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CONTENTS

Economic sciences

Impact of Advertisement on Malay Young Consumers Asif Khurshid, Aneel Salman, Nedim Makarevic	60
The Energy Partnership between Russia and the Countries of Northeast Asia Sergei M. Nikonorov, Youngmin Yoon	69
Comparative Analysis of Conditions Life in Settlements the Municipality of Berane and Settlements the Municipality of Andrijevica: A Case Study Goran Rajović, Jelisavka Bulatović	87
The Determinants of Lifelong Learning Jasmina Sinanovic, Senad Becirovic	107

Social sciences

A Study of Morbidity Pattern in Elderly Population Sribas Goswami, Manjari Sahai	119
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Pedagogical sciences

The Selected Health Determinants of Adults Elena Bendíková, Ľudmila Jančoková, Božena Paugschová	129
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Economic sciences

Экономические науки

UDC 33

Impact of Advertisement on Malay Young Consumers

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Abstract

The purpose of writing this paper is to explore the understanding of advertisement and its impact on young consumers. Also it was discussed that how this impact if it is negative can be neutralized. It has been identified after conducting in depth interviews that all respondents were of the opinion that advertisement is a source of communication. In addition to this all respondents are agreed that it has positive as well as negative effects on both children and young adults. Negative impacts can be diluted by advertisers, parents, government and neighbours.

Keywords: advertisement, children, young adults.

Introduction

Marketers are expected to spend US \$540 billion globally on advertising this year (*CARAT AD SPEND REPORT. SEPTEMBER 2015*). The same report highlighted that out of this US \$ 540 billion, 42% expenditure share is owned by television. This enormous figure shows that television is one of the most widespread medium which is used for spreading word regarding products. Although history of advertising is as old as history of mankind. In many Western societies, the topic of television advertising remained in debate by public and regulatory bodies (Soni & Vohra 2014). Advertisers target children because of two reasons: firstly, children are children, and are considered separately and secondly, it is because children will become adults (Nowak 1992). So this advertising therefore affects the behaviour no matter this is towards buying or in daily life activities. This behaviour at times become permanent and it lasts from childhood till adulthood. The impressions about products which include goods and services as well as personalities, more often advertisers use celebrities when seen by children as well as young adults through advertisement, the communicated ideas lasts with them for long period of time. Children and

young adults memorize the slogans, logos, brand names, colour combinations, songs, jingles, celebrity styles and many more which are shown in advertisements. Even characters like Ronald McDonald which is solely created and promoted for children are also loved by young ones. They cherish and play with these type of characters whenever they visit outlets. This character target the children in promoting brand image or increasing market share of the companies. The dimensions of advertisement which may inspire children are very well explained by Venkatesh (2015). According to him if advertisement depicts children positively only if they are athletes, youngsters are pushed to strive for athletic prowess. If they are portrayed as rebels or as fun-lovers, these images are reinforced. On the other hand, if advertisements portray youthful scholars positively, the advertisements help in developing a favourable image of good students and may assist in motivating them toward education as a goal (Watchravesringkan et al. 2010). So it all depends on advertising agencies that how they advertise their products. According to Chan & Huang, (2001) that by 7 and 8 years of age, children become aware of the fact that main objective of advertisers is to persuade the customers to purchase the product by sharing the information about a product or company. This creative and attractive persuasion about products is very well understood by children of 7 to 8 years. Despite advertising claims that they are straightforward in nature, the children rejects this stance and they still argue about the truthfulness of advertising campaigns (Manchanda et al. 2003). So the children who are above 7 years are experienced enough to understand and critique the advertising. But on the other hand, it is the opinion of certain researchers that young people and children have deficiencies in processing the information communicated in advertisements like they are incapable to comprehend the objectives of the communicator (Day & Stafford 1997). Further, it has been shown that children are not readily able to use cognitive defences (Veer et al. 2010). This advertisement can have adverse impact on sociological, attitudinal and behavioural. So most of the times no matter the products whether advertised on print media or electronic media they have an enormous impact on the children and young adults in various dimensions like it may distorts their thinking pattern or it may lead them towards wrongdoings like advertisement by Benson & Hedges which is a cigarette brand by Pakistan Tobacco Company which is subsidy of British American Tobacco company in which it is shown that smokers have very good social status. This advertisement definitely mislead the youngsters or even teen agers. There are some very thought provoking adds which definitely ignite awareness or severity of situation among children. Like in Pakistan a public service message was broadcasted in shape of an advertisement in which a child after making drawings of his father, mother, siblings and herself omit a leg and then said that "it is me". And this deficiency is because of Polio. According to researchers advertising is one of the great reasons of children obesity among children. Advertisers promote food items which have excess proportion of fat, sugar and salt (Bublitz & Peracchio 2015). In order to check this strategy of advertisements of food items, some European countries like United Kingdom and Netherlands has come up with the policies who restrict the amount, nutrition value and marketing strategies of advertisement pertaining to food (Moreira et al. 2015). Even in Australia, regulators have completely ban the food advertising to the children. This ban of food advertisement in Australia and code of conduct for companies promoting food items really worked a lot and checked those companies who exaggerate about their food items. The negative impact of advertisement upon children and young can be reduced rather neutralized by parental communication which can be a very useful tool for moderating TV commercials (Howton et al. 2016). But I think that this comment was valid before 1990s as now world is bombarded with advertisements through television, internet, through mobiles and lot of other mediums. But the dialogue between parents and children regarding different advertisements even during shopping, driving or travelling can eliminate various misunderstandings of children. But this is mandatory that parents should be open for discussion and instead of some short comments they should elaborate the scenarios of various advertisements before according to children mental capacity.

Following are some of the objectives of writing this research paper:

- a) To explore the understanding about advertising among young adults.
- b) To investigate the impact of advertisement on children and young adults.
- c) To study how the impact of advertisement can be neutralized (If it is negative).

Methodology

1 Questionnaire

There were total four questions for discussion. The very first question was meant to explore the concept of understanding of advertising by all respondents. Then they were asked about the impact of advertisement upon children. The next question was about how young adults are affected by the advertisement. Then they were asked that if there is any negative impact on children and young adults how this negative impact can be neutralized. And the lastly they were asked that if they want to contribute anything towards this particular topic which is not part of questions asked.

2 Sample and Data Collection

For this particular study I have selected the young adults for in depth interviews. These young adults fall within age bracket of 18-25 years. This age bracket for young adults was defined by (Cardoso & Pinto 2010). From these eight respondents two were females whereas 6 students were male. All are undergraduate students and were Malay. With their consent interview was recorded vocally as all of them were of the opinion that they will be uncomfortable in answering the questions if video recording is there.

Literature Review

It is really an interesting experience to study young adults because of the following reason. First of all during recent years children and young adults have often portrayed as competent consumers (Cardoso & Pinto 2010) In the same paper the author debate on the issue of “Consumer competence”. According to the author this consumer competence comes from consumer socialization which can be defined in the following words “it is a processes by which young people acquire skills. Knowledge and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the market place”. So when it is studied that from where this skill, knowledge and attitude can be acquired it is revealed that family who is main source of values and standards for a young adult played a vital role in establishing consumer competence among young adults (Day & Stafford 1997). (Ragunathan et al. 2015) also identified another three sources for establishing consumer competence among young adults which are peers, media and educational institutions.

1. Brand and children and Young Adults

There are researchers who are of the view that brand of certain commodities like computer, clothes, shoes, mobile phone etc. are of great importance for not only young adults but also have great importance for school children. Motwani & Agarwal (2014) in one of their article has mentioned that advertising, peers, and celebrities/role models have the great potential to contribute to brand choice among children, teens and young adults. All mentioned elements have immense role in selection of brand by mentioned groups. Whereas Wan Edura Wan Rashid along other co- authors in one of Journal Article title “Brand Perceptions among School Children” mentioned that although school children have showed a complex understanding of what brand represents but still they want to own branded goods in their future.

2. Advertisement and Sales Volume

Any company can make its brand more competitive and influential if it advertises and projected it correctly. In an article written by Khanna et al. (2013), it is expressed that marketing experts generally agreed with the fact that advertising and brand value has strong relationship. He has also mentioned that correct positioning of brand tied the customers strongly. So it can be inferred that advertising and brand value has direct relationship. The more a company invests in advertising, the brand value will be strengthen accordingly. The mentioned statement can better be exemplified in the pharmaceutical industry where Merck, which is a second largest pharmaceutical company in the world, invested about \$145 million on advertisement of Vioxx which is prescribed for arthritis and joint pain. This investment projected the sales by more than 300 percent and turnover of product touched \$1.5 billion (Kay 2006) So if investment on product advertisement is augmented the outcome will be nurture the product brand value which will boost the sales and it also contributes towards company value. But this brand choice may leads towards compulsive buying. (Laros & Steenkamp 2005) define compulsive consumption as “a response to an uncontrollable drive or desire to obtain, use, or experience a feeling, substance, or activity that leads the individual to respectively engage in behaviour that will cause harm to the individual or others”. Mentioned buying behaviour is common among young adults (Tirmizi 2009). This

behaviour is regardless that whether teen agers are shopping under supervision or they are independent during shopping. Whereas (Moore et al. 2015) has mentioned the fact that compulsive buying tendencies have increased tremendously in the last ten years. Under this compulsive buying, people, especially young adults are influenced by advertisements or they may be impressed by the product brand or at times they are trapped by the display of items or this behaviour may be outcome of strong salesmanship of different stores or shops. Once they fascinated then they purchase such items which have no use to them. This habit rather addiction of shopping leads them towards debts. This era can be termed as an age of plastic and virtual money. The growth of credit cards is progressing globally at a rapid pace and people are utilizing these cards without realizing the worth of their purchasing power. Personal loans and leasing along with credit cards enable individuals as well as families to spend more. So availing these facilities means continuous burden on the pocket or more precisely it can be termed as expense for number of months even for years.

3. Role of Materialism

Another belief which is strongly associated with compulsive buying behaviour is materialism. So when people increasingly consume the symbolic meanings associated with goods in expressing their identity and searching for a better self then their spending pattern is misguided by their false belief (Moore et al. 2015). So from the above argument its can be inferred that no matter advertisers present different products in unique ways or financial institutions offer different products like credit cards, personal loans which can lead towards overspending or strong salesmanship shown by people selling different brands or websites offer products impressively people should be well aware of all these marketing tactics. They should spend money and do shopping according to their purchasing power. Purchasing decisions are processes that needed to be learned and practiced (Xie et al. 2015). The art of shopping should be communicated to children so that they can avoid overspending not only in their childhood but also during adulthood. They should equip with the right pattern of saving which can help them in financial crisis or they can finance their education on their own. The use of credit card should closely be monitored by parents or by teachers or any other mentor so effectively that the debt burden may not lead them towards stress.

Result and Discussion

1 Concept of Advertisement

In the response of very first question which was asked to know their understanding about advertising. Following are some responses regarding advertising:

“Advertising is a way of communication”

Another response was:

“Advertising is to attract customers”

A female respondent carefully defined advertisement as

“Advertising is something through which organizations tell their customers about their products so that they can increase their market share and profitability”

Another student defined the advertisement in the following manner:

“Advertising is something through which company approach consumers and customers and disseminate information about their goods and services.”

Under the light of above statements it can be inferred that all students are agreed that Advertising is a mean of communication and the basic purpose is to share the information about the products (goods and services) to increase the market share which lead a company towards increase in profit. Respondents also highlight that organizations use bill boards, television and newspapers for advertng. I am amazed that none of them highlighted that through internet companies also advertise their products. Although all of the students were final year students and most of them were using their Laptops when they were asked for interview. In my opinion may be internet is that mean of advertising through which companies are promoting the image of their products along with the increase in market share of the company. But this important mean which is totally ignored by the student may be companies winning their confidence without realization of their target market. When the advertising is termed as “medium of communication” it sounds like participants are aware of the strength of messages which are communicated through audio, visual and written messages. Most of the times the jingles, songs, slogans or even brand images or brand

names memorized by audience and whenever they go to market they ask for that particular brand. Even in supermarkets the music or the announcements made again and again through speakers or by the promoter hired by the company repetitively different messages which leave a very strong impression on the buying decision of customers. Even the companies which are producing ice creams, chocolates, biscuits and now even detergents and many more those company are trying hard to involve children in different activities or even small gifts for children who really played vital role in the buying decision of their parents.

The communication definitely tried to be done in unique way so that it left unforgettable impression on the mind of target audience. Apart from it the message should be so catchy and interesting that it should be repeated by the audience/customers who purchase that particular item. The colouring schemes of the packaging, test marketing, and many other techniques all contribute towards advertisement. One of the respondent mentioned that billboards are very good source of advertisement. She mentioned that billboard by Digi near International Islamic University Malaysia is a very good advertisement by the company. She admire the contents of the company written on that board. She was of the opinion that Logo, name and the services rendered by the company is very well summarized in that billboard. She said that yellow colour is highlighted which becomes so prominent that many students wherever they see yellow colour they recall the ad by Digi. She said that this is effective advertisement. So billboards which can be seen along the roads or highways can attract the attention of commuters. This effective medium of advertisement I must say that really contribute a lot towards organizational image and can bring new loyal customers towards organization.

2 Impact of Advertisement on children

The second question was about the impact of advertisement upon children. All were agreed that advertisement has both negative and positive impact on children.

All respondents have to think a lot about highlighting a positive impact of advertisement. Conclusively all were agreed that it ignites creativity, awareness about products and great source for children. There was consensus that advertisement through television is a great source of inspiration for children and they learn a lot from those advertisements. But when they asked about the negative impact all said that various products like junk food, carbonated drinks and many other unhealthy products which are major cause of obesity among children. A respondent also discussed advertisements by "Ben 10" in the following words that:

"The advertisement like ben10 lead children towards the world of fantasy and imagination and they always look for some imaginative powers and children may avoid hard work and they may just keep on striving for getting that power which does not exist"

These types of advertisement which are quite imaginative in nature may distort children perception and their thinking pattern. These type of trends are quite common and used in impressive manner by advertisers. Children after watching these advertisements may seek for these imaginative powers and something which is not present in this world of blood and flesh. The respondent was off the opinion that this type of advertisement has long lasting and a great cause of day dreaming among children as they inspired by the characters and the stories elaborated in these advertisement.

Another respondent mentioned that:

"Adultery products or products like body wash when advertised the women or at times the character expose their bodies which show something which is not meant for children."

In this case the products when publicised the content of advertisement totally ignore ethics and Islamic principles. They use human body to win the confidence of the customers but when these advertisements are played during prime time or even during the TV programs for children they definitely get some negative image after watching these kind of advertisements. Another respondent comment about negative image of advertisement in the following words:

"Junk food, carbonated drinks and may other products which are not good for children's health when advertised they ask their parents to get that product which not only disturb the monthly budget of their parent but also a great reason of obesity among children"

Under the light of above comments it can be recognized that colourful packaging, striking displays of products, melodious jingles and many more lead children to purchase that particular

item. No matter whether it is useful for them or it has some extremely negative impacts they just insist their parents to purchase that product. This leads the society towards over spending and when parents have to purchase something for their descendants which their income do not allow them. It really can be considered as burden on their pockets. In the later part of this question when respondents were asked to exemplify the positive impact of advertisements upon children then the following responses were noted:

“It bring creativity in children”

“It is a great source of information and children may come to know that what new developments by different company are”

The above comments by respondent pointed out the trend or the improvement of children’s knowledge. As far as creativity there are some companies who arrange different contests for children and establish winning and fighting spirit among children. Although respondents did not exemplify the positive impact of advertisement but 6 out of 8 were of the opinion that advertisement is a great source of creativity for children. In addition to this they said that public service messages are very well understood by children and they stick to that message whatever they conveyed through that message.

3 Impact of advertisement on Young Adults

In the later part of study when respondents were asked about the impact of advertisement upon young adults. They all were agreed that like children it has negative as well as positive impact upon young adults.

One of the responses was:

“Advertisement is one of the great source of information but it all depends on the person that what type of information he or she is looking for.”

Another opinion towards this question was

“Most of the time young adults inspired by the role models and starting copy them. The celebrities who are casted by advertisers most of the time young adults follow them blindly without realizing the fact that whether it is according to Islamic norms and ethics or not.”

Advertisements also lead young adults towards materialism. One of the respondent mentioned this in following words:

“Advertisement is one of the great reason of overspending on the products like mobile phones, laptops and on food”

One of the respondent who was female and final year student of BBA. She responded quite comprehensively:

“Since childhood my parents are like my friends. My mother is a nurse and father is working for bank. We watch television together and they keep on discussing about different advertisements and programs which we watch. This attitude of my parents helped me a lot to understand the trends which advertisers and media want to set. In addition to this my mother used to bring lot of literature from hospital. After reading that literature I must say I came across the facts of nutrition value of various products. That literature also told me that what the consequences of taking unhealthy food are. And since childhood this..... I must say that.....this proper, timely and continuous helped me to avoid the negative effects of advertisement.”

The above response is one of the most comprehensive response which I got. The student told how her parents educate her about the media and the level of interaction enabled her to discuss all thing with her parents. This shrinkage of communication gap not only allow her parents to guide and teach her about media but also she shared her beliefs and ideas openly through which her creativity remained the part of her personality.

As far as positive response of advertisement on young adults is concerned the respondents were of the opinion that:

“Advertisement is a great source of information.”

“Through advertisement we came across about different developments of different companies.”

“Young adults came across with the various innovations by many Malaysian companies which bring ease to their lives.”

“There are three major ethnicities in Malaysia. Malay, Chinese and Indians. All have their own norms and whenever they are communicated through advertisement that some Malaysian based company invented some new product all people from mentioned ethnicities tried that product according to their purchasing power. This attitude appreciates the inventors and innovators and they keep on trying to bring some thin unique for their countrymen.”

After analysing above comments it is quite evident from all comments that advertising is treated as major source of communication. This source of communication is so strong that all inventions and innovations are communicated through this source of advertisement. This communication is so effective that if this source is used effectively then a lot of prosperity can be observed. That advertisement also establish a sense of competition among the companies and they tried hard to bring quality, innovation and improvement in the living standard of people.

4 How negative impact of advertisement can be neutralized?

The last question was that how the negative impact of advertisement can be neutralized. The answers by respondents were really dynamic. One respondent was of the opinion that:

“First of all advertisers should rethink about the company’s strategy of promoting goods. Advertisers should follow some ethics and Muslims should abide by the Islamic principles. The content, message and the role of celebrities should be combined in such a approach that it may not contaminate the thinking pattern of children or young adults. Secondly Government should come up with a strong code of conduct for advertisers. Government should keep on regulating the advertisers so they may not use any technique which may have adverse effect on society. The third and foremost role is of parents. The close interaction of parents enable not only children but also young adults to understand the optimal use of money and products.”

Another respondent replied this question in the following words:

“In my opinion government should be rigid regarding whatever is displayed rather promoted through advertisement. The celebrities or any other content that is against ethics should be banned and heavy penalties should be imposed. So that this practice can be eliminated. Secondly parents should reduce the communication gap and they should try their level best to educate the children about good and bad things. These children if educated properly than they never the lesson throughout their life and they can easily identified good and bad. Third important role can be played by the teachers who have I think great role in making the personality of student’s life. Apart from course they should tried to establish a sense of right and wrong among their students.”

Another comment by respondent was:

“Advertisers themselves, Government, parents and neighbours all should tried to reduce the negative effect of advertisement. Advertisers before advertising anything should carefully go through the whole idea and the way it is recorded. Secondly, government should be strict and if through advertisement any company promote nudity, vulgar and bad stuff those advertisers or companies should be banned heavy fines should be imposed. Role of parents can also play an important part in nullify the negatives of advertisement. Through communication and after open discussion it can be reduced. Another important component is neighbours. Neighbours should keep an eye on the children and young adults and if anything they realized which is against the normal routine means if children or young adults tried to exhibit some behaviour which is against ethics or Islamic principles they should discourage them and intimate their parents.”

This respondent has highlighted the four groups which are advertisers, government, parents and neighbours who can dilute the negative impact of advertisement. He added the role of neighbour as this respondent belong to rural part of Malaysia where according to his opinion neighbours own all the children and if there is anything against morals they guide the children. This attitude really make the environment more conducive for all income groups. The above comments highlighted four groups who can defuse or neutralize the negative impact of advertising. These four groups are advertisers, government, parents and government. Advertisers, themselves audit their work. They should not use any technique which is against moral values or Islamic ideology. As Malaysia is a Muslim country so Islam should be main source of knowledge and all actions. No matter the advertisers are Chinese, Hindus or any other religion they should follow

fundamental principles of ethics and should not portray anything which is below moral standards. No matter whether they are advertising Body Wash, Lotions, Home Appliances, FMCGs some ethics should be followed through those advertisements. Secondly, government should be very careful whatever is advertised by companies. All respondents were of the opinion that government should come up with Code of Conduct and it should ensure its implementation. Government should keep an eagle eye on the advertisements so that nothing against ethics can be broadcasted. Heavy fines and bans should be imposed so that the competitors learn to compete within ethical surroundings. Third important social group which can play its role is parents. All respondents were agreed that open and frequent communication with parents help the children and young adult to differentiate between good and bad. Communication Gap if reduced rather eliminated between parents and children than a healthy social can prevail. Issues like overspending, smoking, blind copy of celebrities can be overcome very easily. Simultaneously working parents should give ample time to their children so that children may not remain deprived and the communication between parents and children can play its role in brought up of children. Another important pillar identify by one of the respondent is neighbours. Neighbours should keep an eye on the children and young adults living in the vicinity so if there is anything which is against social and ethical norms that should be discouraged and should be shared with the parents.

Conclusion

It is concluded that advertisement is considered as a good source of communication and all respondents agreed that through advertisement companies attract customers. Apart from it all are agreed that advertisement has both negative and positive impact. Negative impact results in overspending, obesity or may lead towards disturbing thinking pattern after watching nudity or any other unethical message. As far as positive impact is considered it is revealed that it brings creativity among children and a source of information among young adults. For negative impact respondents were of the opinion that it is neutralized by communication with parents and guidance by teachers. Whereas respondents were of the opinion that advertisers should be vigilant and should follow some moral and ethical standards. Last all respondents said that Government should come up with some comprehensive code of conduct for advertisers and it should also ensure its application. Simultaneously they were of the opinion that heavy penalty should be imposed for violating that code of conduct.

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УДК 33

Влияние рекламы на малайских молодых потребителей

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Аннотация. Целью написания данной работы является проведение исследования понимания рекламы и ее влияния на молодых потребителей. Обсуждаются механизмы такого влияния, если оно отрицательное, как может быть нейтрализовано. Было обнаружено после проведения ряда интервью, что все респонденты высказали мнение, что реклама – это источник общения. В дополнение к этому все респонденты согласились с тем, что она имеет как положительное, так и отрицательное воздействие на детей и молодых людей. Негативные последствия могут быть разбавлены рекламоделателями, родителями, государством и соседями.

Ключевые слова: реклама, дети, молодые люди.

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UDC 33

The Energy Partnership between Russia and the Countries of Northeast Asia

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Abstract

The study tries to answer the most fundamental question of energy cooperation between Russia and the countries of Northeast Asia, "Do we really need a model of cooperation in the energy sector?". This question is important for understanding the aspects of energy cooperation in the region, because the idea of creating this cooperation is based on the assumption that there is complementarity and interdependence between the structures of supply and demand of these countries offer. To find the answer to this question, we analyzed the sectors of demand, consumption, and Russian proposals and the countries of Northeast Asia oil and gas, as the current dominant energy sources, and renewable energy sectors considered (renewable energy sources), as a potential future sources.

Keywords: energy strategy, energy cooperation model, renewable energy, social and environmental concerns, complementarity and interdependence in the energy sector.

