cross-border potential, through the support of innovative cross-
border activities, accessibility, and the sustainable development of natural resources,
communities and cultural heritage. The priorities of the programme are:

- ✓ **Priority 1 - Economic and social development:** the first priority aims to
  develop small and medium enterprises and business co-operation, trade,
  sustainable transport, logistics and communication systems, to implement
  educational and research activities, to ensure the quality of public and
  private services, to develop energy co-operation and to develop labour
  markets and to support entrepreneurship.

- ✓ **Priority 2 - Common challenges: in order to** improve security, to
  prevent accidents and environmental risks and to improve border crossing
  efficiency, education and research.

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[5] http://www.kolarcticenpi.info/en

✓ **Priority 3 - People-to-people co-operation and identity building:** the third priority aims to enhance the connections among the people who inhabit the area. Undertake actions in the educational and cultural fields to enhance cross-border contacts between society groups and NGOs promote a local governance and mutual understanding.

3 - Baltic sea region 2007-2013: The **Baltic Sea Region Programme 2007-2013 (BSR)** has been designed following the EU's territorial cooperation objective. This is the third in a consecutive series of INTERREG programmes. The overall **strategic objective** of the Baltic Sea Region
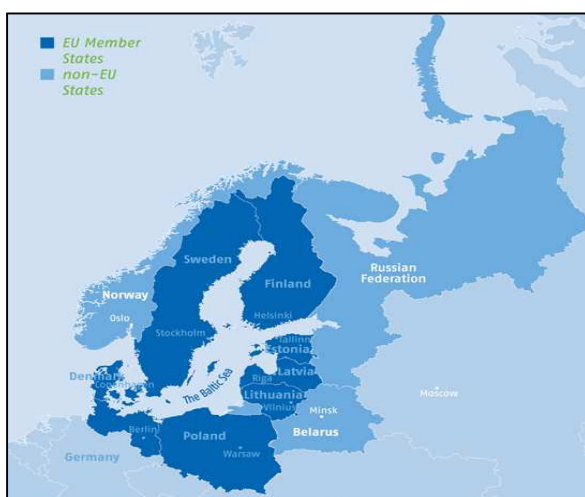

Figure 4.4 Baltic Sea Region 2007-2013

Programme is to "*strengthen the development towards a sustainable, competitive and territorially integrated Baltic Sea region by connecting potentials over the borders*" (ENPI 2007). The eligible area includes Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Sweden, and Northern parts of Germany as EU member states and Norway, North-West Russia and Belarus as neighbour partners.

This programme is financed by the **European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)** with 209 million Euros, **Norway government** with 6 million EUR and 23 million Euros provided by the **European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI)** for the benefit of the eligible regions in Russia and Belarus. The programme features four main thematic areas[6]:

✓ **Priority 1 - facilitating generation and dissemination of innovations across the BSR:** to enhance innovations in natural and technical science and as well non-technical innovations, such as business services, design

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[6] http://eu.baltic.net/Programme_document.98.html

and other market-related skills. To facilitate transfer of technology and knowledge

✓ **Priority 2 - improving the external and internal accessibility of the Baltic Sea region:** To promote transnational solutions in the field of transport, information and communication technology, in particular those overcoming functional barriers to both, diffusion of innovation and to traffic flows.

✓ **Priority 3 – encouraging a sustainable management of the sea resources:** To support operations toward reducing pollution inputs into and pollution impacts on the marine environment.

✓ **Priority 4 – improving the attractiveness of metropolitan region, cities and rural areas through co-operation:** This priority aims to make cities and regions more competitive, strengthening partnerships and supporting a viable economic transformation.

4 - Northern periphery 2007-2013: This programme aims to help peripheral and remote communities situated in the north of Europe to develop their economic, social and environmental potential. The programme includes the countries of Finland, Sweden, and Scotland in co-operation with the Faroe Islands, Greenland, Iceland and Norway. The overall objective of the
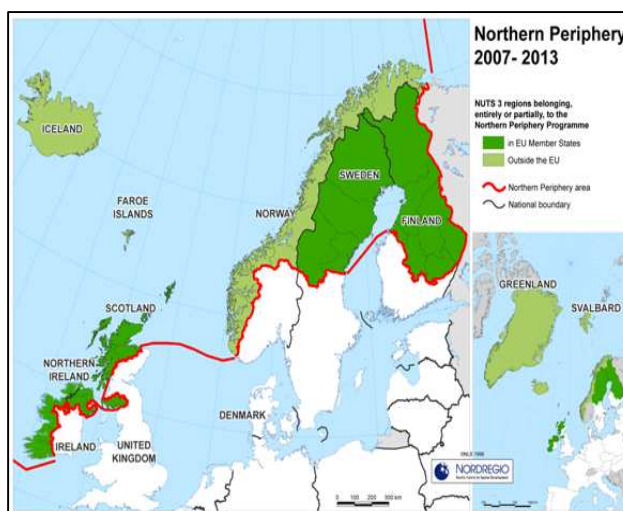

Figure 4.5 Northern periphery 2007-2013

programme aims "*to find, through transnational co-operation within the programme, creative ways to improve functionality and maximise the potential of the Northern Periphery, whilst seeking to compensate for the permanent disadvantages represented by harsh climate, long distances, complicated topography and sparse*

population" (programme monitoring committee 2007). In order to pursue these overall objectives the programme has identified three key points: to improve the competitiveness of regions, to give full recognition and exploitation of the human and natural resources available and to sustain the communities. These priorities have been divided into three measures:

- ✓ **Priority 1 – Communications:** Transportation, logistics and transport infrastructure and access to the information society

- ✓ **Priority 2 - Strengthen sustainable economic development:** Sustainable use of nature and natural resources and business innovation and development of human resources

- ✓ **Priority 3 - Community Development:** Household-related service provision and Public management and spatial planning

The **EU territorial cooperation** policies for the **2007–2013** are also significant for tourism. In these programmes, tourism mentioned as a development opportunity, furthermore the previously listed programmes mention in their measure and interested areas several fields that concern the tourist sector (figure 4.6).
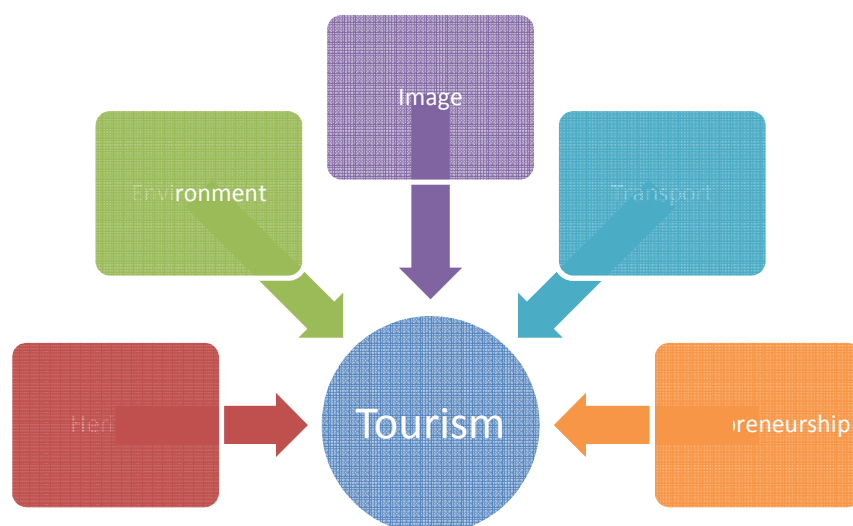
Figures 4.6 Tourism concerning fields in the EU programmes

4. 2 Tourist governance and public participation

4.2.1 New governance in Lapland

In a democratic political system the power belongs to people who can then delegate it to a group of elected representatives. In this setting, the participation of the public is crucial to ensure that the interests of everyone are taken into consideration, an essential element for all scales, wheteher national, city, or at the neighbourhood level. According to Kooiman (1993) Europe has undergone the shift from government to governance, or in other words many functions have been transferred from the public sector towards the private sector. In this new setting, public involvement becomes even more important for sustainable interaction among public and other actors.

