

ŽARKO LAZAREVIĆ IN
ALEKSANDER LORENČIČ (UR.)

PODOBE MODERNIZACIJE

Poglavja iz gospodarske in socialne modernizacije Slovenije
v 19. in 20. stoletju

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Povzetek

Pričujoče delo je rezultat raziskovalcev Inštituta za novejšo zgodovino, ki so v programskem obdobju 2005 – 2008 delovali v okviru programa *Podobe gospodarske in socialne modernizacije na Slovenskem v 19. in 20. stoletju*. Ob zaključku programskega obdobja so raziskovalci svoje znanje pregledno predstavili in tako je nastal pričujoči zbornik, ki je sestavljen iz 4 večjih poglavij in ga tvorijo prispevki različnih avtorjev. Poglavja iz gospodarske in socialne modernizacije Slovenije v 19. in 20. stoletju, ki jih ponuja zbornik, vsekakor pomenijo velik prispevek k celovitejši podobi in predstavitvi življenja Slovencev v omenjenih stoletjih.

V prvem poglavju z naslovom *Podobe zgodovinopisja* je opredeljena pot razvoja slovenskega gospodarskega zgodovinopisja, ki je bilo dolgo časa na obrobju zanimanja strokovne javnosti. Vzrok za to je mogoče najti v omejenosti raziskovalnih tem (predvsem industrializacija) in slovenocentričnem raziskovalnem in referenčnem okvirju. Oblikovanje gospodarske zgodovine kot prepoznavne discipline je bilo omejeno tudi z družbenim kontekstom. V času po drugi svetovni vojni, vse tja do srede osemdesetih let 20. stoletja, je bila namreč zamejena z okviri komunističnega interpretacijskega vzorca. Slovensko gospodarsko zgodovinopisje se je tako kot usmeritev začelo oblikovati šele v šestdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja. Temu empiričnemu dejstvu je potrebno dodati konceptualno-metodološki poudarek, da se je slovensko gospodarsko zgodovinopisje konstituiralo na podlagi tradicionalnega deskriptivno pozitivističnega vzorca. Prestrukturiranje ekonomskega zgodovinopisja se je povsem izoblikovalo v devetdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja in je sovpadalo z generacijskim prelomom, se pravi z nastopom mlajših gospodarskih zgodovinarjev, ki so se kot raziskovalci formirali na začetku devetdesetih let. Kasneje je prišlo do kadrovske okrepitve, število raziskovalcev se je podvojilo, s tem pa tudi obseg raziskav. Spremembe so bile postopne na obeh ravneh – tako na konceptualni kot tudi na

metodološki ravni. Poudariti pa je tudi potrebno, da v času od devetdesetih let dalje ne moremo govoriti o prevladujočem vzorcu. S posplošitvijo lahko izoblikujemo dve usmeritvi in sicer bolj poudarjeno usmeritev ambiciozne problemske obravnave v dolgih časovnih obdobjih s težnjo k interdisciplinarnosti in tradicionalni historiografski deskriptivno pozitivistični pristop.

Drugo poglavje, *Gospodarske podobe*, je vsebinsko zelo raznoliko. Predstavljene so zagate in metodološke težave, s katerimi se je spopadala zgodovinarska stroka pri raziskovanju podjetništva. V zgodovinopisju sta se uveljavili zlasti dve metodi prepoznavanja podjetnika znotraj institucije podjetja. Prva, funkcionalna definicija, določa za podjetnika osebo, ki v podjetju sprejema temeljne oziroma tako imenovane strateške odločitve, druga definicija podjetništva, ki je tudi primernejša za prepoznavanje podjetnikov, pa je tako imenovana položajna definicija. Ta vidi podjetnika v osebi, ki na hierarhični lestvici podjetja zaseda najvišji položaj. Položajna definicija se opira na formalno strukturo avtoritete znotraj podjetja, določeno s pravnimi predpisi, ki so položaj z največjo formalno avtoriteto v podjetju praviloma povezovali z odločanjem. Na ta način se funkcionalna in položajna definicija deloma prekrivata, saj je zelo verjetno in logično, da so sprejemale strateške odločitve osebe na najvišjih položajih v podjetju.