Introduction

Since collapse of USSR there is a hopeful idea that Russian energy resources will save Northeast Asian countries suffering from insufficient energy resources. High energy consuming socioeconomic structure and import depended primary energy supply structure of S. Korea, Japan and China have made them to seek cooperation with Russia in energy sphere at bilateral and multilateral levels. At the same time among Russian intelligentsia and policy makers, also an idea has grown that the northeastern countries could be a promising market for its energy resources. This strong complementarity in supply and demand sides of the NEA countries have considered as motivating power to build active cooperation in energy sector and it has seemed realized soon. However, the results are disappointed until this moment. Of course, there are some achievements, such as LNG imports of S. Korea and Japan from Vladivostok and ESPO oil pipeline project between Russia and China, but considering their hope and what they have discussed at country level, they are too small achievements. So, this paper begins very fundamental questions, which is "do they really need regional energy cooperation?" or "do their energy supply and consumption structures have complementarity to each other?" In order to answer for these questions, we are going to analyze NEA countries' energy status focusing on oil, natural gas and renewable energy sources. The reason why we focus on these energy sources is that these energy sources have the

critical role in the countries' present and future energy status. Oil has dominant share in the countries' energy supply and consumption. As the most important resource in industry sector, it maintains its significant position in national economy at least for one or two decades despite of criticism from the ecologist-side and challenge from new energy resources. Natural gas has increased its share in global and NEA countries' energy mix due to its 'relatively cleaner' characteristic, emitting CO₂ less than oil and coal. Renewable energy sources are undoubtedly future of the countries' energy sector. As like other developed and developing countries in the world, NEA countries are seeking to develop renewable energy sector as their national agenda.

In the following chapter, production and exports of Russia in crude oil and natural gas are explored. High capacity of Russia's oil and gas exports is the one of the main pillars for the complementarity. We are going to check historical trends, forecasts and features of Russian oil and gas production, as well as exports. In third chapter, trends and forecast of consumption and imports in the energy sources of S. Korea, Japan and China are studied. In fourth chapter, these 4 countries' features in production and consumption of renewable energy sources (RES) are analyzed.

Diverse statistical data from IEA, Enerdata, British Petroleum, energy agencies of NEA countries, related academic and business works are used for our work. Among them, we are going to follow IEA's official statistics, 'Energy Statistics of OECD countries 2014' and 'Energy Statistics of non-OECD countries 2014', as main data.

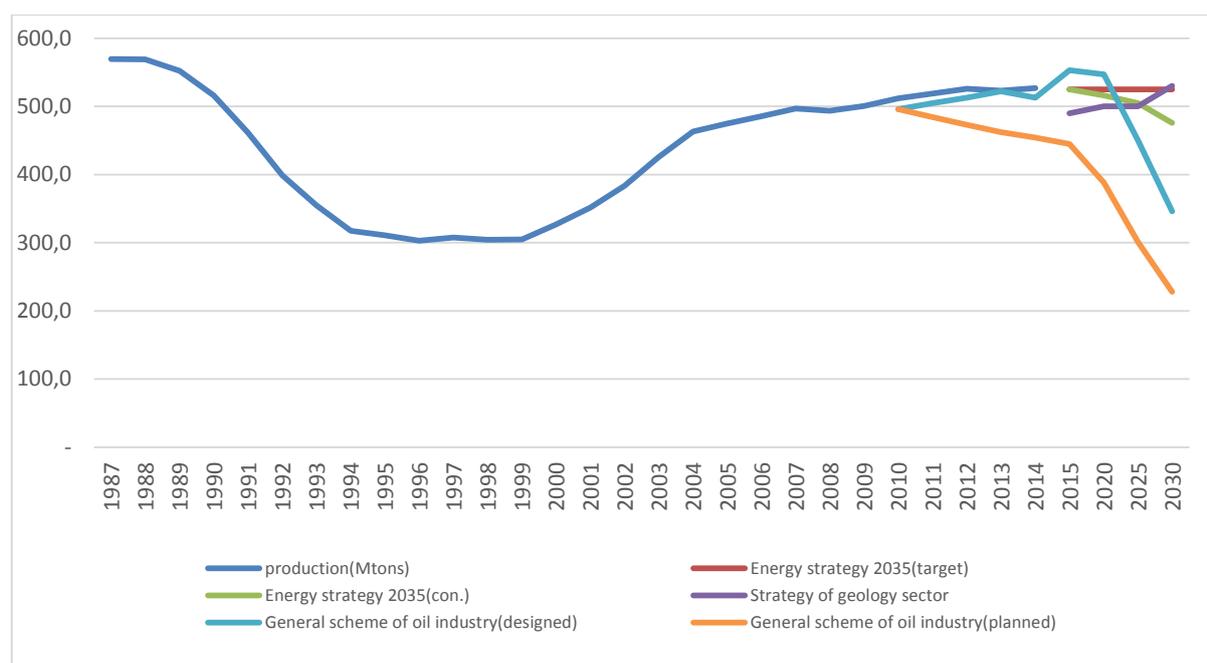
Structure of Russian Energy resource production and exports

1. Dynamics of oil and gas production since 1985 and forecast

Russia's crude oil production has marked the peak in 1987 and dramatically fallen by end of 1990's. Since 2000, its oil production have been recovering and marked 534.1 million tons in 2014, but still under its peak in 1987. Its proved reserve is estimated 15.6 Tcm (Trillion cubic meter) in 2014, but the reserve seems on the declining curve since 1991, when it marked over 17 Tcm. As the production is increasing and the reserve is decreasing, its R/P ratio (reserve to production) is falling by under 30 (29.3 in 2014).

Forecast of Russian oil production is unclear. According to "Energy Strategy of Russia for the Period up to 2035", Russian annual oil production will remain at current level or decrease by 476 million tons by 2035. As we see in the [Figure 1], Russian oil production is catching up rapidly its production level in Soviet era for the past decade, but the motive factors for the fast recovery could be the reasons for the future decrease. In other words, the rapid production recovery of Russian oil sector in 2000's is due to overexploitation of the cost-effective oil fields in private sector and it made the cost-effective oil fields exhausted soon.* In addition to this, another Russian governmental document supports the pessimistic prospect. "General Scheme of Development of the Oil Industry up to 2020" foresees declining oil production in the future. In scenario 'planned', assuming oil-producing companies maintain current level of output, the total production will drop dramatically. In scenario 'designed', supposing the government adopts good policy and investment into the sector increase significantly, the output will increase by 2017 and slowly decrease by 2030. The fact, production record after 2009, seems support the very optimistic forecast in the "Energy Strategy" up to this time, but considering ages of current major oil producing fields in Russia and its decreasing R/P ratio, rapid drop in Russian oil production is also possible. In other words, there will be no producing-surprise in Russian oil production and even it could be drop.

* See, for more details on Russian oil production : WojciechKononczuk, Russia's Best Ally: The situation of the Russian oil sector and forecast its future, OSW Studies, no. 39, 2012



Source: Wojciech Kononczuk, *Russia's Best Ally: The situation of the Russian oil sector and forecast its future*, OSW Studies, no. 39, 2012. / BP Statistical review 2015

Figure 1. Russian oil production since 1985 and official forecasts (mtons)

In terms of geography, most of Russian oil production comes from western part of the country. In European part provides around 30% of total production, but its share of total output has slowly and continuously declined due to shrinking output in South Khylochuyuskoye oil field in Timan-Pechora.* Production of North Caucasus region is also reducing, but losses in those regions in European part have been compensated by rising output in Ural-Volga region.

Table 1: Oil production of Russia by region

region	2009		2010		2011		2012	
	mil. Tonnes	% of total	mil. Tonnes	% of total	mil. Tonnes	% of total	mil. Tonnes	% of total
European part	149.2	30.2	152.3	30.2	152.7	29.9	151.6	29.3
Ural	45.3	9.2	47.5	9.4	46.5	9.1	47.3	9.1
Volga	61.8	12.5	64.1	12.7	69.1	13.5	70.4	13.6
North Caucasus	9.9	2	9.3	1.8	8.6	1.7	6.7	1.3
Timan-Pechora	32.2	6.5	31.5	6.2	28.5	5.6	27.2	5.3
Western Siberia	322.1	65.2	318.3	63	316.3	61.8	317.2	61.2
Khanty-Mansiysk	270.4	54.7	265.9	52.6	262.5	51.3	259.9	50.2
Yamal-Nenets	35.3	7.1	34.5	6.8	34.5	6.7	36.4	7
Tomsk	10.6	2.1	10.6	2.1	11.6	2.3	11.9	2.3
Nobosibirsk	2.1	0.4	1.3	0.3	0.85	0.2	0.6	0.1
Omsk	0.8	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.1
South Tyumen	2.9	0.6	5.2	1	6.5	1.3	8	1.5
Eastern	7.5	1.5	19.7	3.9	27.2	5.3	35.1	6.8

* L.V. Eder, L.V. Eder I.V. Filimonova, V.YU. Nemo, I. A. Provornyy, Production, processing and export of oil and oil products in Russia, Bulletin of the Tyumen State University. 2014. № 4. Earth sciences, p. 87.

Siberia								
Krasnoyarsk	3.4	0.7	12.9	2.5	15.1	3	18.5	3.6
Irkutsk	1.6	0.3	3.3	0.7	6.5	1.3	9.9	1.9
Saha republic	2.5	0.5	3.5	0.7	5.6	1.1	6.7	1.3
Far east	15.4	3.1	14.8	2.9	15.2	3	14.2	2.7
Sahalin	15.4	3.1	14.8	2.9	15.2	3	14.2	2.7
Russia, Total	494.2	100	505.1	100	511	100	518	100

Source: L.V. Eder I.V. Filimonova, V.YU. Nemo, I. A. Provornyy, Production, processing and export of oil and oil products in Russia, Bulletin of the Tyumen State University. 2014. № 4. Earth sciences. 83-97

Western Siberia is the main pillar of the Russian oil industry. It has been supplying more than 60% of oil production since Soviet era. Despite of continuous production since 1964, this region still has around half of Russia's oil deposits, including eight of ten largest oil fields in Russia*. In 2012, its output have increased due to technological advance, but its share in total has steadily decreased from 71% in 2004 to 61.2% in 2012. As we see in the [Table 1], those two regions produce more than 90% of total output. Eastern Siberia and Far East still have small share in production, although output in Eastern Siberia has increased rapidly since 2009. In 2010, it produced more than double of output in 2009. In 2012, it shows 35.1 million tons of output, which is 4.68 times higher than output in 2009 and takes 6.1% of total production in 2012.

Meanwhile, Russian proved natural gas reserve is estimated 32.Tcm, which is world 2nd after Iran and takes 17.4% of world total.† It has been maintaining about 30 Tcm since 1991. Russian reserve to production ratio (R/P ratio) in natural gas has been showing quite stable tendency since 1991, around middle of 50. In the same period USA's R/P ratio has risen from 9.5 to 13.4, Iran's and Qatar's R/P ratio have decreased from 640 to 197 and from 842 to 138. In 2014, Russia produced 578 bcm natural gas, which takes 16.7% of world total.



Source: BP Statistical review 2015, Energy Strategy of Russian Federation up to 2035, World Energy Outlook 2013, Forecast of Long-term Socio-economic development of Russia up to 2030

Figure 2. Russian natural gas production since 1985 and official forecasts (bcm)

*Wojciech Kononczuk, Russia's Best Ally: The situation of the Russian oil sector and forecast its future, OSW Studies, no. 39, 2012, p. 18.

† According to BP statistical review of world energy 2015. EIA, Oil and Gas Journal estimate that Russian reserve is bigger than Iran's.

According to diverse Russian official forecasts, total output of natural gas will increase by 2035 as we see in [figure 2]. Among them, “Energy Strategy of Russian Federation up to 2035”, the latest forecast, indicates that the production will increase by 821(conservative) to 885 (target) bcm by 2035. In former version of the strategy, “Energy Strategy up to 2030” approved in 2008, the production level was predicted 940 bcm by 2030, but it had to be revised by recent unfavorable environments, such as lower domestic and external demand, which was exacerbated by slow recovery of price in foreign markets and the inhibition of domestic gas price increases*and economic sanction against Russia by western world. According to the Energy Research Institute of the Russian Academy of Science, volume of Russian gas reserve and its structure is favorable for increasing future production and it also predicts the outcome could increase to 970 bcm in maximum by 2040. Russian government’s “Socio-Economic forecast” and IEA’s forecast in “World Energy Outlook 2013” also predict growing production at different levels. In terms of geography, most volume of Russian gas production comes from western side of the country like its oil production. Western Siberia and European Basin have taken more than 90% of Russian total gas production. Especially, Western Siberia, in which included Nadym-Purtazovsky, the biggest Russian gas mining field has conducted absolute role in Russian natural gas production. According to “Energy Strategy of Russia to 2035”, share of Western Siberia in total gas production will decrease steadily by 2035 from 85.3% in 2014 to 77.3% in 2035. Unlike Western Siberia, Eastern Siberia and Far East will increase its production volume and share in total rapidly from 41 bcm (6.4% of total) in 2014 to 135 bcm (13.5% of total) in 2035.

Table 2: Forecast of Russian Gas production by region

region	2014		2020				2025				2035			
	bcm	%	con.		target		con.		target		con.		target	
			bcm	%	bcm	%	bcm	%	bcm	%	bcm	%	bcm	%
Western Siberia	546	85.3	544	83.7	60	83.6	59	79.7	679	79.6	65	79.0	683	77.3
European basin	47	7.3	53	8.2	52	7.2	50	6.7	55	6.4	47	5.7	52	5.9
Eastern Siberia and Far East	41	6.4	47	7.2	57	7.9	89	12.0	106	12.4	111	13.5	135	15.3
est.	6	0.9	6	0.9	9	1.2	12	1.6	13	1.5	13	1.6	14	1.6
Total	640		650		724		743		853		821		884	

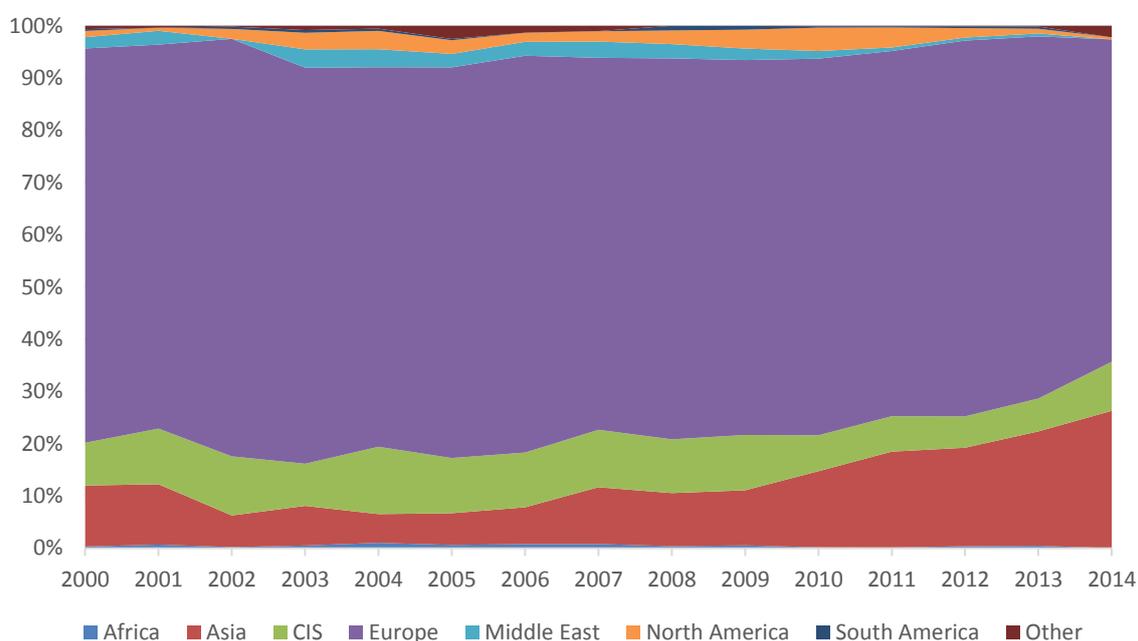
Source: Energy Strategy of Russian Federation up to 2035

2. Dynamics of Russian oil and gas exports

A striking feature of Russian oil exports is its dependency on European market. As [Figure 3] shows, more than 61% of its total exported oil goes to Europe. In 2014, Russia exports 11% of its total exported crude oil to Germany and 10% to Netherland. Poland, Italy, Finland and Sweden follow. Asian market is already important for Russian oil export. It takes 26% of Russian total oil export and its share in total grows steadily. China is the biggest customer of Russian oil. It imports 14% of total Russian oil export in 2014. Japan and S. Korea follow with share of 6% and 2%. We can see rising share of Asian market in Russian oil export by destination. Share of European market has decreased slowly since 2000. On the other hand, share of Asian market in Russian oil export has grown from 12% in 2000 to 22% in 2013. Undoubtedly, China is the main contributor for this

* The Energy Research Institute of the Russian Academy of Science, Global and Russian Energy outlook to 2040, Analytical Centre of the Government of Russian Federation, 2014, p. 140.

fast growing share of Asia. Its share of Russian total oil export by destination was just 0.99% in 2000, but in 2013, the number have reached to 10% of total. Share of Japan and S. Korea also have grown from 0% and 0.56% each in 2000 to 5.20% and 3.50% in 2013.



Source: EIA

Figure 3. Russian crude oil exports by destination, by 2014

In natural gas, Russia exported 201.9 bcm (187.4 bcm - pipeline and 14.5 – LNG) in 2014. All PNG (Pipelined Natural Gas) goes to European and FSU countries. Germany, Italy and Turkey are the main customers in European market, which take almost 60% of total volume of the region. All LNG (Liquefied Natural Gas) exports goes to Asian market, especially to Japan and S. Korea. They import 11.5 bcm and 2.6 bcm of Russian LNG, which take 79.4% and 17.9% of regional total.

According to BP, overall Russian natural gas exports show -10.74% growth rate in 2014. LNG exports have increased little from 14.2 bcm in 2013 to 14.5 bcm, but pipeline exports have decreased a lot from 212 bcm to 187.4 bcm in the same period. This minus growth is due to declined consumption in Europe and Ukraine. Since 2 times of gas crises between Russia and Ukraine, necessity of reducing gas dependency on Russia has emerged in Europe. Recently, both regions are reducing gas consumption and seeking to ease reliance on Russia as relations soured over its annexation of Crimea and the conflict in eastern Ukraine.*

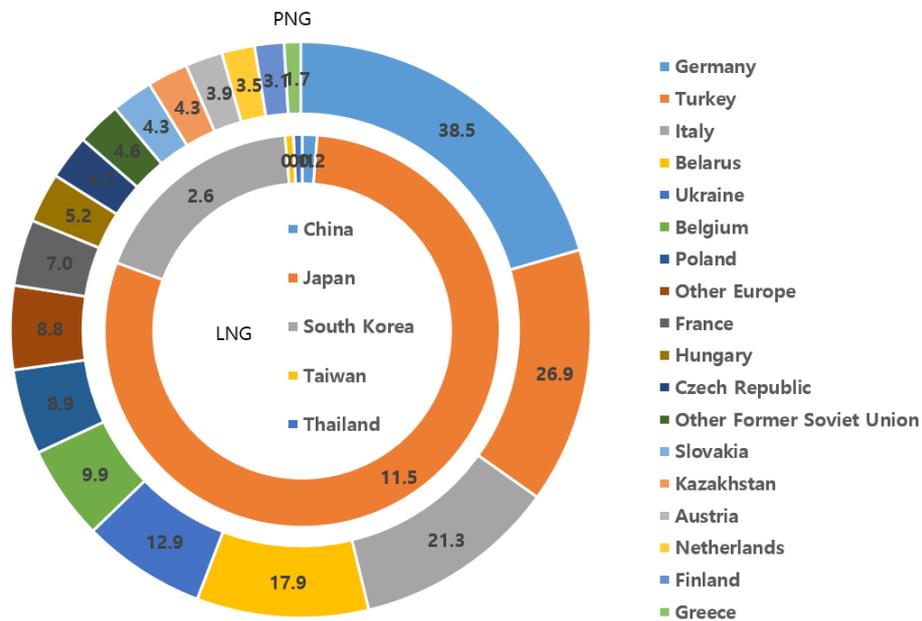
In addition to these backgrounds, European environmental policy regarding to CO₂ emission could give negative effects on Russian gas exports to European market. If EU apply strict carbon policy, by 2050, European natural gas consumption could be reduced by 1/3 of current level and Russian exports to Europe could be shrunk by half.† Of course, EU's practical plans for reducing dependency, such as developing gas supply chains in the region; developing shale gas mining fields; constructing substitute gas pipelines from Middle East, Central Asia and Africa; and importing American shale gas, need time to be in action and that plans' effectiveness still seems unclear.‡ However, one thing is clear that it's time for Russia to prepare substitute markets, which compensate losses in its cash-cow-market trying to escape from it. On this circumstance, Russia

* Bloomberg, Russia 2014 Gas Export Seen Lowest in Decade as Demand Falls, <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2015-01-13/russia-2014-gas-exports-seen-lowest-in-decade-as-nations-cut-use>

† Sergey Paltsev, Scenarios for Russia's natural gas exports to 2050, Energy Economics, vol. 42, pp. 266-267.

‡ Daesik Lee, The Limit and Possibility of EU's Policy of Independence from Russia's Natural gas, Slavic Studies, Vol. 30, No. 3, 2015, p. 166

has plans to build LNG production and transport system, and connect them to Unified Gas Supply System (UGSS). Now Russia has a single operating LNG export facility, Sakhalin LNG, which has been operating since 2009 with an original design facility of 9.6 million tons of LNG per year.* Except this, many LNG facility projects have launched with modification of Law on Gas Export breaking Gazprom’s monopoly on gas exports. The main purpose of these facilities will be to strengthen Russia’s position in the external market.† We can figure out Russia’s intention to expand gas exports to Asian market in its LNG facility plan. Among 9 planned LNG projects 4 are located on the Pacific coast including Sakhalin LNG, which has been operating since 2009 and sole operating LNG liquefaction facility of Russia. Vladivostok LNG and Far East LNG facilities are planned to build 2018 with 15 and 5mtons/year capacity each. In addition, to this expansion project for Sakhalin LNG is expected to start post 2018 and then the facility’s annual capacity will rise to 14.6 mtons. There is only 1 LNG facility planning on western side, Baltic LNG facility. Russian energy authority prospects its gas production in Eastern Siberia and Far East will growth by 15% of total in 2035 and exports to Asia-Pacific region will rise by 42-44% of total.‡



Source : BP statistical review of world energy 2015

Figure 4. Russian natural gas exports by type and destination, 2014, bcm

Changes of oil and gas imports-consumption structure in S. Korea, Japan and China

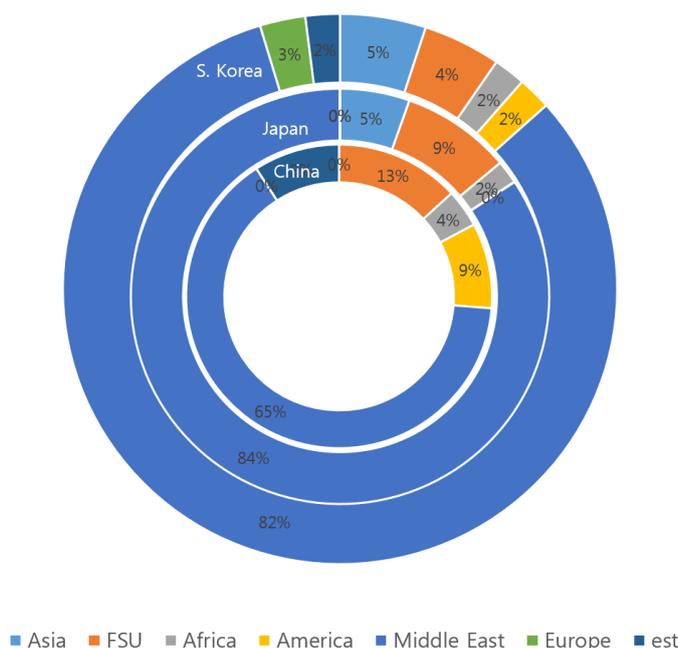
1. Changes in oil imports and consumption

S. Korea’s oil supply absolutely depends on imported oil. In 2014, it imports 927 million barrels of crude oil from 29 countries and 329 million barrels of oil products from 49 countries in the world. Japan has a similar situation to S. Korea. It also has no oil in its territory and most of its domestic oil demands are compensated by imported oil. In 2014, it imported about 1.2 billion barrels of crude oil from 25 countries in the world. China became a net oil importer since 1993 due to rapid industrialization, even though its crude oil production has increased gradually since 1985.

* EIA, Country Report: Russia, July 28, 2015, p. 16.

† Global and Russian Energy outlook to 2040, p. 144.