The future involvement of the community, is focused on the evaluation and monitoring of developments to ensure that future phases of a development consider the community's concerns and/or aspirations, etc.

In the case of **Lapland**, the welfare state of Finland, Sweden and Norway has been changing since these countries has signed the **Schengen agreement**, Finland and Sweden joined the **EU** and Norway has started to cooperate with the European Community under the **European Economic Area (EEA)** rules (Saarinen 2009). Furthermore, the shift from govern to governance took place alongside the economic globalisation and the new regional vision of the **EU**.

Tourism has been affected from this process in different ways: arrangements of tourist policies, objectives and the relationship between the public and private sector has been changing during the last decades. Tourism is increasingly becoming a component of local development programmes, and governance has become an important concept in contemporary considerations of tourism planning and policy (Hall, 2008).

These partnerships between public and private sectors have developed as a result of decentralisation of government and EU membership. Therefore, governance has become an important topic in Nordic countries, where the public tourist provision is

mainly channelled through local authorities with local governments. The local authorities activity is tied with the role played from supranational bodies such as the **EU** and trans-national organizations that operate in the area as the **Euro-Arctic Council** and the **Nordic Council**. As we have seen in the previous paragraph, their activities are extremely important for tourism because these organizations establish and enhance projects focused on topic strictly related to tourism such as: **sustainable development**, **environment issues**, **social conditions**, **human mobility**, etc. Trans-national organization tourist activities can be divide in to two categories: on one hand, there are policies which influence tourism in a direct way (ex. managing regulation policy), and on the other hand, other activities aimed at influence fields concerning tourism (such as sustainable development).

In the end, the concept of multi level governance is very significant in peripheral areas such as Lapland, where the **EU cohesion policy** is an important tool for strengthening economic development and investment within its area. According to Hannel (2002:16) "*Due to a special situation in countries with vast territories and small populations, a special policy sector called "periphery policy" has arisen in Norden. Periphery policy is partly recognised as something different from the other aspects of regional policy . . . much of the regional policy attention is focused on periphery policy problems, and it is here that Norden deviates from EU countries*".

4.2.2 Public Participation

The concept of community participation was born outside the realm of official governmental structures (Gaventa, 1999). Social movements, local associations, residential interest groups, etc. are examples of how the local community can participate to the decision making process. Historically, public interest groups had to function in opposition to official policies using protest as a main tool. However, recently the public tends to be involved earlier in the planning process in order to strengthen the relevance, quality and sustainability of plans. In the Tourism Planning Process community participation can be an important tool toward sustainable tourism development.

At the **United Nations Conference on Environment and Development** held in Rio in 1992, the importance of the community participation in tourism has been underlined in the **sustainable development principles** defined by the council, "*That tourism development issues should be handled with the participation of concerned citizens, with planning decisions being adopted at the local level*" (Rio declaration, 1992). Participation should not be limited to holding others accountable, it should also serve as a community-development process, inducement to articulate grass-root movements, and stimulus to found non-governmental organizations (Ibidem). Inhabitants participation in the tourism decision making process is important for two reasons, on one hand they have the right to know how their place is exploited and, on the other hand, the citizens as taxpayers contribute significantly to the development of tourism through state investments in infrastructure which is essential to the success of tourism. As such, taxpayers must be regarded as equal partners and have the absolute right to be consulted in the making of any important decisions relative to tourism development.

Public participation/consultation in tourism helps to avoid costly mistakes and problems (World Bank, 2008), over the years this process has taken different forms in some destinations respect to others. Arnstein (1971) and Tonsun (1999) had classified local participation in three main categories that can be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 4.1 Local participation level in tourism

Participation level in tourism	Participation's degree (Armstein, 1971)	Typology of community participation (Tosun, 1999)
Active participation	Citizen Power	**Spontaneous Participation:** Bottom-Up approach; participation in decision making process; self planning.
Passive participation	Tokenism	**Induced participation:** Top-down approach; mostly indirect; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between different alternatives; feedback.
	Non-Participation	**Coercitive Participation:** Top-Down approach; mostly indirect; participation in implementation but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice.

Arnstein's typologies are developed in the context of developmental studies in general, and they are not related particularly to a sector of an economy. Instead Tosun's typology is designed specifically for tourism, and it elaborates each type of community participation with special references to the tourism industry.

Spontaneous participation in Tosun's model corresponds to degrees of **citizen power** in Arnstein's typology, it represents an ideal mode of community participation which provides full managerial responsibility and authority to host community.

Induced community participation in tourism development corresponds with degrees of citizen **tokenism** in Arnstein's typology, in this best type the host community is allowed to hear and be heard, they have a voice in the tourism development process but they do not have power to insure that their views will be taken into consideration by other powerful interest groups such as government bodies, multinational companies, and international tour operators.

Lastly **Coercive participation** represents the lowest level of the ladder in Tosun's and Arnstein's typology, where the real objective is not to enable people to

participate in the tourism development process, but to enable power holders to educate or cure host communities to turn away potential and actual threats to the future of tourism development (Tosun, 2004).

The overall objective of public participation is to take decisions that may meet the basic needs of host-communities, in order to reduce socio-political risks for tourist and tourism development. Although it seems that tourism development is based on host communities' priorities, we have to consider that it is the community that will be supplying construction workers, office staff, housekeepers and various other categories of employees at their establishments. In the early stages of the project public consultation/ participation can prevent the conflicts and negative perception which can affect the local community "*It is important to avoid the emergence of an 'us versus them' mentality which can manifest itself in various negative ways*" (Hanrahan, 2010).

Community participation in Lapland might be a pillar of tourism development, in fact **Sami** are the main cultural resources of the area. As we have seen, the **Sami** population has obtained political representation in their own countries through the Sami Council and several Sami organizations which have been established in order to promote and maintain their culture. Sami participation in the decision making should help to keep this process up, develop tourism authenticity in the area and avoid their migration to the richest areas southern Scandinavia.

4.3 Sami and tourism

4.3.1 Today condition

This paragraph will overview the Sami's role in tourism today, the research literature is integrated with and interview made to **Liisa Holmberg**, the Head of the **Sami educational institute of Inari** (Finland).

Historically, the Sami people were occupied with nature based activities, such as: reindeer herding, fishering and farming. Free trade agreements and the decrease of barriers to trade and travel facilitated international business in the north of Europe. This process has brought an increase in technology and consumer goods for the Sami people, there has also been an increased need for cash, which is pulling the Sami people out of their territories (Butler, Hinch, 2007). Liisa Holmberg expresses the main problems of this process which have affected the Sami area in the last decades:

> *"…60% of Sami population is leaving outside the Sami areas and the main problem is that most of them are children and family, they are leaving outside the Sami area and those children are out of the culture there, they don't get any Sami language teaching in school in the south of Finland, they don't get any kind of cultural events like here, they don't even hear the Sami language, that's the problem..."; "…The lack of jobs is one of the biggest migration reason, and they leave also because the lack of places to study.Here in Lapland we don't have any Universities and if you want to study in the university you have to go outside, and then you are young, alone, you get a boyfriend or a girlfriend, then get married and you know how it works…"*

Thus, many reasons, such the recent decline in reindeer herding, pushed the reaming Sami living in the area toward new economies that can be exploited in their territories, one of them is Tourism, that is regarded as a working and entrepreneurial opportunity for the Sami.