V drugem poglavju je predstavljen tudi razvoj podjetja in sicer Tiskarne Merkur, kjer so osemdeset let tekli tiskarski stroji. Tiskarna je od leta 1923 pa vse do leta 2003 delovala neprekinjeno, njeno ime pa se je v skladu z družbenimi razmerami v tem času nekajkrat spremenilo. Nastala je po prvi svetovni vojni, v obdobju nastajanja slovenskega narodnega gospodarstva, v novi državi in presahnila v razmerah tranzicije po razpadu Jugoslavije. V okviru narodnega gospodarstva se je uspešno razvijala in sledila tehničnemu napredku tiskarske stroke, ni pa sledila združevanju grafične industrije, ni se povezovala v večje podjetniške družbe in ni se vključevala v mednarodno delitev dela. Tiskarna je ostala ves čas majhno samostojno podjetje, samozadostno in kot takega ga je globalizacija povozila.

Razprava z naslovom »Regionalne razlike v Dravski banovini v tridesetih letih« nam ponuja nekaj statističnih podatkov o Dravski banovini

sredi 30-ih let prejšnjega stoletja, ko lahko regionalne razlike na tem področju v osnovi opredelimo predvsem kot nasprotje med vzhodnim in zahodnim delom. Kot gospodarsko najbolj razvita so se pokazala večja mesta, po številu delavskega prebivalstva pa še okraja Laško in Radovljica. Industrijski obrati so bili skoncentrirani predvsem v Mariboru, Ljubljani, Kranju, Celju, Jesenicah, Trziču, Hrastniku in Kamniku – v veliki meri torej na Gorenjskem. Na drugi strani so kot najbolj agrarni izstopali okraji s skrajnega vzhodnega dela banovine. Tudi po številnih drugih kazalnikih razvitosti se je v grobem izrisovala slika nasprotja vzhod:zahod. Pri tem so bili med okraji, ki so imeli slabše rezultate, najpogosteje naslednji okraji: Murska Sobota, Lendava, Ljutomer, Črnomelj ter Šmarje pri Jelšah. Tako je bila največja gostota prebivalstva v okrajih Laško, Lendava, Ptuj (vključno z mestom), Maribor levi breg, Murska Sobota, Brežice, Maribor desni breg, Ljutomer, Celje in Šmarje. Hiše z največ gospodinjstvi so bile predvsem v mestih ter v okrajih z razvito industrijo, najmanj gospodinjstev pa je sobivalo v hišah okrajev Ptuj, Metlika, Šmarje, Črnomelj in Krško. Gospodinjstva so bila najmanjša v večjih mestih, v Radovljici ter okrajih Maribor desni breg in Laško. Nizko nataliteto in mortaliteto hkrati je izkazovalo le mesto Ljubljana ter delno še okraji Radovljica, Šmarje pri Jelšah in Murska Sobota. Umrljivost dojenčkov je bila največja na skrajnem vzhodnem delu banovine, najmanjša pa v večjih mestih (z izjemo Maribora) in v radovljiškem okraju. Medtem ko je bila umrljivost zaradi tuberkuloze največja v vzhodnih okrajih ter v mestih, kjer je v bolnišnicah umiralo tudi okoliško prebivalstvo, je bila umrljivost zaradi tifusa in griže posebej velika v okrajih Novo mesto, Črnomelj, Lendava in dolensko območje na splošno pa tudi v pasu od konjiškega, preko celjskega do gornjegrajskega okraja. Nepismenost je bila največja v obmejnih okrajih Dravograd, Murska Sobota, Metlika, Gornji grad in Dolnja Lendava. Če pogledamo kmetijsko sliko banovine, bi kot njeno žitnico lahko označili skrajni vzhodni del - največ žit na kmečkega prebivalca so pridelali v lendavskem in ljutomerskem okraju, v Mariboru desnem bregu, Murski Soboti in Laškem. Okraj, v katerem so pridelali največ sadja na kmečkega prebivalca, je bil Maribor levi breg, sledil mu je slovenjgraški, temu pa ljutomerski in nato še drugi mariborski okraj. Tudi vinogradništvo je bilo razširjeno predvsem v vzhodnih okrajih, največje površine, zasajene s trto, pa so imeli v ptujskem

