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## SMART CITY: A GEOGRAPHICAL PERSPECTIVE

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**Abstract:** Smart cities are communities able to support green initiatives able to generate income and employment, and to allow citizens and businesses to benefit from more efficient services. In order to identify the realities that can represent a benchmark for other cities, the article provides an analysis of the actors that affect the birth and the development of smart city. The the article presents an overview of main smart cities of Europe.

**Key words:** Geography, Smart city, Geocity

\* \* \* \* \*

### INTRODUCTION

Smart cities occupy an important place in the global political debate as they represent a development driving force for growth and employment. The combined efforts of the Italian Government and the European Commission for the development of these realities has led to the Venice Declaration of 8 July 2014 and the European Council of October 2015 Digital in which it was stated that cities must become the laboratory for a more dynamic and digital. The assumption is that if the Digital Economy allows the recovery of competitiveness and employment, in the presence of growing urbanization the cities must become the center of interest in government policies that make them more and more smart.

Smart cities are characterized by high-quality public services, better living standards, new job opportunities generated by a more innovative entrepreneurial ecosystem, greater environmental sustainability and lower public resources through the involvement of private finance and networking of large industrial groups and SMEs. In a smart city must coexist more elements. First intelligent electricity infrastructure, capable of supporting and encouraging energy conservation plans and the use of a mix of sources. Then an infrastructure of ICT and TLC integrated to it that spread pervasively connectivity and pursue an internet of everything connected to sensors, devices and services. A smart services platform enabling, pervasive, innovative, reusable, integrated and evolving that allow citizens to get the best out of infrastructure. Finally, public and private finance instruments that implement these models. You need a

favorable environment in which the rules of engagement between public and private actors are known, shared, transparent and non-changeable. This requires identifying the actors are able to remove the existing constraints, encouraging the sharing of best practices thanks to a constantly open transatlantic dialogue to experience pilot cases in which the model is implemented.

### **SMART CITY**

To make an intelligent city is necessary, therefore, to develop more and more the potential of the digital economy, the green economy, infrastructure, transport and energy.

Develop integrated solutions across Europe enables the industry to offer what the cities and regions need with better quality and at lower cost for the benefit of society. The data can be used as a service that makes it possible to more effectively inform decision making and designing new activities.

Technological innovation can improve the quality of public services and the growth of local economies services, but the main challenge is how to integrate new technologies. And in the implementation it has not been enough progress. The development of transport in the smart cities is an opportunity to give a sense of inclusion for people living in areas outside the city. A fair and balanced distribution of the urban transport network, in fact, strengthen social cohesion, would allow greater mobility and avoid isolation in modern urban ghettos. Energy efficiency is the most effective way to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> and to ensure a better and healthier environment through its development in transport, buildings and industry.

Smart cities can become a cornerstone for a new economic policy, physical and virtual places to promote and enhance because they are able to accommodate functional initiatives to technological SwitchOn the country. The process of realization of the smart city must involve universities and research centers that develop the knowledge, companies and public entities that support both the research and business. Dwelling on the analysis of these three types of partners emerge key features and major activities to be examined.

As for universities and research centers, the productivity and quality of scientific activity are considered to be an indispensable prerequisite for the emergence and development of a smart city. Besides this pre-requisite, there are still further conditions to be examined that play an important role. The first concerns the entrepreneurial culture and attitude to risk internal academic organization. In fact, in the centers of knowledge, where there is a strong entrepreneurial culture, they are able to offer and promote easily meaningful and sustainable research results to the social fabric. In contrast, however, know little of the centers likely to have an entrepreneurial approach turn out to be less open to exploitation of research processes.

As for companies, the most important aspect identified as a key factor in the positive support of the territorial level research exploitation of these processes is the ability to carry forward the innovations produced and presented on the market. According to this approach, the fabric of the local companies can play different roles.

The first sees businesses as funder of research activities carried out by universities and research centers. The launching of joint projects between companies and research institutions, in fact, on the one hand allows the

enterprise to outsource certain processes that would otherwise require an organizational effort far-reaching; on the other hand, it allows you to extend the available financial resources of the research institutions and organizations to address these strongly connected research trajectories to the application outcomes of the activities. The joint deployment requires, however, that the part of companies there is the ability to develop trusting relationships with the academic and scientific world. In this context, companies have the task of promoting business initiatives, making use of the innovations developed by the scientific community, and to direct the efforts of researchers to easily exploitable activities from an economic standpoint.

Another role that companies can play in contributing to the success of a smart city is linked to the possibility to be the first direct users of research.

Finally, companies can also act as a carrier to the final market of a scientific or technological break through an academic spin-off process, which provides for the creation of a new company through the exploitation of the economic potential inherent in an innovation made possible the researchers applied the initiative.

The third important aspect in the development of a smart city, for public entities at local and national level dealing with set the rules for defining the interventions in support of the economic value of the research process. The size recognized as relevant to local and national institutions are selective measures and the intensity of the same. The first shows how interventions can be focused on a small number of research enhancement initiatives, selected through complex screening procedures to assess the application potential of the implemented innovations, or implement policies that support is provided to the widest possible of initiatives. The second dimension, the relative intensity of the interventions, it is possible to distinguish cases where the support policies are limited to only some of the moments of the search enhancement process to others where it is limited to the number of services provided.

The determinants of the success of a smart city, as a result of the combined action of universities and research centers, enterprises and public institutions, on the assumption that the characteristics of these types of actors go to build a suitable mixture supportare processes in time long lasting valorisation of research.

These three determinants have been described as a triple helix.

The first helix is represented by centers of knowledge, who with their different orientation to academic entrepreneurship are more or less open to the processes of transfer and commercial exploitation of its scientific results.

The second helix is represented by companies, who by their ability to link innovation with the markets are able to attract and convey human and financial resources.

The third helix, finally, is represented by public institutions that with targeted policies to ensure the removal of obstacles to the development of a smart city and the support necessary to make the nonlinear percprso more fluid carrying a scientific discovery from the laboratory in which it is It was carried to the markets in which creates value for customers in the form of product or service.

Together these three propellers can facilitate the identification of a referent for innovation in every branch of public administration, it is imperative for him to manage the smart process and to have a constant dialogue with the mayor.

Then it is appropriate to initiate a thorough reflection on the data to be shared with the public and at the same time of those concerning the private sector that can be useful to the public administration. Another challenge to be faced in order to achieve smart, sustainable cities and on a human scale and that is to promote the culture of risk, accepting the possible failures. Being smart means new ground, but this implies that sometimes the result is not what you hoped for. Indispensable, then, is the basic technological infrastructure. Everyone, from administration to the citizen should have access to computers, email, wi-fi, web / hosting and so on. Finally, to build a truly smart city should be given off to the young, to new ideas and creativity.

The positive effects of the interaction of these three main actors can be enormous. First, a comprehensive policy for smart cities with innovations in terms of infrastructure and services can derive a great plan of public procurement intelligent, and can generate spaces for rewarding research and development by large, medium and small companies that integrate to provide valued solutions by end-users. They can then be favored the transformation of enterprises and industries in the area, and the attraction of new realities, generating growth and employment even in traditional sectors, revised according to new paradigms. The energy efficiency investments can also be a positive driving force for the economy, but also create a relapse on public sector savings and private, as well as on health and national energy policy. Smart cities so conceived can promote replicable solutions potentially everywhere.

### **EUROPEAN ANALYSIS**

The European Union has put in place a number of programs to stimulate the emergence of Smart City. In 2012 he kicked off the European Innovation Partnership (EIP) for Smart City and Community, made up of representatives of industry, research and cities aiming to dealing with the energy, transport and information technology, and communication. The Commission has allocated around 200 million euro for smart cities and communities in the budget 2014-2015 of the research and innovation program Horizon 2020 in order to accelerate progress and expand the distribution of solutions that aim to Smart Cities. The European Economic and Social Committee actively supports programs related to the development of the city towards sustainable and efficient environmental conditions. The development of smart cities was the result of choices of individual local authorities with different results and start patchy. In Europe, there are cities that do fly like Amsterdam and Barcelona, London and Copenhagen, which are the closest to the reality of US performance. These smart cities are born in order to ensure high quality of life, environmental sustainability, innovative technology at the service of our time and of our needs and a lot of creativity. Their development can further relate to the implementation of modern app to book the place in line at the post office or bank, the reduction of emissions due to plans for the efficiency of the buildings, new mobility systems such as car and bikesharing.

Vikki (Helsinki, Finland) is totally ecological, with buildings constructed in compliance with as many as 17 environmental criteria. Italy is not far away from the experiences of other European countries. However, according to the President of the Observatory Smart City of the National Association of Italian Municipalities (ANCI), the country ends to disperse its potential because of the lack of a common management model and poor communication between local



authorities. In order to overcome these obstacles we need to work on four different platforms and complementary. The first concerns the projects. Gather information on the initiatives carried out in Italy and analyzing the state, participants, objectives and funding. Realize a common database of experiences to share and easy to access for all stakeholders is a necessary precondition for the development of a common reality. The second platform, however, is based on listening to the citizens. A smart city must be to measure citizen. It is impossible to imagine it being imposed from above, it should rather be considered as the result of a comparison with end users participated. The third platform takes into account the measurement indicators. To this end it is useful to consider the work by ISTAT about the references to be considered for assessing the performance of projects. Finally, there is a funding platform.

Make information system for projects, response of citizenship, results and funding will allow municipalities to set up master-plan and accelerate the modernization of Italy. Overall in the last few years have been presented over 1,700 smart projects, for a total investment of more than 4 billion euro. There is no difference between North and South Italy in the development of such projects. common limitations are the lack of a national direction and the spatial extent of Commons. The larger ones proceed in a more expeditious manner since the development of metropolitan cities also accelerates the one of the smart cities.

## CONCLUSIONS

Europe lacks a common plan, a comprehensive policy for the development of smart cities. If there was a clear Community framework and defined, it could promote the development of common European smart cities. There would be positive effects on the employment front, and it is also why in Europe is starting a careful reflection on the development of these realities. The creation of joint projects is an ambitious goal for the European Union. Cities continue, in fact, to attract a growing number of people from rural areas, where most depopulated. This phenomenon leads the authorities, infrastructure, population and the environment of the city to new challenges. To maintain its sustainability, you need to find innovative ways of adapting and developing. We need to create interconnected cities, which use urban technologies and adopt policies on transport, which promote economic and social development, they are arranged in a manner most favorable to your environment and adopt a model of sustainability for future generations. These cities represent the type of Smart City that we want to develop, but all this can be achieved only through the involvement and close collaboration of citizens, local and national authorities and European institutions.

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## THE INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION BETWEEN GLOBALIZATION AND REGIONALIZATION. CASE STUDY: WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION

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**Abstract:** The present study aims to analyze to international organizations in order to identify their role in shaping and supporting the concepts of globalization and regionalization respectively. The outlining of structural-functional features, the analysis of the objectives and the spatial-temporal distribution constitute the essential elements for revealing precisely where international organizations are positioned in relation to the aforementioned concepts.

**Key words:** globalization, regionalization, international organizations, tourism

\* \* \* \* \*

### INTRODUCTION

The international organizations are superior forms of association between the states on the basis of a joint agreement of cooperation (status, pact, charter, convention) in order to achieve specific objectives through a judicious, continuous and steady coordination of resources and actions of Member States (Bontea, 2012; Miga-Beşteliu, 2006; Mihăilă, 2001; Niciu, 1994). It should be noted that international organizations are not some modern inventions, they are objective realities that originate from the old state agreements, treaties, alliances concluded by dynasties in power in previous centuries.

The first forms of association of this type date back to the nineteenth century when "The Universal Postal Union (1875), the World Meteorological Organization (1878), the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property (1883), the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic

Works (1886)" appeared (Bontea 2012, p. 106). Thus, "the international organizations are relatively new elements of the global system. They came into existence during the nineteenth century, they became important during the next century, and by 1945 their number has increased significantly, especially at regional and subregional levels" (Popa & Sarcinschi, 2007).

In the specialized literature from Romania (Bontea, 2012; Miga-Beșteliu, 2006; Mihăilă, 2001; Muscalu & Muntean, 2015; Niciu, 1994; Popa & Sarcinschi, 2007; etc) and from abroad (Heyneman & Lee, 2016; Musaev, 2015; O'Neil, 2014; etc.) the international organizations matter has been debated extensively in various ways, including their role of tools, of spaces for manifestations and of actors involved in international relations.

The reasons that have led and will further lead to the development and diversification of international organizations are related to a number of factors, mainly: the need for security and the need to prevent wars; the diversification of relations and manifestation of commercial, financial and technological interdependencies etc.; the need to address global challenges arising from population growth, increasing poverty, food security, environmental damage, the fight against terrorism etc.

From the typological point of view, three generations of organizations can be identified at the timescale, each of which is characterized by certain defining peculiarities closely correlated with the international affairs from that period. From the first generation we recall the Committee for Navigation on the Rhine (1815), Convention regarding the regime of navigation on the Danube (1856), the International Telegraph Union (1865), the Universal Postal Union (1878). In the second generation are: the League of Nations (1919) and the International Labour Organization. The third generation is represented by organizations: United Nations (UN); The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO); The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD); World Trade Organization (WTO); Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC); World Tourism Organization (UNWTO).

The idea of association between two or more States in order to overcome certain difficulties gave shape to the idea of regionalization, which further contributed to the affirmation of a new concept called globalization.

Globalisation and regionalization are two complementary concepts that can not exist independently. Both concepts reflect an economical, political, social and cultural phenomenon. The difference between the two concepts lies in the coverage space so that globalization is defining the entire globe (Baylis and Smith, 2001; Held et al., 1999; Holm and Sorensen, 1995; Lechner, 2009; Indra, 2016; Rodhan, 2006; etc.), while regionalization is specific only to certain parts within it (Clark, 1997; Ghena, 2015; Indra, 2016; Kacowicz, 1999; etc.). In this context we emphasize the fact that international organizations, through structure, organization and mission, contribute to the consolidation of regionalization as part of globalization.

Against this background the present study aims to emphasize the role of international organizations in strengthening the concepts of globalization / regionalization as distinct and complementary at the same time.

## **METHODOLOGY**

In order to reflect the role of international organizations in forming and defining the concepts of regionalization and globalization a research was

conducted, focused on the global or regional nature of international organizations and a case study on the spatial-temporal evolution of UNWTO towards globalization.

The database consisted of the following information: text (names of continents, hydronyms etc.), graphics (shapefiles, graphs) and digital (Baías et al., 2010; Herman et al., 2016; İlieş et al., 2016). For the 7 analytical maps on the spatial distribution of the headquarters of global, namely regional organizations and on the spatial distribution over decades of UNWTO we used as background the "World Topographic map" on which we superimposed the textual, numerical and shapefile graphical (line and polygon) information (Figures 1-10). Such processing was done in ArcMap Version 9.3.