‡ Ministry of Energy of Russian Federation, Energy Strategy of Russia for the period up to 2035



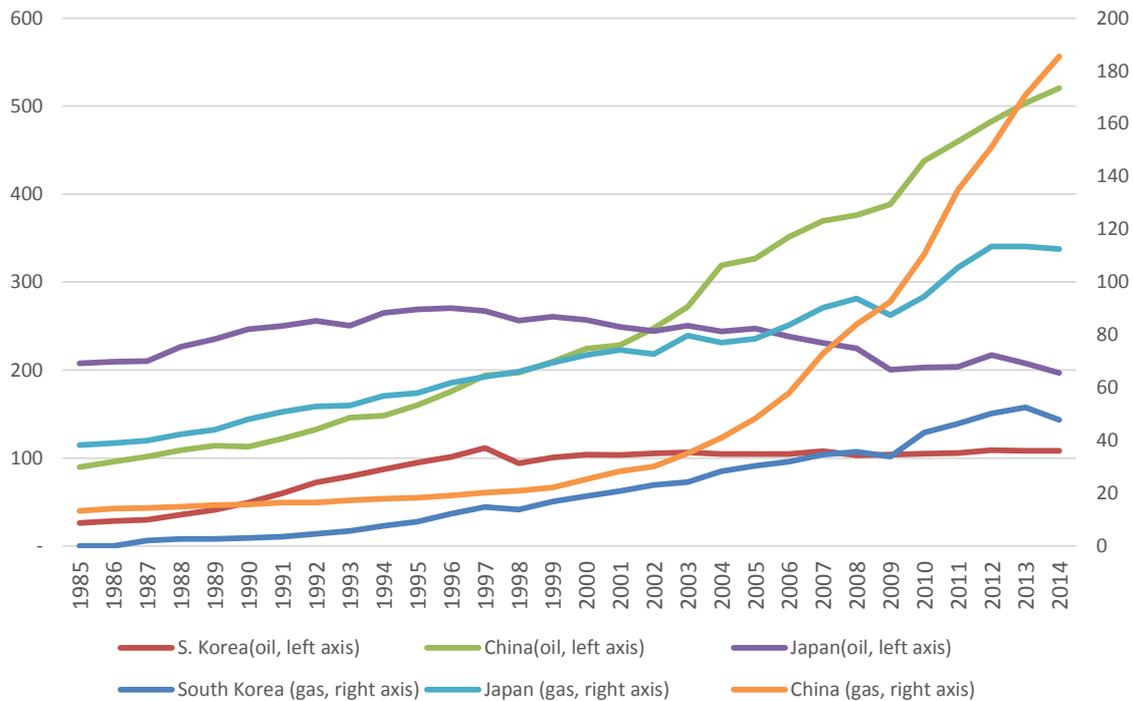
Source: ANRE, KNOC, BP

Figure 5. Crude oil import of S. Korea, Japan and China by origin, 2014

As [Figure 5] shows, S. Korea imports most of its total imported crude oil from Middle East. Middle East takes 82% of its total oil import. Saudi Arabia is the unchallengeable no.1 supplier for S. Korea. Annually, S. Korea imports average 266 million barrels of crude oil from Saudi Arabia since 2000 and it takes about 32.5% of S. Korea's total average crude oil import. Kuwait follows as the second with share of 14.7% of total imports and UAE marks 11.7%. The volume of imported crude oil from these top 3 Middle Eastern countries exceeds 50% of total oil imports of S. Korea in 2014. This high dependency on Middle Eastern crude oil and on some specific countries has been considered as a potential threaten to energy security of S. Korea and Korean government has sought to diversification of crude oil supply routes since after two times of Oil Shock. This effort for the diversification seemed effective by 1999, however, since 2000, with high price of crude oil in global market, the dependency have started to rise up again and hit the peak in 2011 (87.1%). Such tendency is because of some reasons, which are reduced exporting capacity of Southeastern countries due to their increasing domestic demands; high transporting cost of American crude oil; increasing market share of Middle Eastern crude oil in global market; nominal policy for diversification of oil importing routes of Korean government.* Like S. Korea, Japan also has high dependency on Middle East in crude oil imports. As [Figure 6] indicates, it imports 84% of total from Middle East and it is more than 1 billion barrels. Former Soviet Union countries follows with 8.37% of share (most of it comes from Russia) and Asia marks 5.3%. In the top 10 suppliers list, 2 Middle East countries, Saudi Arabia and UAE, take first and second position with 369 million and 306 million barrels of oil. Qatar comes next and Russia takes 4th place as sole non-Middle East country in top 5. The different feature of Japan to S. Korea related to the dependency is the tendency. Japan's dependency on Middle East is showing decreasing tendency. Although, it has shown some fluctuations with high dependency rate, overall, it is declining. In 2000, the dependency rate was about 86% and hit the peak in 2005 as 90%, but in 2014 it maintain the lowest level of dependency on Middle East oil since 2000. China also has the smaller dependency on Middle East in oil imports than that of S. Korea and Japan. In 2014 it marks 64% and it has maintained over 60% level since 2008. The Chinese government's current Five-Year Plan targets

* Dal-seok Lee, Nam-jin Rho, Won-chul Yoon, Chul-gyu Lee, Study on future strategy of petroleum industry, Korea Energy Economics Institute, 2010, p. 4.

oil imports reaching no more than 61% of its demand by the end of 2015. China's dependence on crude oil imports in the longer-term will be determined by the sustainability and growth of domestic oil production; the rate of oil consumption growth as the government aims to create more sustainable economic growth; the speed of strategic and commercial stock fill; the fuel efficiency gains in transportation and any substitution of fuels such as natural gas for oil.* It's biggest source in oil imports is Saudi Arabia and Angola. These 2 countries take almost 30% of total import. Russia comes as 3rd with outstanding growing numbers. Its share in Chinese crude oil imports was 2.10% in 2000, but it has shown 7.46% of annual growth rate on average in the total.



Source : BP statistical review of world energy 2015

Figure 6. Oil and Natural gas consumption of NEA countries since 1985, million tones (left axis), bcm (right axis)

In oil consumption, NEA countries show different tendency. Korean consumption has been growing slowly since 2000, Japanese consumption has been decreasing down since middle of 1990's. Long-term forecast for oil consumption of these 2 countries reflects current tendency. Korean consumption is expected to show -0.11% of annual growth rate in average by 2035 in final energy consumption.[†] Korean government figured out that the minus growth rate in oil consumption mainly due to expected slowdown in economic growth and in population growth. Japan's oil consumption is also expected to mark -0.6% of annual growth in average by 2040 in final energy consumption[‡] due to the same reasons of S. Korea and development of energy conservation technology.[§] Meanwhile, Chinese oil consumption has been rising rapidly since 1960's and the velocity of growth in oil consumption has been accelerated as its fast economic growth. Chinese consumption is estimated to grow 2.6% annually by 2040, which is higher than 2times of world average.

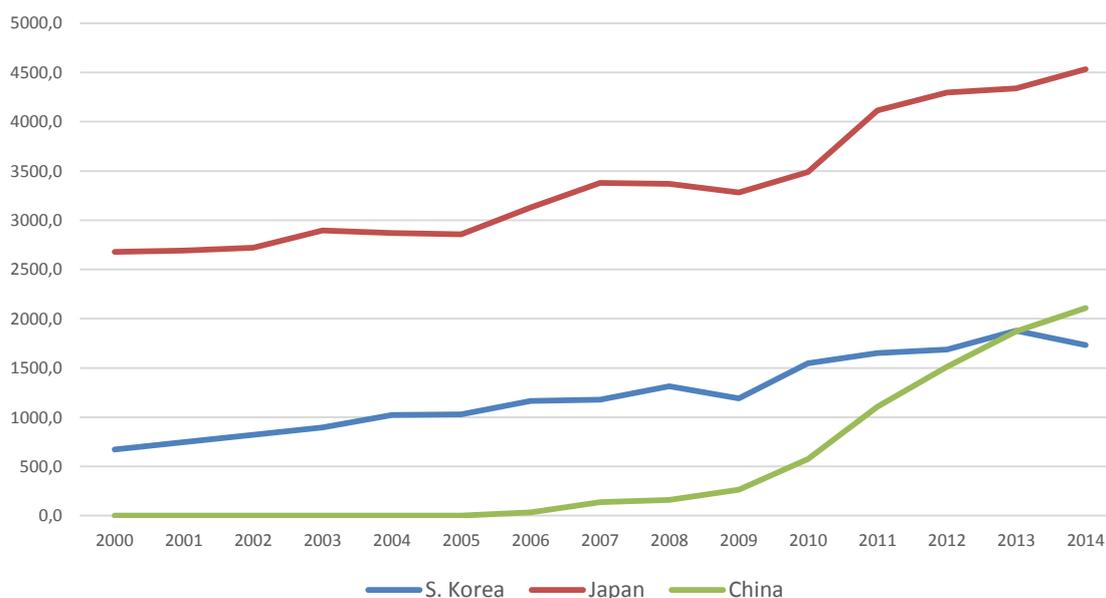
* EIA, Country Overview: China, May 14, 2015, p. 10.

[†] Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy of Korea, 2nd National Energy Master Plan, 2014, p. 36.

[‡] EIA, International Energy Outlook 2014, 2014, p. 25.

[§] Agency for Natural Resources and Energy of Japan, Energy White Book 2005, <http://www.enecho.meti.go.jp/about/whitepaper/2005html/1-1-1.html>

2. Changes in natural gas imports and consumption



Source : IEA, BP

Figure 7. Natural gas imports of S. Korea, Japan and China since 2000, bcf

S. Korea, Japan and China are the three major importers in global natural gas market. The volume of these countries' gas imports take 23.08% of world total and 76.6% of Asia-Pacific total in 2014*. Comparing to their size of economy and total energy consumption, China imports natural gas relatively smaller than S. Korea and Japan. This is due to China's low gasification level. In total primary energy consumption of China, natural gas takes 4.7%, while it reaches 13.7% and 11.2% in S. Korea and Japan. China needs to increase share of oil and natural gas in its energy supply and consumption structure reducing dependency on coal. Actually, coal takes 67% of TPES and 37% of TFEC of China in 2013. China has been showing overwhelmingly higher growth rate of gas imports than S. Korea and Japan since 2009 as [figure 7] illustrates. By 2005, China didn't import natural gas, but since it started to import 322bcm of gas in 2006, it shows 85.5% of annual growth rate in average by 2014 and caught up S. Korea in 2013. In the same period, natural gas imports of S. Korea and Japan also have increased gradually.

In terms of diversity, these 3 countries have more diversified importing routes than their crude oil importing routes. In 2014, S. Korea imports approximately 27.2 bcm of natural gas from Middle East in forms of LNG, which takes 53% of total gas imports. The major sources of gas imports for the country are Qatar, Indonesia, Oman and Malaysia. Russian gas is imported 2.6 bcm in the year. Unlike S. Korea, Japan has higher share of Asia-Pacific region in natural gas imports. Australia is the biggest supplier for Japan (25 bcm), Qatar (21.9 bcm), Malaysia (20.3) and Russia (11.5) follow. China imports almost half of total gas imports from FSU countries, especially from Turkmenistan (25.5 bcm). Qatar (9.2 bcm) and Nigeria (5.2 bcm) come next. At regional level, these countries have similar degree of dependency in gas imports, but on different regions each other. However, at the level of exporting countries, Japan show much higher diversity than that of S. Korea and China. Japan imports natural gas from 14 countries and the top supplier, Australia, takes just 21% of total share. It is relatively lower than others'. S. Korea's top supplier, Qatar, takes 35% and China's one, Turkmenistan, has 44% of total share. In addition to this, gaps between top supplier and second supplier is smaller in Japanese imports chart than in others. Gap between Australia, the top supplier for Japan, and Qatar, second supplier, is 3.09 bcm, but this gaps in S. Korea's and China's chart are shown 10.57 bcm and 16.33 bcm each. Japanese portfolio in natural

*BP statistical review of world energy 2015

gas imports could be more diversified after 2017 when it begins to import American shale gas, which takes approximately 20% of annual natural gas imports of Japan.*

In natural gas consumption, NEA countries have totally different situation. S. Korea and Japan have recorded gradually growing consumption curve. Japan is world 5th in natural gas consumption (112.5 bcm in 2014) and S. Korea consumes 47.8 bcm of natural gas in a year. Overall, S. Korea's gas consumption shows increasing tendency. It didn't consume natural gas at all by 1985 and gradually has increased consuming volume. Despite of stable growth of S. Korea and Japan in gas consumption, forecasts for their future consumption are pessimistic. Japanese gas consumption is expected to fall gradually due to the same reasons of oil consumption fall according to Japanese government and government's plan to reactivate its nuclear power facilities, which was fully frozen since Fukushima crisis. S. Korea's gas consumption is expected to show 0.1% of average fall by 2027 comparing to 2012 according to "11th Long-term Natural Gas Supply Plan (2013-2027)". Chinese gas consumption has been growing rapidly since 2000, when its growth rate marked 14%. In 2014, it consumed more 10 times of gas than the volume in 1995 and its volume of gas consumption caught up Japan in 2009. Total volume of Chinese gas consumption will grow in long-term range due to Chinese government anticipates boosting the share of natural gas as part of total energy consumption to at least 10% by 2020 to alleviate high levels of pollution resulting from the country's heavy coal use.† However, growth rate is predicted to slow down in midterm despite of the government's coal-consumption control policy. IEA forecasts that Chinese gas consumption will mark 314 bcm in 2020 and growth rate will be 8-9%, which is smaller than past.§ Meanwhile, National Development and Reform Commission (NRDC) of China adjusted downward its forecast of China's gas consumption in 2020 from 400 bcm to 360 bcm. China National Petroleum Corporation released more pessimistic projection, which predicts 300 bcm in 2020.** This is due to slowing down of economic growth, relatively higher price of gas and expanding demand of non-fossil energy resource in Chinese market.

Res production and consumption in NEA countries

1. Production of RES

NEA countries are applying diverse policies for developing the sources and technologies. As we see in [figure 12] overall renewable output in the countries shows rising tendency except Russia. The absolute volume of Chinese renewable production overwhelms other countries, 239 mtoe in 2013, however, its share in TPES have been decreasing since 2002, when it took 16% of share in TPES. In 2013, the share has been cut into the half of 2002, 8% of TPES. This is because while TPES has grown 140% since 2002 to 2013, renewable production has increased just 16%. S. Korea records remarkable growth rate in renewable, which was 10% in 2013 and 11% in average for the last decade, although still it has small producing volume and share in TPES. While TPES has risen 33%, renewable production has grown 203% in the period. Despite of this outstanding growth in production, renewable energy takes less than 2% of TPES in S. Korea. On the other hand, Russia is stuck showing fluctuation of production in the range of around 10 mtoe. Russia has shown average 2% of growth rate since 2002 and in Russia renewable energy production takes 1.06% of TPES, which is the lowest level among the countries. Its share in TPES was 1.13% in 2002, but it has decreased to 1.06% in 2013. While its TPES has grown 17% for last 10 years, renewable production has increased 10%, which is lowest level among the 4 countries. This is a quite disappointing result for Russia considering its huge potential in renewable energy source and policy efforts to the sector. Since 2007, Russia has developed a comprehensive political and regulatory framework for renewables in the wholesale and retail markets. However actual deployment have been very slow

* 日経ビジネスオンライン, 米国発のシェール革命の波を日本へー新たな天然資源が秘める可能性, http://special.nikkeibp.co.jp/as/201401/sumitomocorp/vol1_page1.html

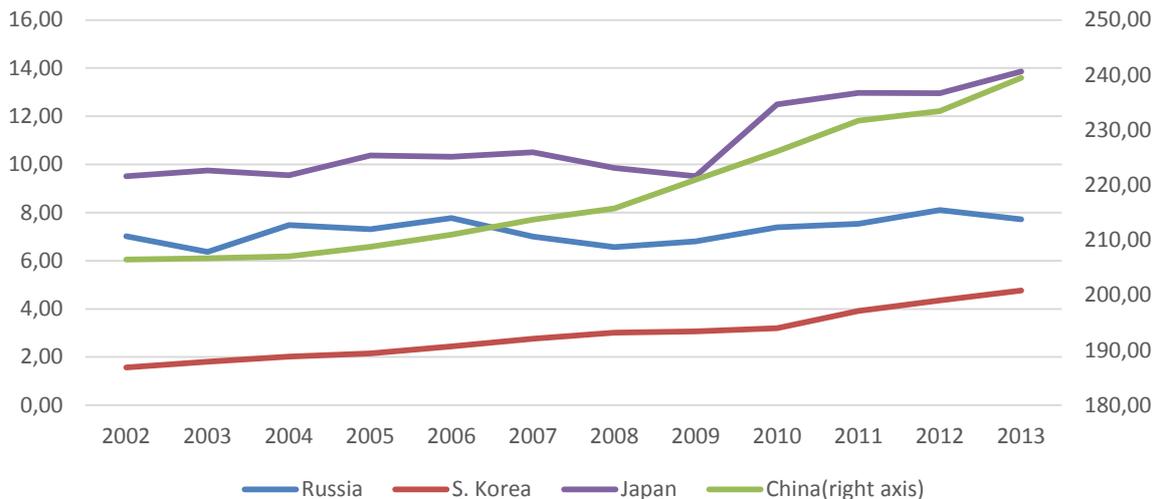
† Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy of Korea, 11th Long-term Natural Gas Supply Plan (2013-2027), 2013.

‡ EIA, Country Report: China, Updated May 14, 2015.

§ IEA

** Kwang-Soo Hwang, Slowing down of Chinese growth rate in natural gas-consumption and its influence, Quaterly Review of Center for Gas Economics & Management, 2015, vol. 14, no. 1, p. 18.

due to the large availability and share of fossil fuels used for heat and power generation, the concern about avoiding higher end-user electricity prices, and challenges from how to integrate renewables in the electricity system.* Japan have achieved about 4% of average annual growth rate in renewable production for last 10 years. Its renewable production had increased by 2007 and marked minus growth in 2008 and 2009. Since 2010 Japan has shown about 11% of growth rate by 2013. Japanese ratio of RES to TPES was 1.86% in 2002 and it has risen by 3.05% in 2013. This growth rate in renewable production partly due to Japanese decreasing TPES. Since 2004, Japanese TPES has declined year by year. It was 510.54 mtoe in 2002 and through fluctuated pattern by 2005 it recorded 454.66 mtoe in 2013, -11% comparing to 2002. As already mentioned, this is related to depressed socio-economic condition of Japan. Japan is the only one country showing declining TPES among NEA countries and it is expected to be continued in the future†.



Source : IEA, Energy Statistics of OECD countries 2014, Energy Statistics of non-OECD countries 2014

* Converted to mtoe from original unit (TJ)

Figure 8. Changes in generation and production of renewables, mtoe

The structure of renewable energy production of the countries shows quite different features. S. Korea has relatively well balanced producing structure by sources. As we see in [table 3], S. Korea use every renewable sources for production energy. Industrial wastes take 48% of total renewable energy production by sources. Solid biofuels and municipal wastes follow. In electricity generation, S. Korea has the most diversified portfolio among the countries, the most diverse sources (8 types) are used. Japan also shows quite diversified structure in both renewable production and generation. Unlike S. Korea, Japan's dominant renewable source in production is solid-biofuels taking 61% of total, after that geothermal and industrial waste follow. Municipal waste and solar thermal also has share as renewable source marking 9% and 2% share. In electricity generation by renewables, Japan show the lowest dependency level on hydropower, 57.49% of total. Solid fuels takes second place, 21.7% of total, after that solar PV, municipal waste, wind, geothermal and industrial waste follow with one digit share of total.

Meanwhile, Russia has the most biased structure in both renewable production and electricity generation by renewables. In production of renewables, just 2 sources, industrial waste and solid biofuels, take more than 94% of total share. In electricity generation, we can see huge dependency on hydropower taking more than 98% of total generation by renewables. In other words, Russia quite depends on relatively traditional and low-technology renewable sources. China has a better structure in both production and generation than that of Russia. In 2013, 84% of

* IEA, Energy policies beyond IEA countries: Russia 2014, OECD/IEA 2014, p. 219.

† Energy White Book of Japan 2014

Chinese renewable energy production comes from primary solid biofuels and 81% of renewable electricity generation is produced by hydropower. A different feature from Russia is that Chinese structure in renewable production and generation has been developing by year in terms of source-diversity. In electricity generation, geothermal and ocean power has begun to be used in 2005, after that electricity production by using industrial waste and solar thermal has started in 2010 and 2011. In renewable production also, China has added liquid biofuels and industrial waste into its renewable source portfolio in 2006 and 2010. These added renewable sources has been increasing steadily their absolute volume and share in totals. In short, China has quite similar problems to Russia in renewable energy supply, dependency on some specific sources, but it has been improving its structure steadily.

Table 3: Renewable energy production and electricity generation by renewables by source, 2013, % of total

Country	Russia		S. Korea		China		Japan	
	Product.	Gen.	Product.	Gen.	Product.	Gen.	Product.	Gen.
Municipal waste	-	-	18.23%	2.74%	-	-	9.23%	4.18%
Industrial waste	54.93%	1.55%	48.11%	2.14%	2.20%	1.09%	10.10%	1.63%
Primary solid biofuels	39.23%	0.02%	20.00%	3.73%	83.91%	3.40%	61.02%	21.75%
Biogases	-	-	4.97%	4.55%	3.28%	-	-	-
Liquid biofuels	-	-	6.28%	0.00%	0.90%	-	-	-
Geothermal	5.84%	0.24%	1.83%	-	1.88%	0.01%	17.36%	1.76%
Solar thermal	-	-	0.58%	-	7.82%	-	2.28%	0.00%
Hydro	-	98.19%	-	62.67%	-	81.61%	-	57.49%
Solar PV	-	-	-	11.98%	-	1.37%	-	9.67%
Tide, wave, ocean	-	-	-	3.61%	-	-	-	-
Wind	-	-	-	8.58%	-	12.52%	-	3.52%

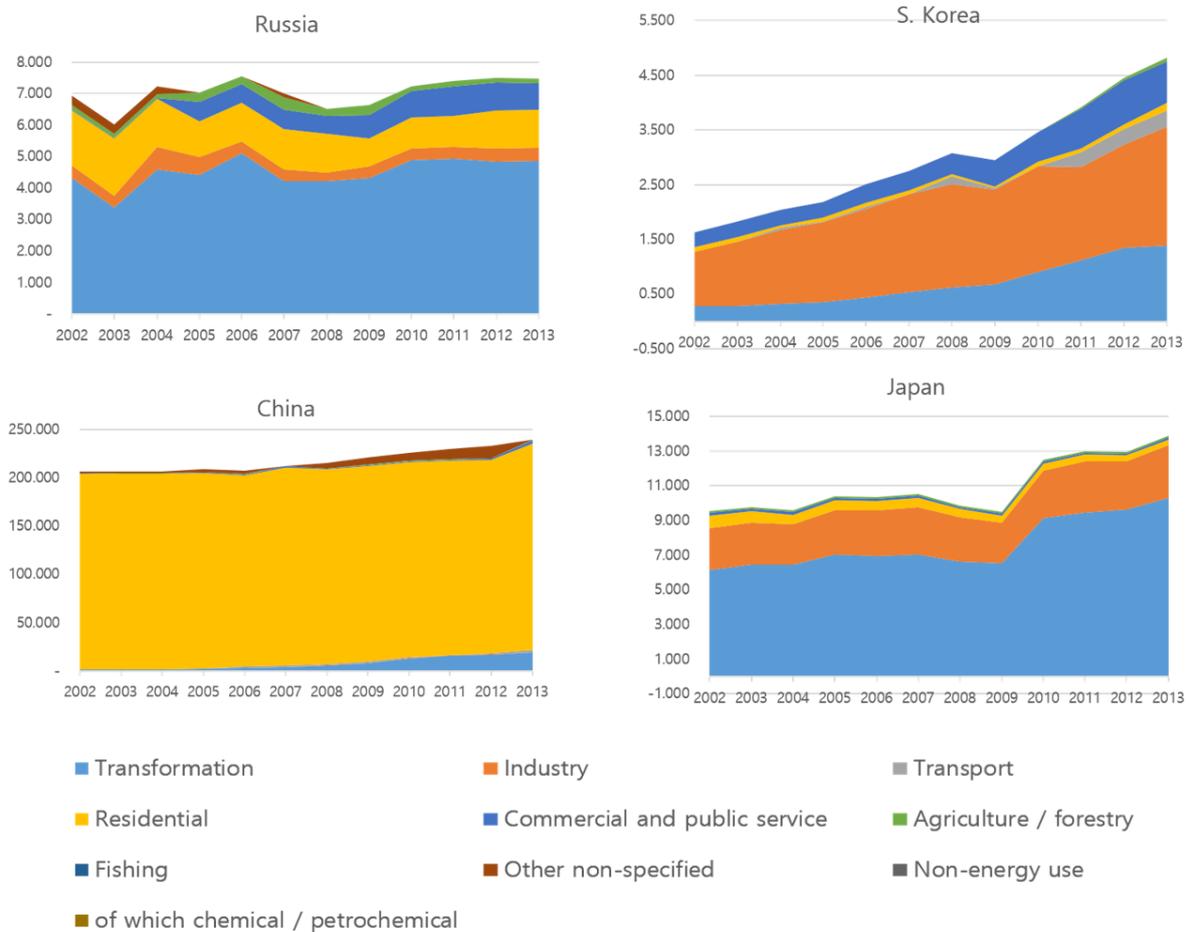
Source : IEA

2. RES Consumption

The tendency of each NEA countries' overall consumption in renewable energy sources combining transformation and final consumption follows production of renewable energy. Except Russia, which seems be stuck in the level of 7 mtoe, S. Korea, China and Japan have been showing rising tendency since early 2000's at the different level. Among them, S. Korea records 10.5% of average growth rate since 2002 and consumes 4.8 mtoe of renewable energy in 2013. This average growth rate overcomes world average (9.02%) in the same period and almost 10 times bigger than growth rate of Russia. Japan has the second place among NEA countries in terms of growth rate of RES consumption. The rate increases 7.1% in 2013 and records 3.9% of average growth rate for the last decade. China and Russia records 1.4% and 1.1% of growth rate in the same period, but a difference between them is that China is on the rising tendency in RES consumption since 2006, but Russia has been stagnant at around early 7 mtoe since 2004 with fluctuating tendency.