The number of tourist attractions and activities offered in Sápmi increased during the previous decade, today in Inari it is possible for tourists to take reindeer safari, learn the traditional reindeer herders' history, fish in the lake with a real Sami and so on.

Furthermore, in Lapland the Sami culture is currently accessible to tourists in museums, at cultural events, in outdoor cultural sites, etc. (Muüller and Petterson, 2001). Therefore, tourism can be a contributor to cultural and economic development within the Sami community, a chance to preserve their own culture and to enhance pride and self-confidence. However tourism can cause a overexploitation of local resources and loss of authenticity and identity. Liisa Holmberg considers tourism as a good tool for development and a key factor for keeping the Sami culture alive:

"Tourism *is a very good way to keep our culture, if the Sami are doing this in their way, in the summer come a lots of tourists and this is a good reason to keep our traditions alive and transmit them to our children. For instance, the Sami songs are part of our culture, when the Sami start the Tourism activities they can teach the young people these songs to sing for tourists because it brings money into the area, and at the same time the songs survive into population. Some Sami people do not like to sell their traditions, but if we do it in the right way, then, it is a good way to keep our traditions alive*". In answer to the question "*what is the right way?*" she answered "*The original one, made by the people who are living there, and they have to earn the money*"

Plates 4.1 A Sami and his reindeer gave a sleigh ride to some children[7]

Tourists to the Sami area tend to regret that the area has been modernized and judge tourism as one of the causes of fuzziness of the contemporary indigenous

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[7] *Source:* http://www.reindeerblog.org/2010/11/30/reindeer-living-in-garage-in-rovaniemi-finland/

culture (Lyngnes and Viken, 1998, Tuuluntue, 2006), without considering the fact that the Sami people themselves make many efforts to modernize their culture.

Institutes such as the Sami educational institute of Inari help this process, in fact the mission of the school is to "*train its students to determine what tools are needed to sustainably maintain or develop the Sami area while protecting the environment and peoples, as well as, acquire the skills and the knowledge to actively participate in Arctic issues*"[8].

The Sami interest to tourism has also brought many signs of re-ethnification among them, signs of this include the creation of a Sami flag, the use again of Sami traditional names, Sami parliaments, writing place names in the Sami language and the creation of a Sami museum. These signs, as well as being a point of interest to tourists, are also a reason for strengthening and their culture and identity.

> "*I was born in a Sami area and in my family we used to speak Inari Sami… we are different groups of Sami living in the north, all of these groups have their own characteristics, like language, customs...but when I see the Sami flag I feel so proud about it*"

As seen in the second chapter Sami society has had a stronger political and formal position at the beginning of this new millennium than the two previous centuries; institutions like Sami parliaments and Sami representatives bodies have strengthened their position respect to their own country and international organizations. Protection and maintenance of Sami Culture has become the key to tourist development in Lapland, for example the **Finnish council of Lapland** considers the Sami culture as a pillar to promoting the authenticity in this area.

> "*It's good that the Sami culture is one of the core values in the Lapland development strategy. But it is up to us how to promote our culture and how to cooperate with these Programmes…for example, here* (in Inari) *we have our own projects with Sami indigenous doing activities with tourists, and we get money for those programs*"

Tourism is accepted and seen as a job opportunity, a chance for cultural change but also a risk for commercialization and potential degradation of the Sami culture. One of the implications of being a society with strong roots in traditions is that values

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[8] http://www.uarctic.org/compactArticles.aspx?m=73

other than those dominating the capitalist economy still exist but are in the process of vanishing. While celebrating its traditions, the Sami society is and wants to be modern. Therefore, the division of tourism impacts into positive and negative categories is never absolute, but depends on the goals and values of the observer. In any case, such categorizations give life to a continued and necessary discussion. Ultimately, both host and guest will benefit from the development of well-organized and sustainable indigenous tourism, the key factors of this process are **responsibility** and **respect for the culture**.

4.3.1 Sami and the EU

The Sami condition has followed the integration of their own country with the EU policy. In the last decades, the Sami's contacts with the EU have led to increased investments in business,the labour market and employment policy measures. For the **EU** it is natural to invest resources in retaining the diversity of Europe's cultures, and the Sami are an important element in this respect. As an indigenous people, the Sami hold a special position in relation to other minority groups in Europe. The EU's regional policy, which is aimed at increasing economic and social cohesion between member states, is an important instrument in reducing regional imbalances and differences in economic development and this process is financed through structural funds. For example, the **INTERREG NORTH IV** has a sub programme called Sápmi which aims is to develop Sami cultural life and industry by making use of their resources in an ecological and sustainable way. Through the EU's structural fund programme, the Sami have gained access to resources for Sami business and cultural development. Regional authorities, municipalities and local Sami players have moved closer to each other during the work on concrete development projects within the framework of the EU programmes. Sami institutions, organisations, associations, foundations and other players have been forced to look beyond the traditional subsidy channels in order to finance their projects. This has led to increased interaction with municipalities, regional and national authorities, as well as a joint assumption of responsibility for Sami social development. For example, the

Sami protocol, which has been attached to the agreement on Swedish membership of the European Union, recognises the obligations that Sweden has in relation to the Sami people. The protocol establishes that Sweden has to preserve and develop the Sami's living conditions, language, culture and way of life. The protocol also underlines that the Sami culture and lifestyle are dependent on primary sources of income, such as reindeer herding in areas where the Sami traditionally live[9].

In Lapland the overall objective of the Sampi sub-programme consists of strengthening and preserving the Sami's traditional trades, at the same time as creating the conditions for developing new, vital businesses on the basis of culture and social life. The long-term goal is a differentiated and developed Sami commercial sector that is based on close ties between the natural environment, culture and tradition. It is important to utilise and develop traditional Sami knowledge, higher education and research adapted to Sami conditions. The Sami successes in the EU can be summarised as follows:

- ✓ Sápmi has been designated as a region in Europe, and the Sami people's international work has been broadened as a result of the Sami's special conditions and circumstances being viewed from new perspectives.

- ✓ A fund (INTERREG) where Norway, Finland, Sweden and Russia are working jointly for the development and reinforcement of Sami business and cultural life.

- ✓ With the support of the EU's subsidiary principle, an improved form of self-determination has been achieved as a result of the Sami Parliaments and the other publicly elected bodies being responsible for and taking decisions regarding the use of the funds, as well as prioritising the work that has to be done.

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[9] http://www.eng.samer.se/servlet/GetDoc?meta_id=1110

PART III : CONCLUSION

CHAPTER 5
APPLICATION IN REGION LOMBARDIA

5.1 Birth and history of the Regio Insubrica

5.1.1 The origin of the Regio Insubrica

The **Regio insubrica** is a Euroregion born in 1995 between Canton Ticino and the Provinces of Como, Varese and Verbano Cusio Ossola. It was established following the principle of territorial cooperation expressed in the declaration of the European Council held in Madrid in 1980.

The origin of the **Regio Insubrica** dates back thousands of years ago, and its history, as well as many socio-economic factors, have strongly encouraged its development.

In its history we can find the reasons that lead the actors of the territory, institutionally divided into different geopolitical entities, to create a new form of cross-border cooperation, which is more specific and more suitable for the area.

The region finds its origins in the Iron Age, when the population of the Insubres dominated the area. At that time the **transpadano**[1] territory was already an area with uniform cultural and geographical characteristics.