### **GLOBAL ORGANIZATIONS**

These organizations are defined by a number of structural-functional peculiarities, as follows: representation (target group) overall objective (purpose), operational objectives, seniority, dynamic, spatial evolution, rhythm, trends, structure, organization, action mode, results etc.

Among the best defined organizations we recall: the United Nations (UN); The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO); The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD); World Trade Organization (WTO); World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) etc

Although the goals of global international organizations vary from one organization to another, their semantic analysis reveals some keywords that are found in the structure of objectives, namely: peace, security, global cooperation, economy, society, human rights etc. .

As an example: *"The United Nations came into being in 1945, following the devastation of the Second World War, with one central mission: the maintenance of international peace and security. The UN does this by working to prevent conflict; helping parties in conflict make peace; peacekeeping; and creating the conditions to allow peace to hold and flourish"*<sup>1</sup>; *"UNESCO's mission is to contribute to the building of peace, the eradication of poverty, sustainable development and intercultural dialogue through education, the sciences, culture, communication and information"*<sup>2</sup>; *"The WTO provides a forum for negotiating agreements aimed at reducing obstacles to international trade and ensuring a level playing field for all, thus contributing to economic growth and development"*<sup>3</sup>; *"NATO's essential purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of its members through political and military means. Political - NATO promotes democratic values and encourages consultation and cooperation on defence and security issues to build trust and, in the long run, prevent conflict. Military - NATO is committed to the peaceful resolution of disputes. If diplomatic efforts fail, it has the military capacity needed to undertake crisis-management operations. These are carried out under Article 5 of the Washington Treaty - NATO's founding treaty - or under a UN mandate, alone or in cooperation with other countries and international organizations"*<sup>4</sup>; *"OECD's work is based on continued monitoring of events in member countries as well as outside OECD area, and includes regular projections of short and medium-term economic developments. The OECD Secretariat*

<sup>1</sup> <http://www.un.org/en/sections/what-we-do/index.html>

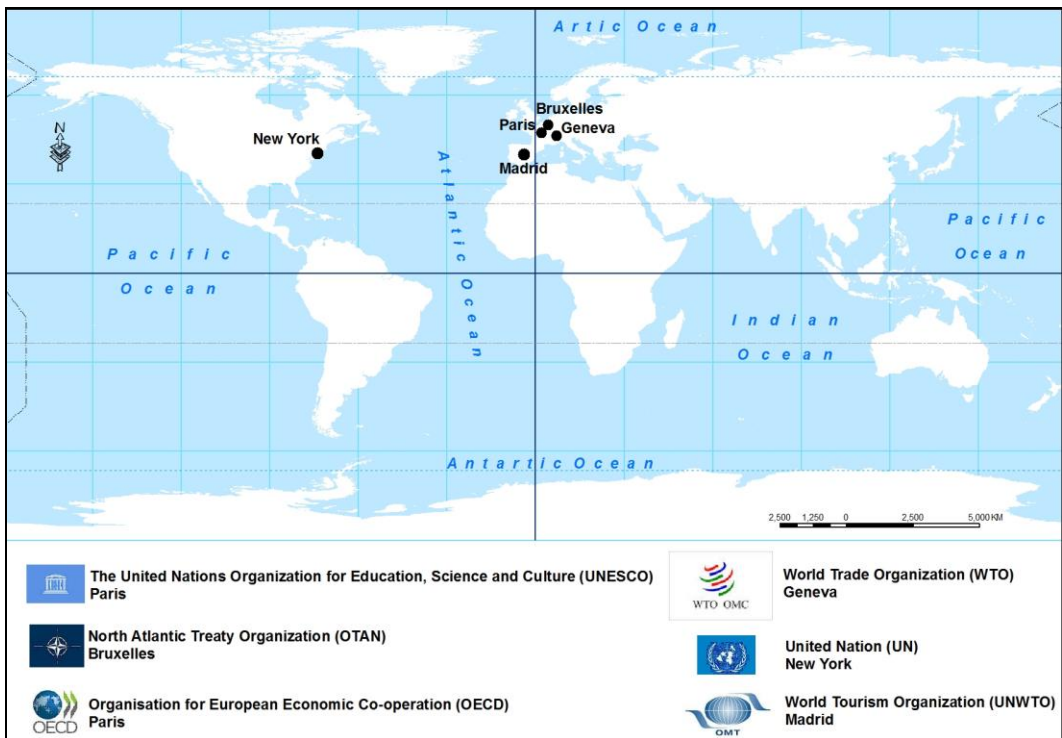
<sup>2</sup> <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/about-us/who-we-are/introducing-unesco/>

<sup>3</sup> [https://www.wto.org/english/thewto\\_e/whatis\\_e/wto\\_dg\\_stat\\_e.htm](https://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/wto_dg_stat_e.htm)

<sup>4</sup> <http://www.nato.int/nato-welcome/index.html>

collects and analyses data, after which committees discuss policy regarding this information, the Council makes decisions, and then governments implement recommendations”<sup>5</sup>; “The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) is the United Nations agency responsible for the promotion of responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism. As the leading international organization in the field of tourism, UNWTO promotes tourism as a driver of economic growth, inclusive development and environmental sustainability and offers leadership and support to the sector in advancing knowledge and tourism policies worldwide”<sup>6</sup>.

The analysis of the global distribution of international organizations’ headquarters reveals that most of them are based in Europe, except for the UN headquarters in New York (Figure 1). This highlights the importance of Europe’s role in coordinating the process of globalization through urban centers: Paris, Brussels, Geneva and Madrid.



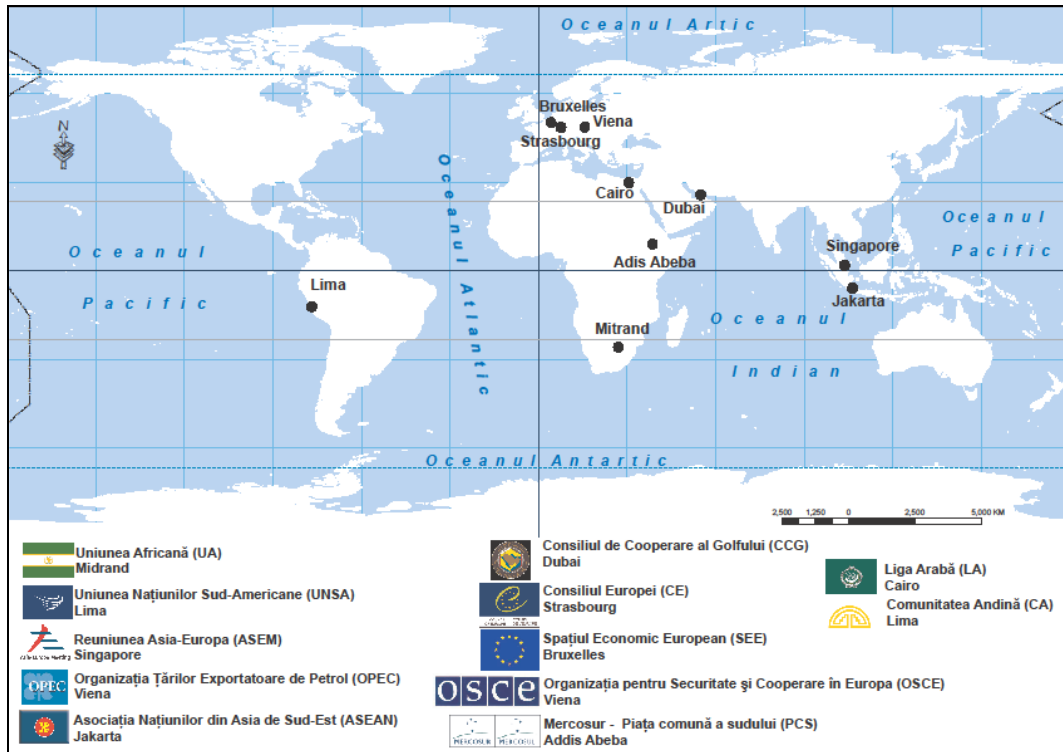
**Figure 1.** Spatial Distribution of the headquarters of global organizations

### REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Among the most important regional organizations are: African Union (AU); Union of South American Nations (UNSA); Andean Community (CA); Mercosur - the Southern Common Market (PCS); Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM); Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN); Council of Europe (CE); European Economic Area (EEA); Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC); Arab League (LA); Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC); Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).

<sup>5</sup> <http://www.oecd.org/about/whatwedoandhow/>

<sup>6</sup> <http://www2.unwto.org/content/who-we-are-0>



**Figure 2.** Spatial distribution of the headquarters of regional organizations

Just like global organizations, regional organizations are also defined by a number of structural-functional peculiarities, as it follows: representation (target group) overall objective (purpose), operational objectives, seniority, dynamic, spatial evolution, rhythm, trends, structure, organization manner, actions, results etc. The difference between them is given by the scale and impact of the phenomenon at a spatial level.

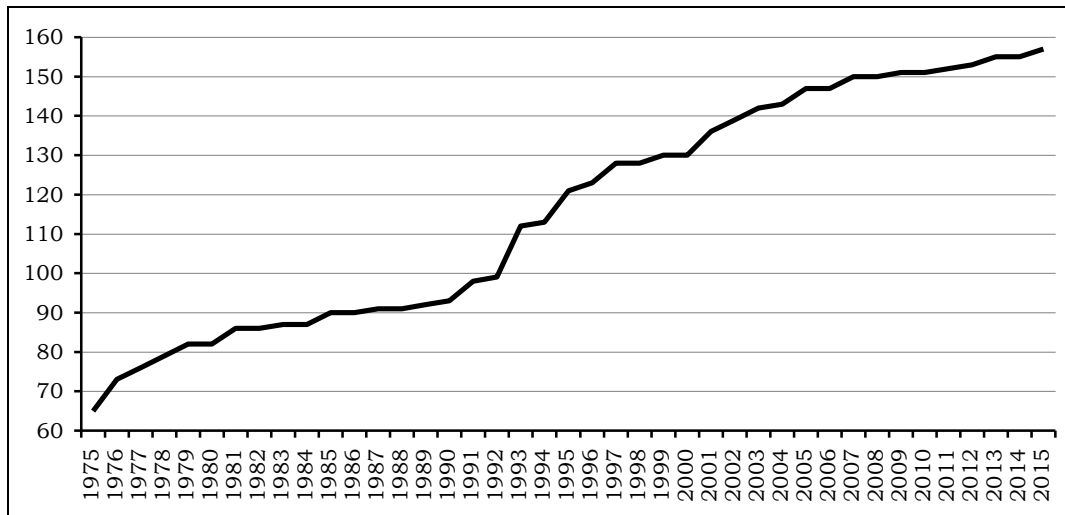
The analysis of the locations where regional organizations have headquarters shows a "relatively uniform" distribution. The urban centers that host regional organization are Brussels, Strausbourg, Vienna, Cairo, Dubai, Addis Ababa, Mitrand, Singapore, Jakarta and Lima (Figure 2).

### **WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION**

"The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) is the United Nations agency responsible for promoting responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism". As a world leader in tourism, UNWTO promotes tourism as "an engine of economic growth, inclusive development and environmental sustainability," providing this guidance and support worldwide. In order to maximize socio-economic contributions of tourism and minimize the negative effects induced by tourism, UNWTO encourages and supports the implementation of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism. Moreover, UNWTO aims and is committed to promoting tourism as a "tool in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aimed at reducing poverty and promoting sustainable development". This is possible through market surveys, promoting competitive and sustainable tourism policies, promoting education and training in tourism and providing

technical assistance in more than 100 countries worldwide (Annual Report 2012, p. 4). UNWTO currently includes "157 Countries, 6 territories, two Permanent Observers and over 480 Affiliate Members representing the private sector, Educational Institutions, Associations and local tourism tourism Authorities" (Annual Report, 2015, p. 3).

The World Tourism Organization, based in Madrid, Spain is a global structure, responsible for collecting, storing and processing statistical information on international tourism. Since its establishment in 1970 this body has undergone deep changes in the direction of its structural and functional development.



**Figure 3.** Annual evolution of the number of UNWTO Member States

The functional evolution refers to changes that occurred over time for the improvement of management and control mechanisms in the organization, with globally oriented ambitions and aspirations. From the structural point of view, if in 1975 65 states (members) from all continents were part of UNWTO, through successive memberships in 2015 it will include in its structure 157 active members (Figure 3).

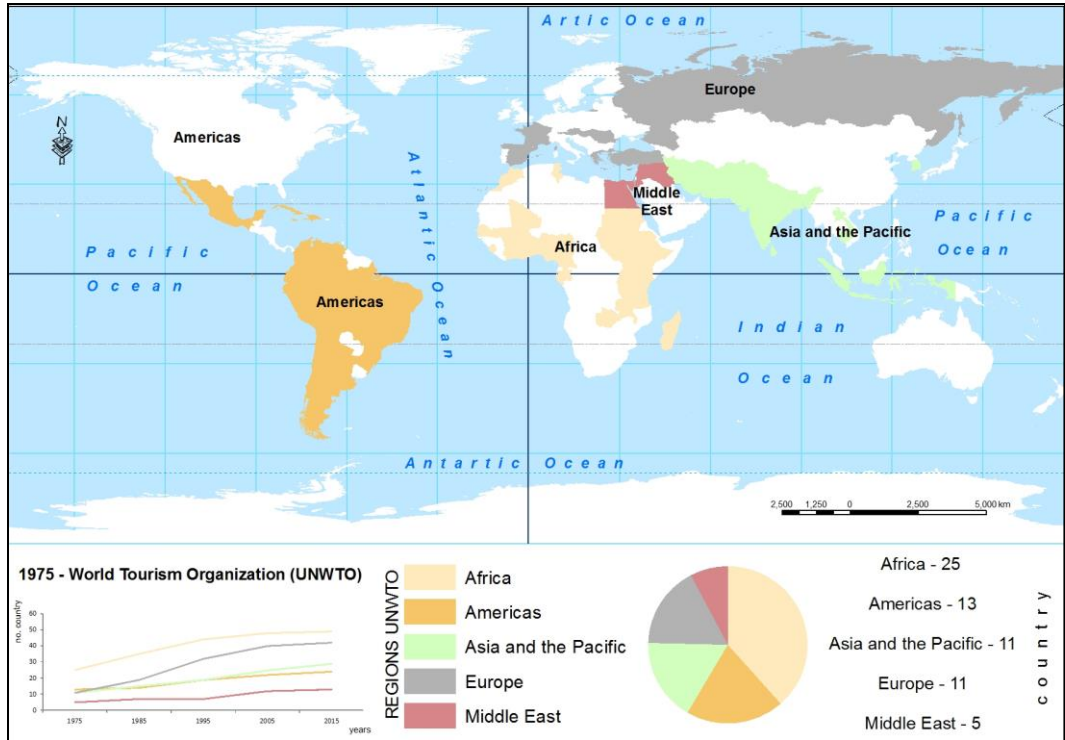
In order to grasp the global nature of UNWTO we will try to do a brief analysis of this organization in time and space. Thus, we take as a temporary measure the decade, capturing the UNWTO in several key points, respectively in the years: 1975, 1985, 1995, 2005 and 2015.