In consumption by sector NEA countries show very different tendency and mix. Russian renewable energies are consumed in relatively diverse sectors considering its biased production structure. The biggest sector is transformation, in which included electricity, heat and CHP plants. Transformation sector takes 65% in 2013 and has maintain that volume of share for ten years. This dominant share of transformation sector is expected at least to stay at that level or to grow as Russia's long-term energy strategy planed. In the 'Energy strategy of Russia for the period up to 2030', expanding renewable energy sources in the electric energy and heat production is stressed

with specific target number for the first time in its history of official publication on national energy strategy. Residential purpose use has 16% share of total in 2013 and its proportion has decreased steadily from 25% in 2002.



Source : IEA, Energy Statistics of OECD countries 2014, Energy Statistics of non-OECD countries 2014

* Converted to mtoe from original unit (TJ)

Figure 9. RES consumption by sector, mtoe

Meanwhile, Chinese overwhelmingly higher share of residential sector in renewable partly represents its higher share of hydropower and solid biofuels in production. Its share of total renewable consumption was over 98% in 2002, but since that year it has been declined to 89% and other sectors have increased their share due to Chinese governmental policy efforts improving regulation on renewable sector and stimulating investment into the sector.* Unlike Russia and China, significant volume of renewable energies of S. Korea is consumed in industrial sector, rather than transformed into electricity and heat. However, the share of industry sector in RES consumption has been decreasing from 60% in 2002 to 45% in 2013. As share of industry sector has decreased, shares of transformation sector and transport sector have been rising each from 17% and 0.05% in 2002 to 28% and 3% in 2013. Interestingly, S. Korea is the sole country, in which the final consumption sector is bigger than primary consumption, transformation. This is related to development of solid and liquid biofuels. Japan's dominant sector in renewable consumption is transformation as like Russia. Its share in total renewable consumption was 64% in 2002 and has risen by 74% in 2013. The second and the biggest sector in final consumption is industrial sector

* For details see: Seung-chan Park, study on Xi Jinping government's long-term development strategy of renewable energy, China and sinology, vol. 21, 2014, pp. 197-213.

that takes 22% of total in 2013 and has declined from 25% in 2002 as transformation sector has increased. Development of renewable energy sources including supply and demand side is affected by governmental policies more than other traditional energy sources. All NEA countries' government established its own national renewable energy plans and we can find out the countries target with specific numbers.

Limited motivation for building cooperation through conventional energy sources and role of RES

As we saw NEA countries' energy status in previous chapter, Russia, S. Korea, Japan and China have different features to each other in supply and demand of current major energy sources, crude oil and natural gas, and future energy source, renewables. As the conclusion of our work, in this chapter, we summarize the discordances of the countries' needs in supply and consumption structure of the energy sources from the viewpoint of building energy cooperation.

Firstly, we can observe potential discordance of needs in energy cooperation between Russia and other NEA countries. As we reviewed, it's clear that there will be no surprisingly high growth rates in oil production and even it could be reduced in near future. Natural gas production is expected to rise and Russia has enough reserve, but it could be reduced by recent changes in global energy market. On the other hand, consumption in oil and natural gas of Korea and Japan will decrease due to their socio-economic conditions. However, their high dependency on Middle East in oil imports makes them have attraction to Russian crude oil. Unlike oil imports, these two countries already have quite diversified importing routes in natural gas. Considering decreasing gas consumption forecast and diversified importing routes in these two countries, needs in Russian gas could be not so much strong in Korea and Japan in near future. Meanwhile, China already has enough share of Russian oil in its imported oil portfolio, but has necessity for Russian natural gas in order to increase share of gas in its final consumption. In other words, there could be mismatch between countries' needs in conventional energy sphere for cooperation. Since collapse of USSR, when cooperation between NEA countries and Russia in energy sphere had begun to be discussed, it was an undoubted assumption that the three NEA countries have strong needs in conventional energy resources, oil and gas. It was right at that times when they were on the rising curve of energy consumption. Now S. Korea and Japan already have touched the peak in oil and gas consumption. China seems to be closing to the peak considering its slowing down growth speed in oil and natural gas consumption. Of course, S. Korea, Japan and China will consume huge amount of oil and natural gas, and these two energy sources will be remain as main energy sources in both supply and consumption. However, the matter is that the less they consume these energy sources, the weaker motivation to build energy cooperation they will have. Recent tendency in the countries' oil and gas consumption and in the global energy market seem make the countries lose the motivation, or urgency, for building regional cooperative regime in energy sector. This is negative for all NEA countries, especially for Russia. For the last decade Russia have had strategic advantage in negotiation of bilateral energy projects in the region with high-energy price in the global market and high economic growth in the region. Now the conditions have changed except Russian needs in Asian market. As we saw, Russian oil and gas production very depends on eastern part of the country, but Russia's major market, European market, intend to reduce dependency on Russian energy sources. This is why Russian government consider developing energy-mining fields and expanding to Asian market as the higher priority goal in its long-term energy strategy. In summary, S. Korea and Japan will prefer to Russian oil than natural gas in order to reduce dependency, but the degree of preference could be declined as their total oil consumption is decreased and low global energy price is maintained. China have needs in Russian natural gas rather than in oil, but the degree could be declined as its speed of total gas consumption growth is slow down. On the other hand, Russia's needs in Asian oil and gas market still remain, so these countries changed needs in oil and gas could be negative for Russia's future strategy in Asian market. Therefore, in order to response to these changes for protecting its interests, Russia needs to its strategy in Asian energy market.

Secondly, in these circumstances, renewable energy sources could be a solution, which could compensate lost motivation for energy cooperation in this region. As we checked in previous chapter, four NEA countries have different levels and structures in renewable energy sector.

Although they all have low share of renewable energy in their total energy supply, S. Korea and Japan are increasing production and electricity generating through renewable sources with enthusiastic governmental policies. China already has world top position in renewable sources in terms of producing volume, but in terms of quality, it is hard to say that China has advanced features in renewable energy sector. Russia is worse than China in terms of quantity and quality of renewable production. However, the common feature shared by the countries is that they are seeking to develop renewable energy sources as a high-priority national agenda. S. Korea aims to take 11% of TPES and 13.4% of total electricity generation from renewable energy sources by 2035*. During the period from 2014 to 2035, annual average growth rate is expected to mark 6.2% while TPES rises 0.7% in the same period. With this policy target, Korean government intends to reduce share of waste in renewable source production and to increase share of solar PV and wind from 2.2% and 2.7% in 2014 to 18.2% and 14.1% each by 2035. If these governmental plans are achieved, Solar PV, Sola thermal, wind and geothermal will take major portion in Korean renewable energy production. Japan try to increase share of renewable energy by 10% in TPES and by 13.5% in the total electricity generation by 2020. It could be raised up to 33% of total generation by 2030 if total generation in the year will remain at the same level of 2013 according to Ministry of Environment of Japan†. In order to achieve the goal, Japanese government implemented feed-in-tariff scheme in 2012 and intends to support wind power and geothermal power‡. In this forecast, solar power will take the biggest share in total generation by renewable sources at minimum 2,493 kwh to maximum 3045 kwh. Wind power comes next maximum 1,533 kwh and small and medium size hydropower follows. In other words, Japanese renewable supply structure will be transformed from hydropower-centric generation structure as we saw above to solar and wind-centric structure. Chinese target share is 11.5% of TPES by 2015 and it is expected to rise to 16% by 2030 under the current policies and investment patterns§. In this condition, hydropower will remain as the overwhelmingly dominant source in 2030. Its output will increase by 1,600 twh, while solar PV and solid biomass and gas grow by 650 twh and 200 twh by 2030**. According to ‘Energy Strategy 2035’, Russian renewable target is to increase electricity generation from renewable energy sources at least 10 times than that of 2014. As we already checked, hydropower provides more than 98% of Russian electricity generation from renewable sources. Excluding hydropower, other renewable sources compensate just 0.32% of total electricity supply. Therefore, it looks so hard to fulfill this target without huge amount of investment and policy efforts. Comparing to that Japan and S. Korea have begun its first renewable project and policy in early 1980’s and China has released a lot of policies and projects on renewables, Russia just has started unified national frameworks on renewable energy sources. Its first policy on renewable sources is addressed in 2003 in ‘Energy Strategy 2020’, legal framework was established in 2013.

Of course, it is not simple question how to apply renewable energy sources to cooperation between countries and it is over the research range of this article. However, it is clear that regional energy cooperation in conventional energy sources is constrained by weakening motivation and discordance of needs between countries. Recalling the pattern or characteristic of energy cooperation projects between Russia and other NEA countries, competition for Russian energy sources as we saw in case of ESPO and Sakhalin LNG facility, the weakening motivation for energy cooperation from consumption side will be a critical threaten not only for Russia, but also for the cooperation itself. It is undoubted and unchallengeable that enlarging economic sphere by cooperation in energy resources is beneficial for all NEA countries. Therefore, it is necessary to find out stimulating and rebalancing sources for the cooperation. In this context, renewable energy sources that all NEA countries seek to develop, could conduct a role to motivate the cooperative idea.

* Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy of Korea, 4th national new and renewable energy master plan of Korea, 2014.

† Smart Japan, 2030年に再生可能エネルギー33%へ、原子力にこだわらない環境省の予測 : <http://www.itmedia.co.jp/smartjapan/articles/1504/07/news033.html> (2015.04.07)

‡ For detail, see ‘Strategic Energy Plan of Japan, 2014’ section 3 in chapter 3

§ International Renewable Energy Agency, Renewable energy prospects: China, 2014, p. 5.

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УДК 33

Энергетическое партнерство России и стран Северо-Восточной Азии

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Аннотация. Исследование пытается дать ответ на самый фундаментальный вопрос об энергетическом сотрудничестве между Россией и странами Северо-Восточной Азии, «действительно ли нужна модель сотрудничества в энергетической сфере?». Этот вопрос важен для понимания аспектов энергетического сотрудничества в этом регионе, потому что, идея создания данного сотрудничества основана на предположении, что между структурами спроса и предложения данных стран существует взаимодополняемость и взаимозависимость. Чтобы найти ответ на этот вопрос, мы проанализировали секторы спроса, потребления и предложения России и стран Северо-Восточной Азии по нефти и газу, как текущие доминирующие источники энергетики, и рассмотрели сектор ВИЭ (возобновляемых источников энергетики), как потенциальных будущих источников.

Ключевые слова: энергетическая стратегия, энергетическая модель сотрудничества, возобновляемые источники энергии, социально-экологические проблемы, взаимодополняемость и взаимозависимость в энергетической сфере.

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UDC 33

Comparative Analysis of Conditions Life in Settlements the Municipality of Berane and Settlements the Municipality of Andrijevica: A Case Study

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“How much has of that, what us not necessary "Socrates
(Diogenész, 2005).

Abstract

The focus of work is the conception quality of life issues that in lately, it becomes increasingly important socio-economic issue. The work tends to argue how and which the context of the quality of rural life provides an opportunity to resolve the paradox of development interpreted by many researchers. The study was designed and conducted in the geographical and social space, as a case study. Geographic space research included is urban settlements: Berane and Andrijevica as well as the rural: Dolac, Lužac, Dapsiće, Luge, Polica, Gnjili Potok, Kralje, Slatina, Zabrdje and Rijeka Marsenić. Social space related to the surveyed residents of what is meant, and our insight into the social environment. The existence of differences in living conditions, opportunities and attitudes of urban and rural residents has been formulated as a null hypothesis in the study. The aim of the research is that the comparative view of living and working conditions of rural and urban population and comparative data analysis tested the validity of the initial assumptions. The analysis includes the following dependent variable: level of education, occupation, housing conditions, health status, satisfaction of patients through life and the rank the reasons for the concern of respondents living in town is an independent variable.

Keywords: living conditions, rural, urban, municipality Berane, municipality Andrijevica, research.

Introduction

Although we will not deal with nor philosophical neither originating nor historiography term, according to Ilić et al (2010) (citing research Vittersø, 2004 and Butow, 2009) discussion about the quality of life dates back to Plato and Aristotle. As an academic discipline in the quality of life

appeared in 1970 and was confirmed in 1974 and considered by the scientific journal "Social Indicators Research". The second important academic publications multidisciplinary "Journal of Happiness Studies", multidisciplinary journal that allows discussion on what are the two main starting points for the study of happiness, namely: theoretical essays good life and empirical research on subjective well-being. International Association for Research Quality of life (ISQOLS) serves as a forum for academic researchers working in this field, encouraging interdisciplinary research, methodological discussions and development. Searching the database by Ilić et al (2010) for the period from 1974 to 2008, found is that the quality of life in the year 1974 mentions only in 8 publications, in the year 1984 in 284, in 1994 in 1.209, in 2003 in 3.519, in 2008 in 66.592 scientific articles. Quality of life is treated as a central theme in 1974 in a scientific article 2, in 1984 in 93, in 1994 in 502, in 2003 in 1.060 and 2008 in 20.355.

Milivojević et al (2012) asks himself what the essence of satisfaction with their own lives and what are the key aspects? Is it the same for everyone and is a function of his age and his status in society? How to him affect the value systems and cultures of human communities? In the knowledge society more and more people want to work home while maintaining a career and raising children. Quality of performance is becoming more important than quantity. Old and young, men and women, all want to live healthier with a peaceful and spiritually fulfilling life. All they want highly ethical society in which they can trust, and that is not based on exploitation but on helping each other, which gives a real base to realize their hopes and dreams. People want to be happy throughout your life. This all suggests that there has been a significant change in key aspects of satisfaction with their lives.

From more practical point of view, the conception of the quality of life can be seen as the reaction of the modern society to the problems it has to deal with. Due to this statement we will conclude the paper with the specification of some possibilities of the practical utilization of the knowledge acquired via the geographical quality of life research (Andraško, 2009). Combining the conclusions of Pacione (2003), Andraško (2005), Andraško (2006) and Andraško (2007) these include: production of the spatial projection of the information regarding the quality of life in particular areas; assessment of the spatial differentiation of selected territory from the quality of life viewpoint; production of territorial comparisons of the levels of quality of life and identification of the most "problematic" areas; production of visually transparent outputs (mainly maps), representing the information regarding the quality of life in quite simple and comprehensible, user friendly manner; creation of the specialized Geographical Information Systems as an highly operative tool for handling the quality of life related data; production of some baseline measures of quality of life against which we can compare subsequent measures and identify trends over time; knowledge of how satisfactions and dissatisfactions are distributed through society and across space; understanding the structure and dependence or interrelationship of various life concerns; understanding how people combine their feelings about individual life concerns into an overall evaluation of quality of life; achieving a better understanding of the causes and conditions which lead to individuals' feelings of well-being, and of the effects of such feelings on their behavior; identifying problems meriting special attention and possible societal action; identification of normative standards against which actual conditions may be judged in order to inform effective policy formulation; monitoring the effects of policies on the ground and promoting public participation in the policy making (Andraško, 2009).

In order to understand the changes of the concept of quality of life, it is necessary to know the essence of life and its interaction with the social order, and with the physical environment. With the right Bohnke (2005) concludes that the improvement of the primary goal of European social policy: happy, satisfied and engaged citizens contribute to the booming of European society. In light of EU enlargement, the interest in living conditions in different European countries. Subjective well-being of the population is one of the many aspects that need to be explored in this context.

Research methodology

The study was designed and conducted in the geographical and social space, as a case study. Geographic space research included settlements municipalities Berane (urban settlement Berane iand rural: Dolac, Lužac, Dapsiće, Luge and Polica) and settlement municipalities Andrijevica (urban settlement Andrijevica and rural: Gnjili Potok, Kralje, Slatina, Zabrđe and Rijeka Marsenić). Social space related to the surveyed residents of what is meant, and our insight into the social

environment. Your chosen settlements municipalities Berane and municipalities Andrijevisa are different in relation to the demographic structure of the population, population density, physiognomic characteristics and position within the structure of urban and rural settlements northeastern of Montenegro (see Rajović and Bulatović, 2012; Rajović and Bulatović, 2013; Rajović and Bulatović, 2013; Rajović and Bulatović, 2013; Rajović and Bulatović, 2015; Rajović and Bulatović, 2015; Rajović and Bulatović, 2016). Population survey is conducted on three occasions, in late July 2012, the beginning of August 2013 and mid-August 2014. In order to obtain representative data is planned to include 112 survey respondents. Since, on the initial assumption that the social characteristics of the subjects affect their grades and attitudes, and bearing in mind the research authors of this text Rajović and Bulatović (2015) planning sample survey was applied multi-phased sample in combination accidental and deliberate selection of respondents, in order to ensure the quota. The planned number of surveyed residents in the implementation of the survey is been exceeded, but the stricter control logic questionnaires at the end of processed a total of 91, which represents a very high in realization 81.3 % of the planned sample. In the second stage of research were selected respondents in rural settlements in the city of municipalities Berane and municipalities Andrijevisa combined accidental and deliberate choice. In the third stage of the research were determined quota of respondents by gender and age. The range covered by the ages of 18 to 60 years or more. Sam methodological procedure is based on research Kajari and Šandor (2011), that was based on an analysis of the frequency and the analysis of dependence, which is determined using the so-called Tschuprow's association coefficient of interdependence, so that the views and opinions of respondents analyzed by the method of ranking and comparing the obtained rank Spearman's coefficient rank correlation in order to detect differences and similarities in the living and working conditions, health status and quality of life of urban and rural population. Quality of life can be measured by with the use of a number of techniques. So the quality of life can be measured simultaneously from both the perspective of objective and subjective evaluation factors. The combination of multiple research approaches on same subject of research overcomes some of the weaknesses and problems of individual research methods and thus improve the results of research (Milivojević et al, 2015).

Table 1: Methodological pluralism which is applied when measuring quality of life

System Level	Focus of measurement	Strategy measurements
Micro System	Subjective nature of quality life ("personal assessment")	Satisfaction research Measuring happiness
Central system	Subjective nature of quality life ("functional assessment")	Coding scale (level of functioning) Observation of participants Questionnaires (external events and circumstances) Engaging in everyday activities Self-determination and personal control The role of status (education, work, everyday life)
Macro system	External conditions ("social indicators")	Life standard employment rate literacy Rate mortality rate Expected life

Source: Schallock (2004).

The aim of the quality of life conception cannot be seen only in the way of identifying particular problems, but also to point out the possibilities of their solution and outline the direction the society has to follow in a sense to ensure the satisfactory degree of quality of life for all. Hopefully, the presented paper at least partially contributed to explanation and support of the status of geography and geographers in this endeavor (Andraško, 2009).

Analysis and discussion

Planning rural and urban development, and even more measurement and assessment of its results, it is necessary mean definition and selection of appropriate indicators. In the literature most often cite subjective and objective indicators of quality of life. An objective approach is based on the study of the representation of various external indicators such as: material situation, state of the environment, political freedom, the level of democracy in society..., while the subjective approach mainly deals with the subjective experiences and the experiences of individuals. The issue of objective and subjective approach to quality of life is engaged in numerous authors. On this occasion, among them apostrophized: Thompson et al, 1962; Lewis, 1968; Bunge, 1973; Smith, 1973; Knox and MacLaran, 1978; Frazier, 1982; Helburn, 1982; Sufian, 1993; Oliver et al, 1995; Johnston, 1997; Diener and Suh, 1997; Diner et al, 1999; Hargety et al, 2001; Massam, 2002; Scollon et al, 2003; Kaŭeman and Krueger, 2006; Ira and Andraško, 2007; Heady, 2008; Brereton et al, 2008; Slavuj, 2012; Rajović and Bulatović, 2016; Rajović and Bulatović, 2016.

Table 2: Three dimensions of quality of life

Dimensions		Main domain
Have (H)	1	Economic resources
	2	Housing conditions
	3	Employment
	4	Working conditions
	5	Health
	6	Education
Love (L)	1	Contacts in the local community
	2	Contacts in the family
	3	Friendships
	4	Contacts in associations and organizations
	5	Relationships at workplace
Be (B)	1	Participation in decision-making in relation for own life
	2	Political activities
	3	Opportunities for rest and recreation in free time
	4	Opportunities for creative work
	5	Opportunities for enjoy nature

Source: Arsovski and Stojković (2014).

Quality of life can be considered according to Arsovski and Stojković (2014) as a synthesis of three approaches: resources and standards of living of people (Have-H), subjective experience, or perceived quality of life (Love - L), possibility of individual promotions and satisfaction (Be - B), as shown in Table 1.

Table 3: Differences dimension QoL

Objective living conditions	Subjective feeling Quality of Life	
	Good	Poor
Good	Good feeling	Dissonance
Poor	Adapting	Deprivation

Source: Arsovski and Stojković (2014) according to Rapley, 2003.

According to Milivojević et al (2006), the index of quality of life (objective) is determined based on previously obtained values of each of the sets of indicators, mainly using the method of logical reasoning. So, if you take the total number of negative points from 1 to 20 defines the scale quality of each of the sets of indicators. Then, based on the evaluation of all four sets of indicators (economy, society, environment and science and technology), defines the index of quality of life. Therefore, according to Milivojević et al (2006) Quality of life is defined as: excellent, above average, average, below average and bad. Satisfaction with quality of life (subjective) involves personal

evaluation of what we have, love and create (jobs, education, family, children, friends, career ...), but also other factors such as health, material wealth, organization and quality of the state... The index of satisfaction with quality of life gets research on a representative sample of the population of an area (city, region, country) where the index evaluates each individual and calculating the satisfaction index from the set value of the indicator (scale of 1 to 5).

Table 4: Alternative approaches to knowledge about quality of life

Distinctions	Approaches			
	Livability comparisons	Wage differentials	Personal well-being	Community trends
Origins of professional approach	Journalism, geography, or other	Economics	Psychology, sociology	Recommended approach for planners
Measurement focus	Shared, objective characteristics of communities using secondary data	Disamenity compensation using secondary data	Determinants of life satisfaction based on personal interviews	Local trends in components of quality of life using secondary data and personal interviews
Statistical means	Additive combinations of objective indicators using weights supplied by researcher judgment	Regression models estimating weighted contribution of objective amenities to wage differentials between places	Regression models estimating weighted contribution to self-evaluations of different life domains to overall life satisfaction	Objective indicator profile of changing community character and subjective citizen assessment of each separate factor
In past has directed attention to	Which places are "better" or "worse"	Which places must pay higher wages	Personal characteristics and private life	Which factors are growing better or worse - emphasis on the future and citizen priorities
Political/economic implications of past work	Aids competition for relocating firms and workers	Indicates lower/higher costs of doing business	Local government cannot help much	Highlights local problems and goals related to development process

Source: Massam (2002) according to Myers (1988).