During the Bronze Age the Golasecca civilization controlled watercourses and mountain passes, thanks to which they had commercial dealings with the Greeks, the Etruscans and the transalpine Celts. It seems like that since the Iron Age the control of mountain passes such as The San Gottardo Pass and the San Bernardino Pass has been fundamental for the central economic role played by the Insubrian territory. During the 5th Century these commercial dealings reached their peak, also thanks to an economic system that exploited important resources such as the ports on the Adriatic Sea and the various fluvial systems.

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[1] **Traspadano territory** corresponds to the zone of the **ancien tGaul Transpadana**, excluding the areas of Brescia, Val Camonica, Cremona and Mantova.

Great quantities of goods were thus directed towards the Po Valley, and were in part distributed to the regions of the Insubrian lakes.

The **Regio Insubrica** stood out not only for its commercial activity but also for a great and constant social development, which created a solid historic-cultural basis that survived all the following institutional reorganizations. In fact on the territory we can find long lasting cultural and economic factors, which despite all the historic events and the divisions of the last centuries, cannot be ignored.

Up to the beginning of the 5th century in the area there were no real urban conglomerations, since there was not an area that could function as a chief-town for the region. The most important centres at the beginning of the 5th century were villages, rural centres and administrative centres. Thanks to its geographical position, this area became a crossroads for trade between North and South and until the year 1000 it did not undergo relevant institutional changes.

However, with the beginning of the new millennium, three areas that had since then been under the jurisdiction of Milan, were now under the jurisdiction of Como and this brought about a significant change in the political geography, as Como became the new area of influence, and began to exert its authority on the whole Insubrian territory.

From 1200 up to 1400, the area underwent many political, economic and social changes, and the Regio Insubrica came out of a long and complex period of fights among city-states with a new identity. New institutions, better climatic conditions, and a considerable growth in population led to a more massive and regular exploitation of the alpine resources.

At the beginning of the 13th century the opening of the Gotthard pass to the big trades has been an important turning point, and from that moment the transport of goods became another important resource alongside agriculture. The 13th century was also characterized by the struggles between Como and Milan, two cities that competed for the control over the Alpine region. The consequences of this conflict were pretty heavy since after the subjugation of **Como** in 1337, when the Insubrian territories became part of the new political structure of the Visconti state.

In the late Middle Ages, under the rule of the Visconti of Milan, a new process of political and administrative unification took place, and the new political Insubrian geography became very complex and structured. The territories went under the control of different noble families, while the Visconti ceded the upper valleys to the Urani. Due to this crisis, northern areas had to take important political decisions that led them to join the **Swiss League**.

The end of the Middle Ages was thus characterized by the rule of the transalpine countries on some northern areas of the Insubrian territories. This brought about a first important political split of the subalpine area, which up to that moment and for almost 200 years had been under the same political influence.

The reason why part of the territories situated in the south of the Alps joined the **Swiss League** was the centralization process imposed by central administrations at the end of the 14th century.

The Age of the Communes was marked by a heavy tax burden with many consequences for the rural areas that began to see the city as a real danger. This explains the autonomous movement undertaken by the northern Insubrian regions against the cities. Due to this fact, both the cities and the Insubrian regions took important political decisions: cities situated on the plains had to come to terms with the mountain regions by granting them many privileges.

But mountain regions refused any project of centralization and joined the three transalpine mountain communities that were already part of the Swiss League.

The choices made at the end of the Middle Age, thus, partly explain some of today's socio-political differences that coexist in the **Regio Insubrica**, not only among the areas belonging to the **Swiss Confederation** and to the **Italian Republic** but also inside these entities.

These division became particularly clear in the late 19th century, when the political situation of the **Insubrian area** led to the creation of a real border within the territory. This process involved all Western Europe; in fact the birth of Nation States drew solid institutional borders that remained almost impervious until the end of the Second World War.

5.1.2 Toward a new view

At the end of the **Middle Ages** we had a first important institutional breakdown within the territory, but at the end of the 19th century we witnessed what we can define as the biggest geopolitical division ever in the sub-alpine territory. New **economic relations**, the **Swiss Constitution** laid in 1848 and the unification of the **Kingdom of Italy** in 1861 were all precursor events of this division and they all led to the creation of a border within the sub-alpine territories. After the introduction of the Gotthard Rail Tunnel, Switzerland began to invest in the sub-alpine region, starting a new phase of international relations.

At the beginning of the 19th century the territories of the Italian area of **Switzerland** were the main business partner of other countries of the sub-alpine territory, but after the creation of the border and thanks to faster connections between north and south this role was taken by the **Swiss Confederation**, which began to have commercial dealings with the **Kingdom of Italy**.

In other words, the **Regio Insubrica** became a border-region, where the relationships among the different entities were established by geopolitical identities that were much greater than the previous ones. The Gotthard axes led to the creation of the urban centres of Canton Ticino and the city of Chiasso, which became a focal point for the transalpine trade. This development brought some investments also in the Italian border-regions, but did not mitigate the long lasting rivalry between the mountains and plains, and the sub-alpine region continued to be damaged by the creation of this new border.

Moreover, the investments made by the confederate companies in the Italian part of the **Regio Insubrica** did not improve the already weak partnership.

At the beginning of the 1950s, border dealings between the two entities that regulated the relationships in the Insubrian regions entered a new phase that lasted until the crisis of 1975. After the Second World War the idea of border in **Europe** underwent many changes;

Nation States slowly began to delegate power to institutional bodies that were closer to the territory. Even Switzerland, that came out of the Second World War almost

unharmed, paid the consequences of these changes. The border slowly lost its significance, it acted just as a filter and became an instrument of the national economic politic. The border turned into an area full of job opportunities and full of goods in which it became possible to develop a project of urbanization that could strengthen the relationships with the border.

The 80s were the starting point of this new framework, and many labour-intensive branches of the Helvetic industry began to carry out a process of localization in the Italian area of Switzerland. Two there were main reasons that lead to this choice and both were a consequence of the creation of the new border. From an economic view the difference between the purchasing power and the quality of life in the two sides of the border made it possible to pay border-workers less than their Helvetic colleagues. The second factor (institutional-political) was bound to the Helvetian restrictive policy of control and restriction of resident labour.

In the **Canton Ticino** the number of workers increased from 5.000 to 35.000 in the period 1950-1975, and thanks to the flow of capital from Italy, Lugano became the third Swiss financial centre. This positive phase was characterized by the development of unilateral relationships that made Switzerland the most favoured country. These new relationships did not help to resume contacts among the Insubrian populations that had been divided by the border-frontier for almost a hundred years.

The Italian cross-border workers who moved to **Switzerland** mostly come from **southern Italy**, so they could not resume relationships and ties that were unfamiliar to them. In conclusion, until the 70s the process of labour flows as well as the increase of capital flows had been widely incomplete and asymmetric. The border acted as a filter between two different socio economic and political-institutional systems, this situation led to a situation of differential income and thus to the development of some activities that brought disadvantages and disparities within the area (Ratti, 1991). Towards the end of the 70s the border finally began to be conceived from the two countries as an area of contact. This model was based on a new conception of border function that aimed at abolishing all those factors that were considered as an obstacle by the two sides of the border. In the 80s a new policy

finally sanctioned a breakdown with the past and eliminated all the inconsistencies that developed during the post war period.

If we consider the present situation as the result of a long lasting historic process, we can say that this sub-alpine territory has long represented one area as whole, characterized by strong ties among its components.

But at the end of the **Middle Ages**, and above all in the last 150 years, all the elements that had been coexisting peacefully together in the Insubrian territory, then divided into two different conceptions, setting up dynamics that were unequal, contradictory and unnatural.

But now cross-border cooperation is trying to make up for all the difficulties of all these years of difficult relationships, and it aims to restore all the mutations of this last century.