In 1975 UNWTO had 65 Member States, distributed in 5 regions: Africa - 25 countries (38%), America - 13 states (20%), Asia and Pacific - 11 countries (17%), Europe - 17 countries (26%) and Middle East - 5 states (8%) (Figure 4).

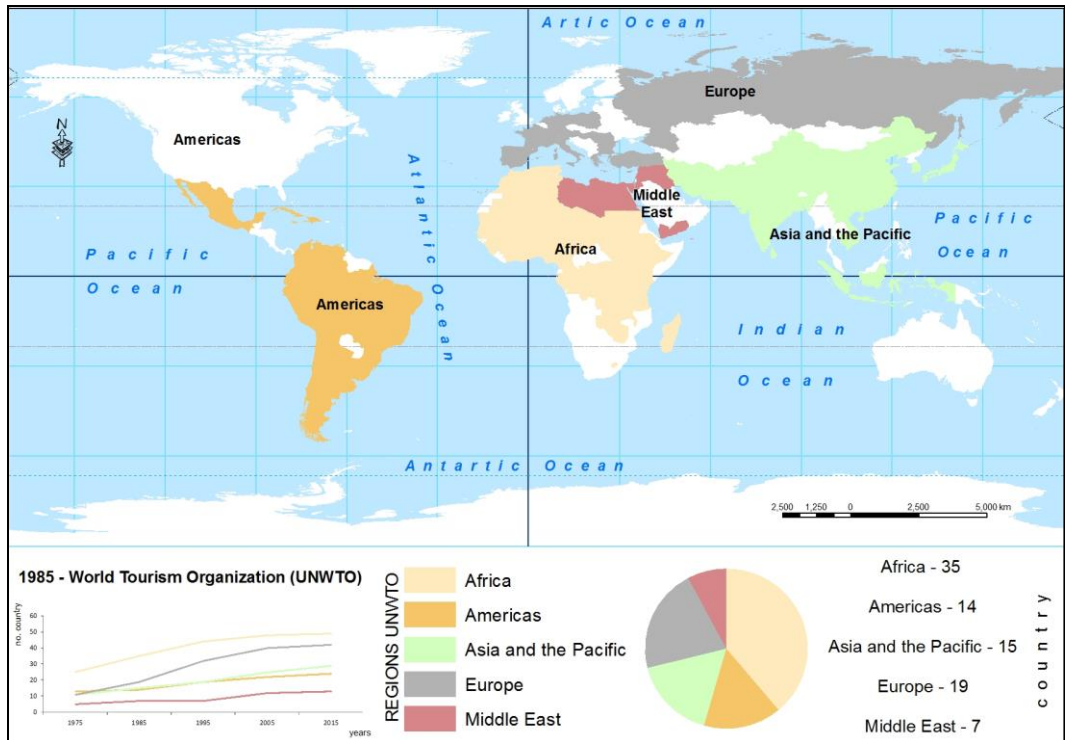
In 1985 UNWTO had 90 Member States, distributed in 5 regions: Africa - 35 countries (39%), America - 14 states (16%), Asia and Pacific - 15 countries (17%), Europe - 19 countries (21%) and the Middle East - 7 countries (8%) (Figure 5).

In 1995 UNWTO had 121 member states, distributed in 5 regions: Africa - 44 countries (36%), America - 19 states (16%), Asia and Pacific - 19 countries (16%), Europe - 32 countries (26%) and the Middle East - 7 countries (6%) (Figure 6).

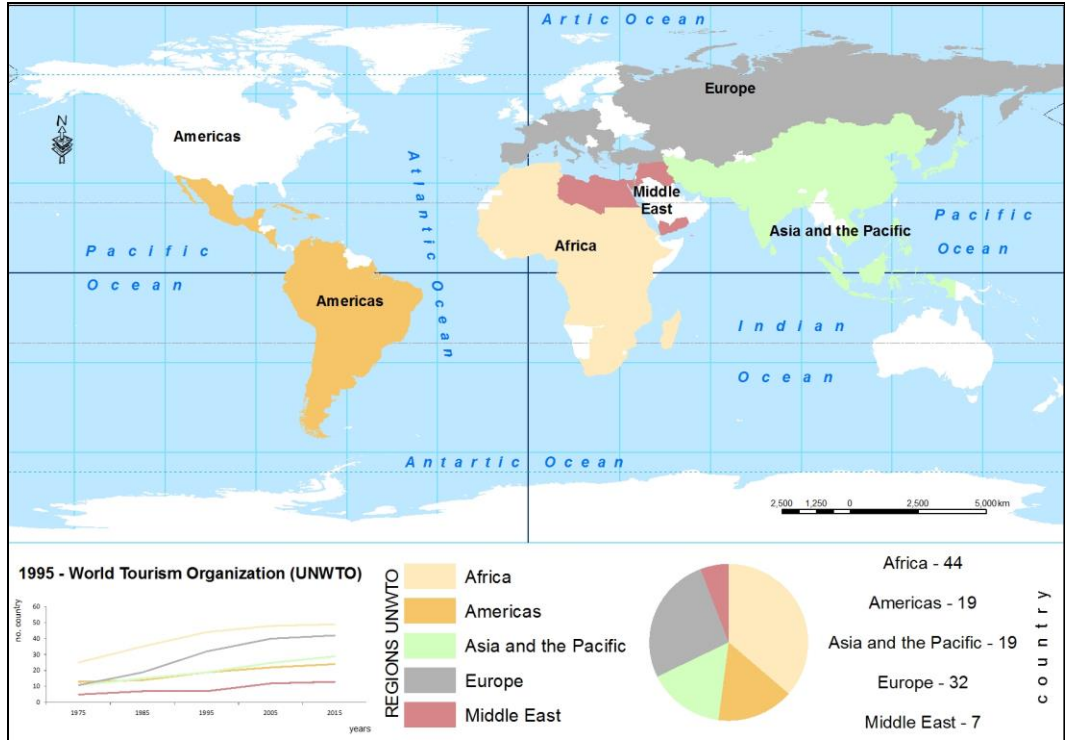




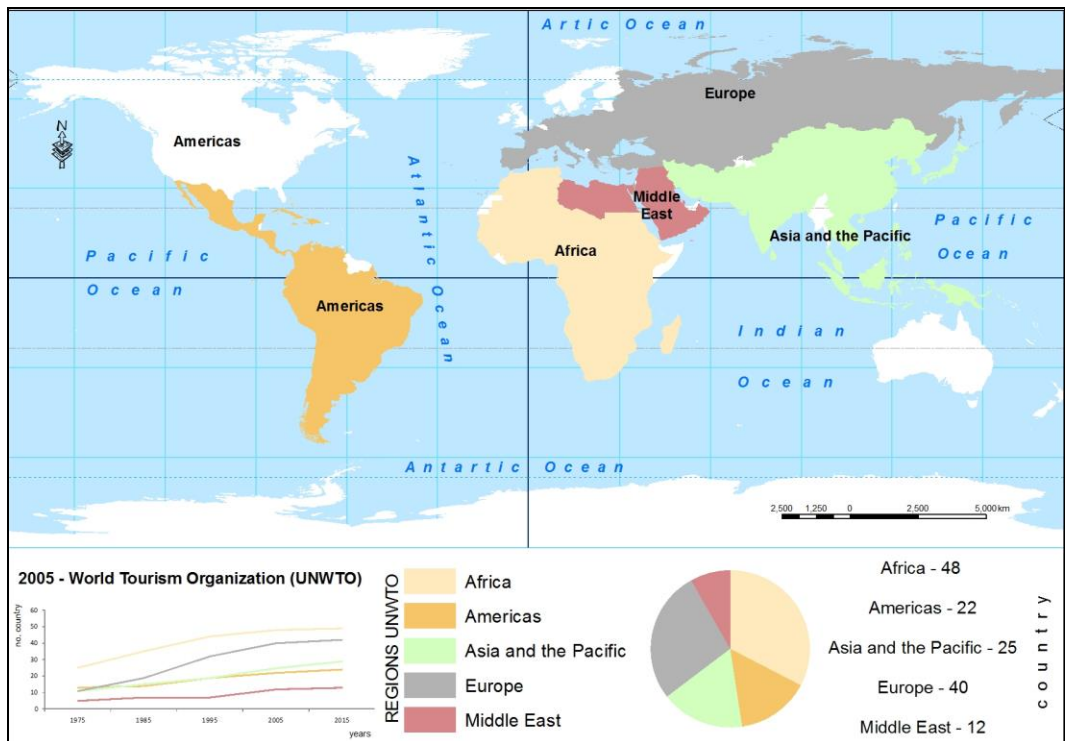
**Figure 4.** Spatial-temporal evolution of UNWTO, 1975



**Figure 5.** Spatial-temporal evolution of UNWTO, 1985



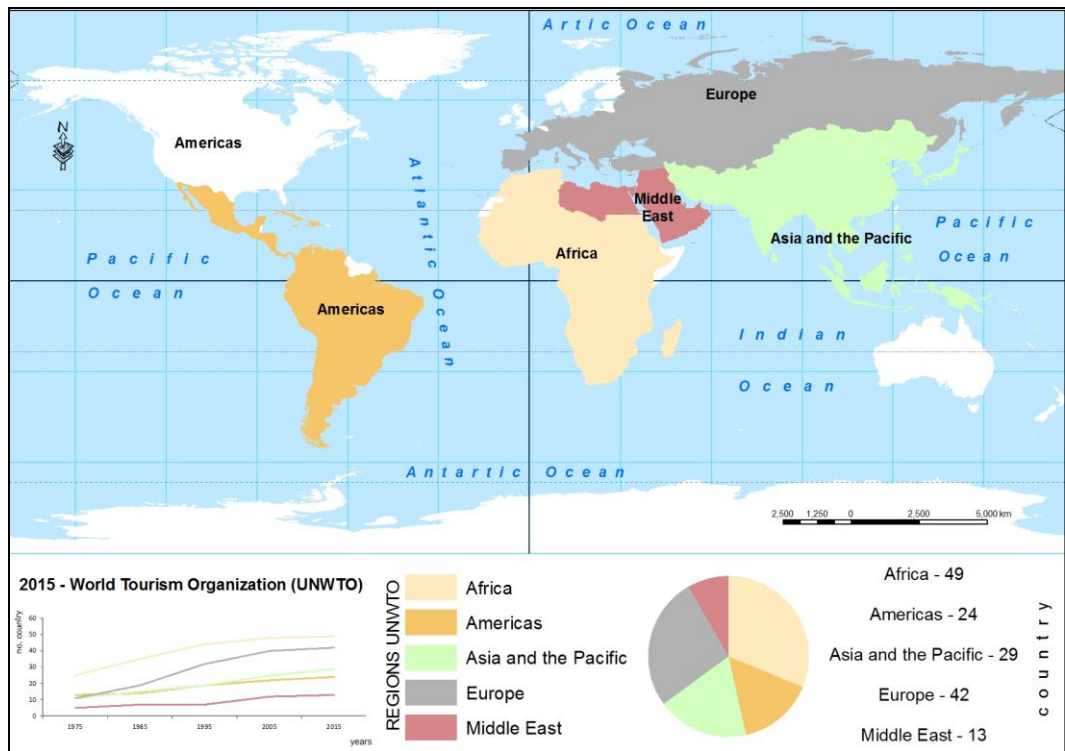
**Figure 6.** Spatial-temporal evolution of UNWTO, 1995



**Figure 7** Spatial-temporal evolution of UNWTO, 2005

In 2005 UNWTO had 147 member states, distributed in 5 regions: Africa - 48 countries (33%), America - 22 states (15%), Asia and Pacific - 25 countries (17%), Europe - 40 countries (27%) and the Middle East - 12 states (8%) (Figure 7).

2015 UNWTO counts 157 member states, distributed in 5 regions as follows: Africa - 49 countries (31%), America - 24 states (15%), Asia and Pacific - 29 countries (19%), Europe - 42 countries (27%) and the Middle East - 13 countries (8%) (Figure 8).



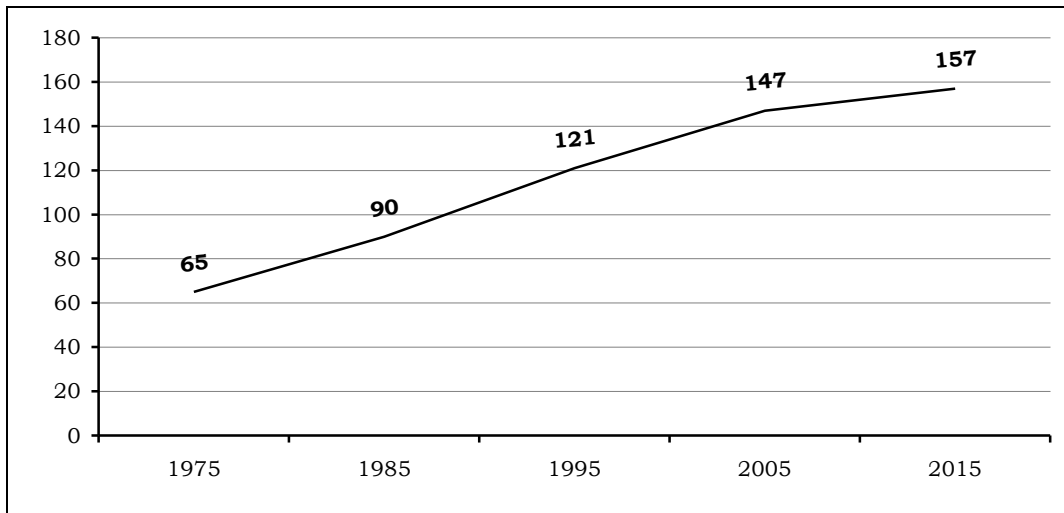
**Figure 8.** Spatial-temporal evolution of UNWTO, 2015

### CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of the structural-functional peculiarities, of the objectives and spatial-temporal distribution on international organizations as associative structures reveals the fact that they are important vectors in shaping concepts of regionalization or globalization. We must highlight the fact that international organizations crystallize the two complementary concepts, regionalization and globalization, which are not mutually exclusive but rather complementary in a harmonious way. This transpires from the very essence of international associations that constitute forms of a higher rank with the purpose to solve a series of problems that go beyond the border of a nation, ranking issues that may be regional, sometimes global. Among the most pressing issues covered by the activities of international organizations, concerning regionalization or globalization, are: the need for security; population growth, increasing poverty, food security, environmental damage, the fight against terrorism, commercial, financial, technological interdependencies, etc. Global initiatives in this regard were held in major European cities like Paris, Brussels, Geneva and Madrid,

while regional initiatives appeared in other urban centers in addition to those previously mentioned, namely: Lima, Vienna, Strausbourg, Cairo, Dubai, Addis Ababa, Mitrand, Singapore, Jakarta, etc.