Table 4 indicates that summarize the major differences among major alternate approaches to measuring QOL. Massam (2002) citing research Myers (1988) points out that He notes five major distinctions: "First, what have been the scientific or professional origins of each approach? Second, how does each approach focus its measurement process regarding quality of life? Third, what is the statistical basis for measuring quality of life? Fourth, what aspects of quality of life have the conclusions of such studies emphasized in the past? And finally, what political or economic implications have been drawn from such studies in the past?"

Table 5: Advantages and disadvantages of alternative approaches measuring QOL

Advantages	Disadvantages
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<p>Livability comparisons</p>	<p>Livability comparisons yield a practical set of qualitative measurements that many users are eager to accept as useful representations of other people's cities</p>	<p>A lack of theory to guide measurements seems to be at the root of the criticism. Researchers impose their own assumptions and input their own priorities when selecting and weighting indicators.</p> <p>The weights attached to different components are arbitrary and thus yield erroneous ratings of overall quality of life.</p> <p>Place comparisons are not designed to measure quality of life as residents see it.</p> <p>By focusing on making comparisons between areas, features that define quality of life in particular areas may be ignored.</p> <p>The methodology biases the quality of life scores to favour larger areas.</p>
<p>Wage differentials</p>	<p>The citizen preferences can be measured from market behavior The evidence to support the theory that quality of life improves business climate</p>	<p>Since researchers have tested only a very limited range of variables to determine how they represent quality of life, the research is not yet broadly applicable.</p> <p>The omission of housing and cost of living from the definition creates a gap between the technical and popular definitions of quality of life.</p> <p>When combined with the extreme complexity of the methodology wage differential research loses its salience & potential for local use.</p>
<p>Personal well-being</p>	<p>This approach can be valuable for some purposes. Local decision-makers might benefit from knowing the importance, for example, recreation plays in residents' personal quality of life.</p>	<p>Studies focus on personal well-being often fails to meet community purposes, because defining quality of life in personal terms has important limitations.</p> <p>The measurements provide a less useful guide for community level decisions.</p>

Community trends	<p>This approach emphasizes trend over time while conceptualizing quality of life as a part of the ongoing development process.</p> <p>It encourages interest groups to participate in negotiating what factors should be measured as part of the quality of life.</p>	<p>It should be avoided to formulate community well-being on the basis of personal well-being. Community well-being stresses community factors that are beyond individual control while personal well-being stresses private, personal matters that are largely beyond governmental control.</p>
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Source: Baycan Levent and Nijkamp (2006)

Although each approach provides some useful information about QoL, they all have some weaknesses. Table 5 shows advantages and disadvantages of each alternative approaches.

Table 6: Two main approaches in defining the values of objective indicators

No statistical methods	Statistical methods
Assessment researchers Expert evidence Literature Survey research and focus groups	Regression analysis Factor analysis

Source: Slavuj (2014), according to Eyles (1994); Wong (2006) Malkina-Pykh and Pykh (2008).

According to Slavuj (2014) (citing research Eyles, 1994; Wong, 2006; Malkina-Pykh and Pykh, 2008) possible to separate the two main approaches to defining the values of objective indicators: points out that it is possible extract two main approaches that are used in research are applied to define the values of objective indicators: non-statistical methods and statistical methods. In non-statistical methods may include: self-assessment authors of the study, the opinion of experts, and the literature devoted to the same or similar issues and research of public opinion through polls or focus groups. The most are widely statistical methods to calculate the values of objective indicators of the analysis of regression and factor analysis. When it comes to the value of subjective indicators, and gathering information about the overall quality of life, according to Slavuj (2014), citing Dzurova and Dragomirecka (2000), Trauer and Mackinon (2001), Alcazar and Andrade (2008) it is possible to multiply the results of satisfaction with the results of importance to every domain of life, and then opted for summing the results of in index.

Expressed formula: Subjective quality of life = Σ (satisfaction domain x importance of domain).

For example, if the research uses Likert scale with five points, and expressed satisfaction with some of the domains of life is 3 degrees, and the importance she attaches to 4, then the score for that domain was 12. The process must be repeated for each domain and then count their results in order to obtain a complex subjective index. The value of the importance of the relatively are common procedure used in the formation of a subjective index of quality of life and to individual researchers count as correct.

Since 2011, the Eurostat indicators used QLI (Quality of Life Indicators). It measures eight dimensions of well-being. At Euro Fund (Euro found - European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions) has formed a database of statistics quality of life (Euro LIFE). The base consists addicted collected in the European quality of life research (European quality of life survey- EQLS), which is based on data from a total of 160 indicators of quality of life, classified into 12 groups. Based on the following analysis of literature (Kuz, 1978; Omuta, 1988; Tuain Seik, 2000; Santos and Martins, 2007; Priego et al, 2008; Feneri et al, 2013; Rezvani et al, 2013; Rosu et al, 2015) and present knowledge, in this paper "Comparative analysis of living conditions in the

settlements Municipality of Berane and settlements Municipality Andrijevica, "we used procedure have implemented Kajari and Šandor (2011), adapted for the purposes of this research.

Table 7: Age structure of interviewees

Year	Frequency	%
18-30	31	34.06
31-40	25	27.48
41-50	18	19.78
51-60	11	12.09
60 and more	6	6.59
Total	91	100

From a total of 91 respondents in the study included 48 men or 52.74%, respectively 43 women or 47.26%. Table 7 shows the distribution of respondents by age. The majority of respondents 34.06% were in the age group of 18 to 30, while the total number of respondents in the age group of 31 to 40 years accounted for 27.48%, in the group from 41 to 50 years 19.78%, from 51 to 60 years 12.9% of respondents in the age group 60 and over, there were only 6.59% of respondents.

Table 8: Education of respondents

Education of respondents	Structure in %	
	Rural ssettlement	Urban settlement
Primary school	61.54	14.29
Secondary school	35.16	71.43
College	3.30	9.89
Faculty	-	4.39
Total	100.00	100.00

Analysis received answers show that interviewed people in rural settlements in the municipality of Berane and Municipality Andrijevica lags for the urban population in terms of education. Specifically, the total number of respondents (91) was involved in the study of the total number of respondents in rural settlements 51 of them, of which the primary school was not for them 61.54%, with secondary education 35.16%, with college education 30.3%. The educational structure of the total number of respondents in urban settlements Berane and Andrijevica (40) in the survey were involved with primary school 14.29%, with college education (includes and students) 9.89% and the faculty 4:39% of respondents. According to most of the findings from the literature educational level was positively associated with pleasure and happiness (Ruff et al, 1999; Kling and Wing, 1999; Nezlek, 2000; Markus et al, 2004; Ryan and Huta, 2009) which is logical given that a higher level of education an individual provides a greater range of opportunities and resources available.

Table 9: Occupation of respondents

Occupation	Structure in %	
	Rural ssettlement	Urban settlement
Pupil / Student	7.84	17.5
Agriculturist	17.65	5.0
A worker in a state institution	9.80	22.5
Entrepreneur	-	10.0
Housewife	15.69	12.5
Pensioner	25.49	10.0
An unemployed person	23.53	22.5
Total	100.00	100.00

Many theorists believe that occupation can have large effects on the extent and factors of employee satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a strong indicator of positive attitudes and determined individual and organizational values (Diaz - Serrano and Vieira, 2005). Table 8 shows the interest of survey respondents. Significant differences between rural and urban populations can be observed almost in all professions. Examples of Table 3 confirm this. Namely, in professions pupil /student difference is in the range 7.84% - 17.5%, the farmer 17.65% - 5.0%, a worker at a state institution 9.80%- 22.5%, housewives 15.69%- 12.5%, a pensioner 25.49% - 10.0%, the unemployed face 23.53% - 22.5%. We note that interest entrepreneur is not present in the surveyed rural population, while the share of entrepreneurs in the urban settlements of Berane and Andrijevića amounts 10.0%. Barriers to entrepreneurship are reflected in the lack of initial capital, the uncertainty of the economic environment, credit disability, lack of knowledge and skills for entrepreneurship, lack of confidence and support. Location municipal administration in urban settlements, and schools and health care necessarily imposes a greater participation of workers in urban areas. The consequence is the fact that in rural areas, local governments as well as the educational and health institutions shall perform only small jobs and tasks. Similar is the situation of occupations pupil /student. The majority of young people forced to during training or studying living or traveling in urban settlements. Respondents most Valuable problems related to unemployment. The number of unemployed persons in the surveyed respondents is almost even. The quality of labor supply due to lower levels of education and low competence working-age population is at a critical level. A number of respondents were forced to seek sources of social security in the system of social protection. According to Rajović and Bulatović (2015) the most important sources of income from agriculture for household income generated from livestock production (livestock, meat, milk, eggs). Participation of farmers in total employment structure is the result of an unstable market for agricultural products, inadequate and insufficiently specialized production structure, low productivity, lack of mechanization ... all of which cause the revenues earned by selling agricultural products have not been identified as the most relevant for survival and perspective of households. In these new circumstances, European and world experience shows the tendency to develop a permanent system of education, and that the problem occupations increasingly comes to the fore as a strong indicator of good business and prosperity (Ross and Reskin, 1990; Spector, 1995; Clark, 1996; Gaziouglu and Tansel, 2002; Fabra and Camison, 2009). The social status of a housewife is conditioned by a marked income inequality. They are doubly marginalized, as members of agricultural households and as women within the economic and family organization of their households. Their social status cannot be improved without improving the position of agricultural households, which generally do not achieve even a modest income, or better conditions for the employment of those women that their economic status want to establish outside the household. According to the annual report "Age Watch Index" on the status of the aging population, published by the organization "Help Age International", followed by the fact that of the 91 countries ranked, Montenegro was given not at all pleasant place 83 (www.vijesti.me). Countries are ranked by of security wages, health care, per capita GDP, the environment and the school system, as well as the by the social environment. The average pension in Montenegro amounts 276.20, while more than a thousand pensioners receive a minimum pension of 100 Euros. The question is how and what this group of pensioners can reconcile the basic necessities of life, not to mention the need of treatment, and almost daily visits to the hospital and health centers.

Table 10: Residential conditions of respondents

The quality and ownership of living space	Structure in%	
	Rural ssettlement	Urban settlement
Luxury house / apartment	17.65	-
Own	17.65	-
Leased	-	-
Comfortable house / apartment	23.53	32.50
Own	23.53	32.50
Leased	-	-

Average house / apartment	49.02	62.50
Own	49.02	57.50
Leased	-	5.0
No comfortable house / apartment	9.80	-
Own	9.80	-
Leased	-	-
Total	100.00	100.00

The research results indicate some differences in the structure of living space of respondents by place of residence. Thus, respondent's villages 49.02% of them have an average house /apartment, while 62.50% of respondents in urban areas have the same quality of living space. Comfortable house in the village has a 23.53% of respondents, while in urban settlements is 32.50% of them. The luxurious house in rural settlements has 17.65% of respondents, while this phenomenon cannot perceive among respondents in urban settlements Berane and Andrijevića. Precisely this residential condition indicates the social differentiation of respondents, that luxury houses have mostly interviewees in rural settlements – temporary workers abroad. No comfortable houses/apartments among are respondents in urban settlements are not recorded, while in rural areas the share of these objects is 9.80%. As for ownership of housing both among rural and among urban respondents housing was almost in their own property. "Mild difference which is owned residential buildings appear in favor of the rural population is the result of the fact that the rural population is less - and more work related to the village in which conducts agricultural production, and is less mobile than the city. In his case, it is quite rational behavior to settle permanently in the village, in their own home and work the land in the environment. When it comes to urban populations, their professional mobility is more pronounced, because as an administrative worker, doctor, teacher ... anywhere you can get a job, and had no interest in acquiring ownership of the housing reduce their mobility, mobility in the labor market "(Kajari and Šandor,2011).

According to Svirčić Gotovac (2006) equipped households depend on the technical equipment. Households can be equipped with basic or primary technical conditions and secondary conditions that are above the level of basic conditions. The natural conditions in the household are: electrification (electricity), water (running water), heating, sewage, bathroom, and other supplementary installations. Today, the prim Secondary conditions household equipment according to Svirčić Gotovac (2006) makes the existence of technical facilities and devices for daily functioning of life, such as household appliances, phone, and all those less basic but modern and necessary installations, such as connection to the Internet.ary level reached modernizing filled in most developed countries and developing countries. In this second type of equipment levels to satisfy all or just some of the needs becomes dependent on many indicators, and thus are harder to objectively determine. For example, depending on educational attainment population, total income in the household or some personal and subjective preferences and aspirations, this level of equipment can vary widely.

Our research evidence based on similar studies to Bokić and Čikić (***) indicate that the rural population is characterized by the differentiation in terms of quality and ownership of living space by source of income in the household. The results confirm the assumption that the sources of household income determined by the tendency towards certain types of investments and their real possibilities. If the Size of living space viewed as an expression of investment in non-production factors, then it is understandable why pure agricultural households have the lowest residential area. On the other hand, mixed holdings have increased the quality of living space due to the dual sources of the family budget, a specific attitude towards investment... Drug Indicator dimensions housing include equipped household. Research shows that significant differences in the influence of certain socio-cultural factors on the quality of equipped and of living space no. Significant differences in the equipment of households in the village and the city were present only in the possession of modern technical equipment (for example air conditioning) and communication means (internet). Also, there are "read" the impact of income sources as a factor that contributes to the internal differentiation of rural households with regard to possession of modern means of communication and sources of information, so that the non-agricultural households that the one are in the majority of possess.

Quality of life related to health can be defined as "an optimal level of mental, physical, occupational and social functioning, including relationships with the environment, as well as the feeling of health, physical condition, life satisfaction and well-being. Modern medicine according to Knight et al (2001), Alonso et al (2004), Efklides et al (2006) and Trgovčević et al (2014) indicate that in addition to the extension of life expectancy, as a goal increasingly focuses on improving quality of life. At the global quality of life certainly affect aspects of the environment (air and water quality), geographical conditions (land configuration, climate), economic aspects (standards, employment), social interaction and positive life experience. Orientation towards the patient's "good health" (the opposite of the orientation disease), leading to the development of the new term quality of life related to health and quality of life related to health (Health related quality of life - HRQL or HRQoL).

Table 11: The health status of respondents

Mark	Share in%	
	Rural ssettlement	Urban settlement
Not knows - 0	3.25	2.37
Very bad - 1	1.74	9.35
Bad - 2	3.18	6.04
Sensitive - 3	11.07	21.67
Good - 4	57.89	40.54
Excellent - 5	22.87	20.03
Total	100.00	100.00

Respondents in rural settlements have their health assessed predominantly as good - 4 (57.89%) and doing great - 5 (22.87%), while respondents in urban settlements their health status assessed as good - 4 40.54% and grade excellent - 5 of them 20.03%. We note the disproportion in the answers rural and urban respondents who rated their health very badly (1.74%-9.35%), bad (3.18%-6.04%), sensitive (11.07% - 21.67%), while the number of those who declared themselves respondents not knows (2.37% - 3.25%). According to Mirković and Simić (2011) self-perceived health is generally accepted by many researchers as a reliable indicator of health status. Specifically, it was found that self-reported health status of a powerful predictor of diseases, functional capacity, and especially an independent predictor of mortality (Okosun et al, 2001; Bath, 2003; Bond et al, 2006; Ford et al, 2008; Norekval et al, 2010). Furthermore, according to Mirković and Simić (2011) meta-analysis Idler and Benyamini (1997) shows that in 23 of 27 studies self-reported health status accurately predicts survival or life expectancy, or significant predictor of decreased functional activity (Idler et al, 1999; Mansson and Rastam, 2001; Kaplan and Baron-Leplen, 2003) and use of health services and hospitalization (Menec and Chipperfield, 2001; DeSalvo et al, 2005). Understanding the connection only of estimated the health status of the determinants of health can help health care professionals to adapt to health promotion and preventive activities in accordance with the needs of the population (Philips et al, 2005).

Table 12: Satisfaction of respondents through life

Mark	Share in%	
	Rural ssettlement	Urban settlement
I am pleased	29.47	31.26
Partially I am satisfied	59.03	55.84
Dissatisfied	11.50	14.88
Total	100.00	100.00

The satisfaction or dissatisfaction as an element of quality of life conditions of the rural and urban population, we compared the level of their satisfaction: family life, current job, living standards, access to social and public services, participation in local community life, technical infrastructure, availability of institutions and organizations, traffic and communal services. Possible ratings ranged from 1 to 5, with the following content: disagree I satisfied - 1, not satisfied

- 2, moderately am satisfied - 3, I am satisfied - 4, I'm very pleased with 5. The social life of the population in rural areas is significantly different from the life of the urban population. While the city offers numerous cultural, entertainment and sports facilities in different institutions, their village residents provides space community house as a meeting place and leisure time. Of given categories respondents were most satisfied with family life that on a scale of 1 to 5 assessed with 4.41; on the other hand the survey showed that respondents were also the lowest level of satisfaction expressed by the present work, which are rated with an average score of 0.43. Also, there is a low level of satisfaction towards the standard of living (average score 0.49). Observed by gender Men are more satisfied with family life that is rated with 4.2, while women family life assessed with 3.9. If we look to the type of settlement we can note that the respondents from urban and rural areas gave almost identical scores, the only difference we see in the field of satisfaction with education, where respondents from the rural part of the evaluation gave 1.74, while respondents from the urban part of the education rated with 3.62. Respondents in rural settlements (62.4%) indicates the dominant issue, it is limited access to social and public services, and capital market .Thus, for example, access to health care and financial services (ambulance, pharmacy, post office) is not adequate to the needs of rural settlements. Financial services (post office) almost do not exist. There are some rural services such as separate departmental primary school, shops and local offices, playground... The greatest pleasure for of respondents from rural areas (75.8%) was expressed in connection with the available health services and cultural life in the village as well as the problem of lack of technical assistance in agricultural production. Among the respondents, the more of them is not enough for the work of local administration bodies (respondents in rural settlements - 52.3%; respondents in urban settlements - 48.4%). If this is added to those who are satisfied with the work of these bodies to a lesser extent (respondents in rural settlements -38.9%; respondents in urban settlements - 32.7%) then even 8.8% of respondents in rural settlements, or 18.8% of respondents in urban settlements has objections to the work of the local administration. More complete picture of the participation of such dimension of quality of life obtained was introduced into added if the respondents personally willing to engage in activities that would be aimed at solving local problems. The majority of respondents in rural settlements (58.4%) as in urban settlements (51.7%) stated that it is willing to engage in activities that would contribute to improving the quality of life. When it comes to technical infrastructure, surveyed respondents are generally dissatisfied because the average score for all categories except telecommunications infrastructure (average score 1.41), on a scale of 1-5. Research has shown that citizens in addition to telecommunications infrastructure, the most satisfied electrical energy infrastructures which are on a scale of 1 - 5 ratings with an average score of 2.86. Followed by water infrastructure (1.38), parking (1.47), while respondents in urban settlements at least satisfied with the cleanliness of the city with an average score (2.05). If we look to the type of settlement we can note that the respondents from urban and rural areas and these questions have given nearly identical scores, the only difference we see in the assessment of transport infrastructure-water supply and where respondents from urban areas showed slightly higher levels of satisfaction. Respondents from rural areas are most satisfied with the telecommunications (score 2.12), while the least satisfied with the organization of public transport (0.43).

Table 13: Rank the reasons for the concern of respondents

A cause for concern	Rank reasons		All respondents
	Rural ssettlement	Urban settlement	
Lack of money	1	1	1
Unemployment	2	2	2
Residential conditions	6	6	6
Education of children	4	4	4
Health Problems	5	3	5
Founding family	3	5	3

Lack of money and employment for all respondents, regardless of their place of residence is the most important reason for concern. It is followed by the rural population are starting a family, children's education, health problems and housing conditions. In the urban population in third

place are the health problems, and children's education, starting a family and housing conditions. Considering to take and the rural and urban populations housing problems can be considered resolved, the concern is with both groups in last place. The low employment rate is one of the major causes of depopulation. All this points to the need for taking are urgent measures to create new and safeguard existing jobs. Poverty caused by demographic and economic decline, with growing social consequences and the low living standards of the population is particularly prevalent in rural areas, where the highest rate of unemployment. The three dominant issues in the municipality of Berane and Andrijevisa are poor and underdeveloped infrastructure, weak competitiveness and underdeveloped economy and limited access to social and public services and capital markets. The current economic development in the first place was tied for the use of resources for agriculture through involvement of less skilled workforce. Agricultural production is extensive and not market-oriented, based on outdated machinery and technology. Low productivity is caused by a small live stock and bad racial composition of cattle appears as problem. Average agriculturally active household has up to 2 - 3 livestock unfavorable racial composition and small production facilities. Crop and animal production can be summarized mainly for their own use, while a small part of the intended market. The fruit production is observed a lack of adequate capacity for processing. Lack of organized and secure whence impact on reducing livestock numbers and the volume of agricultural production. As a reason for the poor entrepreneurship, respondents mention the complicated administration and lack of funds for investment. Insufficient resources withdrawal and are weak marketing and the advent of the market for entrepreneurs from this area very difficult.

Conclusion

Our research evidence based on similar studies Sabbah et al (2003), Oguzturk (2008), Slavuj (2012), Cartra et al (2012), DosSantos et al (2014), points to the following conclusions:

1. First, the fundamental geographic research problems quality of life in the 1970s of the last century is primarily used objective measures. But very quickly there are works that apply a subjective measure. Those papers were encouraged by strengthening the knowledge about the importance of perceptions and experiences of the individual, and a sense that they have towards them. Today, the geographic studies combine both objective and subjective indicators of quality of life,
2. The tendency of people to provide estimates of satisfaction that are mainly focused on the positive side of the scale is well known effect in studies of quality of life. Many studies (Marans and Rogers, 1975; Campbell et al, 1976; Wellman and Wortley, 1990; Lu, 1999; Parkes et al, 2002), Lovejoy et al (2010) according to Slavuj (2012) revealed a tendency towards a positive evaluation neighborhood. The literature as a potential explanation for this effect most commonly cited: the tendency of individuals to adapt and adjust to the residence from which they do not have opportunities to move out, especially in the case if they were readily available resources outside their immediate place of residence; the possibility that individuals settled in neighborhoods which prefer; the possibility that such widespread satisfaction with the giving of testimony reflects a lack of concern or interest to the neighborhood,
3. Having "roof over your head," according to the Slavuj (2012) means to possess the most intimate space for relaxation, privacy, security, and social interaction. Housing affects not only the satisfaction of physical needs, but also plays an important role in ensuring a person's private space in which individuals can fulfill their personal aspirations without a significant influence of external factors. Thus, the Slavuj (2013) concludes by referring to research Grayson and Young (1994) to residential therefore can pose both physical and emotional basis for a good quality of life. On the other sides in the absence of house/apartment people cannot meet their basic needs. Therefore, housing is considered one of the most important factors affecting the quality of life. The research results confirm the assumption that in rural and urban areas of the municipality Berane and Municipality Andrijevisa sources of income in the household determine propensity towards certain types of investments and their real possibilities, i.e. that the housing considered geo-space is not an obstacle to the functioning of the surveyed individuals or families,
4. Key measures to improve life in the municipalities of Berane and Andrijevisa, according to 74.3% of respondents in rural settlements and 81.2% of respondents in urban settlements is creating new jobs and increasing employment. Stands out with the importance of investing in social and community infrastructure (respondents in rural settlements - 64.8%; respondents in urban settlements - 52.4%) citing the following measures: drinking water for all, arranging places

and playgrounds, construction of sewers, renovation of local roads, landscaping schools, more cultural events, equipment shops settlement, restoration ambulances...