At the end of the 70s different factors created a favourable climate and the border began to act as a **contact area** (Rouge, 1999).

Between the 80s and the 90s the situation changed and the border became a meeting point, especially after the Swiss regions refused to join the **European Economic Area (EEA)**. In Switzerland the negative vote on the **EEA** had some repercussions during this first decade: the subalpine area experienced a phase of uncertainty, during which the border kept on being considered as a filter. The differential income, especially for what concerns remuneration and border trade, was still a common practice and the growing border permeability due to the process of European Integration had a lower impact than in other territories.

In order to manage the new area, the regional actors tried to reduce this gap through collaboration with neighbours who lived beyond borders. From the end of the 80s until now, this is one of the main reasons that has caused the creation of cross-border cooperation not only in the Insubrian region but also in Europe. Most cross-border areas develop after both sides realize they have common problems and issues to solve. This is what happened in the new-born **Regio Insubrica**, despite it existed as a geographical area for almost 2.000 years.

Cross-border labour and the growing flow of goods have led to economic and social imbalances that are difficult to regulate. Moreover, the existing transport

infrastructures cannot bear the massive cross-border mobility flows, and there are also ecological and environmental problems that not only affect national borders. Other factors such as tourism, environmental planning and economic development aim towards the will for common planning and cooperation.

European cross-border areas have a common goal that is to join together actors and spaces which will loosen ties with their own institutional areas in order to adopt new ties with neighbouring areas on a functional basis. In these areas there will be a new idea of institutional border: Switzerland's cross-border cooperation not only involves different actors, but it acts on an individual as well as on an international level.

We can classify cross-border cooperation in the **Regio Insubrica** in three groups, and this classification is based on the nature of its participants (Rouge, 1999):

- ✓ **Interstate structures:** The most important one is the **Swiss and ItalianChamber of Commerce** established in 1965 which is an intergovernmental commission that deals with issues regarding regional and cross-border cooperation. This body has been working for more than twenty years as a solid point of reference and connection between the **Swiss-Italian chambers of Commerce** in the border area. An annual meeting is set up to discuss the problems that unite all the **Italian provin**ces and the **Swiss Cantons**, focusing on infrastructural issues and connections among the different territories.

- ✓ **Institutional cooperation:** This kind of cooperation is carried out by a special commission for the study of common issues. This body was established in 1981 and is Milan-based.

- ✓ **Intersectoral organizations:** In these organizations the leading role is played by regional actors. In the Insubrian territory, from a historic and political point of view, institutions and regional actors are systems that together with their own organizations work for a better and closer functioning of the whole system focusing on daily cross-border issues.

The agreements between regional and local communities aim to make it possible for the cross-border communities to examine together common issues in order to reach common solutions. In Europe these bodies are generally defined as **Euroregions**.

One of these is the Regio Insubrica, born in 1995 as an association between regional entities such as the Canton Ticino and the Italian Provinces of Como, Varese and Verbano-Cusio-Ossola. The contribution of the **Swiss and Italian Chamber of Commerce** to the development of the association is also very important.

Cooperation has been promoted by **Switzerland** that after the negative vote in the **European Economic Area** on 1992, found itself in a phase of uncertainty.

This decision on one hand has led to the stop of cross-border initiatives and on the other, it has brought all the actors of regional cooperation to think about ways and solutions to carry out new forms of cooperation. The result has been a reinforcement of the cooperation and the pursuit of a new action plan. The population did not back up the European ambitions of the confederation, and this is the reason why **Switzerland** changed its attitude towards cross-border cooperation. The Swiss authority is thus trying to reinvest in this sector and has again begun to support cross-border institutions by trying to take part in new processes. In other words the state is once again an integral part of the cross-border relationships undertaken by regional actors. The Cantons are also leaving the door open to Europe, expressing their will to strengthen interregional as well as cross-border relationships (ibidem).

This new framework promotes a regional as well as an European opening that develops on different territorial, economic and social levels. All the strategies are trying to consolidate within a regional, European and global context which are in constant evolution (Balmer 1996).

In the second half of the '90s the **Regio Insubrica** represented the will of the **Canton Ticino** to play a role in the socioeconomic field, and it also represented a means for the Confederation to support its European ambitions (Bramanti - Ratti, 1993). **Regio Insubrica** has thus become a new point of reference for the Swiss sub-alpine industrial development and for the development of its development policies.

In the first half of the '90s cross-border cooperation was handled from the top, without directly involving neither the actors nor the Insubrian populations. This was seen more as a stimulus for the Swiss-Italian relationships than as a need for the Insubrian area. However at the end of the Millennium cooperation acquired a local aspect and the Regio Insubrica turned into an area with a great potential (Ratti, 1990).

The **Regio Insubrica** has thus been considered not as a natural area with its own history, but as a brand-new area, created after the changes in the Swiss-Italian relationships and thanks to cooperation instruments that local authorities have at their disposal.

In the second half of the 90s the creation of the **Regio Insubrica** has definitely sanctioned the will to build or to restore an area in order to make it more functional. Furthermore, this cooperation who may be carried out in the future by actors who are closer to the issues of the territory and willing to solve them.

Figure 5.1 Regio Insubrica Logo[2]

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[2] *Source:*http://www.infoinsubria.com/2010/11/edo-bobbia-nuovo-segretario-generale-della-regioinsubrica/

5.2 Cross-border cooperation in Regio Insubrica

5.2.1 EU measures

The Regionalism of the **European Union** focuses on the harmonization and the elimination of barriers among European countries. In the past European Integration was carried out by Nation States, while now it has taken two different directions, a supranational one from one side and a local and regional one from the other.

This European regional view represents a synthesis of these two aspects of the scenario that is marking Europe in this third millennium. This regional view gives us two different pictures of Europe: it portrays a progressive fragmentation due to the different social, economic and political conditions existing in the territory, but it also portrays a patchwork of different situations which can be complementary among each other.

In this new scenario cross-border areas play an important role, because their main objective is to keep different institutional scenarios together and to foster dialogue among them (Bramanti, Ratti 1993). The **Regio Insubrica** is part of this new idea of **Europe** and is the tool that allows Switzerland to play a role in this process of European harmonization on a local and regional level. The goal of **Euroregions** is to gather different local communities with common problems, to smooth out differences and to create a new identity. In the **Regio Insubrica** there are different but compatible regional economic systems, antithetical institutional structures that are nevertheless in a territory that is morphologically, linguistically and historically uniform. Cooperation in this territory aims to bring back to life an old scenario and, at the same time, to connect Switzerland with the rest of Europe. The unity of cross-border areas, a process that will involve the future **Euroregions,** aims to strength them in order to make them able to deal with a complex system of relationships with outside areas and thus to face all the globalization processes that are no longer sufficiently handled by national economies (Ratti, 1990).

Cooperation among cross-border regions is not an easy task, and the **EU**, which is perfectly aware of this, is making a lot of promotional efforts, focusing not only on the countries of the Union but also on neighboring countries.

Support on cooperation among cross-border areas is carried out by the INTERREG program. Switzerland encourages the creation of new local organizations, and the **Regio Insubrica** is not only a point of reference for the sub-alpine local communities, but also plays a key role as a point of contact between European and Swiss ambitions and their accomplishment. In the **Regio Insubrica** cooperation consists mostly in promoting free aggregation of cooperation initiatives among regional actors, starting from spontaneous aggregations and from agreements among regional actors. Nevertheless the agreements that rule the functioning of cross-border cooperation communities for the most part do not have premises or declarations of principles, and focus instead on the description of members on the structures and on the functioning of the organization.