The results of the spatial-temporal analysis of *The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)*, headquartered in Madrid, Europe, reveals the role of this international structure in shaping globalization, having as motto "the promotion of Responsible, Sustainable and universally accessible tourism".<sup>7</sup>



**Figure 9.** The evolution of UNWTO Member States

The analysis of the number of Member States by decade (1975, 1985, 1995, 2005, 2015) shows a steady trend of growth, a spatial extent of UNWTO, from 64 countries in 1975-157 countries in 2015 (Figure 9). Among the most reluctant countries that have not joined this international organization include the US, England and Australia. Romania joined the UNWTO in 1975, being among the first countries affiliated to the international body.

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## EVOLUTIONS OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF THE CHANGES ON THE WORLD POLITICAL MAP IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD

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**Abstract:** The use of sports and politics has had both positive and negative implications over history. Sports competitions or activities have had the intention to bring about change in certain cases. Nationalistic fervor is sometimes linked to victories or losses to some sport on sports fields. Also, new independent countries need to be recognized on international arena, so participating at the Olympic Games, they become more visible and marginalization is broken. National feelings are boosted by some of the finest sports performances. The interwar period took politics to the sporting arena; when governments decided to control the sport and politics became more authoritative and states went on to find new ways to dominate the thinking process and imagination of their citizens. Fascist regimes developed techniques that allowed them to use achievements made in sporting arena to inspire people within their geographical boundaries and impress those beyond these boundaries. A fanatic love with sports was developed and through it, symbols of nationalist socialism were entrenched.

**Key words:** Olympic Games, nationalism, politics, interwar

\* \* \* \* \*

### INTRODUCTION

During its evolution, the sport went through a series of transformations due to which it became, besides its traditional valences, more of a social, political and economical phenomenon. Given this context, the study and development of sports required interdisciplinary research, carried out by specialists from various scientific domains that worked in interdisciplinary

teams. This way of thinking and acting stimulated the emergence of integrative, transdisciplinary ideas, particularly useful for better understanding and explaining some aspects of the evolution over time of the sport phenomenon.

Even if some have looked for the accreditation of the thesis that the Olympic movement and the politics are two aspects of modern society who have nothing in common with one another, life has shown that as the servants of sport cannot totally escape to politics, so it is not possible for politicians to be kept away from sports, especially in situations where sport has a major impact as it is publicized worldwide (Samaranch, 1999). At the level of international politics it is impossible to separate sports from political issues, particularly in the situations related to the recognition of states (Hill, 1996). We consider that the Olympic movement under the influence of interwar political changes is an issue that can be addressed from that perspective.

### **1918 - 1924**

After the cessation of hostilities of the First World War, in the context of major political tensions between states, the Olympic principles were expressed with great difficulty, the renewal of the great Olympic family seemed unmanageable. Thus, at the 1920 Antwerp Olympics, despite the efforts of the members of the International Olympic Committee from the United States, Italy and the Scandinavian countries, the political circumstances have made the athletes from the countries of the Central Powers - Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Turkey and Hungary - defeated in World War I, not to be invited to participate (Keresztényi, 1980). Moreover, at the 1924 Paris Olympics, the invitation for participation of the German Olympic Committee was not sent, the organizers arguing that the French authorities cannot guarantee the security of the members of the German delegation (Kun, 1984).

The end of the First World War and the signing by the belligerents of the Peace Treaty of Versailles shortly resulted in the breakup of empires, the emergence of several independent states and the change of the political regime in some countries (Giurcăneanu, 1983). This process took place especially in Europe, but was also present in other geographical areas.

Before World War, Tsarist Russia had an active presence in the Olympic movement, being among the twelve countries represented in the Congress from 16 to 24 June 1894, where General Butovski was one of the great personalities who founded the International Olympic Committee. Russian athletes participated in the 1900 Paris Olympic Games, 1908 London and 1912 Stockholm, winning seven medals (\*\*\*) (Chronicle of the Olympics, 1998). With the establishment of the Bolshevik authorities in November 1917, Russia / The Soviet Union, due to international pressure led by prince Urasov, one of the leaders of the Russian emigration, and to the rigid attitude showed by the authorities from Moscow, remained outside the Olympic movement for more than three decades, a situation that obviously had repercussions on the soviet but also international sport.

Since the first session after the war, held on the 5th, 6th and 7th April of 1919 in Lausanne, convinced of the value and sustainability of the ideals that underpin the Olympic Movement, the members of the International Olympic Committee have reinforced the desire to act in order to achieve its universality by accepting those who have the vocation to be members of the organization and express the desire to achieve common goals through joint efforts.

Given the momentum of sports, the growth of the impact and influence that the Olympics and the Olympic movement began to exert internationally, many leaders of sports organizations and policy makers became aware of the role that sport in general and the Olympic movement in particular can play in promoting their country, in the formation and strengthening of national consciousness in the countries that recently gained independence, in sustaining the ties between countries and individuals. Thus, they have supported the accession of the sports structures from their countries to international federations and of the national Olympic committees to the Olympic movement. In many cases, the decision makers at national level were as interested in this as in their country's membership in the League of Nations and other international political and professional organizations at the time (Silance, 1997).

**Table 1.** National Olympic Committees established between 1918-1940  
(Source: 5 List of NOCs by recognition date; Matei et al, 1995)

| No. | Country/Territory                      | Political status at NOC formation              | Independence Day | NOC formation | IOC recognition |
|-----|--|--|------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 1   | Poland                                 | Independent country                            | 11.11.1918       | 1918          | 1919            |
| 2   | Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes* | Independent country                            | 11.12.1918       | 1919          | 1920            |
| 3   | Iceland                                | Sovereign country, personal union with Denmark | 17.06.1944       | 1921          | 1935            |
| 4   | Ireland                                | Independent country                            | 21.01.1919       | 1922          | 1922            |
| 5   | Latvia                                 | Independent country                            | 18.11.1918       | 1922/1991     | 1991            |
| 6   | Argentina                              | Independent country                            | 09.07.1816       | 1923          | 1923            |
| 7   | Mexico                                 | Independent country                            | 24.02.1821       | 1923          | 1923            |
| 8   | Uruguay                                | Independent country                            | 25.08.1925       | 1923          | 1923            |
| 9   | Bulgaria                               | Independent country                            | 05.10.1908       | 1923          | 1924            |
| 10  | Estonia                                | Independent country                            | 24.02.1918       | 1923/1991     | 1991            |
| 11  | Lithuania                              | Independent country                            | 16.02.1918       | 1924/1991     | 1991            |
| 12  | Peru                                   | Independent country                            | 28.07.1921       | 1924          | 1936            |
| 13  | Cuba                                   | USA Protectorate                               | 1902             | 1926          | 1954            |
| 14  | India                                  | British Colony                                 | 15.08.1947       | 1927          | 1927            |
| 15  | Malta                                  | British Colony                                 | 23.12.1974       | 1928          | 1936            |
| 16  | Dutch Antilles                         | Dutch Colony                                   | Autonomy         | 1931          | 1931            |
| 17  | Bolivia                                | Independent country                            | 06.08.1925       | 1932          | 1936            |
| 18  | Palestine (Israel)                     | British Mandate                                | 14.05.1948       | 1933          | 1952            |
| 19  | Chile                                  | Independent country                            | 12.02.1812       | 1934          | 1934            |
| 20  | Panama                                 | Independent country                            | 03.11.1903       | 1934          | 1947            |
| 21  | Southern Rhodesia**                    | British Colony                                 | 18.04.1980       | 1934          | 1959/1980       |
| 22  | Afganistan                             | Independent country                            | 18.02.1919       | 1935          | 1936            |
| 23  | Bermuda                                | British Colony                                 | Autonomy         | 1935          | 1936            |
| 24  | Guyana                                 | Independent country                            | 26.05.1966       | 1935          | 1948            |
| 25  | Lichtenstein                           | Independent country                            | 1866             | 1935          | 1935            |
| 26  | Venezuela                              | Independent country                            | 05.07.1811       | 1935          | 1935            |
| 27  | Colombia                               | Independent country                            | 20.07.1810       | 1936          | 1939            |
| 28  | Jamaica                                | British Colony                                 | 06.08.1962       | 1936          | 1936            |
| 29  | Ceylon***                              | British Colony                                 | 04.02.1948       | 1937          | 1937            |

\* Yugoslavia from 1929

\*\* Zimbabwe from 1980

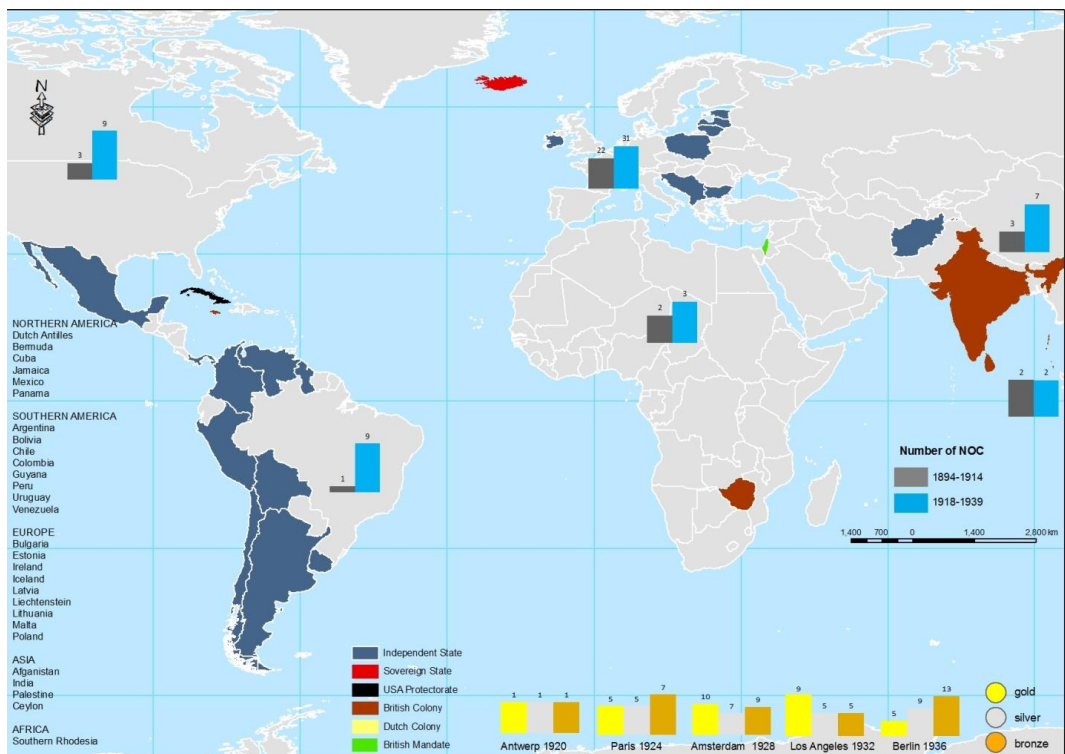
\*\*\* Sri Lanka from 1972

By studying historical (Ravasz, 2000), geographical political works (Lacoste, 1995) as well as works depicting the Olympic movement between 1918-1924 (Bucur-Ionescu et al., 2002), we find, in many cases, a direct relationship



between the alteration of the political map of the world and the accession of new members to the International Olympic Committee (Stauffer, 1999). Out of the twelve new members of the Olympic movement, six were national Olympic Committees formed in countries that have won their state independence immediately after World War I - Poland, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Ireland, Latvia, Estonia and Lithuania. Iceland also joined, declaring its state independence in 1918, but as a personal union with Denmark. The other five new members were National Olympic Committees of the countries that have achieved independence before 1918 - Argentina, Mexico, Uruguay, Peru and Bulgaria (4. National Olympic Committee).

An interesting aspect of this period was represented by the national Olympic committees which, before the First World War, joined the Olympic movement but were protectorates, Monaco, autonomous regions within empires, Finland, hereditary areas Bohemia, personal unions, Norway and after 1918 declared independence and became independent states (4. National Olympic Committee).



**Figure 1.** Olympic Movement between between 1918-1940.  
New Territories and their impact on Olympic Games

### 1925 - 1939

In this period, the Olympic movement, true to the principles contained in the chart, not allowing any interference, any commercial, political or other pressures, and fighting against all forms of social, religious, gender or race discrimination tried to adopt equidistant positions, keeping away from partisanship and government interests (Olympic Charter, 2014).

Between 1925 and 1939, the International Olympic Committee, in its efforts to meet the principle of universality, encouraged the constitution, accession and recognition of new National Olympic Committees: Bolivia, Cuba, Chile, Panama, Afghanistan, Liechtenstein, Venezuela and Colombia.

The International Olympic Committee has proved to be one of the most democratic international organizations at the time. Among its members, along with national Olympic committees that operated in independent countries, were accepted some who were active in the territories or regions that were not sovereign. As an expression meant to change the optics of colonial powers over the relationship with the territories under their control, especially the UK and the Netherlands. Thus, during this period the Olympic family included national Olympic committees from territories under colonial rule: Netherlands Antilles, Bermuda, British Guyana, India, Palestine, Jamaica, Malta, Ceylon and Southern Rhodesia (5. List of NOCs by recognition date).

Although efforts have been made in order to put into practice the principles of the President of the United States, Thomas Woodrow Wilson, which proclaimed the right of nations to self-determination, no noticeable changes took place in the territories under colonial dominion. Exceptions were the territories that were part of the Ottoman Empire and the former German colonies. On most of them, at the proposal of the Prime Minister of South Africa, Christiaan Smuts, was established a system of international mandates. This institution has brought changes in the structure of colonial empires (Bolintineanu and Malița, 1970) and relations of these territories with the Olympic movement (4. National Olympic Committee).

Following the Imperial Conference from London in 1923, which stated the right of dominions to conclude agreements and separate treaties with other countries on an equal footing, to join international organizations, following the adoption of the Balfour Declaration in 1926 as a result of the entry into force of the Statute of Westminster 1931, the United Kingdom and Britain's dominions agreed that "are equal in status, not subordinated in any way to one another in any aspect of their domestic or foreign policy, although joined by their common loyalty towards the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations (6. Commonwealth of Nations, 7. Member states of the Commonwealth of Nations). Following these changes, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, Ireland and Newfoundland have a more active presence in the Olympic movement, reflected by the participation in the Olympic Games.

The distribution of the new members by geographic area was 34.48% in Europe, 27.58% in South America, 20.68% in North America, 13.79% in Asia and 3.44% in Africa. An analysis of the status of the countries or territories in which the new national Olympic committees activated showed that 41.39% were operating in countries that have gained independence sooner, 24.13% in newly independent states emerged after the First World War world 34.48% in colonies or autonomous territories under warrant (4. National Olympic Committee).

Following the accession of new national committees, there have been a number of changes in their geographical distribution, thus achieving a better distribution from this point of this view. The percentage of Europe dropped from 66.66% to 50.81%. The National Olympic Committees in North America increased from 9.09% to 14.75%. The highest increase occurred at the level of South America, whose National Olympic Committees have come to represent

14.75% versus 3.03% in the period before 1914. The National Olympic Committees of Asia accounted for 11.47% of all the members of the Olympic movement in the interwar period. For Oceania there were changes in terms of the number of national Olympic committees that adhered to the Olympic family.