5. This remark is significant precisely because it points to inadequate and insufficient equipment of rural settlements even elements of primary infrastructure, which are not met even the basic conditions for the overall quality of life. Maintaining such a situation does not provide the opportunity for quality development planning. Using research Bogadi Klempić et al (2011) in this text points to part of them 39.6% of respondents considered important measure of progress to support young people. It is necessary to support their ideas, but also to improve the educational structure of the villages to encourage them to higher education, awarded scholarships to the best, allow them to creatively spend their time, organize training courses and workshops to be studied previously acquired knowledge and exchanging ideas. As an important factor in improving the lives of the population recognized the need to stimulate the development of local entrepreneurship (41.9%),

6. Remaining proposals appear in rarely so it will only be listed here: investment in tourism development (especially rural, excursions, sports and recreation) (see Rajović and Bulatović, 2015), to support the development of agricultural production, improving cooperation with residents, providing assistance needs (the elderly and weaker groups), and to encourage self-employment. Almost the majority of respondents in urban settlements (62.4%) and rural (67.5%) cited various measures to improve the quality of life in the village municipality of Berane and municipalities Andrijevica. Answers include proposals: equality for all residents, taking measures against emigration, employment, encouraging the development of rural areas because they are the future of a healthy life, running activities for young people and the elderly population, the introduction of bus transport,

7. Some answers may respondents the interpreted distrust of local government, so it would seem necessary in the future development plans of municipalities to a greater extent involve locals in order to build trust between residents and local government, which is an essential prerequisite for successful implementation,

8. Quality of life has been intensified in recent decades. Between researchers, spatial planners and representatives of the authorities towards the Slavuj (2012), citing research Tuan Sheikh (2000), Li and Weng (2007) stresses that there is a consensus in which studies on quality of life is extremely necessary because the research results show invaluable in planning the development of rural and urban settlements. Among other things, such studies help in the formulation of strategies for improving the quality of life for the identification of problem areas within the village or town, discovering the causes of discontent among the population, learn the with citizens' priorities, monitoring and evaluation of the impact of political ideas and strategies across a number of indicators of quality of life.

According to Dymitrow and Brauer (2014) including and research Dymitrow (2013), Tunbridge, and Ashworth (1996), Kirshenblatt - Gimblett (1998) and Ashworth (2007) emphasize that firstly, the quality of whose life is implied when applied onto a rural development strategy? If we agree to adopt a more humanistic paradigm to development, but still consider the need for a rural development policy, does it mean that the lives of rural people are attributed some special qualities? Moreover, who are those rural people in light of the immense difficulties to define both 'rurality' and 'locality' as a result of the rural-urban blurring? And who should decide who 'rural people' are and what is considered best for them? Secondly, using the highly contested concept of heritage as a central measure of monitoring QOL seems questionable in the face of the large body of critical-theoretical work on the subject. Thirdly, despite being a timely and seemingly important concept, QOL straddles many conceptual boundaries - economic, material, psychological, moral, and so forth.

In recent years according to Oktay (***) , a number of cities have developed indicator programmers aimed at tracking their progress toward becoming more sustainable and livable. At the same time, programmers have been launched in several cities that aim at measuring the quality of life and more specifically, quality of urban life. These programmers have used either a series of objective measures to assess quality of life or resident surveys that tap the attitudes and behaviors of citizens. As highlighted by Marans (2007), "seldom have both types of measures been employed. Typically the programmers have been designed to inform policy decisions of local governmental, corporate, and non-profit organizations. Yet few programmers have been guided by theories emanating from academia". There are two critical issues facing those operating in the context of the public policy and planning for urban areas and social sciences. One deals with the meaning and

measurement of quality of life. The other deals with the identification and use of measures or indicators to assess changes in the quality of community life (Oktay,***).

Finally "evaluating life satisfaction in general, lifting up (material) well-being and personal happiness are among the basic and central belief that every human during of life build. In addition to the impact they have on the personal life of the new general life attitudes largely determine the social behavior of people "(Vasović, 2003).

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УДК 33

Сравнительный анализ условий жизни в населенных пунктах муниципалитета Беране и поселений муниципалитета Андриевица: тематическое исследование

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Аннотация. Статья базируется на исследовании вопросов качества жизни, которые в последнее время становятся все более важной социально-экономической проблемой. В работе обсуждается, каким образом в контексте качества сельской жизни предоставляется возможность для разрешения парадокса развития, рассматриваемым многими исследователями. Исследование было разработано и проведено в географическом и социальном пространстве, в качестве примера. В географическое пространство исследования включены городские поселения: Беране и Андриевица, а также сельские: Долац, Lužac, Dapsice, Луге, Полица, Gnjili Potok, Kralje, Слатина, Zabrdе и Риека Marsenić. Социальное пространство охватывает опрошенных жителей, что означает, и наше понимание социальной среды. Существование различий в условиях жизни, возможностей и отношений городских и сельских жителей были сформулированы в качестве гипотезы в исследовании. Цель исследования заключается в том, что сравнительный обзор условий труда и быта сельского и городского населения и сравнительный анализ данных проверил правильность первоначального предположения. Анализ включает в себя следующие зависимые переменные: уровень образования, род занятий, жилищные условия, состояние здоровья, удовлетворенность пациентов и ранжирование причин для беспокойства респондентов, живущих в городе, является независимой переменной.

Ключевые слова: условия жизни, сельские, городские, муниципалитет Berane, муниципалитет Andrijevica, исследования.

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The Determinants of Lifelong Learning

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to introduce drivers of lifelong learning and to emphasize its importance in modern life. Developed economies throughout the world are driven more by knowledge and globalization than were economies of even the recent past. European economies of the 20th century were largely driven by manufacturing and the need to industrialize. Filling such economies with functional workers required education systems of similar design, that turned out masses of equally-educated workers in large batches. Increased automation, the widespread introduction of computer technologies and communications, and cheaper transportation have combined to encourage firms to be lean, international, and changing. Computer technologies encouraged sharing of documents, speeded workflow from design to production. Cheaper transportation allowed an increase in internationalization of workforces. These major shifts drove change from industrialized to knowledge-based economies. Paper discusses how two simple English words came together, stayed together, and grew into a powerful term driving new political initiatives, and continue to influence political, economic, social, and even cultural currents. Today's developed societies are rapidly aging, live longer and have fewer children. In order to continue to grow vibrant economies, and to fully enjoy the benefits of these vibrant economies, citizens need to continue to renew knowledge and skills during entire lifetime. As the major technological, economic, and social currents change, so must citizens adapt by never ceasing to learn throughout their lifetimes.

Keywords: economics, lifelong learning, lifelong education, knowledge economy, globalisation, change.

Introduction

The growing recognition of the need lifelong learning is due to the increasing economic and social importance of human capital – our education, skills, competencies, and knowledge. As worldwide economies shift away from economic success for individual human beings, and manufacturing national economies are increasingly dependent on the quality of human capital,

raising human capital has emerged as a key policy priority, the need for refocus is particularly acute for low-skilled individuals, who are at risk of being left even further behind.

The present day economy is an economy of knowledge, with multicultural character that requires a new and different approach to learning mode, and if we want to be an active part of such economy, we have to be willing to accept the changes, adapt to them quickly, to change existing methods of learning, if we are not to be overrun, we must align to current trends by time and rapid social and economic changes. Younger generations are adapting rapidly to changes. They famously adapt to introductions of new information technology (e.g. smart phones, social media on the Internet, etc.). But all generations need to get more involved to build a successful society. This includes trying new approaches to both learning and teaching. The new emancipatory and creative methods aim at helping a student establish critical faculties as well as creative capacities, while adjusting to complex personalities. The goal of these methods is to match and meet the needs of modern society.

In today's knowledge economy, the value of learning is becoming ever more apparent. As Brian Keeley (2009), writes in *Human Capital, How what you know shapes your life (2009)*: "Whether you're an aged grandmother in Kenya, a 55-year-old manager in Kyoto, or a 25-year-old graduate in Kansas, the economic value of your education is rising." Not only can people no longer afford to stop learning and teaching just because they leave school or university, but they also must cultivate and continue the right *type* of learning and education. This is because education is, in economic terms, an asset, and like all assets, education requires maintenance. Newly acquired skills can make a difference for individuals, communities, economies, and ultimately, to whole societies. So, as with any asset, it pays to look after one's "human" capital. Parents the world over and in all social classes encourage their children, (their children call such encouragement "nagging"), to study long and hard to achieve high grades, with the expectation that future rewards will follow consequentially from all of the work. Keeley also warns that while human capital can sometimes be dismissed as an irritatingly functional concept, ignoring it has its jeopardies. Amid rising concern about the potential impact on societies of income inequality, the book shows how we need to regard poverty as less an absence of money and more an absence of the resources—especially human capital—that are key to social and economic well-being. The present society is the Information Society, an innovative society, a pluralistic society with a multicultural character. It puts pressure on governments and business to increase public spending, but also reduces economic growth. It is also a good opportunity for all of us that the years spent in work and in retirement relive useful. This new society requires that its members change to old life patterns. Members must change and grow to stay functional, and the only way to do this is to learn without stopping – participate in lifelong learning.

What is lifelong learning

Lifelong learning may be broadly defined as learning that is pursued throughout life: learning that is flexible, diverse and available at different times and in different places. Lifelong learning crosses sectors, promoting learning beyond traditional schooling and throughout adult life (ie post-compulsory education). This definition is based on Delors' (1996) four "pillars" of education for the future.

- Learning to know - mastering learning tools rather than acquisition of structured knowledge.

- Learning to do – equipping people for the types of work needed now and in the future, including innovation and adaptation of learning to future work environments

- Learning to live together, and with others – peacefully resolving conflict, discovering other people and their cultures, fostering community capability, individual competence and capacity, economic resilience, and social inclusion.

- Learning to be – education contributing to a person's complete development, of: mind and body, intelligence, sensitivity, aesthetic appreciation and spirituality.

This is underpinned by "Learning to Learn". Lifelong learning can instil creativity, initiative and responsiveness in people, thereby enabling them to show adaptability in post-industrial society through enhancing skills to: manage uncertainty, communicate across and within cultures, sub-cultures, families and communities, and negotiate conflicts. The emphasis is on learning to learn

and the ability to keep learning for a lifetime. Lifelong learning is the idea of systematization of learning at all stages of life (from early childhood to old age) in all its forms (formal, non-formal, informal education, spontaneously, unintentionally and unorganized learning). Learning is a continuous process in which the results and motivation for learning in a certain period of life depend on the knowledge, habits and learning experiences acquired at a younger age. Lifelong learning is defined as “all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective”. The concept of lifelong learning is linked to the objectives of an economic nature and objectives of encouraging social activities, development of active citizenship and the development of individual potential of individuals.

The European Commission (2001: 9) found that lifelong learning has “Four broad and mutually supporting objectives: personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social inclusion and employability/adaptability”. In this regard, lifelong learning has life-wide dimensions that transcend narrow economic and vocational aspects. The European Lifelong Learning Initiative defines lifelong learning as “...a continuously supportive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, values, skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetimes and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment, in all roles circumstances, and environments.” (Watson, 2003).

In Sweden, the National Agency for Education has put forward a conceptual framework for both lifelong learning and life-wide learning (Skolverket, 2000). Lifelong learning is seen as a holistic view of education and recognises learning from different environments

Lifelong learning means:

- Acquisition (done by an individual person) and modernization of all kinds of abilities, interests, knowledge and qualifications from the pre-school period until after retirement

- Recognizing (done by societies, institutions, governments, and individual people as students) all forms of learning: formal, non-formal and informal education, as useful and welcome.

The concept of lifelong learning gained prominence in just the last 30 years, as significant and rapid changes have taken place in developed economies and most human societies. Learning does not imply only formal school education; formal education is actually nowadays only basis and foundation for any further learning. Older generations knowledge is firstly earned in schools, then they are employed in certain positions/jobs where they learn the practical part of the work, and by the end of their working life there has been no major changes in their lives outside of work - hobbies, interests, etc. (for the most part of them), and in a way they did not have the need to acquire new knowledge. Today the situation has changed greatly. The success of science, the acceptance of innovation, technological progress, diffusion of information technology and communications improvements becoming integrated into everyday life, and the rapid change and improvement of all require constant retraining and lifelong learning – from preschool until after retirement age. The development of science, innovation, technical and technological progress, information and communication achievements and everyday changes, news and training in these areas require lifelong learning - learning from pre-school until after retirement.

"Education is simply not part of the value system and behaviour pattern of a disturbing number of people" (McGivney, 1990).

A brief history of the term “lifelong learning”

“I am the wisest man alive, for I know one thing, and that is that I know nothing.”

– widely attributed to Socrates, paraphrased from Plato’s *Apology*

Lifelong learning was first discussed by Plato in both *Apology* and *The Republic*. But it was Basil Yeaxlee who coined the new term in his book *Lifelong Education*, published in 1929. In this book, the first of many he would publish on the subject, Yeaxlee focused on learning throughout one’s lifetime.

Yeaxlee, in collaboration with Eduard Linderman (1885-1953) focused on adult education. They created a new intellectual foundation for approaching education differently - as an on-going aspect of the daily life of an adult.

In recent decades, lifelong learning changed from a novel idea into a widely accepted principle dominating the development of many national educational systems. In the 1960's, Europe saw a global crisis of education. The production of new knowledge has accelerated.

The 1970s were marked by a new approach to education, as economies dominated by manufacturing gave way to the "knowledge economy" International organizations such as UNESCO, OECD and the European Commission began to deal with education, and the concept of "lifelong learning" took shape. The first generation is characterized mainly by Faure's Report for UNESCO *Learning to Be* (Faure et al., 1972), which propagated a radical humanist and emancipatory perspective on lifelong education. The second generation, from the 1990s onwards, was mostly inspired by documents such as the Delors memorandum on *Learning: The Treasure Within* (UNESCO, 1994) and the OECD report on *Lifelong Learning for All* (1996). 1996 was declared the European Year of Lifelong Learning, when the European Community began with the active promotion of lifelong learning initiative.

"The member states of the European Community have set the target to make Europe the most dynamic and most competitive area of the economy that will be based on knowledge of its citizens, a key strategy of this goal is the availability of life-long learning for all citizens, and free access to learning throughout life." (Croatian Andragogy Society, 2004).

The difference between lifelong learning and lifelong education

Though different models are produced in relation to the impact of ongoing technological developments on the demands for qualifications (see for instance Gooderham, 1993), the dominant view is that due to changing societies and economies, more qualifications are now and will continue to be needed, leading to an increased focus on lifelong learning. The interest for lifelong term has been at the agenda for many decades, but with different intensity and to some extent also a different focus (Larson, 2005; Rubenson, 2006a). In the 1990's lifelong education and lifelong learning re-entered the political agenda after having been more or less in the dark for about a century. At the same time, adult education went from being a tool for liberating the individual to being a mainly economic tool for increasing the human capital (Larson, 2005).

When the European Council met in Lisbon in 2000, the aim of the meeting was to find a way to "strengthen employment, economic reform and social cohesion as part of a knowledge-based economy" (Lisbon European council: *Presidency conclusions*, 2000). The Council concluded that lifelong learning is that way to reform and cohesion. Thus, lifelong learning for all is today seen as the way to secure not only the economy, but also social cohesion in European societies.

In spite of different definitions of participation in education and training, most studies agree that participation is unequally distributed among socio-economic groups (Chisholm et al., 2004; Cross, 1981; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Desjardins et al., in print; Houle, 1961; Larson, 2006; McGivney, 1990; Pont, 2004, Progress towards the Lisbon objectives in education and training, 2006; Tuijnman & Hellström, 2001). Six years after the decisions made in Lisbon, lifelong learning is still not available to all (Chisholm et al., 2004; Desjardins et al., in print; Larson, 2006, *Progress towards the Lisbon objectives in education and training*, 2006).

In the English language, very often the concepts of lifelong learning and lifelong education are replaced and looking on translations of the Croatian terms for learning and education, we find these two terms are very different. Learning as a broader concept of education may be accidental, spontaneous and unorganized, and indeed last a lifetime, while lifelong learning can be formal, non-formal and informal learning and is organized.

In typical use of the English language, "lifelong learning" and "lifelong education" are often used interchangeably. But in the Croatian sources which have influenced our region, "learning" and "education" have very different meanings. Learning, as a by-product of education, may be accidental, spontaneous, and unorganized. "Lifelong learning" can include formal and non-formal organized education and training.

No matter what terms are used, schools and universities are not the only places of learning, nor are they even the dominant providers of education. The growing importance of learning throughout one's lifetime, which includes all forms of learning in all circumstances, has shifted roles and locations.

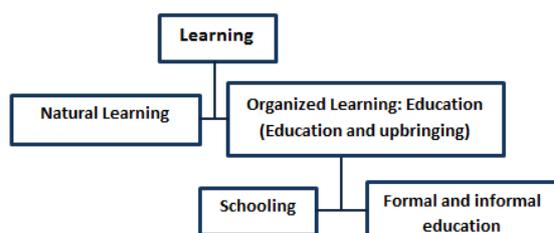


Figure 1: The hierarchical relationship of Learning Types

Natural Learning is simply a conscious acknowledgment that learning can take place in a natural manner without recourse to the institution of school. Natural learning is a postmodern form of education. It holds a position along a continuum with formal classroom learning at one end and “home-schooling” near the other, at a point where links to the institution of school are severed. There are, for example, many home-schooling families that have recreated the institution of school at home. This is not natural learning. Natural learning requires the minimization of the form and function of school.

But isn't all learning natural? Learning is not natural when it consists solely of adults imposing their ideas of the learning needed on children and young people. Adults find it very difficult not to impose their ideas on children. School is an institutionalised and standardised method for adults to impose on children their ideas of what is important to learn and how to learn. The parents, will support their children in their own learning by providing a rich and stimulating environment in which to learn, making available resources for learning, assisting their children to learn when requested to do so, and providing feedback and encouragement to learn. Truly natural learning will be the result of the child's own development and own motivations. This is the way children learn to walk and talk. It can also be the way that they learn to read, write, and are transformed over time into a confident and independent learner. Natural learning can and does work. However, it will be difficult at times. You will need to be ready to defend your decision, because there will be doubters. You will doubt that you are doing the right thing yourself at times, and at other times you will be absolutely sure that you had made the right decision.

The lifelong dimension is relatively non-problematic, as it simply comprises what an individual learns throughout life. It is widely accepted that as knowledge and skills become obsolete, individuals must continually update their competencies in a process of continuing education. Formal education is an important part of lifelong learning. It can provide a strong foundation in general subjects and a robust environment for developing skills used in building a decent life. This key factor often sets the course of lifelong learning, encourages an appreciation for learning from multiple sources. A review of the literature of the last 30 years reveals three main approaches to formal, non-formal, and informal education. Each of these approaches has something to say about the nature of formal education - and each brings out different aspects of the phenomenon. What derives from an administrative or institutional concern and includes a middle form - *non-formal* education, is the most common way of contrasting informal and formal education. In the late 1960s there was an emerging analysis of what was seen as a 'world educational crisis' (Coombs 1968). There was concern about unsuitable curricula; a realization that educational growth and economic growth were not necessarily aligned, and that jobs did not emerge directly as a result of educational inputs. Many countries were finding it politically and economically difficult to pay for the expansion of formal education.

The conclusion was that formal educational systems had adapted too slowly to the rapid socio-economic changes around them and that they were held back not only by their own conservatism, but also by the inertia of societies themselves. It was from this point of departure that planners and economists in the World Bank began to make a distinction between informal, non-formal and formal education. (Fordham, 1993). At around the same time there were moves in UNESCO toward lifelong education and notions of “the learning society” which culminated in *Learning to Be* ('The Faure Report', UNESCO 1972). Lifelong learning was to be the 'master concept' that should shape educational systems. What emerged was the influential tripartite

categorization of learning systems. It's best known statement comes from the work of Coombs with Prosser and Ahmed (1974).

Formal education: the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded 'education system', running from primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialized programs and institutions for full-time technical and professional training.

Informal education: the truly lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment - from family and neighbors, from work and play, from the market place, the library and the mass media.

Non-formal education: any organized educational activity outside the established formal system - whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity - that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives.

When we look at usage within discussions of primary schooling, the most consistent form by the late 1980s was the noun "informality", rather than the adjective "informal" (Jeffs & Smith, 1990). Thus, instead of informal education, it was possible to examine informality in pedagogy, in curriculum, in organization, in evaluation and in personal style (Blyth 1988). What was being examined here was a tendency. To talk of informality in education was to indicate significant elements of flexibility and openness.

Benefits of lifelong learning

The life-cycle system of education is a basic prerequisite of growth and development. It becomes necessary at a time of rapid changes in the required skills and knowledge. The education system must be adapted and be able to offer opportunities for retraining and upgrading.

1. Lifelong learning enables use of teaching and learning methods tailored to the specific interests of the multicultural societies.
2. Educational system of lifelong learning is focused on the user. The individual becomes an active participant in his or her educational process, which contributes to the use of information and communication technologies.
3. The role of the teacher changes because many more students are separated by space and time; instructors and trainers become leaders, mentors and mediators.
4. Motivation and variety of learning opportunities are prerequisites for successful lifelong learning. It is essential to raise the demand for education, and therefore offer.
5. Lifelong education increases employability of learners.

The knowledge society

In 1969 the concept of the expression "knowledge society" is used for the first time. A "knowledge society" is one in which the acquisition, creation and application of knowledge predominates. Knowledge is usually accessible to all. Such societies are found to strengthen the prosperity of their host countries and contribute to the welfare of all citizens. Knowledge, innovation and creativity are becoming accepted, gaining recognition as a public good, and are developing into major creative forces.

A complete knowledge society is one that also creates laws and regulations which provide conditions that foster the growth these characteristics and forces.

The knowledge society is a society that is developing thanks to its variety and ability. "In the knowledge society, access to opportunities to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and competencies is essential for social progress and work" Keeley, 2007, p.19

Knowledge-based society in what is now called the "Information Age" differ from older knowledge societies.

These are the particular features of knowledge societies:

- Freedom of opinion and expression
- The right to education
- The right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community
- Knowledge-based society
- Knowledge workers

- Information Age
- Developed countries, (and underdeveloped countries).
- Asset
- People
- Citizens

In the developed countries, knowledge is the main development resource, and such societies are called knowledge societies.

"Knowledge is considered as good that is accessible to all with a view to the general well-being, and the knowledge society refers to the enlightened society of free and educated people where their knowledge critically examines and argues. However, the present situation in quite a few countries in the world speaks to the fact that the availability and quality of education are not sufficient criteria for the existence of a knowledge society." Mikelic Preradović, 2009, p.1

The knowledge society needs the support of not only formal education, but the acquisition of competences which enable people to actively participate in society and direct their own lifelong learning.

"The main objective of the knowledge society must be the founding of the society on the creation of new, and application of existing knowledge, and the quality of education must be measured by usability of learned knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for successful work in difficult conditions of developed society." Mikelic Preradović, 2009, p.154.

Importance and/or advantages of lifelong learning - europeans and eurobarometer research

The European Commission for Education and Culture, in cooperation with CEDEFOP (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training) conducted a study in 2003 on lifelong learning called *Eurobarometer*, to compile the opinions and experiences of lifelong learning of European citizens. The study was conducted on a broad sample of 18277 respondents aged 15 and over from all the countries of the European Community, Norway and Iceland. Eurobarometer reported these key trends: The majority of citizens believe that lifelong learning is important and beneficial to both the individual and community; Necessary to people of all ages. 45% feel that it is meant for those who were not successful in school, indicating the need to inform citizens about the fact that lifelong learning is relevant for each and every individual at all stages of their life; Citizens believe that the most important skills for Europe are reading and writing, math, general knowledge, computer and Internet skills, knowledge of foreign languages, and finally social skills. Social skills include self-expression, collaboration, problem solving, and organization, etc.; Citizens of Nordic countries possess a far wider range of knowledge and skills compared to citizens of other European countries, especially Southern European countries; Citizens learn best in an informal setting (through television, part time activities, hobbies, socializing and conversations, libraries, and travel); Mostly interested in the education and training of people with a higher education level, and social and personal motives are stronger than their professional, 14% of respondents never to re-educate; *The most important barriers to lifelong learning are lack of time due to family and work commitments*: home responsibilities, transportation problems, lack of childcare. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) also cite institutional and situational barriers but divide the dispositional barriers into psychological obstacles (beliefs, values and perception about education or about oneself as a learner).

International programs dealing with lifelong learning

The Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) was designed to enable people, at any stage of their life, to take part in stimulating learning experiences, as well as developing education and training across Europe.

Leonardo da Vinci is part of the European education and training programme "Life-long Learning" and focuses on vocational education and training, other than at tertiary level. It addresses both the learning and teaching needs in the sector, and is therefore aimed at all parties involved, namely trainees in vocational education, teachers and trainers, institutions and educational bodies, enterprises, associations, social partners and bodies relating to either lifelong learning or the labour market. Year after year, Leonardo da Vinci projects develop a multitude of

innovative education and training products featuring tailored solutions for direct use in companies and at education and training institutions. Leonardo Da Vinci program, which operated from 1995, was created from the need to prepare Europeans to enter the labour market. The goal of this program is to help people improve their skills throughout life. Programs are open in 31 European countries.

The Socrates program is another international program that deals with lifelong learning. The program includes about 30 European countries. The main objective of this program is to build a Europe of knowledge and thus provide a better response to the major business changes occurring in this century. This program also promotes mobility and innovation.