okraju ter v okrajih Maribor levi breg in Krško. Po drugi strani je bilo največ gozdov v severnem delu banovine (z izjemo panonskega dela), zlasti v pasu od dravograjskega, preko slovenjgraškega do konjiškega okraja. Govedoreja je bila glede na število živali na 1 kmečko osebo najpomembnejša na Gorenjskem – v okrajih Radovljica, Ljubljana okolica, Kranj s Škofjo Loko in Kamnik; svinjereja je bila bolj razširjena na področju bivše Štajerske; gojenje perutnine pa je bilo razširjeno po vsej banovini. Po merilu industrijske razvitosti v tridesetih letih torej lahko govorimo o nasprotjih med vzhodnim in zahodnim delom Dravske banovine in medtem ko po teh merilih zahodnejšim okrajem pripnemo oznako bolj razvitih, vzhodni del označimo za manj razvitega. Pri tem pa se, seveda, odpira vprašanje, ali je stopnja industrializacije zadostno merilo napredka. Če slednja prebivalcem prinese težje življenje s slabšimi delovnimi in življenjskimi pogoji, je takšna definicija namreč nekoliko vprašljiva. A okraji z vzhoda banovine so poleg industrijske zaostalosti kazali slabšo podobo tudi po nekaterih merilih kakovosti življenja (umrljivost dojenčkov, umrljivost zaradi tuberkuloze, tifusa in griže itd.), zato lahko brez večjih težav sklenemo, da so bili v resnici manj razviti, življenje v njih pa težje in manj prijazno.

Razprava o modernizaciji ter gospodarskem razvoju Slovenije v obdobju 1945 – 1991 pojasnjuje, da so v času druge jugoslovanske države pojem modernizacija začeli uporabljati šele na začetku šestdesetih let in so jo nato vse do razpada države razumeli v njenem širšem smislu, se pravi poleg posodobitve opreme in proizvodnih zmogljivosti, še kot uvajanje sodobnih znanstveno tehničnih in tehnoloških dosežkov ter kot izpopolnitev organizacije, kadrov in poslovanja. V letih 1945 do 1991 je Slovenija med jugoslovanskimi republikami izstopala po svojih prizadevanjih po hitrejšem posodabljanju svojega gospodarstva in povečanju njegove konkurenčne sposobnosti. Kljub težavam zaradi počasnega razhajanja s starimi in utrjevanja novih načinov gospodarjenja, je sestav slovenskega gospodarstva že sredi petdesetih let dobil bolj sodobno podobo. Predvsem zaradi neustreznega gospodarskega sistema in razvojne politike je v naslednjih letih prihajalo do precejšnjega odstopanja med modernizacijskimi cilji in stopnjo njihovega uresničevanja. Prevladala je enosmerna investicijska politika, ki je glavino naložbenih sredstev pretakala v gradnjo energetskih in prometnih poti.

Slovensko politično vodstvo je sredi osemdesetih let izrabilo kaotične razmere in začelo samo pripravljati pogoje za hitrejšo posodobitev svoje gospodarske sestave. Do leta 1989 je Slovenija, v primerjavi s predvojnimi stanji, zelo spremenila gospodarsko sestavo. Postala je industrijska dežela, v kateri sta industrija in rudarstvo prispevala 48 odstotkov vsega družbenega proizvoda. Zelo so se povečali tudi deleži storitvenih dejavnosti, ki so spremljali razvoj industrije. Izpolnitev tega prvotnega in splošnega modernizacijskega cilja pa samo po sebi še ni pomenilo, da je bilo slovensko gospodarstvo pripravljeno na spremenjene pogoje, ki so nastali z ustanovitvijo samostojne države. Poleg obravnave splošnih značilnosti in poteka modernizacijskega procesa, razprava vključuje še analizo modernizacije na lokalni ravni, kjer sta kot primer pa sta obravnavani mestna občina Celje in Tovarna vijakov Plamen iz Kroepe.

Pomembno vlogo v procesu modernizacije našega prostora predstavlja izgradnja Južne železnice, ki je bila prek slovenskega ozemlja projektirana predvsem kot tranzitna proga, ki naj bi čim prej dosegla Trst. Gradnja le-te je tako v notranje-avstrijskih deželah in Trstu kot tudi v avstrijskem državnem vrhu vzbudila velika pričakovanja, da bo Trst po izgradnji železnice postal pristanišče za najširše avstrijsko, južno-nemško in severno-italijansko industrijsko zaledje. Avstrijske oblasti so pri načrtovanju in gradnji proge proti Trstu v tej luči precej bolj upoštevale interese industrijsko hitreje se razvijajočih čeških in spodnje-avstrijskih področjih kot pa koristi počasneje se razvijajočih pokrajin, skozi katere je železnica tekla. Po prepustitvi komaj zgrajene Južne železnice zasebni družbi v večinski lasti francoskega kapitala, je ta, v nasprotju z načrti avstrijskega državnega vrha in tržaških trgovcev, zavzela stališče, da je prihodnost Trsta predvsem v posredniški trgovini z ogrskimi in srednjeevropskimi kmetijskimi pridelki. Južna železnica tako neposredno po izgradnji ni opazneje pospešila razvoja neagrarne proizvodnje na slovenskem ozemlju, je pa poglobila krizo v kmetijstvu. To je med odgovornimi za gospodarski razvoj dežel v tržaškem zaledju še okrepilo prepričanje, da je treba z gradnjo železnic nadaljevati in jih čim prej povezati v učinkovito prometno mrežo. Burne razprave je povzročalo zlasti vprašanje druge, od južne železnice neodvisne zveze s Trstom, ki jo je prekinila šele odločitev pristojnega ministrstva na Dunaju o gradnji karavanško-bohinjske proge konec 19. stoletja. Odločitev za karavanško-bohinjsko progo je temeljila