**Table 2.** Comparison of the distribution of National Olympic Committees on continents, 1894-1914 and 1918-1939

| Period    | Europe |       | Northern America |       | Sothern America |       | Asia |       | Africa |      | Oceania |      |
|-----------|--------|-------|------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|------|-------|--------|------|---------|------|
|           | No.    | %     | No.              | %     | No.             | %     | No.  | %     | No.    | %    | No.     | %    |
| 1894-1914 | 22     | 66,66 | 3                | 9,09  | 1               | 3,03  | 3    | 9,09  | 2      | 6,06 | 2       | 6,06 |
| 1918-1939 | 31     | 50,81 | 9                | 14,75 | 9               | 14,75 | 7    | 11,47 | 3      | 4,91 | 2       | 3,27 |

**Table 3.** The ratio of the new National Olympic Committees that adhered to the Olympics in the interwar period

| Olympic Games Edition   | 1920  | 1924  | 1928  | 1932  | 1936  |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| % new NOC attendance    | 17,24 | 29,54 | 34,78 | 27,02 | 34,69 |
| % medals won my new NOC | 0,67  | 4,49  | 7,95  | 5,49  | 6,95  |

If the number of new members in terms of percentage has registered a significant growth, 41,54%, the contribution of these national committees to achieving performances translated into medals has been lower. The athletes in the new twenty-nine national committees have managed to win only 92 medals, 4.88% of the one thousand eight hundred eighty-two attributed to the five editions of the Olympic Games held in the interwar period (Bucur et al, 2002).

**Table 4.** Medals won by the new National Olympic Committees at the Olympics between 1920-1936  
(Source: Bucur et al, 2002)

| Medals | Olympic Games |      |             |      |                 |      |                   |      |              |       |
|--------|---------------|------|-------------|------|-----------------|------|-------------------|------|--------------|-------|
|        | Antwerp, 1920 |      | Paris, 1924 |      | Amsterdam, 1928 |      | Los Angeles, 1932 |      | Berlin, 1936 |       |
|        | Nr.           | %    | Nr.         | %    | Nr.             | %    | Nr.               | %    | Nr.          | %     |
| Gold   | 1             | 0,63 | 5           | 3,96 | 10              | 9,09 | 9                 | 7,75 | 5            | 3,84  |
| Silver | 1             | 0,67 | 5           | 3,96 | 7               | 6,48 | 5                 | 4,31 | 9            | 7,03  |
| Bronze | 1             | 0,72 | 7           | 5,55 | 9               | 8,25 | 5                 | 4,38 | 13           | 10,00 |
| Total  | 3             | 0,67 | 17          | 4,49 | 26              | 7,95 | 19                | 5,49 | 27           | 6,95  |

## OTHER DEVELOPMENTS

Under the influence of the changes that have occurred internationally, at the session of the International Olympic Committee in Rome, 7 to 12 April 1923, at the initiative of Pierre de Coubertin, the agenda also focused on the possibility of organizing under the auspices of Olympic large-scale regional competitions, nominated All-Africa Games (1. All-Africa Games). A separate decision was taken, establishing that the organization of the first edition of this competition in 1925 in Algiers, and the next, in 1927, in Alexandria. Their organization was attributed to the French, Italian and Spanish colonial authorities (2. Afrikai Játékhok). The Moroccan Crisis, the revolt led by Abd el-Kimarif, and a series of disputes between the colonial powers led to their postponement and subsequently to their cancelation (Mayer, 1960).

In the 1930s, the totalitarian regims, the fascist Germany in particular, have used the Olympic movement for political purposes as a means of propaganda to promote their ideology. It was common practice to use the results of competitors

in the respective countries at the Olympic Games and other international competitions for political purposes (Riall, 2004). These practices were more harmful because despite the warnings that Germany could use the Olympic movement, the events of the Olympic Games for propaganda and legitimization of ideas about the superiority of the Aryan race, the Olympic movement has failed to respond promptly and appropriately (Wellwchinsky, 1996).

The annexation of certain territories, the deterioration of relations between some countries, the radicalization of certain representatives of the Olympic Movement in their respective countries, the military interventions have led to the outbreak of World War II and, as a consequence, to the reprogramming of the Olympic Games from 1940 and finally, to their cancelation because of the armed conflicts (Wellwchinsky, 1996).

### **CONCLUSION**

The Proclamation of the nation's right to self-determination and the political actions for providing mutual guarantees of political and territorial independence for the states has helped the Olympic movement in its efforts to achieve one of its principles, the universality.

The changes appeared in the relations between the countries of the world, the declaration of independence of seven states, the degree of autonomy reached by ten territories and the changes that appeared in the relationship between the colonial powers and the dominions within the British Empire contributed to the facilitation of the accession and participation of twenty-nine new members to the Olympic movement.

Most of the new members, 41.39% came from countries that were independent before 1914.

Seven countries, 24.18%, National Olympic Committees who joined the Olympic movement in this period were established in countries emerging on the world map after the First World War.

The openness of the Olympic movement manifested itself by admitting into its ranks six National Olympic Committees - Malta, Ceylon, Guyana, India, Jamaica and Southern Rhodesia - that operated in colonies and four National Olympic Committees - Iceland, Netherlands Antilles, Bermuda and Israel - of autonomous regions or under warrant.

From a quantitative point of view the increase in the number of the new members was significant, 41.54%, but their contribution to winning medals at the five editions of the Olympic Games in the period 1920-1936 was only of 4.88% of all medals awarded.

The reminiscences of the war that just ended, the nature of the relations between the states have led to a series of situations that contravened the Olympic principles. Athletes belonging to National Olympic committees from Germany, Austria, Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria were not invited to participate in the 1920 Antwerp Olympics. At the Olympic Games in Paris, 1924 the German athletes could not participate because the organizers augmented that they cannot ensure their security.

The efforts made by certain powers to isolate Soviet Russia and the rigid position of the authorities of this country in relation to the International Olympic Committee made the interwar Soviet Union to be outside the Olympic movement.

The use, especially in Germany, of Olympic tournaments and sport results as a means of ideological propaganda, as a way to promote political ideas, have

generated a mingled period, especially in regards to the right to organize and conduct the Berlin 1936 Olympics.

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## THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF ITALIAN COMPANIES: A GEOGRAPHICAL PERSPECTIVE

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**Abstract:** In an increasingly globalized economic environment, businesses wishing to operate in foreign markets must be familiar with the cultural context of the host country, its rules and the rules of entry. Cultural shock between subjects with very different beliefs and values can lead to costly failures. The culture is therefore one of the key aspects to consider in the internationalization strategies. In fact, if cultural difference is well-managed can lead to innovative business practices and sustainable sources of competitive advantage in the opposite case the failure of the operation with the entire business consequences. In the light of contemporary social events, economic and political, the study of Islamic cultural variable for entry of Italian companies in the countries of the southern Mediterranean is a necessary condition to avoid the bankruptcy of any type of commercial operation and the more of the operations direct investment on site.

**Key words:** investment, Egypt, Italian companies

\* \* \* \* \*

### INTRODUCTION

The cross-border M & A and greenfield investments nature represent a widely used mode in the years to operate in Egypt. Egypt has long been a destination for investments from abroad because of its natural resources and geographical location. Policies to support investments came to fruition in tax breaks and accessibility of ports from both side of the Mediterranean from the Red Sea. The flow of direct Italian investments to Egypt has relied primarily on a series of measures introduced by the Government relating to the start-up procedures, the tax reform, and the rules relating to the stability of the currency, by measures to reduce the bureaucracy, the establishment of a one stop shop can save time in setting up a business and the establishment of Special Economic zones, Franche, NUC and Technology Parks. However, the difficulties of accreditation from the local market, due in part to the close cultural and partly to the explicit will of the government to protect the local economy, they push to prefer as a mode of less demanding as commercial agreements. Bureaucratic delays and gray areas in the local law lend themselves, in some

cases with the explicit will of the government, to attitudes that hinder foreign operators pushing them towards group forms with local operators in order to foster the growth of the Egyptian operator skills. Barriers to entry that can be identified in the political risk, the presence of many unresolved domestic problems, the lack of liquidity, the fixed exchange rate, difficulties in access to information, cumbersome bureaucracy and the many customs difficulties.

The risk of terrorism in the tourism sector threatens the Egyptian stability since 2004 (October 7, 2004, 7:30 April 2005). The various forms of repression and censorship, restriction of certain fundamental freedoms and the impossibility for the Egyptian people to elect their representatives are the main drivers of poor economic performance. Besides these two factors, the Italian embassy's commercial office in Egypt has highlighted the problem of poor liquidity and the fixed exchange rate that determine the lengthening of payment times and the risk of insolvency of the Egyptian companies. Other challenges they may face European investors in Egypt are related to the difficulties of access to information in Egypt. The contacts with the right people are in fact the only form of access to the most relevant information. It is recommended to contact the General Authority for Investments and Free Zones (GAFI) to obtain information about the characteristics and opportunities that arise in the various sectors of the productive system.

The state and administrative-bureaucratic Egyptian system is extremely complicated and complex. Overlapping rules, the Office of skills procedures are the daily realities they face economic operators. A further difficulty for Italian companies of any size in Egypt is the lack of coordination between the Authority which promotes investment (FATF) and the customs authority formally depend on the Ministry of Finance, but in fact are completely autonomous. In addition, cultural shock between bearers of different beliefs and values can lead to costly failures. The analysis of values, beliefs, customs and language of culturally distant geographic areas is a prerequisite, although not sufficient, the entrance into new countries. The culture is therefore one of the key aspects to consider in the internationalization strategies. In fact, if cultural difference is well-managed can lead to innovative business practices and sustainable sources of competitive advantage, otherwise the operation to fail with the entire business consequences. In the light of contemporary social events, economic and political, the study of Islamic cultural variable for entry of Italian companies in Egypt represents a necessary condition for the successful completion of any type of commercial operation.

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Culture is a collective mental programming, characterized by different levels of training of the process of programming. Individuals who do not have the same genes, but they received the same teachings and are subject to the same cultural norms may present values, ideas, behaviors largely common. Studies conducted by Hofstede (1980) and by scholars of Wharton published in the *Globe* on the cultural dimension common to all the Mediterranean countries in a single category called Arab world.

These studies consider as determining the basis of beliefs and values of the population of the Arab countries, the Islamic religion, which affects not only the religious life, but all aspects of social and economic life. Islam is the religion of commerce and business. In the Qur'an only a small part is about the religious

precepts to be observed, while the rest is dedicated to the social and economic behavior of individuals. According to the Sharia the property belongs to God and man is the possessor pro-tempore. If the owner makes a bad use, the community of believers can deprive him of that straight. Always according to the Moral Law, the income of an individual is to be divided into three parts: consumption, the zakat (tax Koranic) and investment. Equality and respect of the community represent an aspect of Islamic culture that creates many problems for businesses from other cultural contexts.

The clear separation from all non-Islamic cultures and the close connection between the spiritual and social life has led over the years to the affirmation of the principles of self-identity and self-categorization analysis and interaction with actors from different cultural contexts. It follows that the Islamic culture makes that Egypt has changed over time as the characteristics of a monolithic context closed to diversity which has partly broken the economic development potential.

The study of Islamic culture conducted by Hofstede (1980) has placed emphasis on the size of the high acceptance of power-distance, uncertainty rejection, individualism and masculinity orientation. As for the distance from power, Egypt prefers hierarchical bureaucracies, where the leaders are feared and respected and tend to have a paternalistic or authoritarian style, while the subordinates tend not to question the requests made to them. The measure power the degree to which individuals less powerful an organization accepts that power is distributed unequally inside. While the uncertainty waste is understood that so far as the members of an organization feel threatened by unknown situations. The Egyptian community has a low tolerance of uncertainty and minimize it adopts rules and very precise laws. From a managerial seen the Egyptian organizations refuse uncertainty, trying standardization and workplace safety. When the size of power-distance and uncertainty refusal combine, you accentuate the hierarchical bureaucracies, strong leaders emerge and confirm a change aversion on the part of local actors who become hostile to the acceptance of different cultures. According to Hofstede (2001) the relationship between the acceptance of the hierarchical distance and low uncertainty tolerance determines a strong aversion to change. The continued legitimacy of established power, in fact, merely the dominant culture to confront ideas other than their own, and in particular those of their leader.

Individualism, as opposed to collectivism, which measures the degree of interaction between individuals and between groups. Unlike the collectivist society where the relationships between the actors, in individualist societies are valued there was a resistance to have relations that may result in opportunistic behavior. In Egypt there was strong collectivist logic internal to the vertical group and a strong external individualism to the group. In other words, the individual grows in cohesive groups and numerous protective (like the family), founded on trust and obedience to the leader and is hostile to interactions with outside groups.

Finally, the degree of masculinity / femininity identifies patterns of behaviors and managerial styles. Egypt will highlight a very masculine culture that is highlighted in the status in the position, in wages. Women in Egypt are limited in their rights because of a strong religious influence. In the design of internationalization strategies of Italian companies in Egypt to consider cultural differences is a prerequisite for business success.



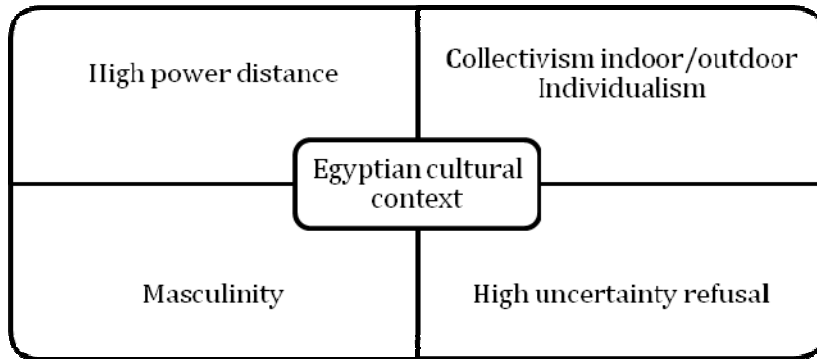


Figure 1. Egyptian cultural context  
(Source: Our elaborations after Hofstede 1980)

Investigations conducted by scholars of Wharton and rissunte in Globe confirm the cultural aspects highlighted by Hofstede stressing, however, that Egypt has a level of human-orientation (4.37), performance-orientation (4.27) and future-orientation (4.27) higher than in other Arab countries. Cultural and religious peculiarities make the extremely closed the Egyptian context to trade with foreign operators. Except for the large companies that for years have been accredited in the Egyptian market, such as Eni and Pirelli, for medium-sized enterprises it is very difficult to enter the Egyptian market except by local operators. Cultural closure are added also inconsistencies and gray areas in the legal system and bureaucracy that make it difficult to enter the country is not carried by local operators.