All these communities have similar structures and characteristics, that is to say five main ranges of intervention which appear in all the agreements for the institution of cross-border bodies:

- ✓ economy and employment

- ✓ transport, tourism and telecommunications

- ✓ culture and education

- ✓ public health and social issues

- ✓ land use and environmental management.

Legal competence represents a big problem for the right functioning of cross-border communities because two different legal systems that coexist together in the same area can lead to many legal conflicts; and consequently, national legislation have rarely tried to promote the development of cross-border cooperation.

Regio Insubrica promotes cooperation in three different ways (Regio Insubrica, 1999):

- ✓ By giving innovative impulses on real issues and leaving the task of handling the executive phase to the institutionally competent bodies

- ✓ Through the overcoming of obstacles that are due to the lack of mutual relationship, to incomprehension or bureaucratic formalities.

- ✓ Through the development of a cross-border oriented attitude that brings associations as well as individuals who live on different sides of the border to take initiatives and to participate in all possible opportunities.

Since it has become effective, the **Regio Insubrica** has developed research project and studies, made many proposals, organized sports events, discussed environmental as well as employment issues and much more.

5.2.2 Current cooperation projects: INTERREG ITALY-SWITZERLAND

As we saw in the previous paragraphs, Regio Insubrica has always considered cooperation as fundamental to its development. Regio Insubrica has been in **INTERREG** program since 1994. The analysis of the **Cross-border Cooperation Operational Program Italy-Switzerland** shows how the jointly responsible administrations have assigned more concrete tasks to cross-border cooperation in comparison with previous programs (**INTERREG II A 1994-1999** and **INTERREG III A 2000-2006**) in order to really improve cooperation from an administrative point of view and in order to find common solutions for the management and better exploitation of cross-border resources.

All the components of the operative program have a pragmatic imprint, and all interventions aim to improve managerial and planning skills of the actors involved in the cooperation at different levels. Eligible areas to the program are:

TABLE 5.1 Administrative divisions in Regio Insubrica

Country	Areas	Institutional level
Italy	Valle d'Aosta	Region
	Como	Province
	Lecco	Province
	Varese	Province
	Sondrio	Province
	Vercelli	Province
	Verbano-Cusio-Ossola	Province
	Biella	Province
	Novara	Province
	Bolzano	Province
Switzerland	Canton Ticino	Canton
	Canton Vallese	Canton
	Canton of Grigioni	Canton
Flexibility areas	Milan	Province
	Bergamo	Province
	Brescia	Province
	Pavia	Province
	Turin	Province
	Alessandria	Province

This territory boasts a central and strategic position not only in the European context but also in the context of transnational cooperation spaces of the Mediterranean, of Central Europe and the the Alpine Space.

Plate 5.1 Landscape photgraph of Teglio (Sondrio), Italy[3]

FIGURE 5.2 Regio Insubrica administrative area

In the territory there are significant linguistic and cultural cross-border identities that are not only the historic result of territorial proximity but that also offer important opportunities to improving cross-border cooperation. These identities have been fundamental for the development of different cross-border bodies, which are now

carrying out different forms of cooperation that aim to study and find solutions to the issues of the **Alpine area**.

Regions, Cantons and Autonomous Provinces have one global goal and that is to support integration processes among production systems by taking advantage of the geographical position and of the proximity of economically developed territories in order to guarantee the strengthening of the cooperation process between the two fronts, despite there are still many limits and many factors that slow down integration.

The administrations involved want to bring out the numerous bilateral agreements between **EU** and **Switzerland**, such as the **Shengen Agreement** stipulated in 2005, which allows Switzerland and its citizens to strengthen their relationships with Europe, which can lead the judicial systems of the two countries to become more compatible.

The context analysis of the area on which the cooperation program focuses has confirmed the centrality of the area of cross-border cooperation in terms of geographical position, as well as in terms of economic relevance. The **Regio Insubrica** is situated in the centre of Europe and is crossed by massive flows of goods and people. It is an economically developed area that nevertheless presents some signs, even if not homogeneous, of slowdown in economic growth.

Local economic systems are exposed to global competition, which is the main factor that threatens the competitiveness of production systems of the area, where small and medium enterprises are the majority and whose relationships are competitive more than collaborative. This general framework draws attention to the need to take advantage of this geographical centrality, as well as of the closeness of the economically developed territory, in order to strengthen integration processes among production systems and in that way to bring out the big potential of this area.

The conclusions of the socio-economic analysis have shown how the program strategy has to focus on some particular needs: first of all, environmental quality, which is fundamental for the competitiveness of this area. It presents, as a matter of fact, "*a natural heritage of extreme value, which is threatened by important dynamics of economic development*" (Operating Program INTERREG Italy-Switzerland, 2007).

Thus an intervention is necessary to safeguard the attractiveness of the cross-border territory as well as public health, through the improvement of air quality, the reduction of traffic congestion, the exploitation of renewable resources to produce energy, and through the coordinated management of risks and emergencies. It is also necessary to guarantee the preservation and the development of biodiversities, of natural and cultural heritage in order to promote diversification in rural areas as well as the development of forms of **sustainable tourism**.

The program considers **sustainable tourism** as a key sector for further development of the area, since its territory has a great natural potential. This potential has to be exploited in order to achieve a process of environmental protection that will strengthen the network of private and public operators who are interested in promoting tourism, and to carry out a process of integration of the whole tourism chain as well as the improvement of accessibility and mobility of the territory.

At the same time the integration processes among the economic systems of the two sides have to go hand in hand with the strengthening of the institutional and non institutional cross-border cooperation in health, education, training and culture sectors, in order to support the integration process of immigrants, to avoid discrimination of the underprivileged and to grant a fair integration of the labour markets of the two areas under a single market through the match between labour supply and demand.

In conclusion, there is a global goal that can be divided into three specific goals, which develops in three ranges of intervention.

- ✓ **Objective 1:** Combining territory development with sustainable environmental management.

- ✓ **Objective 2:** Encouraging the development of an economy based on innovation and integration of tourism resources, transport networks and services in cross-border areas.

✓ **Objective 3:** Strengthening cooperation processes in social, institutional and cultural fields.

In order to accomplish these goals, it is necessary to act in these priority fields: Territory and Environment, Competitiveness and quality of life, and technical support.

Territory and environment

The operative programme shows how the cross-border area has a very valuable natural and environmental heritage with great biological diversity. The most characteristic environment is the Alpine area, but there are also many other valuable typologies of natural environment. The territory is nevertheless exposed to high natural and environmental risks, as well as to ecological and technological risks due to industrialization that focuses in urban centres rather than in rural areas. Moreover, the reduction of agricultural areas implies the disappearance of the subdivision between agricultural areas and natural environment and the disappearance of semi-natural cultivations (pasture and meadows) of great relevance for the preservation of the landscape. The new planning aims to "*combine territory development with sustainable environmental management*" (OP INTERREG Italy-Switzerland, 2007) and intends to proceed in these three directions:

✓ **Objective 1 – Encouraging a combined management of natural risks:** In particular the goal is to identify common innovative systems for the analysis, monitoring and management of risks and emergencies that allow a more coordinated, effective and timely intervention.

✓ **Objective 2 – Protecting, managing and exploiting environmental resources:** Defining instruments, interventions and studies for the sustainable planning and management of territory and water resources and thus guaranteeing the compatibility of human activity and territorial development with the protection and the fruition of such heritage.

✓ **Objective 3 – Encouraging the integration of the agro-forestry division and promoting its innovation:** improving agro-alimentary and forest production and promoting innovation and joint experimentation in order to encourage the protection of rural areas and integrated farming practices.