Lifelong Learning Program (Lifelong Learning Programme - LLP) replaces the Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and eLearning programs, which expired at the end of 2006. (McGowan and Phinnemore (2015) *A Dictionary of the European Union*, p 441)

The Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) program of the European Union (EU) aimed education and professional training at all levels. The term lifelong learning encompasses all activities related to lifelong learning, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and abilities. The program covers the period from 2007 to 2013 and for its implementation during that period at European level, 6.9 billion euros was allocated, making it the largest European program in the field of education. The program aims to contribute to the development of Europe as an advanced knowledge society with sustainable economic development, greater social cohesion and increasing of the number of quality jobs for its citizens. In order to achieve these objectives, the program encourages the exchange and cooperation between educational institutions, individual mobility of students and education professionals, as well as training in vocational areas, which is also preparing students for a successful participation in the European labour market.

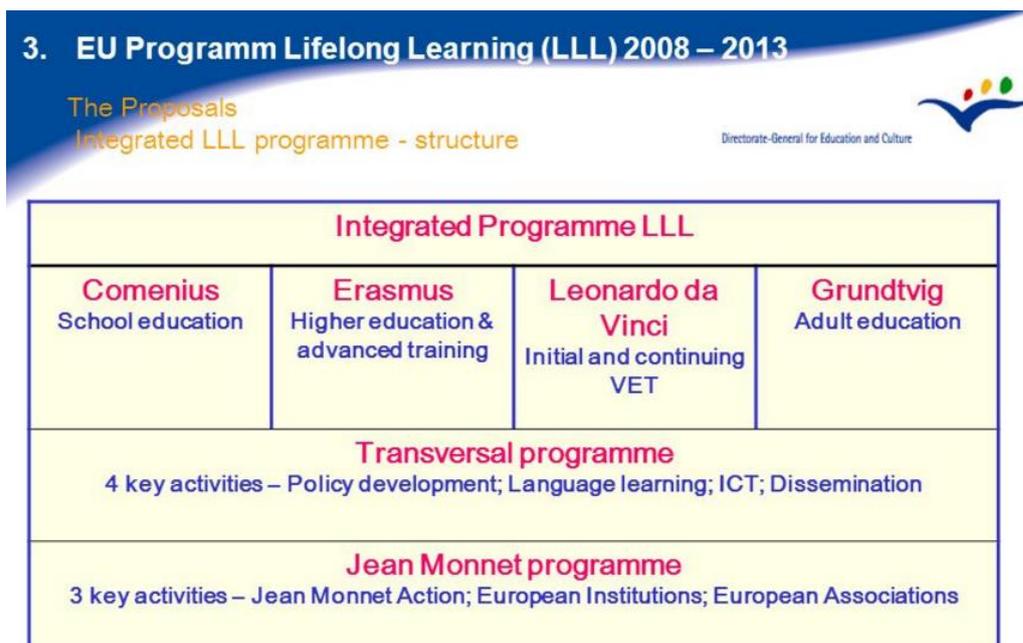


Figure 2: The structure of the program for lifelong learning

The LLP consists of four sectorial sub-programs:

1. Comenius (pre-school and school education),
2. Erasmus (higher education),
3. Leonardo da Vinci (vocational education and training),
4. Grundtvig (adult education)

There are two complementary programs:

The first is Transversal Programme (cooperation and innovation in lifelong learning within the European Union, foreign language learning, the development of innovative information and communication technologies, dissemination and exploitation of the program). The second program is Jean Monnet (support to institutions dealing with European integration).

Conclusion

In this transition to a post-industrial society into a truly new epoch, life and work in society will fundamentally change. Learning must and will change as well. Due to intensive scientific, technological and socio-economic changes and changes in work, social and family relationships, it must be necessary to continuously monitor these changes, and actively participate learning to adjust in the new society. One must constantly learn and improve in order to keep up with changes in environment, to meet personal needs and to explore interests.

The knowledge gained as children and young people will not be on the forefront of discovery for long. Integrating continuous learning is an important part of lifelong learning. So too are acquiring new knowledge, skills, abilities and qualities, to develop human capital that enables not just the development of their own, but also the social and economic well-being. New knowledge and learning throughout life helps mingling in a world of constant change, understanding of these changes and in changing society, but also shaping all of us in accordance with these changes. Lifelong learning must be made available to and in all generations, to ensure equal rights to an active and high quality life. "It is certain, however, that older people help in understanding of life and the constant changes that occur in the world and everyday life. Making people part of these changes, rather than passive observers puts them on an equal footing with other generations living in the "learning society".

Motivation and variety of learning opportunities are a prerequisite for successful learning. Lifelong learning must be approached by all participants from all ages and from any aspect, such as: Individual desire and motivation for activity; Employers investing in the education and training of personnel companies; Government organizing and implementing various programs and measures; Government incentives to open adult education institutions. Dedicate yourself to continuous education as knowledge is the primary source of value in our world today. As we enter into the 21st century, the information age, ability to expand our mind, to strive for continuous education are all critical to our success. By dedicating ourselves to lifelong learning, which is the key to breaking through barriers to success that may be in front of us, we devote our lives to working for a better tomorrow.

To summarize, lifelong learners must become effective teachers and self-teachers. Professors and administrators involved with formal education must adapt as well. One of the most practical approaches is to force students out of their comfort zones, involving them in problem-solving and experiential learning programs with their colleagues and students. Where there is a strong and dedicated learning culture present at the institution their supporters, there will also be successful learning for everyone. Although the main benefit of lifelong learning is objectively learning measurable new skills, which was the outward goal, there are personal and professional reasons for continued education and self-directed learning. Self-motivated learners have more motivation for everyday activities, develop mental and cognitive skills, add fun to their lives and daily activities and make new friends, while professionals create opportunities for further employment.

Striving to continually better oneself can be a goal in itself, without a definite endpoint and without motivation to trade the skills for some compensation. These learning goals are not obligations or job requirements, but life goals attracting the enthusiasm and devotion of individuals for their own sake. These, too, are vital and legitimate goals of lifelong learning.

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Детерминанты непрерывного обучения

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Аннотация. Целью данной работы является ознакомление с движущими силами непрерывного обучения и подчеркивание его важности в современной жизни. Развитые страны во всем мире управляются в большей степени за счет знаний и глобализации экономики. Европейские страны в XX века были во многом ориентированы на производство

и необходимость индустриализации. Сегодня в развитых странах население стремительно стареет, продолжительность жизни увеличилась, количество детей в семьях уменьшилось. В целях дальнейшего развития процветающей экономики, и возможностям пользования в полной мере преимуществами развитой экономики, гражданам необходимо продолжать обновлять знания и навыки в течение всей жизни. В качестве основных изменений под которые должны адаптироваться граждане, никогда не переставая учиться на протяжении всей своей жизни, можно отметить технологические, экономические и социальные течения.

Ключевые слова: экономика, непрерывное образование, экономика знаний, глобализация, изменение.

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Социологические науки

UDC 316

A Study of Morbidity Pattern in Elderly Population

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Abstract

Ageing is a biological process, experienced by mankind. Ageing is a dynamic process, determined by the relative size of the younger and older. However, concern for ageing of population is a relatively new phenomenon, which has raised due to significantly large increase in the number and proportion of aged persons in the society. The phenomenon of population ageing is becoming a major concern for the policy makers all over the world during the last two decades. Ageing of population is affected due to downward trends in fertility and mortality i.e. due to low birth rates with long life expectancies. Life expectancy at birth is projected to continue to rise in the coming years all over the world. The aged population has specific health problems that are basically different from those of adults or young persons. Most diseases in the aged are chronic in nature- cardiovascular, arthritis, stroke, cataract, deafness, chronic infections, cancer. Disease process is usually multiple. Availability and utilisation of health services is an important determinant of the health status of population. The needs for health services tend to vary directly with the age of the individuals. The older the one gets, the more health care he needs. Although the aged people face multiple health problems, even then, they do not consider seeking medical aid and as a result, many conditions remain unreported and untreated till they become complicated. This emphasises the need for strengthening of health care system for elderly population. According to Paul Wallace, all individuals should be prepared to face later years in life within their own limitation gloriously.

Keywords: morbidity, elderly population, ageing, physical disabilities, health care.

Introduction

It is difficult to define the onset of old age. Biologically, ageing begins as early as puberty and is a continuous process throughout adult life. Socially, the characteristics of members of society who are perceived as being old vary with the cultural settings and from generation to generation.

Economically, the elderly are sometimes defined in terms of retirement from the work force. Chronologically, age has long been used as an indicator of expected residual life span. Recent changes in mortality rate have changed the predictive significance of chronological age and refined health care has shifted the emphasis from prolonging life expectancy to increasing the expectancy free of disability.

Ageing is generally defined as a process of deterioration in the functional capacity of an individual that results from structural changes, with advancement of age. High fertility and declining mortality are the major factors responsible for population increase in most countries of the world, especially the developing ones. Longevity has increased significantly in the last few decades mainly due to the socio-economic and health care developments. These factors are responsible for higher numerical presence of elderly people leading to higher dependency ratio. Demographers, researchers and responsible citizens have started to think about the aged population and its problems because of the demographic transition in many countries of the third world now taking place in a much shorter period of time. Ageing of the population will be one of the major challenges of the near future.

In USA, UK and other western countries, the attainment of the age of 65 years has been considered for the purpose of classifying aged persons, whereas in India, it is from 60 years (Vijaykumar S et al, 1999). The elderly sub-population referred to as the "young old" (60-74), the "old" (75-84), and the "old-old" (above 85) (Swash Michael, 1995).

Material and methods:

Raipur is the capital city of the state of Chhattisgarh, India. At the time of 2011 census, the population within the Municipal Corporation area of Raipur was 1,010,087. Study was conducted in randomly selected 32 areas distributed in Raipur city including Urban and Slum areas. List of zones and wards including Slum and Urban areas were obtained from Municipal Corporation Raipur. From eight zones of Raipur city by simple random technique, four zones were selected. Out of the four zones, four wards were selected by simple random technique. From each ward, one slum area and one urban area were included in the study using simple random technique. A total of 32 areas were included in this study. Door to door survey was conducted. From each area, 20 elderly were included in study.

Sampling method: - Multi stage simple random sampling technique.

Sample size: 640

Sample size was calculated by using statistical formula, $n = Z^2 \frac{1-a}{2} P (1-P) / d$

P = Morbidity Problems (50%), d= Absolute Precision (4%), Confidence level= 95%

As there was no baseline study in Raipur, Chhattisgarh, therefore it was not possible to estimate 'P', so a figure of 0.5(50%) was used. This is the 'safest' choice for the population proportion, since the sample size required is largest when P = 0.5(50%) [128].

A total of 600 figures come using statistical formula. For making uniformity, 20 subjects from each of 32 areas were selected that comes 640. Therefore, a total 640 subjects were included in the study.

Objectives of the study:

- 1) To study morbidity pattern in elderly population of Raipur city.
- 2) To determine the pattern of morbidity in elderly population of Raipur city.
- 3) To study the health-care seeking behaviour of elderly population.
- 4) To make suitable recommendations on the basis of the study.

Observations and discussion

Descriptive cross-sectional observational study was undertaken among the elderly population in Raipur city during the period July 2013 to June 2014. Information was collected from 640 elderly persons. The findings of the present study is an attempt to explore the morbidity pattern and health-care seeking behaviour among elderly population.

The findings of the study are discussed under following headings:

- (A) Socio-demographic characteristics.
- (B) Physical activity and substance abuse.
- (C) Morbidity Profile.

(D) Health-care seeking behaviour.

Table 1: Age and sex wise distribution of elderly population

Age group (years)	Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
60-74	200	74.	323	86.59	523	81.71
75-84	67	25.	47	12.60	114	17.81
>85	0	0	3	0.80	3	0.46
Total	267	41	373	58.28	640	100

Chi-square = 18.384 (df =2, p <0.0001).

Table1 shows out of the total studied elderly (640), more than two-thirds (81.71%) belong to young-old age group followed by old (17.81%) and very old age group (0.46%). Females (58.28%) were more than males (41.71%). There was no male in very old age group.

In a similar study done by Agrawal Anupam (1992), observed that out of total 612 elderly studied ranged from 60 to 102 years, the majority (79.41%), however, belonged to the age group 60 to 75 years. The age distribution of the males and females was found to be essentially similar. Males were 52.0% as against 48.0% females.

Another study done by Lena A et al (2006) showed that a major fraction of the population was in the young old age group; while a small fraction (2.8%) was 80 years old or older. Males and females formed an almost equal proportion of the study sample.

Sex ratio in present study was 1415.73 women per 1000 men. At present, sex ratio for general population in India is 943 as per office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India. Sex Ratio in Urban regions of Chhattisgarh was 956 females per 1000 males.

Table 2: Age and sex wise distribution of morbidity in elderly population

Age groups (years)	Male			Female			Total		
	No examined	Morbid	%	No Examined	Morbid	%	No examined	Morbid	%
60-74	200	176	88	323	319	98.76	523	495	94.64
75-84	67	65	97.01	47	47	100	114	112	98.24
>85	0	0	0	3	3	100	3	3	100
Total	267	241	90.26	373	369	98.92	640	610	95.31

Chi-Square = 21.282 (df = 2, p < 0.0001)

Above table shows, out of total study population (640 elderly) prevalence of morbidity was 95.31% (610). Prevalence among females was 98.92%, whereas among males was 90.26%. Morbidity was statistically positively associated with advancement of age. Among females, 98.76% in young old, 100% in both old and very old age group were morbid; whereas in males, 88% young old, and 97.01% of old were morbid. There was no one in very old age group in male elderly population. The study shows that prevalence of morbidity was more in females than males. In all age groups, prevalence of morbidity among females was more in comparison to males. A community based study from rural area of West Bengal observed that almost all the elderly (96.95% males and 98.15%

females) were suffering from one or more diseases at the time of study. The difference was small and statistically not significant ($z=0.54$, $P>0.05$). All elderly aged 70 years and above were found to be diseased. Only five elderly (2.45%) were well at the time of study in the age group of 60-69 years. All elderly in more than 80 years age group were suffering from some disease.

Table 3: Distribution of Hypertension with alcohol status

Alcohol Status	Hypertension				Total(n=640)	%
	Present (n=320)	%	Absent (n=320)	%		
Current alcoholic	28	(43.07)	37	(56.92)	65	10.15
Ex-alcoholic	0	0	23	(100)	23	3.59
Non-alcoholic	292	(52.89)	260	(47.10)	552	86.25
Total	320	(50)	320	(50)	640	(100)

Chi-square = 26.101 (df = 2, $p < 0.0001$)

Above table shows that 43.07% of current alcoholic were hypertensives, whereas 52.89% among non-alcoholic were hypertensives. Among ex-alcoholics, none was hypertensive. The relation between alcohol and Hypertension was found to be statistically significant. In another study by Anupam Prakash (1992) in rural area in Delhi, it was observed that 5.23% persons were presently taking alcohol while 6.04% were ex-alcoholic. The relation between alcohol and Hypertension was found to be statically significant (Chi square cal > Chi square tab). Out of 54 hypertensive, 16.67% were current alcoholics as compared to 558 non-hypertensive, amongst whom 4.13% were consuming alcohol presently. In present study, finding was different from study done by Anupam Prakash (1992), there was negative association of hypertension with alcohol, may be due to more number of females who were mostly non- drinker in comparison to males.

Table 4: Distribution of Hypertension with Smoking status

Smoking Status	Hypertension				Total (n=640)	%
	Present (n=320)	%	Absent (n=320)	%		
Current Smoker	60	(49.58)	61	(50.41)	121	(18.90)
Ex-smoker	29	(33.33)	58	(66.66)	87	(13.59)

Non-smoker	231	(53.47)	201	(46.52)	432	(67.50)
Total	320	50	320	50	640	100

Chi-square = 11.758 (df = 2 , p = 0.0028)

Above table shows that there was a total of 18.90% current smokers; out of which, 18.75% were hypertensive. 13.59% were ex-smokers, out of which 33.33% were hypertensive. A large number of elderly were non-smoker (67.50%), out of which 53.47% were hypertensive. Anupam Prakash et, al (1992) observed that there was statistically negative association of hypertension with smoking. Out of total current smokers, 57.41% were hypertensive current smokers, whereas 12.96% ex-smokers were hypertensive, and 29.63% of non-smokers were hypertensive. Though smoking is a known risk factor for hypertension, but in present study negative association of hypertension with smoking was statistically significant. This indicates that there are some additional factors too responsible for hypertension.

Table 5: Sex wise distribution of level of cognition among studied elderly

Level of cognition	Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	N	%	No	%
Normal	89	47.34	99	52.65	188	29.37
Some degree of mental confusion	155	37.25	261	62.74	416	65
Severe confusion	23	63.88	13	36.11	36	5.62
Total	267	41.71	373	58.28	640	100

Chi-square = 13.123 (df = 2, p < 0.001)

Above table shows statistically significant relation between level of cognition and sex of study population. Cognition was normal in 29.37% elderly whereas 65% had some degree of mental confusion, 5.62% had severe confusion. Severe confusion was more among males (63.88%) than females (36.11%). In another study by Srinivasan Krishnamachari et, al (2010), reported that cognitive impairment was shown to be positively associated with disability and was independent of age, gender and co-morbid medical condition. Present study shows sex differentiation among cognitive impairment. More males were severely confused than females.

Table 6: Association of Morbidity with Socio-economic status in elderly population

SES	Morbid		Healthy		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Class I	68	(94.44)	4	(5.55)	72	11.25
Class II	158	(91.32)	15	(8.67)	173	27.03

Class III	120	(95.23)	6	(4.76)	126	19.68
Class IV	229	(98.28)	4	(1.71)	233	36.40
Class V	35	(97.22)	1	(2.77)	36	5.62
Total	610	(95.31)	30	(4.68)	640	100

Chi-square = 11.162 (df = 4, p = 0.024)

Above table shows that there is statistically significant association between morbidity and socio-economic status. Maximum morbidity (37.54%) was observed in Class IV Socioeconomic status (98.28%) followed by Class V (97.22%), Class III (95.23%), Class I (94.44%) and Class II (91.32%). In present study, maximum morbidity was in Class IV and V Socio-economic group and all belonged to slum areas and were vulnerable group related to both environmental factors and literacy status.

Table 7: Age and sex wise distribution of illnesses in elderly

Age groups in years	No examined	Persons ill	Number of illness		Total illnesses	Mean no of illnesses
			Male	Female		
60-74	523	495(94.64)	652	1303	1955	3.94
75-84	114	112(98.24)	261	226	487	4.34
>85	03	3(100)	0	19	19	6.33
Total	640	610(95.31)	913	1548	2461	4.03

Table 7 shows that, out of 640 elderly included in the study, 610 (95.31%) were found to have one or more illnesses at the time of examination. There were 2461 illnesses in 610 persons, 913 in males and 1548 in females. Mean number of illness was 4.03. In male 3.78 whereas in female mean number of illness was 4.19. There was positive association between mean number of illness and advancement of age. Mean illness for young old was 3.94, for old was 4.34 and for very old was 6.33. Prevalence of illness was 100% among very old, 98.24% among old and 94.64% among young old. Similar findings were observed in another study done by M Jamal et al (1977), observed that 88.66% in their study were found to be ill; 86.67% males and 90.78% females. Illness was observed more frequently in older age group; 79.36% in young old to 100% in very old. Raj and Prasad (1970) observed that the brunt of illnesses fell on the persons who were 80 years and over.

Table 8: Age wise distribution of total illnesses in study area

Age group (year)	Slum		Urban		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
60-74	950	(75.15)	1005	(83.95)	1955	(79.43)
75-84	295	(23.33)	192	(16.04)	487	(19.78)
>85	19	(1.50)	0	0	19	(0.77)
Total	1264	(51.36)	1197	(48.63)	2461	(100)

Chi-square = 40.538 (df = 2, p < 0.0001)

Above table shows statistically significant relation between age and illness of slum and urban elderly. Overall total illness was more in young old (79.43%), followed by old (19.78%) and very old (0.77%); but the mean was increasing with advancement of age. In urban areas, 83.95% of illnesses

lying in young old whereas in slum areas, 75.15% illnesses were in young old. Young old in urban areas were more overweight and obese and physically less active, whereas young old in slum areas were more active and were heavy activity performer. In old and very old, illnesses were more in slum than urban dwellers.

Table 9: Age sex wise distribution of spells of illness in morbid elderly (n=610)

Age groups in years	Persons ill		Spells of illnesses			
	Male	Female	Male	Mean Spells	Female	Mean Spells
60-74	176	319	773	4.39	1526	4.78
75-84	65	47	293	4.50	262	5.57
>85	0	3	0	0	22	7.33
Total	241	369	1066	4.42	1810	4.90

Chi-square = 83.484 (df = 2, p < 0.0001)

Above table shows statistically significant relation between mean of spells of illness and age. In both sexes, mean spell was increasing with advancement of age. In males, mean was more (4.42) in comparison to females (4.90).

Table 10: Age wise Health seeking practice of elderly (n=466)

Age group (years)	Treatment taken	Treatment not taken	Total
60-74	361 (97.30%)	10 (2.69%)	371
75-84	92 (100%)	0	92
>85	3 (100%)	0	3
Total	456 (97.85%)	10 (2.14%)	466

Chi-square 2.617 (df 2, p = 0.270).

Above table shows that 97.85% of the elderly were observed to be receiving treatment where as 2.14% were not receiving treatment. With advancement of age, health care seeking was increased from 97.30% in young old to 100% in very old.

Table 11: Sex wise Health seeking practice of elderly (n=466)

Sex	Treatment taken	Treatment not taken	Total
Male	180 (98.90%)	2 (1.09%)	182
Female	276 (97.18%)	8 (2.81%)	284
Total	456 (97.85%)	10 (2.14%)	466

Chi-square 1.559 (df=1, p = 0.211).

Above table shows that, out of total 466 elderly who perceived themselves ill, 97.85% were taking treatment whereas 2.14% did not take any treatment. Among males who perceived themselves ill, 98.90% had taken treatment whereas among females 97.18% had taken treatment.

Table 12: Health seeking as per agency of treatment in Urban and Slum elderly

Area	Government	Private	Quacks	Others	Total
Urban	72 (29.26%)	127 (51.62%)	38 (15.44%)	9 (3.65%)	246 (53.94%)
Slum	55 (26.19%)	35 (16.66%)	82 (39.04%)	38 (18.09%)	210 (46.05%)
Total	127 (27.85%)	162 (35.52%)	120 (26.31%)	47 (10.30%)	456 (100%)

Chi-square = 86.24 (df = 3, p= 0.000).

Table 12 shows that, out of total 466 elderly who perceived themselves ill, 456 elderly were taking treatment. Out of 456 elderly who were taking treatment, 53.94% were residing in urban areas whereas 46.05% were residing in slum areas. Out of various agencies, maximum were utilizing private facility (35.52%) followed by Government agency (27.85%), quacks (26.31%) and 10.30% from other source. Among others, traditional healer a Specific tribal population known as *Baiga* residing in hilly tribal area of Chhattisgarh. In urban elderly, maximum were utilizing private facility (51.62%), followed by Government (29.26%), quacks (15.44%) and others (3.65%). Among slum dwellers, maximum elderly went to quacks (39.04%) followed by Government facility (26.19%), others (18.09%) and private facility (16.66%). This may be due low socio-economic status of slum elderly and high socio-economic status among urban dwellers.

Conclusion

The present study finds the morbidity pattern among elderly in Raipur city on a small scale of young growing state of Chhattisgarh, along with the existing health practices and finally to suggest a pattern of health services suitable for the elderly population in the city. The study was conducted in 640 elderly subjects selected randomly from 32 areas including urban and slum areas from 8 zones and 77 wards of Raipur city. Elderly persons in the age group, 60 years and above were 63635 (6.3% of total population in Raipur city), out of which only 640 persons (267 males and 373 females) were included in the study. Elderly females 373 (58.28%) out-numbered elderly males 267 (41.71%). Majority of the elderly persons (81.71%) belonged to "young old" age group. Bulk 40.15% of the elderly persons received education upto higher secondary. Graduates and above was only 15.78%, out of which 83.16% were in urban whereas 16.83% were from slum areas.