### CASE STUDY

The Tide is an Italian family-run company that deals with the production of aluminum and calcium oxide hydrate. The company's entry into Egypt was authorized by the GAFI (General Authority for Investment), for the production of aluminum sulphate. In 1991 the Director-General of the Tide, came into contact with the GOFI (General Authority for industrialization). On the basis of assurances from the local authorities in 1993, the company settled in Egypt, to produce Aluminium Sulphate. When the Tide partners decided to enter Egypt thought they could count on political stability and a latent market in strong growth. In addition, the Egyptian authorities gave full support to the Tide showing you want an industry with an international quality product. The GOFI and FATF supported the President of Tide ensuring the modification of the 1700/89 standard of Aluminium Sulphate, after the change of the drinking water standard. The only change to the standard, would lead to create fair conditions for the market, and make the product competitive and better quality, promising also an exemption from taxes for ten years to the Tide.

The presence of a monopolist in the market of aluminum sulfate, which sold a low-quality product, at a very high price represented a competitive challenge easy to win. In 1986, some Egyptian businessmen bought from Sweden an obsolete technology which generated an obsolete product. This technology was used for the production of liquid aluminum sulfate for the treatment of drinking water. The product purchased from Egypt, was considered dangerous by the Authority of the Swedish health that was conforming to standards used in Europe.

The same technology imported into Egypt in 1986, was considered dangerous even in Japan that same year they adjourned the standard on liquid aluminum sulphate for the treatment of drinking water. In Egypt, this obsolete technology has been used by the monopolist. The local monopolist Shabba Masreia treated the Aluminium Sulphate polielettrolisi through a process that accelerates the arrangement of the solid component of sulfate using polielettrolisi called particles remained in the production process and thus found them in the drinking water. The chemical reaction between the chlorine and polielettrolisi produces cyanide, a cancerous substance. So Shabba Masreia producing Aluminium Sulphate also produced poisonous materials. The product of the monopolist could not cross the borders of Egypt, because its quality was not required by the European and international market.

The Tide does not use solid aluminum sulphate, aluminum hydroxide, but according to the international quality standard "EN-878 Type1". This standard does not provide for the increase of pollutants in the water without resorting to polielettrolisi process. The competitive advantage of Tide is based on the use of recognized standards both on the European and international market at a lower price than that of the monopolist. Thanks to Tide the Egyptian market has had the opportunity to buy a better quality product at a lower price than that charged by the monopolist market.

To cope with the competitiveness of the local monopolist company was pushed to make a number of capital increases. In February 1994, the capital was brought \$ 1.2 million for an annual production of 20,000 tons of liquid aluminum sulphate. In December 2001, the share capital was increased to \$ 28 million. In August 2002 the production came to a halt, because the guarantees offered by the local authorities in the investment proposal were not kept. With the presence of Tide in the Egyptian market, the Egyptian treasury has saved more than \$ 175 million, while the company has lost everything they had invested. When Tide entered Egypt effected substantial increases in capital in order to increase production and to face a fair competition that would have been due to the increase of the standard 1700/89. During the stay Tide managed to reduce the price, however, such action was not appreciated by the monopolist. With the closure of the monopolist Tide, in the absence of competition, he began to raise the price while putting a low-quality product on the market.

In 2002 there was a change of the standard, which instead of being improved was worsened Tide managed to stabilize prices, and let the Egyptian treasury to save more than million dollars. The local authorities allowed the company was closed, because the partners could not cover the losses of the competition in an unfair market. The will of the Egyptian standards it was not brought to the international specification, and if this persists, there will always be the presence of only one manufacturer offering a product below the international standards, with the approval of the Egyptian authorities. The lack of enforcement of the Law Tender and the change of the Egyptian standards on product quality have, however, led to the closure of Tide

Political decisions have given preference to products with higher polluting matter content, adopting a standard that in European countries is not considered safe for human health. This decision led to the non-application of Article. 16 of the 89/98 law called Law Tender that the product with the best quality had to have the chance to get a better price. According to this law, the Tide companies would have to get a better price, given the better quality product

than the monopolist. The monopolist used in its local Kaolin process while Tide used aluminum hydroxide which is not produced in Egypt even charging of import charges.

The legislative inconsistency that favored the monopoly position has had effects on the balance of payments, on the environment and health. So the problem, analyzed by the president of Tide, is that these difficulties exist only by the will of the powerful groups to protect a status quo that allows you to create profit without taking into account the health of the population. These subjects, in fact, do not want to create the right conditions for small and medium-sized enterprises which produce international quality products to protect the economic interests of a few at the expense of the proper function of the free market.

The approval of the 1700/2003 standard in 2003 represented a clear manifestation of the political will not to support more Tide. The company's shareholders decided to then resort to all political authorities. Egyptian President remitted the issue to the Ministerial Committee for the Arrangement for Investment Disputes. The Committee stated that the Egyptian standards was mandatory and had to be respected. The General Council of the asserted ministries recognize only the Aluminium Sulphate produced with local raw materials, not recognizing at all the usefulness of Aluminium Sulphate produced by Tide mattered some materials from abroad. He was then asked to Tide of change of production lines by local standards. Even the Ministry of Industry and Technological Development Noting that Tide used as raw material aluminum hydroxide which carries a high final cost, in addition to a high cost for the technology supported the Shabba Masreia which used local raw materials.

The notes of the respondents state that the Ministries 1700/2003 was compatible with the American standard and in accordance with European specifications. But for Tide such claims were untrue because standards were established by official organizations, and the various specifications have only a technical validity for products that are usually available on the market. The FATF addressed to the Ministry of Agriculture and Land Recovery to promote the Technical Committee, after the Committee for Investment Disputes, should have led to study the problem submitted by Tide the study was never carried out, and it was instead decided to form a committee to evaluate the Tide goods.

The FATF has freed himself from responsibility by refusing to repay what has been considered mere risk of market failure and not the agreements to respect local authority. Tide in the case, in fact, the market risk is only a consequence of the inability of the FATF to live up to the agreements reached with the company at the time of its constitution. The FATF was the only one of the Tide reference point on the sole ground that just such an authority had proposed the project to the President of Tide for the production of aluminum sulphate with certain conditions. The FATF has denied taking any commitment to the company stating that the market risk is the responsibility of investors and not the country and then Egypt.

The Tide shareholders came to Egypt to take advantage of an investment opportunity, and then to deal with a commercial competition, and instead suffered losses due to a context characterized by the unreliability of the authorities, the lack of transparency in information, of freedom in the competition. Incorrect action, denial of truth, false allegations, the abuse of power and other improper operations suffered by Tide during his presence in

Egypt, were the work of authorities and various offices. The Tide shareholders have experienced at their expense that the Egyptian authorities continue to apply the law of power and not the power of the law as it should happen to increase investors.

To solve the problem Tide, the FATF has attempted to deny the president of Tide, permission to stay in Egypt. In late December 2006, the shareholders have been accused by the political authorities to blackmail the FATF to obtain an undue benefit. The president of Tide permission is recognized and because the promoter and largest shareholder of Tide and also out in force a law that foresee for those who are over sixty years and are resident in Egypt for more than 10 years the right to renewal of residency permit. The plan prepared by the FATF to expel from the country the President of the Tide did not succeed as the president of Tide was recognized license of residence, but he is not allowed to work.

In the absence of dialogue with the authorities, the shareholders of Tide decided to publish their advertisements. What she led him to do what he was intending to convince the FATF and the Egyptian political arena Authority that they had been subject to unfair treatment and was properly re-examine everything from the point of view of investors again once again, in as the promise was not kept.

President of Tide was subsequently informed by the Italian Ministry for Foreign Affairs, that the hope of seeing the answer to the question has come to an end because the Egyptian authorities believe that the problem of Tide society is its inability to compete within the market Egyptian, is a problem only due to commercial reasons and there is no involvement of the country. So for the same company if the Authority may wish to resume production but with the aim of exporting to foreign market and not the local design, the possibility of a sale or start of legal liquidation procedures.

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## THE EXPANSION OF THE RITZ-CARLTON® ON FOREIGN MARKETS

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**Abstract:** The spreading of globalization drives the companies' pursuit to expand on foreign markets for various reasons. In this paper it will be analysed the expansion on non-US markets of the Ritz-Carlton®, a hotel company with tradition, being known for its services quality. The analysis takes into consideration the opening year of the hotels in the Latin American, European, Middle Eastern, Central and South Asian and Asia-Pacific market, trying to correlate the expansion on certain areas and locations with the American foreign policy regarding those regions, one of the essential factors being the improvement and development of economic ties which led to an interdependence between the main actors of the current international affairs arena. Under these circumstances, there were created favourable environments for the hotel to expand on foreign markets. Last but not least, by serving international business people conducting their affairs worldwide and contributing in tightening the economic relations among countries, such a hotel chain is indirectly part of the economic and soft power of a country.

**Key words:** business tourism, economic power, international tourism, investment,

\* \* \* \* \*

### INTRODUCTION

The Ritz-Carlton® is a 5-stars hotel worldwide known for its quality of services that is owned since 1998 by The Marriot International. Its activity addresses tourists with a high income or whose expenditures during their sejour are paid by corporations, operating in the business tourism sector which is currently expanding faster than any other sectors of tourism. The term tourist is defined by the United Nations World Tourism Organization as "*a temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the country visited with the purpose of whose journey can be classified under one of the following headings: a) leisure, recreation, holiday, health, study, religion or sport; and b) business, family, mission, or meeting*" (Edgell et al., 2008, p. 1). The international market analyzed on this paper is the one characterized by tourists from the second category of the definition, their purpose to travel being: business, mission or meeting.

After the Second World War the trend of international tourism switched towards mass tourism, not only the aristocracy and the very rich people being able to do tourism but also the masses, the aristocracy being more often replaced by the modern business men who started to form an important market for the hospitality industry. To meet their needs the hotels had to keep their high standards and to try to offer them services as personalized as possible (Page, 2009).

Business hotels have no problem because of seasonality; their clientele can afford higher room rates, consuming also more on food and beverages on the spot. The most practiced methods of marketing are the loyalty programmes, hotels offering corporate rates to their usual costumers (Clarke & Chen, 2007).

The business traveller is a segment of tourists who provides a higher income even if they get a corporate rate. Additionally, they provide extra income to the businesses by making use of the annexed services offered by the hotel (restaurant, business centre facilities, and health facilities) (Kotler et al., 2010).

The methods of expanding on foreign markets vary from country to country and they can be: franchising, licensing other companies offering them the right to use the company's logo, name and trademark, building new properties on these countries, through mergers with local hotels or loan management agreements (Page, 2009).

With the expansion of the globalization phenomena with all its components: internationalization, liberalization, universalization, Westernization or modernization and de-territorialisation, it becomes easier and easier for the international organizations to expand on other markets (Scholte, J. cited in Reisinger, 2009). The tourism sector makes no exception (Herman et al., 2016a).

Tourism like any other economic activities creates economic dependencies between countries hence it influences the foreign policy towards specific countries. Furthermore, it is correlated with peace, it is a generator of peace because of the dependencies created by engaging a series of different sectors which need to be developed for tourism to can grow, but also needs a peaceful climate to develop and grow at its highest potential (Edgell et al., 2008; Page, 2009).

As a tool for building ties, tourism contributes to the cooperation between states by developing international tourism policies and encouraging understanding of cultures; as well as cordial relations between countries and cooperation. Tourism industry is a complex international phenomena encompassing societies, cultures, environments and sustainable development, economies, states, and their foreign policy initiatives (Edgell et al., 2008; Herman et al., 2016b).

## **METHODOLOGY**

The first step was to choose a hotel company based in the United States specialised chiefly in offering accommodation to international bussines people. Analyzing the literature regarding business tourism and the expansion on foreign markets were drawn the major lines of expansion and the map; describing the expansion in 3 different steps: before 2000, between 2000-2010 and after 2010. Moreover, it was tried to explain the reasons of opening a hotel in this locations linking it to the spread of the United States soft and economic power. The data used in analysing the expansion on foreign markets consists: textual references, graphs and numerical data (Baías et al., 2010; Herman et al., 2016a; Ilieş et al., 2016). On mapping the punctual expansion of the Ritz-

Carlton® it was used the background of the World Topographic Map on which was superimposed the textual, numerical and graphical information (figure 1). The processing was done in ArcMap 10.3.

### **THE EXPANSION ON FOREIGN MARKETS OF THE RITZ-CARLTON®**

The brand was created by Caesar Ritz, a Swiss born in 1850 in Niederwald, Switzerland. At the age of 19 he became the manager of a restaurant in Paris before previously being fired from various jobs in the hospitality industry. Soon after, he started to work as an assistant waiter at Voisin where was taught the art of food serving and polished his skills in delivering qualitative services to the costumers (for example in 1871 due to a food scarcity in Paris, the restaurant bought meat of the elephants slaughtered by the local zoo and served it to their high class guests who were impressed). After revitalizing two hotels, one in Luzern and the other one in London, he decided to open his own hotel and succeeded in doing so in 1898, opening the Ritz Hotel in Paris. At the beginning of the 1900s, he built the Carlton Hotel in London and also opened the Ritz Hotel in Piccadilly, creating also Ritz-Carlton Management Cooperation which was composed by financiers and hoteliers (Michelli, 2008).

The first hotel opened under the aegis of The Ritz-Carlton Management Cooperation was in 1910, in New York, an American investor, Robert Goelet paying 5000 \$ to use the name. In the 1920s were opened in the same manner The Ritz-Carlton Philadelphia, Montreal, Atlantic City and Boston, the hotel expanding its business on the North American continent. The Great Depression of 1929 and the WWII affected the business, and the hotels lost its clientele, facing financial difficulties. After the end of WWII only 3 hotels survived: the Ritz-Carlton Boston, Paris and London. The last two hotels started to adapt to the new economic climate and its main clientele became represented by international business men, especially from the U.S., replacing the aristocracy from the previous period (Michelli, 2008).