Competitiveness

The most important factor that characterizes this economic system is the **tourism sector**, which is characterized by the preponderance of small and medium enterprises. In particular, the operative programme shows some weak points in the economic system of the area:

✓ Still inadequate collaboration and strong competitiveness among the companies of the two sides, above all in the tourism sector.

✓ Limited investments in Research & Development and low rates of innovation of the entire economic-production system.

✓ The shortage of rail and road connections between the two sides and the lack of coordination between Italian and Swiss transport services.

The goal of this new plan is thus to "*encourage the development of an economy system based on innovation and on the integration of tourism resources as well as transport networks and services in cross-border areas*" (OP INTERREG Italy-Switzerland 2007) through an integrated action that aims to:

✓ **Objective 1 – Develop the integration of the cross-border touristic area:** Encouraging the creation of an image and of a system that brings out local peculiarities to overcome localism, promoting the full integration of touristic resources and operators employed in the sector.

✓ **Objective 2 – Encourage cooperation among small and medium enterprises of the two sides:** Encouraging cooperation in research and innovation in order to strengthen competitiveness in the area, supporting

the cooperation and the integration of cross-border production systems.

✓ **Objective 3 – Improve networks and services in the transport sector:** Encouraging the integration of the cross-border area and higher sustainability for the transprt of goods and passengers, in order to promote better integration of transport services and to increase initiatives for the unification of the security standards of the passes, of their gateways and of information to the users.

Quality of life

The operative programme shows that there is a solid cooperation culture in the area based on deep-routed forms of spatial aggregations and based on the presence of a historic-cultural heritage of great value, as well as on solid traditions.

On the other hand, there are instead many weak points that hamper the improvement of the quality of life in the area:

✓ Strong cultural variety and linguistic heterogeneity

✓ a restricted labour market and thus the difficulty for enterprises to find qualified human resources

✓ Limited diffusion of ICT among companies, public administrations and citizens.

The programme intends to fight all these limits and to "*improve quality of life in the area by strengthening cooperation processes in the social as well as in the institutional field and by exploiting the cultural heritage*" (OP INTERREG Italy-Switzerland, 2007).

All this will be accomplished through the strengthening of a cross-border identity, through the exchange of experiences and good practices among institutional, economic, social and cultural actors. This goal can be achieved following these four objectives:

✓ **Objective 1 – Strengthening common identity through preservation and development of cultural heritage:** Refresh and developing folk memory of the territory through a new idea of cultural promotion and through the networking of information on cultural goods and activities of the operators of the two sides.

✓ **Objective 2 – Strengthening integrated initiatives of information and communications to citizens:** Ensuring more accessibility to advanced services even in marginal and peripheral areas in order to cut down costs that are due to this geographical position.

✓ **Objective 3 – Encouraging a better integration of the educational field as well as the labour market:** For a coordinated development of human capital and a better interaction between training and the requirements of the production system in order to facilitate and encourage labour matching.

✓ **Objective 4 – Strengthening cooperation processes in the social and institutional field:** In order to set conditions for the effective management of common issues and social emergencies, such as the integration of immigrants and protection of the underprivileged.

Technical support

The aim of the technical support is to provide all cooperation bodies and all actors involved in the implementation and monitoring process of the programme, in order to achieve effective action of coordination of the above mentioned intervention priorities. The main goal is to "*ensure an improvement in terms of efficiency of the implementation and programming of the Operative Plan and to ensure adequate levels of information and promotion* (OP INTERREG Italy-Switzerland, 2007).

5.3 Future prospects in Regio Insubrica

Cooperation in **Regio Insubrica** is a process that has been on going on for many years and the cross-border character of the area has led to the evolution of many forms of cooperation. Thanks to this new image of the **EU**, new tools and policies are now able to give a common direction to cooperation inside and outside the community. In this context cross-border cooperation becomes essential in the process of social mediation as well as for the expression of social interests (Balmer, 1996). Projects such as the **INTERREG** programme have promoted the combination of the top down approach in terms of planning and management, which has strongly influenced the first forms of cooperation in the area, with the bottom up approach that focuses on endogenous initiatives. It has been influencing territorial planning of the **Regio Insubrica** for the last ten years.

In the area has begun on a top down approach cooperation and vice versa that involves the public and the private sphere. It is now becoming a strategic cooperation in which both actors are aware of the benefits of a common project, a collaboration that cannot ignore the European context as well as the new global perspectives of Europe. **Regio Insubrica** is now acting as a coordinator of development projects that include actors belonging to the same institutional levels, where the **INTERREG** programme is fundamental for strengthening cooperation and for creating new cross-border relationships. It will play a key role in the cooperation process of the area. This European programme has a bottom up approach and local and regional authorities, national states and private actors are the main actors that operate in the cross-border process. The **INTERREG** programme is very important for the **EU** and it is considered as a fundamental tool in the cross-border area, since it will function as a meeting point for all the areas and actors.

According to Ratti (1990) border areas are now living in a more global environment characterized by the mutation of power in nation states and by a greater permeability of borders. In this new framework a key role is played by regions that, without renouncing neither their historical roots nor their belonging to their original states, have now a great cultural, social and economic significance. **Regio Insubrica** acts

now as intermediation between the North and the South of the Alps on every level, locally as well as international.

In conclusion the **Regio Insubrica** is experiencing an important growth even though there still are many factors that could slow it down.

The first factor is the long term planning, which is hampered by many factors: the coexistence of two different national legislation systems and the lack of a common tourist legal framework. The second factor represent the disparities present within the area, which are still the cause of inequalities among the communities of the Insubrian area. This not only hampers economic integration but keeps alive problematic issues, such as cross-border labour. The last factor is the lack of participation of the local population in cross-border projects, which is due to insufficient democratization of the cooperation policy (Lerasche, 1995).

However there are also many positive aspects; the border is becoming a point of contact among different identities on a social as well as on an economic level. **Regio Insubrica** can offer many opportunities to small and medium-sized enterprises to exploit their potential together with trade partners of neighbouring areas and also the opportunity to coordinate actors in order to better exploit and develop resources such as tourism. From a social point of view there is now a rebirth of the Insubrian identity, a term whose modern definitions have taken on a multiple character. In fact, the concept of identity in the area of the **Canton Ticino** as well as the piedemontana one is following this trend.

Moreover, on both sides of the frontier, a similar linguistic perspective is now emerging as well as a similar new culture among the young people; this is fundamental for a step-by-step integration between two different cultural areas.

In conclusion, the **Regio Insubrica** acts as point of contact because it gives all actors and all national as well as international identities of the area the opportunity to operate at their best in the process of cross-border cooperation, making this area an important piece of the European mosaic.

CONCLUSION

This thesis has attempted to give an overview of the primary relationships between **EU**, **cross-border cooperation** and **tourist sustainable development** in border areas. Europe is going toward a new regional prospective, regions have now become a major concern due to the ongoing development of the **European Union**; cross-border cooperation is central to continuing this process. In this context tourism has taken an important role, this sector was formally recognized by the Community with the **Treaty of Maastricht** in 1992; article 3 introduces the "*measures relating to energy and civil protection and tourism*" in order to achieve the objectives set out in article 2 of the **Treaty of European Union (TEU)**. However, in the document there are no elements to clarify what measures have to be taken and what objectives have to be achieved, as well as a legal framework on which the Community bases its competences in the tourism field. Thus, the Community action was linked to article 308 (ex 235), which determines the "implicit powers", through which the institutional bodies of the community have the opportunity to use their own instruments to achieve the objectives present in the treaty. Significant changes came with the **Lisbon Treaty** (2007) which provides a certain legal base that can enhance legal transparency of the laws and also encourages a favourable environment for the development of an integrated approach to tourism issues. The **Agenda for asustainable and competitive European tourism** which followed the principle of the **Lisbon Strategy**, was also introduced in 2007. Another important step toward sutstainable tourism was made at the **Göteborg Summit** in 2001, where the **strategy for sustainable development of the EU** was deliberated, which has added a third dimension to the **Lisbon strategy** - environmental sustainability.