36.40% of the elderly population belonged to socio-economic Class IV, followed by Class II. A large proportion (84.07%) was living in joint families and 15.93% in nuclear family settings. Only 5.93% were living alone. 51.09% of the elderly were themselves heading the family with males predominating. A large proportion 42.03% of elderly population was unemployed. The principle occupation of the persons who were currently employed in some gainful occupation was agriculture/shop owner/clerical 11.25%, while 18.12% were professional including retired persons. A large proportion 48.28% was financially dependent on others. Only 14.84% were receiving old age pension. Out of total dependent, 66.66% were dependent on their children, 13.26% on grand children and 1.29% on spouse, 14.56% on others. A small proportion 33.59% was aware about various Government welfare schemes for the elderly. The geriatric population is a dependent population. Hence, health care delivery system should reorganise their timing other than routine schedule. Periodic comprehensive health check up, preferably twice a year must be carried out and primary health care delivery must be ensured to geriatric population.

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УДК 316

Изучение показателей заболеваемости среди престарелого населения

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M.V.B.S

Аннотация. Старение – это биологический процесс, переживаемый человечеством. Тем не менее, озабоченность старением населения представляет собой относительно новое явление, которое возникло из-за значительного увеличения численности и доли пожилых людей в обществе. Феномен старения населения становится серьезной проблемой для политиков во всем мире в течение последних двух десятилетий. Старение населения происходит вследствие понижающей тенденции в рождаемости и смертности, т. е. из-за низкой рождаемости с большой ожидаемой продолжительностью жизни. Ожидаемая продолжительность жизни при рождении, по прогнозам, будут продолжать расти в ближайшие годы по всему миру. Пожилое население имеет специфические проблемы со здоровьем, которые в принципе отличаются от взрослых или молодых людей. Большинство заболеваний в возрасте носят хронический характер: сердечно-сосудистые заболевания, артрит, инсульт, катаракта, глухота, хронические инфекции, рак. Патологических процессов обычно несколько. Доступность и использование медицинских услуг является важнейшим фактором, определяющим состояние здоровья населения. Потребности в медицинских услугах зависят напрямую от возраста населения. Чем старше человек становится, тем в большем здоровья он нуждается. Хотя пожилые люди сталкиваются с многочисленными проблемами со здоровьем, даже тогда, они не считают верным, обращаться за медицинской помощью и, как следствие, многие случаи остаются незарегистрированными и невылеченными, пока не наступают осложнения. Это подчеркивает необходимость укрепления системы медицинского обслуживания для населения пожилого возраста. По словам Паула Уоллес, все люди должны быть готовы провести последние годы жизни достойно в рамках своих собственных ограничений.

Ключевые слова: заболеваемость, пожилое население, старение, физические недостатки, здравоохранение.

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Pedagogical sciences

UDC 37

The Selected Health Determinants of Adults

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Abstract

Article presents partial results based on adult lifestyle with a focus on selected health determinants, which are one of the key factors of life quality of adult population. Survey respondents (women: $n = 118$, age 43.3 ± 2.3 years, height $= 168.9 \pm 3.2$ cm, weight $= 67.3 \pm 6.8$ kg and men: $n = 121$, age 44.2 ± 1.6 years, height $= 180.6 \pm 6.3$ cm, weight $= 89 \pm 7.9$ kg) were middle-aged people from L. Mikuláš. Standardised questionnaire was used for detection of primary indicators of life quality and lifestyle of this group. Findings significantly ($p < 0.01$) showed that ascending tendency in observed group have vertebrogenic disorders, whose symptom is pain ($p < 0.01$). At the same time they are also the cause of inoperability and use of different medicaments. Health issues in observed group occurred in several combinations.

Listed partial discoveries are included in the grant: VEGA no. 1/0376/14 Physical activity intervention for the prevention of health of the population of Slovakia.

Keywords: health, state of health, adults, vertebrogenic disorders, pain.

Introduction

One of the priority tasks, which every human has to face during life, is health care. Unlike the past, currently, there is an increasing emphasis on personal responsibility of an individual for his own health. While in the past, health was mainly determined by the influence of biological relations, currently it is determined by social factors more distinctly. Health cannot be obtained as genetically given unchangeable condition. Genetic basis is just a biological potential, which may develop in a positive or negative direction (Dobay, 2011; Bendíková, 2014).

Health is a category whose protection is enacted legislatively. In Slovak republic it is Act No. 355/2007 Coll. on Protection, Support and Development of Public Health. The current way of life has hypokinetic character, which is manifested in motional human regime, where insufficient recommended amount of physical activity creates favourable inputs and impulses to creation of "civilization diseases", which have far-reaching consequences on human health (Bailey, Martin, 1994; Blair, Brodney, 1999; Adamčák, 2000; Kayserová, 2004; Masoli et al., 2004; Žukowska, Szark, 2010; Łubkowska, Troszczyński, 2011; Łubkowska et al., 2014; Kanásová, 2014; Kanásová et al., 2015; Žukowska et al., 2014; Novotná, 2015; Šmída, Pavlović, 2015).

According to statistics of health insurance companies about 86% of all deaths and about 77% of diseases in Europe are caused by cardiovascular diseases, cancer, mental illnesses, diabetes mellitus and chronic pulmonary diseases. Ischemic heart diseases in 2010 were in the whole Europe-27 cause of 76,5% of deaths per 100 000 residents. The highest rates of mortality from ischemic heart disease belong to Baltic Member States of European Union as well as to Slovakia and Hungary, where in all countries in 2010 were recorded more than 200 deaths per 100 000 residents. On the other side of evaluation were the lowest rates of deaths by ischemic heart disease which belong to France (data from 2009), Portugal, Netherlands, Spain and Luxembourg- in 2010 less than 50 deaths per 100 000 residents (www. ec.europa.eu). In the years 2006- 2008 according to reports of health status of population of Slovakia development of mortality and morbidity was. The mortality of the population after 1993 has been maintaining below 10 deaths per 1000 residents. In 2008 died 53 164 people in which the cause of death were:

1. diseases of circulatory system, men 46,9%, women 61%,
2. tumors, men 24,6%, women 20,3%,
3. external causes, men 9,2%, women 2,4 %,
4. diseases of respiratory system, men 6,1%, women 5,1%,
5. diseases of digestive system, men 6,7%, women 4,6 %.

Mortality in 2010 at the age of 25 to 64 annually occurred in 14 294 people at the age of 65 and older died 38 356 people, where in 30,1% as a consequence of cardiovascular diseases. Physical quality in relationship to quality of life, lifestyle and health show tight connections (Nowak,1997). To the above are in favor Pate, O'Neil (2008), Ihasz, Rikk (2010), who argue that lack of physical activity significantly affects not only physical fitness and physical performance but his/ hers work performance and health status as well (Hemmingsson, Ekelund, 2007; Antala, 2009).

Aim

The aim of the pilot study was monitoring and extension of knowledge from the area of selected determinants of current lifestyle of adults in term of their health.

Materials and methods

In accordance with aim and size of processed material, test group consisted of 239 people of younger and middle-aged adults from Liptovský Mikuláš, 118 of them were men and 121 were women (table 1) who were employed, married and lived with unprovided children. (None of the respondents have been on disability annuity).

Table 1: Characteristics of the group (n = 239)

Factors	Women (n = 118)		Men (n = 121)	
	Body height	Body weight	Body height	Body weight
	168.9 ± 3.2 cm	67.3 ± 6.8 kg	180.6 ± 6.3 cm	89 ± 7.9 kg
Age	43.3 ± 2.3 years old		44.2 ± 1.6 years old	
BMI	23,9 ± 1.9		24,9 ± 2.1	

Deliberate survey was conducted within two months (January – February) in 2014, we achieved 100 % returnability on the basis of voluntary participation of adults in compliance with the law of privacy. To obtain pilot survey data we used interrogative method – anonymous standardized

questionnaire CINDI, which was based on six primary monitored determinants of the quality of life and lifestyle of monitored group. Our qualitative and quantitative data was processed by frequency analysis and chi-squared test ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ level of significance), with which we monitored examination of significance of response differences on questionnaire questions. Simultaneously, we processed data in a graphic form, we used methods of logical analysis, synthesis and mental actions for interpretations of results.

Research results and discussion

We evaluated health state with a scale of 5 levels from good to reasonably good, average, rather worse and weak. Evaluation of health state is between men and women relatively balanced with exception of good health level, which reported 43,9% of men (Chi = 11,325; $p < 0.01$) and 31,3 % of women (Chi = 8.439; $p < 0.01$) with a difference of 12,6 % (fig. 1).

Evaluation of quality of health depending upon age has brought expected results, the quality of life when getting older decreases and vice-versa. A surprising result is that even in younger age groups there is relatively high percentage of people with poorer and bad health state (5,9% and 7,6%) and noticeably higher in young men as well as young women (6,9% and 8,5%).

In term of the evaluation of physical condition by qualitative levels from one to five, in the sense from excellent to insufficient physical condition, we found following in monitored group. Excellent physical condition significantly dominated in 45,6% of men (Chi = 12,936; $p < 0.01$) compared to women with 21,1 % difference to the detriment of women. 24,9% of men rated their physical condition with grade 2, while with grade 3 only 18,8% of them.

Insufficient physical condition rated with grade 4 reported 5,9% of men and 4,8% of men reported grade 5.

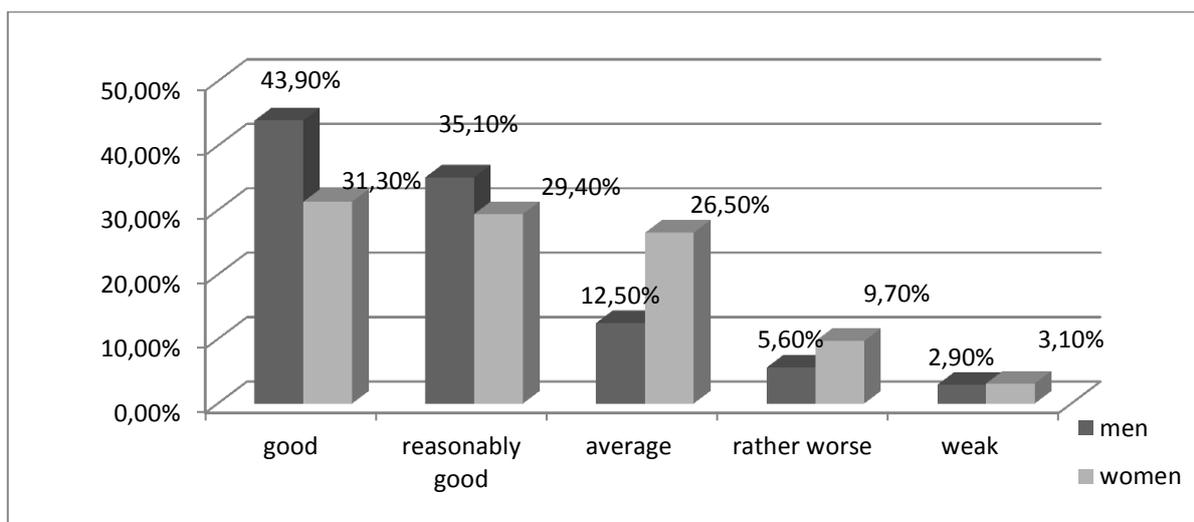


Figure 1. The level of health of adults (n = 239)

From that it results that men see their physical condition in a positive numbers and evaluations compared to women. Women compared to men were more careful talking about their physical condition. Only 24,5% of women evaluated themselves with grade 1, while with grade 3 - good condition 29,1% (Chi = 7,632; $p < 0.01$), with grade 2 about 1,2% fewer women (27,9%). Only 4,9% of women evaluated themselves with grade insufficient and 4,8% mean.

Health problems found in monitored group occurred in several combinations in this period of age, what we consider to be negative. Most men – 39% and 46% of women were treated with one diagnosis, with two diagnoses 18% of men and 31% of women, with three diagnoses 5,9% of men and 8,3% of women.

From diseases treated over the last year, significantly dominate diseases of vertebrae in 52% of men (Chi = 13,421; $p < 0.01$) and 56% of women (Chi = 14,393; $p < 0.01$). Other diseases stated in monitored group depicts fig. 3. Hypertension was reported by 20% of men and 18% of women (fig. 2).

While rheumatoid arthritis was reported by 12,7% of women and 5,6% of men. Increased level of cholesterol reported 12,9% of women and 8,9 % of men. Gastritis and ulcers reported 3,2% of men and 4,1 % of women. Angina pectoris reported 1,2% of men and 4,3% of women. Heart diseases reported both genders at intervals about 2%. Diabetes reported 1,2 % of men and 4,3 % of women. Chronic bronchitis and asthma occurred approximately at the same percentage representation in both genders.

The most common symptoms, which are many times accompaniment of functional and structural disorders and health weakening, presents table 2, where we found the following.

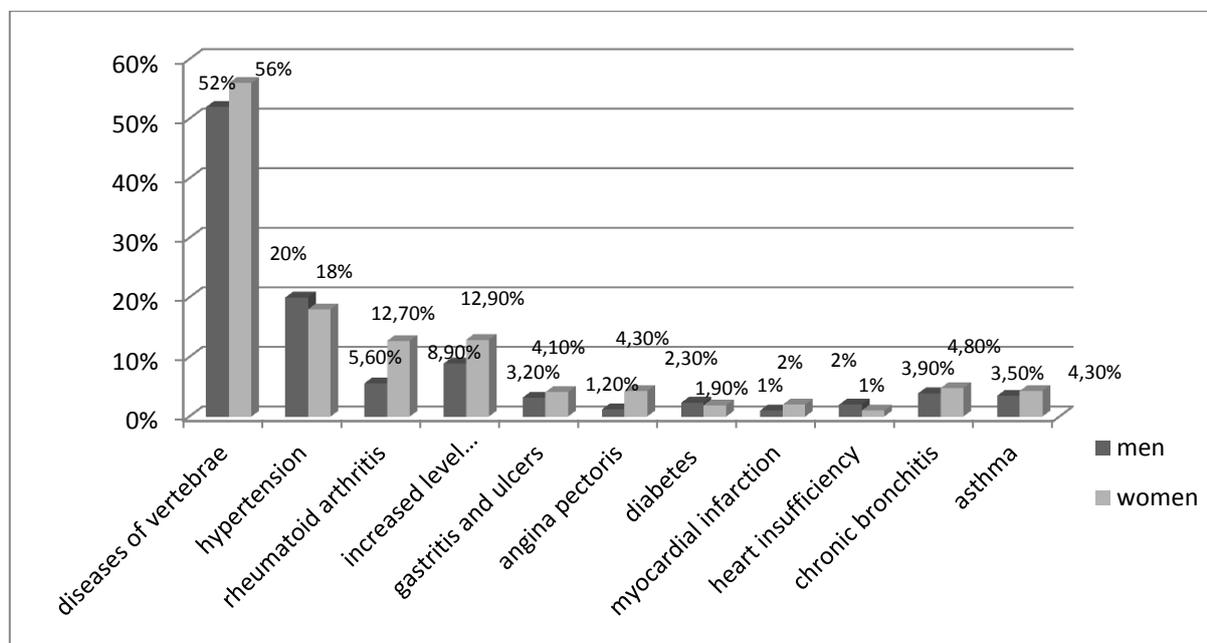


Figure 2. The most common diseases of adults (n = 239)

Pains are significantly ($\chi^2 = 24,613$; $p < 0.01$) dominated in musculoskeletal system in the area of back, joints, chest, head, neck and shoulders. With higher percentage representation of women (85%) as with men (79%), where stated difference is only 6%.

Table 2: Health symptoms of adults (n = 239)

Symptoms	Men	Women
pain in the chest		
joint pain		
back pain	79 %	85 %
neck pain and shoulder Pain		
headache		
swelling of the feet	5%	18%
varicose veins (varixices)	3%	15%
eczema	9%	19%
constipation	19%	31%
insomnia	31%	36%
depression	4%	10%
toothache	8%	15%

Other health problems of the monitored group of women are: insomnia (36%), constipation (31%), eczemata (19%). Similarly in men, but with lower percentage representation: insomnia (21%), constipation (19%) and eczemata (9%). In both genders we recorded also depressions (men – 4%, women doubly higher – 10%), or varicose veins, which are five times higher in women (15%) as with men (3%).

Respondents, men as well as women, stated, that over the last year they have been taking medications - analgesics or sedatives, which are sold over-the-counter in pharmacies, without consulting doctor (fig. 3).

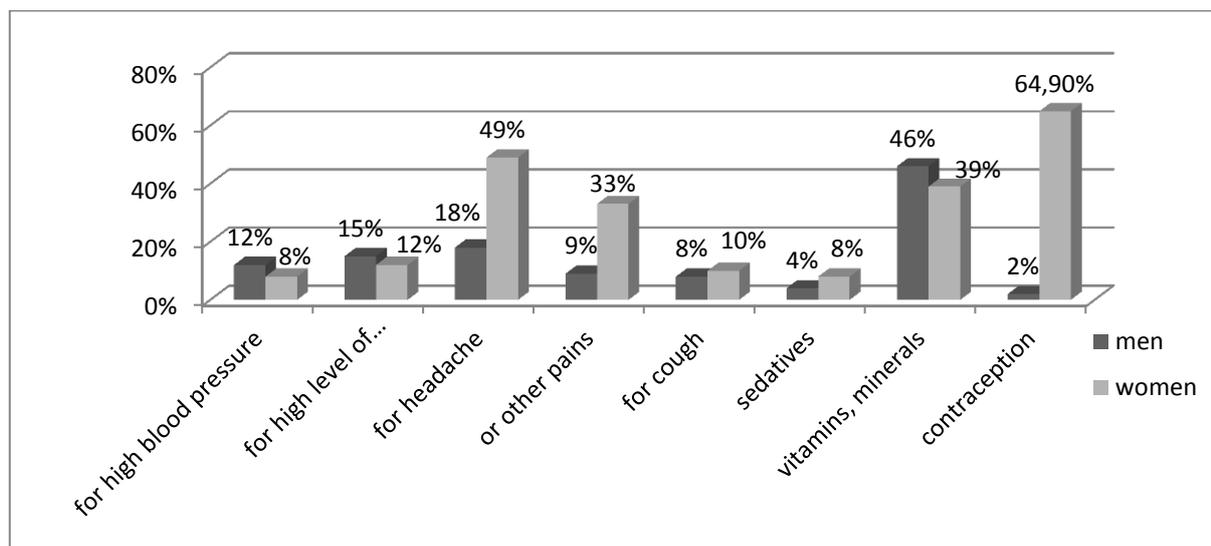


Figure 3. Adults taking medicine (n = 239)

Significantly, (Chi = 26,339; $p < 0.01$) most medications are taken by women. In relation to sexual intercourse, contraception is taken by 64,9% of women and 12,5% of it is taken in relation to gynaecological problems on the basis of doctor's recommendation. The second most common reason in women is headache (49%). Fancied and on a third place are various vitamins and minerals (39 %) and others are: 33 % for other pains. 8% of women is taking medications due to high blood pressure, and due to high cholesterol 12% of women. 8% of women is taking sedatives. For men, it is taking vitamins, minerals and additives up to 46% (Chi = 13,033; $p < 0.01$). When having headache 18% of men takes medicine. 12 % of men is taking medications due to high blood pressure, and due to high cholesterol 15% of men. In relation to viral and bacterial diseases, both men and women were taking antibiotics prescribed by a doctor. These findings correspond with inoperability, which presented at average 8,2 workdays in women and 7,2 workdays in men. Minimum significance of inoperability was 3 days in a year both for women and men, while maximum in men was at the level of three months and in women up to half a year. It was a vertebrogenic structural disease of musculoskeletal system.

Attendance of the doctor in past months in monitored group was as follows. While the men visited the doctor at least 2x, women 4x and men maximum 6x while women at average of up to 11x. The most common reasons to visit doctor were various pains (mostly on muscoskeletal system), influenza, tonsillitis (men 66%, women 73%), urologic (men 29%, women 36 %), neurological (men 24%, women 41%), or women's problems (62%), while men's only 15%. Currently danger, initiating mechanisms and the mechanism found by us is psychosocial stress, which also threatens the health status of women and men. Feeling of a slight tension and stress is significantly felt by 63,2% of women (Chi = 17,273; $p < 0.01$) and by 56,8% of men (Chi = 14,436; $p < 0.01$).

While 16,6% of men and 11,4% of women, with difference 5,2%, do not feel the tension and stress. 15,9% of men and 15,3% of women stated that they feel the tension and stress more than usual for people in general. About 10% of men and women stated that they are under great psychical pressure, which we consider in term of psychical and physical health negative and relatively high in term of the percentage representation. This group consisted of company managers. The most common somatic manifestation of stress, which men and women stated, were cardiovascular symptoms as palpitations, tingling in the heart, chest pain – pain of sternum. 28% of women and 11% of men stated gastrointestinal problems, which were dominated by dysorexia, vomiting, feeling of tight stomach. It is important to note that more than 60% of the surveyed women and 33% of men reported a headache.

The only way to detect this disease is to have your blood pressure measured. 76,7% of women (Chi = 22,261; $p < 0.01$) and 61 % of men (Chi = 19,331; $p < 0.01$) had their blood pressure measured during the year by doctor.

During the last year cholesterol was measured in 40,4 % of men (Chi = 9,333; $p < 0.01$) and in 45,6% of women (Chi = 12,936; $p < 0.01$) where the findings were significant on 1 % level of significance.

Dental hygiene should be an integral part of our daily lives. In term of daily care of oral cavity significantly 58 % of men (Chi = 15,113; $p < 0.01$) and 52% of women (Chi = 12,228; $p < 0.01$) wash their teeth once a day, while more than once up to 42% of women and 27,8% of men. Almost never and less than once a day at average about 5% of respondents take care of their denture. In term of preventive inspection 78% of men and 81% of women visited dentist, while during the year from various reasons it was 22% of men and 38% of women.

Health and health state are one of the most important aspects of quality of life and to some extent also affect other aspects. In term of our findings Kadaňka (2002) points to the fact that the annual prevalence of vertebrogenic diseases in Slovakia represents 35 %, while the lifetime is two times higher and represents 70 %–80 %. Degenerative changes on spine occur in 90% of men older than 50 years old and in women at the same percentage representation older than 60 years old. Kulichová (2007) presents prevalence of pain syndromes in the adult population with regard to gender, whose occurrence is in women 20 % higher than in men. Poliaková (2005) states that there is a relationship between stress, pain and human health state which is not random, which also supports inappropriate diet and lack of sleep. Cholesterol along with smoking and high blood pressure belong to three deadly diseases in term of the most serious risk factors of heart and blood vessels diseases (Yusuf et al., 2000, Cohen et al., 2010).

Conclusion

Analysis of the results shows increased number of health disorders and diseases, among which prevail health problems of musculoskeletal system with functional and structural character ($p < 0.01$) in monitored group of adults. This condition is probably linked with a worrying trend in the present day, which is marked by a significant drop of volume and share of goalseeking, meaningful activities and activities of physical education and sports character in organised or spontaneous forms in their motional regime. Significantly, we found less health problems in monitored group of adults with intention on musculoskeletal system, whose symptoms usually are pain, which is also one of the reasons of visiting doctor and inoperability.

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УДК 37

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Аннотация. Статья презентует парциальные результаты, которые характеризуют образ жизни взрослого населения с ориентацией на его избранные детерминанты здоровья, относящиеся к ключевым общественным факторам качества жизни взрослого населения. Респондентами опроса являлось взрослое население (женщины: $n = 118$, возраст 43.3 ± 2.3 года, физический рост = 168.9 ± 3.2 см, физический вес = 67.3 ± 6.8 кг и мужчины: $n = 121$, возраст = 44.2 ± 1.6 лет, физический рост = 180.6 ± 6.3 см, физический вес = 89 ± 7.9 кг) среднего возраста города Липтовский Микулаш. Для определения примарных указателей качества и образа жизни этой группы была использована стандартизированная анкета. Данные сигнификативно ($p < 0.01$) указали на то, что прогрессирующую тенденцию, в этой группе опрошенных, имеют вертеброгенные расстройства, признаком которых являются боли ($p < 0.01$). Одновременно они являются и причиной больничного листа по болезни и принятия разных лекарств. Медицинские проблемы в этой группе опрошенных встречаются во многих комбинациях.

Приведенные первичные выявляя являются составной частью проекта-гранта ВЕГА: 1/0376/14 *Принужденные двигательные деятельности как профилактика здоровья для населения Словакии. Эта статья была написана при поддержке научного превосходства.*

Ключевые слова: здоровье, состояние здоровья, взрослое население, вертеброгенные расстройства, боль.