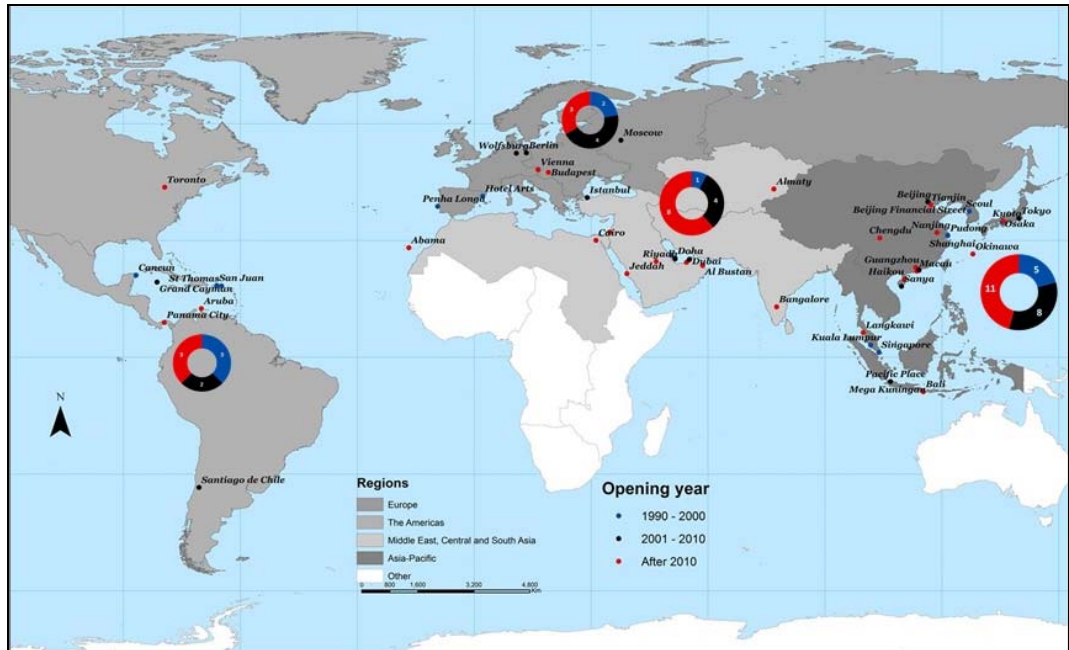
In 1983, William B. Johnson bought the rights to the name of the Ritz-Carlton Boston, restored it and setted up the Ritz Carlton Hotel Company as known in our days, with headquarters in Atlanta. He built partnerships with other investors and started the expansion of the hotel on foreign markets starting the 1990s. The Company expanded slowly until the beginning of the new century when 49% of stocks were bought by Marriot International and after moving the headquarters from Atlanta to Washington D.C. followed new plans of expansion through different means: construction of new hotels, franchising, loan management, or investment partnerships (Michelli, 2008).

One of the key drivers of the expansion on the other markets is the international connectivity between the USA and the other markets, which reflects the foreign policy of the USA. The connectivity is driven either by international trade and production, international labour migration, shared culture and values, and the absence of such connectivity can affect negatively the tourist flows, hence the incomes of those hotels (Cooper & Hall, 2008).

Marriot International manages more than 1300 hotels of different brands which provided them the access on new markets such as the Chinese, Russian, Japanese, Indian, or Turkish market for example. The Ritz-Carlton is one example, being a hotel for international businessmen and providing access to international markets with an intense economic activity (Reisinger, 2009).



The Ritz Carlton is linked to luxury travel being mainly for wealthy tourists or corporate travellers, but some locations can be also for the ones looking for a lifestyle trip or tourists who choose to travel only occasionally, when they do it choosing exquisite destinations (Page, 2009).



**Figure 1.** The expansion of the Ritz-Carlton®  
(Data source: The Ritz-Carlton website: [www.ritzcarlton.com](http://www.ritzcarlton.com), 2016)

### The expansion on the Latin American and Canadian market

Latin America and Canada are markets where the hotel company expanded in the first phase, in the period 1990 - 2000. Even though their first hotel on a foreign market was not set in this area, most of the hotels present nowadays here are from the last century or have been built in the first decade of the new century.

In Canada and Mexico, after all the countries were part of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), starting 1992, the trade was liberalized so that the United States started to invest in the neighbouring countries. Even though they are important economic partners for the United States, the Ritz-Carlton is present only in one location in each of those countries: Toronto and Cancun, with plans to open a new hotel in Ciudad de Mexico.

Central America and the Caribbean, the backyard of the US hosts a number of 4 hotels either in luxury destinations or in fiscal paradises: Cayman Islands, Aruba in the Dutch Antilles, the Virgin Islands, and Puerto Rico, the last two being territory of the United States of America.

In South America there is only one the Ritz-Carlton, in Santiago de Chile, Chile being known since the Cold War as the neo-liberal experiment of the Chicago School, having close economic relations with the United States.

**The expansion on the European market**

Even though it is present on the European market since the 1990s when they opened in Sintra a luxury destinations due to the tradition of luxury tourism practiced in this area of Portugal; and by operating Hotel Arts, Barcelona under its aegis, the Ritz-Carlton started to expand punctually only in the second part of the 2000s and mostly in locations with a high number of tourists in general, not only for business purposes.

One of the few locations chosen for opening a hotel to serve as an accommodation point for the international business people travelling to it, and mainly for the U.S. business people is Wolfsburg, Germany, actually being the first Ritz-Carlton opened in Germany; not one of the main touristic attractions of Europe, but the place where Volkswagen and other corporations have their headquarters.

The other locations such as: Vienna, Moscow, Berlin, or Istanbul have a mixed role; the high number of visitors attracted by those cities, but also because of the investments held by the US multinationals in these locations.

**The expansion on the Middle Eastern, Central Asian and South Asian market**

The African, Central Asian, and South Asian market is only a recent target for the hotel, having only 3 hotels opened starting from 2013: in Almaty, Kazakhstan, in Bangalore, India and in Cairo, Egypt.

The Middle Eastern market is attractive because of the businesses with oil in the area and the important financial resources of these countries, especially of those Gulf Monarchies. The first hotel was opened in 1995, in Manama, Bahrain, subsequently being followed by other hotels in the period 2000-2010 in countries with strong economic and diplomatic ties with the United States: Saudi Arabia, Qatar, United Arab Emirates, and Oman.

**The expansion on the Asia-Pacific market**

International tourism is dominated by western European destination while the market of the Asia-Pacific region is growing faster than the European or North American destinations. The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation has an working group on tourism which worked on a set of specific policy goals to enhance employability, investment and development in tourism, one of these goals being to remove the obstacles to the expansion of tourism business and investment (Edgell et al., 2008).

The Chinese market is the most representative of the South-East Asian economies, the hotel group opening already 11 hotels, especially on the Chinese coast, starting with the Ritz-Carlton Shanghai in 1991 and developing intensely after 2000, with new locations in emerging Chinese cities after 2010.

In Japan, one of the main economic partners and military allies of the United States, there are 4 hotels, the first one being opened in 1997 in Osaka, and with the notable presence on the island of Okinawa.

The other emerging South-Asian economies are represented as well, in the last 25 years the hotel expanding on the Malaysian, Indonesian, Singaporean and South Korean market.

## CONCLUSIONS

Analysing the spatial and temporal expansion of the hotel on foreign markets we have drawn the following conclusions based on the locations chosen for opening a new hotel in the set periods of time:

- before 2000 the company expanded on all the analysed regions, opening a number of 11 hotels from the total of 54, 6 of them being located in South-East Asia, and the rest scattered across the globe in touristic destinations such as: Barcelona, Sintra, Cancun, San Juan, and the Virgin Islands.

- in the period 2001-2010 there were opened a number of 18 hotels, 8 of them in the same emerging South-East Asian economies, noting the increased number of hotels in Europe located in economic hubs such as: Wolfsburg, Istanbul, Berlin, and Moscow. In the same period, in the Gulf region there were opened hotels in the United Arab Emirates and Qatar.

- after 2010 a number of 25 hotels were inaugurated or have been projected to open in various locations following the same patterns, but at a larger scale: more hotels opened on the Eastern shore of China and in the Asian Tigers; also in the Middle East a number of 6 hotels were opened in Saudi Arabia, Oman, Egypt, United Arab Emirates, and Israel; and the company started to be present in Central Asia (Kazakhstan) and India (Bangalore) as well.

It could be noticed the incremental expansion on the foreign markets from 1990 when the hotel became Ritz Carlton Hotel Company. In each of the analysed periods of time the company focused on the South-East Asia market; the fastest growing region, being the one towards which the American foreign policy pivoted in the last 30 years.

While the Gulf region was another strategic investment poll, after 2010 being opened a number of 8 hotels, due to the consolidated position of the United States and the US based foreign companies in the region; the other traditional regions such as Latin America and Europe have developed in a more balanced manner and the driving forces were a combination of high touristic capital and business opportunities.

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## EUROSCEPTISIM, AN INCREASING PHENOMENON AMONG THE MEMBER STATES. ROAD TO BREXIT

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**Abstract:** In the context of a “shaking Europe”, the Eurosceptic voice sounds more loudly than ever. Known as a highly Eurosceptic member, the United Kingdom, through the lens of the rising political power of the UK Independence Party (UKIP), doubts the European Union’s plan regarding a strong and prosperous Union and it sees itself better off out of the Union after more than 40 years of rather tensed membership. This article tackles the UK’s Euroscepticism in the light of the UK-EU membership referendum in 2016, also known as Brexit.

**Key words:** euroscepticism, membership, United Kingdom, Brexit, member states

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### THE RISE OF EUROSCEPTICISM IN EUROPE

The term “Euroscepticism” first appeared on November 11, 1985, in the British newspaper, *The Times*, to describe a skeptic opposition towards the European Union and its policies. (Apodaca, 2015)

Once seen as a British virus, Euroscepticism is now spread all over the continent. Being associated with the idea of disagreement regarding the goals of the European project, radical Eurosceptics are frightened not only of the economic effects concerning EU enlargement, but also to a great extent, of national sovereignty for the states that decide or have decided to enter the European area. (Condruz-Băcescu, 2014)

The causes of Euroscepticism and the groups of Eurosceptics are very diverse. Firstly, there are those citizens who are inherently skeptical of the EU, perceiving it as a threat to national self-determination and a violation of state sovereignty. In the United Kingdom, a lot of people seem to belong to this group, perceiving continental Europe as something else, both culturally and historically.

Secondly, a common voiced concern is the loss of identity as the fear of pan-European identity suffocating the national identity seems to frighten people. Linked to the loss of identity is the free of labor and the immigration policies of the old member states – new immigrants and laborers from Eastern Europe will impact the Dutch, French and German cultural traditions.

Thirdly, the groups of disappointed citizens from the new member states that hoped to see the benefits of EU subsidies quickly, and who imagined a rapid leap towards Western European standards of wealth.

Moreover, in the last decade, namely since the first signs of economic instability in 2008, trust in the European Union has fallen dramatically, dividing the European countries between debtors and creditors, depending on the country of origin.

Citizens in creditor countries have become more and more repellant to taking responsibility for the debts of others without having mechanisms for controlling their spending. With the fiscal compact and demands by the European Central Bank for comprehensive domestic reforms, Eurocrats have seemingly crossed many of the red lines of national sovereignty, extending their reach way beyond food safety standards to exert control over pensions, taxes, salaries, the labor market and public jobs. These areas go to the heart of welfare states and national identities. (Torreblanca and Leonard, 2013)

The depth of the economic crisis, exemplified by Greece, has brought instability and it seriously threatens the survival of the EU. The insecurity felt in the European Union is a problem that indeed affects its image. Within the European Union, Europeans' fears are linked to the changes in unemployment and general economic insecurity. Europeans feel victims of unfair policies, and the responsibility of this situation belongs to their state union. (Condruz-Băcescu, 2014).

All these struggles, together with the lack of visible improvements caused a massive decline of confidence in the European Union as an institution and its ability to achieve objectives.

This Eurosceptic portrait has been confirmed following the 2014 European Parliament elections. The collective success of the UK Independence Party (hereinafter as UKIP) and of other Eurosceptic and anti-establishment parties have heightened the concerns about the future of the European integration and, implicitly, of the European Union. The Economist wrote an article with the headline "The Eurosceptic Union" (The Economist, 2014) on that the anti-establishment parties had received a quarter of the vote or more in member states such as Greece, Italy, Denmark and France, as well as Britain. Among the parties of Eurosceptic grouping there are the aforementioned UKIP, *Front National* (in France), *Lega Nord* (in Italy) and *Golden Dawn* (in Greece).

In the case of the United Kingdom – the country to be analyzed in this article, it stands as a world power and, as such, it continues to look for recognition while maintaining a distinct identity and status, which includes a special relationship with the United States. Eurosceptic views in the UK question and reject the idea of a political union among the member states of the EU and they stand against further political integration. Eurosceptic views defend the exceptional and unique character of Britishness; this refers to the identity of the nation and its sense of forming a distinct community. In some instances, Euroscepticism is a response to "too much" diversity; an attempt to control political change, to preserve the past and protect a way of life that is fading away (Guibernau, 2016).

## **THE UK AS EUROSCEPTIC MEMBER**

### **Britishness Seen from Within and from Without**

World politics and international relations taught us that every country has a certain idea of its role in the world, an idea that shapes its identity and the way it sees itself in relation to other countries. There is no doubt that the historical epoch of the British Empire has significantly influenced the way the British political elite sees the position of the country in Europe. Throughout time, the British Empire had colonies on every continent and in all the oceans, which later on became independent. In the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, the British Commonwealth was created - a voluntary intergovernmental association mostly composed of the former colonies of the Empire. All of the subordinate territories are now independent states with sovereign governments, but they all more or less remain symbolically loyal to the British Crown. Hence, Britain shaped the history of the world for over three centuries, and it comes as no surprise that many British politicians and a large part of its population still feel somewhat superior to the other European countries.

Indeed, Britain's history has been very different to that of most continental powers. Its colonies, trade, investments and patterns of emigration and immigration have been focused on North and South America, Africa and Asia as much as on Europe. Although Britain has been involved in countless European wars, its history has been more oriented to other continents than that of any continental power. (Grant, 2008) This had an important impact on how UK perceives the Union, as the British historian Vernon Bogdanor points out "for centuries, we lived in splendid isolation, protected by the Navy and the Empire... Now, of course, that period of isolation has long gone, but perhaps it still retains some of its impact upon the British people, who do not want ties with the Continent." (Bogdanor, 2013)

The British have never been terribly popular members of the European Union. Long before they joined, many continentals thought them too different to be constructive members of what was then the European Economic Community (EEC). In January 1963, General de Gaulle held a press conference to set out his reasons for vetoing UK's application for membership. Some may still resonate today: "England in effect is insular, she is maritime, she is linked through her exchanges, her markets, her supply lines to the most diverse and often the most distant countries; she pursues essentially industrial and commercial activities, and only slight agricultural ones. She has in all her doings very marked and very original habits and traditions... In short, the nature, the structure, the very situation [conjuncture] that are England's differ profoundly from those of the continentals. What is to be done in order that England, as she lives, produces and trades, can be incorporated into the Common Market, as it has been conceived and as it functions?" (De Gaulle, 1963).

### **The UK's Rocky Relationship with Europe: A Short Incursion into History**

The formation of the European Union had its origins following the Second World War, in the desire to tie Europe's nations so closely together that war will no longer bring such damage on each other. Winston Churchill was the one who fully supported this idea, proposing for Europe "a structure under which it can dwell in peace, in safety and in freedom (...) a kind of United States of Europe". (Churchill, 1946)

Britain did not partake in the founding of the EU. The founding club of states established basic rules that cannot easily be changed, and thus members who join later will very often encounter difficulties to adapt to the rules already in place.

However, Britain had a couple of opportunities to participate, but it decided to stay on the sidelines. The first step towards creating a federal Europe was made in the 1950s, when negotiations over the creation of the European Coal and Steel Community began. The Labour Government of Clement Attlee was invited to take part but officially declined the offer. Later, when the ECSC was put in place, the six founding countries wanted to extend the common market for coal and steel into a general common market. In 1957, the Treaty of the European Community (also known as the Treaty of Rome) was signed, which led to the creation of the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community. This was a very important event in the formation of the modern European Community, but the Conservative Government of Anthony Eden did not recognize its importance and refused to sign the treaty.