To sum up, the EU's view of sustainable tourism is mainly expressed in the **Lisbon strategy** and in the **Göteborg Summit**. The new legal context shows the renewed European idea of **Sustainable Tourism**, which is now considered as a tool to develop sustainability, thus ensuring the positive contribution of this sector in the long term. This process is mainly based on three main concepts: environmental, economic and social sustainability. To achieve this objective the **EU** has made additional efforts such as the institution of the **ESFs** and the establishment of the

cross-cooperation programmes like **INTERREG** and **ENPI**. These community financial measures have taken an important role in tourism over the years; in fact these financial measures support an important tool in the tourism field, **territorial cooperation**, which has become a European reality in the last few years. Alongside these measures, European integration and some of its instruments such as the **Schengen area**, the **Common Market**, the introduction of the **Euro** and the new **cohesion policy**, have enhanced the development of numerous cross-border projects and the emergence of cross-border areas. Through these tools the role of the **EU** borders in tourism has been changed in the last decades, as we have seen in the second chapter; borders are complex and influence tourism in a variety of dynamic ways: they are barriers to tourism, tourist attractions and modifiers of tourism landscape. Moreover, border areas have become contact zones between different political, economic and social systems, where natural, cultural and economic resources can be jointly exploited. The creation of supranational alliances such as the **Arctic Council**, the **Euro-Barents Arctic Council** as well as the others seen in the fourth chapter has led to more cross-border cooperation actions, more liberal travel and development policies, and more consistent levels of environmental, economic and social conditions. These events have profoundly affected the growth of tourists and the development of tourism in destination in the community regions. Nonetheless, tourism cross-border cooperation in **EU** presents a few weaknesses which are listed below:

- ✓ **Short-term nature of the ESFs:** The first chapter shows how the **EU cohesion policy** and its financial measures have changed over the years. The **ESFs** and the cohesion programs such as **INTERREG** have changed their structure, objectives and the allocated amounts in the last decades. In fact, those financial measures are planned every seven years, this leads to an incongruity of long term planning (remarked by the EU commission in the **renewed Sustainable Development Strategy**) and the real action taken to achieve it.

- ✓ **Lack of** a **tourism legal framework:** The challenge of legal fragmentation is one of the main problems concerning the territorial cooperation measures. The border areas are not covered by international law, and the legal basis for territorial cooperation has to be found in each national constitution and in the bilateral or multilateral interstate agreements. This leads to a high level of complexity of the relationship and to the lack of transparency. Moreover, legal competence is a considerable issue in the border areas, and the measures taken by the **EU** seen in the second chapter; the **European Outline Convention on Transfrontier Co-operation** between Territorial Communities or Authorities as well as the institution of **European Groupings of Territorial Cooperation (EGTC)**, are not enough to overcome these problems. Essentially, the lack of dedicated funds leaves the situation very complex and fragmented, the access to the financial measure is still long and difficult and the need to establish one specific financial instrument for tourism has emerged over the years.

- ✓ **Lack of a dedicated European tourist transboundary organization:** The third limit is the lack of a European institution which can link **EU cohesion policy**, the community cooperation programs, the objectives established by the trans-territorial organizations and the local organizations involved in the tourism planning and marketing. As we have seen in the fourth chapter, many institutions, belonging to different territorial levels, operate in the tourist field in **Lapland**. Alongside the redundancy of these institutions, there is also a surplus of **EU programmes** concerning tourism in a direct and a non-direct way. This context leads to two problems: on one hand, there is a duplication of effort in the tourist field, there are organizations characterized with similar objectives and programmes; on the other hand it leads to a lack of a tourist institution which can manage and promote tourism at the local level across different countries. As we have seen, planning is fundamental to

develop a tourist destination. In **Lapland** organizations directly implicated in tourism marketing, such as the **Finnish Council of Lapland** and the **DMO Swedish Lapland** operate mainly locally and independently; the objectives of these institutions and the EU ones are different, this situation leads to a gap between the policies established at the supranational level and the concrete actions taken at the local level

TABLE 6.1: EU weakness in the Lapland context:

EU context	Lapland context	Weakness
Short-term nature of the EU fund	Long- term planning toward sustainable tourism	Incongruity of EU long-term view and real actions
Lack of a dedicated tourist fund, lack of tourism legal framework	Fragmentation of tourism programmes	Tourism legal fragmentation, complexity of the relationship and lack of transparency, duplications of efforts, gap between supranational policies and planning actions
Lack of a dedicated European transboundary organization	Too many organizations with similar objectives and structures	
Scenario: sustainable tourism development in terms of environment, social and economic conditions		

In the second part of this research an area was bounded which can be considered as a potential tourist district of Lapland, its borders have been drawn following four criteria: accessibility, access to **EU** founds, common resources and efforts. The idea of a tourist district is strictly related to the issues of **tourist planning** and **Sami public participation** in the decision making process. As we have seen in the third, planning is important everywhere to enhance the positive aspects of development and to mitigate the negative ones, especially in borderlands which are particular situations. In fact, cross- border cooperation has never been a simple phenomenon, and new institutions that facilitate transfrontier coordination have been created. Because of the increased role of the **EU** in Nordic public affairs, there are many more oriented supranational bodies such as the **Nordic Council**, **Arctic Council** and the **Barents Euro-Arctic Council**. All of these bodies, together with national and regional institutions are influencing tourism planning and development in the area of **Lapland**. In these special conditions **Sami participation** in the decision making process is important for two reasons; first they have the right to know how

their place is exploited and, secondly their culture is one of the main attractions of the area. In the end a **Lapland tourist district** presents many advantages, on one hand it allows to control, exploit and maintain tourist resources, limiting and monitoring tourism impacts and sharing the potentials of the area in order to increase the incoming flows and improve the international visibility. On the other hand, a tourist district can enhance the principles expressed in the **EU cohesion policy** and be an important tool toward sustainable development of the area. In the last part of this work we have seen how the establishment of the euroregion **Regio Insubrica** and **EU** programs have linked the **Top-Down** approach, which has strongly influenced the first forms of cooperation in the area with the **Bottom-Up** approach, which focuses on endogenous initiatives that have been influencing territorial planning of the **Regio Insubrica** for the last ten years. As of ten years, this phenomenon has led the **Regio Insubrica** toward a cooperation which involves the public as well as the private sphere and where both actors are aware of the benefits of a common project. In the end **Europe** is going toward irreversible changes in a way that respects its ideals and concepts of society. It has become a community with no barriers, a place where different cultures and people are linked together, national states and regions have changed their role, and inhabitants are no longer only citizens from their own country but also part of a supranational area called Europe. Through the new **cohesion policy** the **EU** has made an important step toward this scenario, and tourism could be a key tool to reduce the disparities among the European regions. In fact, **tourism** is a sector with great potential for reducing differences and turning maintenance of culture and environment from a cost to an opportunity. Finally, cross-border cooperation is changing the role of the national borders, facilitating the creation of a new European reality. This process does not concern only economic issues but is a larger phenomenon that is influencing the **EU** as well as their neighbour countries, also in their environmental and social spheres. This process also involves **Lapland** and the **Regio Insubrica**, which are included in a much broader process that involves more border areas within the **EU**. These areas are part of a new vision aimed at creating a **Europe** without disparities and where people can move and share their ideas and cultures.

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