Jean Monnet, one of the architects of the ECSC, said “I never understood why the British did not join. I came to the conclusion that it must have been because it was the price of victory – the illusion that you could maintain what you had, without change.” (Wilson, 2014)

In the aftermath of the treaty, the six EEC members flourished economically whereas Britain suffered continuous economic decline. In 1961, the Conservative Government, led by Harold Macmillan, launched the idea of opening negotiation for admission to the EU but it was vetoed by the French President Charles de Gaulle. He argued that their strong link to the USA as well as the British Commonwealth could hinder the British in their dedication to the EEC. In 1967, the Labour Government, led by Harold Wilson filed another application but the De Gaulle rejected it once again. Two years later, the new French President Georges Pompidou removed the veto and finally in 1973, the UK, led by the Europe-oriented Conservative Prime Minister Edward Heath, joined the EEC.

At the time, the Labour party was opposed to the EEC and promised to hold a referendum on withdrawal if they came into power. In 1975 the Labour Government, led by Harold Wilson, kept its word and held a referendum. However, in June 1975, 67% of voters agreed on continuing the membership in the EEC.

In 1979, Margaret Thatcher was appointed Prime Minister. The Iron Lady is often referred to as being Eurosceptic as she openly expressed her very negative attitude towards the EEC. The period of her service was marked by an increasing political isolation of Britain from Europe. She was ardently against complete economic, political and social integration. Her Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Geoffrey Howe, argued that Britain contributed much more to the European budget than the other countries. In response, in 1984 Margaret Thatcher’s government negotiated a rebate on the British contribution, and thus received some of its money back. The main reason for this was the fact that a great share of the European budget is spent on the Common Agricultural Policy and since farming does not represent a major sector in the UK economy, Britain felt that it benefited much less than other countries.

Moreover, for Margaret Thatcher, Britain was losing its independence and sovereignty by transferring the power of decision-making to Brussels. In her “Bruges Speech” in 1988, she stated that “to try to suppress nationhood and



concentrate power at the centre of a European conglomerate would be highly damaging and would jeopardize the objectives we seek to achieve (...) Working more closely together does not require power to be centralized in Brussels or decisions to be taken by an appointed bureaucracy.” (Thatcher, 1988)

However, Margaret Thatcher had been unable to stop Europe’s march towards political union, and was gone by the time the Maastricht Treaty was signed by her successor John Major in 1992. This involved huge transfers of power to the new European Union. Britain secured opt-outs from the single currency and the social policy chapter. But to the treaty’s critics – including many Tory rebels – it undermined the British tradition of the inviolable sovereignty of parliament. (Wilson, 2014)

### **The Rise of UKIP**

UKIP’s origins trace back to 1993, when Alan Sked established the Anti-Federalist League, which campaigned against the Treaty of Maastricht. Currently led by Nigel Farage, who has been an insider since the party’s foundation, it distinguishes itself as the British party calling simply and directly for UK withdrawal from the European Union. UKIP is situated on the center-right of the political spectrum, and the party states that it is a patriotic party. (Hope, 2014) Patriotism in this context, this should be understood as proudness of Britain and its current standing, and firmly believing in the country being better off without the EU. (Vuorinen, 2015)

UKIP’s success was not obtained overnight. Small parties, as it was the case of UKIP in the 1990s, have the habit of disintegrating into internal warfare or being wiped out by unexpected changes of the electoral system and political fashion. But UKIP managed to keep on its own track and defy the predictions of those who did not take them into consideration. (Hunt, 2014)

After many years in which UKIP almost did not matter on the British political stage, but with an increasing influence among its citizens year by year, the party managed to achieve its first seats from the European Parliament in 1999, when three Members of the European Parliament were elected. In 2004 EU-elections UKIP performed very well, as the party 12 seats (16% of the votes) from the European Parliament. In 2009, the party came second in the EU-elections in the UK winning 13 seats (16.5% of votes). On the following round in 2014, UKIP, against all odds, beat the current governmental parties, the Conservatives and Labour, winning 27.5% of votes. UKIP’s success has steadily grown, as time by time, the party has increased its number of seats in the European Parliament (Hunt, 2014). These electoral outcomes undeniably underline the “rise” of the party; consequently, UKIP is Britain’s most prosperous single-issue party.

Nowadays, most of the UKIP’s actions are largely centered on Nigel Farage, who is the most known figure of the party. In an interview conducted by Catherine Dalton, Farage is characterized as being polite, yet persuasive character. It seems that Farage’s dauntless style and personality bisect people, and he is either loved or hated (Dalton, 2013). His colorful and verbally rich speeches are made well known by the media: he has insulted German chancellor Angela Merkel saying that “she is incredibly cold. I always say – I agree this is a bit rude – but whatever you think of the public image of Merkel, in private she is even more miserable. I warm to more extrovert people.” (The Guardian, 2014) As concerns the former President of the European Council - Herman van Rompuy,

Farage declared that he “has the charisma of a damp rag and the appearance of a low-grade bank clerk.” (The Guardian, 2010) Farage’s comments in the media are generally rather witty and drastic, but it should arguably be seen as part of his public character.

Some of Farage’s comments on the EU are indeed very harsh. During a European Council meeting held in Strasbourg on November 24, 2010, Nigel Farage said that “we don’t want that flag. We don’t want the anthem. We don’t want this political class. We want the whole thing consigned to the dustbin of history.” He had also a few comments for the Eurocrats saying that “your obsession with creating this Euro state means that you’re happy to destroy democracy. You appear to be happy for millions and millions of people to be unemployed and to be poor. Untold millions must suffer so that your Euro dream can continue.” (Farage, 2010)

During the various occasions when they have the chance to speak, UKIP members actively highlight the EU-memberships costs to Britain, and offers alternatives as though what an independent Britain would look like. They argue that Britain would save £55 million of membership fees daily, if UK withdraws. UKIP manifestos feature a large variety of policies, but everything is centered on Euroscepticism. UKIP had come up in 2015 with tougher policies regarding various issues, three of them being considered as highly important: immigration, NHS (National Health Service) and the economy.

Immigration is seen by UKIP as being far too high, seeing that “seven million immigrants came to live in Britain under the last Labour government and another two million have arrived under the Tories” (UKIP, 2015a). UKIP demands that border control must be completely return to Britain, and immigrants entering the UK must be financially independent for five years. Within these five years, immigrants are not allowed to use the services of the private sector. For these reasons, UKIP promises to “set out in full how we would aim to reduce migration, guarantee border security, accommodate sensible numbers of foreign students, protect asylum seekers, and make sure new migrants do not place undue pressure on our NHS”. (The Telegraph, 2015) On the matters of social benefits and other civil assistance, these are to be awarded for British citizens only, or to people who have stayed in the UK for five or more consecutive years. Child benefits will only be paid for children who are UK-citizens, and live in the country for good.

These exacerbated tensions and pressures coming from UKIP has been felt by the ruling Conservatives, with Prime Minister David Cameron promising to renegotiate Britain’s role in Europe and hold an “in-out” referendum on EU membership in the next Parliament, if his party won the majority at the 2015 Parliamentary elections – which, against all expectations, he did. (Mason, 2014)

Later on, David Cameron has called for this (second) referendum on Britain’s membership of the EU to take place on June 23, 2016. The implications of this referendum – the UK outside the EU and the EU without UK – are to be presented in the next section of this article.

All things considered, UKIP nowadays portrays itself as a significant minor party with over 35,000 members (UKIP, 2015b). The rise of the party has been noteworthy, and UKIP can now safely be considered as a true, political force that can conveniently challenge the current governmental parties. The success of UKIP attracted broad attention, widely taken as evidence of a wave of public Euroscepticism across the continent.

## **BREXIT 2016: THE UK WITHOUT THE EU AND VICE VERSA**

As it is very difficult to predict how will the picture of the UK look like after a possible Brexit, the arguments of both sides – “remain” and “leave” – will be presented in this section. Several fields will be taken into consideration in order to depict this picture: trade, immigration, international influence and the identity conflict between British and European.

### **Trade**

The discussions on the UK trade with Europe and with other international actors are very diverse when it comes to perceive them through the lens of Brexit. On one side of the spectrum, there is the pro-Europe thinktank, the Centre for European Reform (CER) that says that on its own, the UK would have much less bargaining power than being part of the EU (CER, 2014), while on the other side, there is the Euro-sceptic Bruges Group saying that Britain will be able to negotiate with other international trade actors without being encumbered by the differing interests of other EU nations that often have different outlook to the UK (Myddelton, 2013).

The EU’s single market employs several tools to boost trade among EU countries. First, it eliminates tariffs on goods. Second, it establishes the right of companies and people to sell their goods, services or labor, or to invest in other member states. Third, it reduces the cost of potential exporters having to comply with 28 different national rules. Thus, the EU creates regulatory standards, and then requires all member states to allow goods that comply with those standards to be sold unhindered across the single market. (European Commission, 2012)

However, one of the chief reasons why UK wants to leave the EU is that it wants to conclude its own agreements with other international trade actors like China, Brazil, Japan and India, but the EU regulation hinders it to do so. CER writes that the EU has a “plethora” of foreign trade agreements with third countries and a complex system of unilateral trade preferences and if Britain leaves, it will not inherit the EU’s bilateral trade agreements; it will have to renegotiate trade agreements with non-European countries from scratch. Renegotiating these would be far from straightforward. The process would be time-consuming, leaving Britain’s exporters facing higher barriers to trade and uncertainty over market access, which would reduce investment (CER, 2014).

The Bruges Group is for the UK to leave the EU saying that less than 10% of the British economy is involved with trade with the EU yet 100% of the economy is hamstrung by excessive EU regulations which disproportionately harm small and medium sized enterprises (Myddelton, 2013). Outside of the EU, Britain can retake its seat on the World Trade Organization and negotiate according to its best interests instead of being represented by an EU trade commissioner who is currently from Belgium. Britain will then be able to negotiate without being encumbered by the differing interests of other EU nations that often have different outlook to the UK (Myddelton, 2013).

### **Immigration**

Immigration is a disputed political issue in the UK both because the costs and benefits are not distributed evenly and as perceptions have become disconnected with reality, partly due to hostile media coverage (Irwin, 2015).

The free movement of people – one of the “four freedoms” of goods, capital, services and labor – is a fundamental principle of the EU’s single market. Member states open their labor markets to immigrants, knowing that the others will do the same. However, since the EU’s enlargement to the East in 2004, many Britons feel that the reciprocal arrangement has broken down: free movement is no longer perceived to be an arrangement that works for the mutual benefit of both Britons and other Europeans. (CER, 2013)

UKIP wants to see a work permit system introduced, so that EU nationals would face the same visa restrictions as those from outside the EU, which it says would reduce migration numbers. This would create job opportunities for British workers and boost wages, as well as easing pressure on schools, hospitals and other public services.

According to CER, there are many high-skilled European immigrants in the UK, who raise British workers’ productivity and hence their wages. EU immigration is good for the public finances, as immigrants pay more in taxes than they receive in public spending. There are some costs that arise from higher demand for housing and public services, but current levels of immigration help Britain to deal with the costs of an ageing population, by replacing retiring workers and by raising more taxes to pay for health and pension costs. (CER, 2014)

If Britain left the EU, it would almost certainly reduce immigration in a period when demographic and economic changes make access to European labor a significant benefit. And it might endanger the residency rights of over one million Britons living on the continent. Ultimately, Britain must decide whether the economic benefits of free EU migration are a reason to stay in Europe.

### **International Influence**

The UK currently enjoys considerable influence both in and through the EU. In the event of Brexit, changes will be inevitable, affecting the impact the international influence the UK and the EU will have.

Language plays a fundamental role in influencing beyond one’s borders. The English language is the most commonly used language of EU institutions and in the event of Brexit it is likely that this will stay the case as English is so widely spoken and used internationally. Changing it to any other language would affect the influence the EU has on its global reach and external communication.

According to the Global Diplomatic Forum, 5% of all staff from EU institutions are British nationals, who are regarded as offering significant contribution especially to the European External Action Service. Brexit may result in loss of qualified talents for the EU institutions (Global Diplomatic Forum).

The UK has traditionally taken leadership (alongside France) in major EU negotiations and engagements with the international community, as seen with the Iranian nuclear deal and the war on terrorism. Brexit may affect the influence the EU has in major international events, given that at present there are underlying doubts and concerns over the coherence and efficiency of the European Common Foreign Affairs and Security Policy. With Brexit, the UK will lose the EU umbrella, affecting the significant leverage it has on the international scene. The UK may also lose France and Germany as major international partners in coordinating international policies (Global Diplomatic Forum).

### **Identity Conflict: British or European?**

For some Britons, the Brexit vote is not just a vote on economic issues or on immigration, but it goes deeper than this. Their problem is that of identity, which makes them question whether they are British or European.

For a great share of the British population, it is crystal clear that the direction in which the EU is heading is that of continuing centralization of power in the EU and away from the member states, that the Eurozone accelerates its moves towards being a single European Superstate (Fiske, 2016).

While further integration seems worrying to them, the part that troubles them the most about the European project is the repeated and continuing attempts to create a “European identity”. The Leave campaigners contest what they call the focus on indoctrinating children into a European identity. This indoctrination is, they say, a great deal of EU propaganda in schools with colorful cartoon books having been distributed to primary schools for several years, all of which promote the EU. Moreover, a legislation called “Learning EU at School” was even passed in the European Parliament (European Parliament, 2015).

The Brexiters perceive the proposals the EU is planning as frightening as it proposes to massively integrate the EU into the daily education of British children, with textbooks being rewritten to give more prominence to the EU and for children to be taught the “values on which EU integration is based”, with the aim for them to take an active interest in European Integration and to overcome Euroscepticism. Eurosceptics see this as an attempt to ensure that their children grow up feeling more European than they do British. Thus, the message of the Leave campaign is that of a Britain that is not only independent, but a Great Britain which is proud of retaining its own sense of national identity (Fiske, 2016).

### **CONCLUSIONS**

The implications of Brexit are major. In a world in which Europe’s demographic, economic, financial, military and diplomatic weight is already in a certain decline, it would lose its second-most populous member, its second-largest economy and its principal military power. Brexit would alarm the EU’s allies around the world, led by the U.S., which is unequivocal in its support for continued U.K. membership of the EU. But it would comfort the EU’s rivals, first and foremost Vladimir Putin’s Russia.

Brexit would also represent the most tangible manifestation of European disintegration. It would strengthen the already strong and growing tendencies in the EU and risk unleashing a chain-reaction that would culminate in other member states deciding to leave. At the end of this road could lie, in the worst case scenario, the collapse of the Euro, the fragmentation of the European market, a much weaker Europe in the world, and less peaceful international relations in Europe.

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