na prepričanju, da je to najkrajša zveza med Trstom na eni in Salzburgom, Gornjo Avstrijo ter Češko na drugi strani in da bo prometno-trgovske poti iz severnejših, industrijsko razvitejših dežel, dotlej zvečine usmerjene proti severno-nemškim pristaniščem, končno preusmerila proti jugu. Trst namreč do konca stoletja ni uspel postati niti izvozno pristanišče za ogrsko žito in kmetijske pridelke, kot so pričakovali v upravi južne železnice, niti tranzitno pristanišče za avstrijsko industrijo, kot so upali na Dunaju. Nasprotno - njegovo zaledje se je zvečine skrčilo na Primorsko, notranje-avstrijske dežele ter Zgodnjo in Spodnjo Avstrijo. Južna železnica je bila sicer za dežele, skozi katere je tekla, življenjsko pomembna uvozno-izvozna pot, toda ambicioznejše industrializacije na Kranjskem in spodnjem Štajerskem ni spodbudila.

V tretjem poglavju z naslovom *Socialne podobe* se avtorji dotikajo različnih družbenih tem in problematik. Tako se seznanimo z, že v 19. stoletju izredno perečim problemom, alkoholizmom. V industrijski dobi se je na področju gostinstva izoblikoval in utrdil dvojni sistem družabnosti. Na eni strani so bila za meščansko javnost značilna stalna moška omizja v »boljših« gostilnah in kavarnah, na drugi pa so se pojavile gostilne za proletarske moške, za katere je bilo obiskovanje gostiln, kot družbeno priznana oblika organiziranja prostega časa, nekaj povsem običajnega. Ritualni kozarček ob koncu delovnega časa je veljal za nenapisano moško pravico ter na novo pridobljeno svoboščino tovarniških delavcev, ki so lahko odslej izkoristili svoj prosti čas tako, kot so želeli. Gostilniška kultura je postala najočitnejši izraz delavske patriarhalnosti, obisk gostilne pa je predstavljal tudi beg moških pred socialno bedo in slabimi življenjskimi razmerami, saj so tam pod vplivom alkohola vsaj za trenutek lahko pozabili na resničnost. Poleg družabnosti se je v gostilnah začelo razvijati tako socialistično gibanje kot tudi, zavoljo pijančevanja, diskurz o vse bolj perečem alkoholnem vprašanju. V 19. stoletju je bil namreč vse bolj zaskrbljujoč zmagoviti osvajalski pohod cenenega žganja, ki je bilo odslej na razpolago kot masovni proizvod. Alkohol je postal droga 19. stoletja. Zloraba alkohola je bila opazna že med delavstvom prvih tovarniških obratov v predmarčni dobi. Neznosno stanje in beda delavcev pa je bila v tesni zvezi z alkoholizmom tudi v naslednjih desetletjih pred prvo svetovno vojno. Na širjenje žganjarske kuge so ves čas opozarjali

protialkoholni borci. Alkoholizem naj bi bil poguben tako za posameznika kot celoten narod. Moralisti so neprestano opozarjali na škodljivost alkohola za telesno in duševno zdravje, pa tudi na nepotrebne izdatke zaradi nenehnega zahajanja v gostilne, zaradi katerih naj bi obubožane delavske družine še bolj trpele. Z izboljšanjem stanovanjskih razmer delavcev, ki bi omogočile dostojno družinsko življenje, naj bi zajezili alkoholizem. A prizadevanja protialkoholnega gibanja niso obrodila sadov. Po besedah delavskega aktivista in ozdravljenega alkoholika, Leopolda Puharja, naj bi leta 1913 zaradi »očeta pijanca« še vedno trpela vsa družina. Žena naj bi bila za pijanca samo »moderna sužnja«, otroci pa nesrečniki, ki se lačni, zanemarjeni, bosí in raztrgani potikajo po cestah. Tudi brezalkoholne gostilne po švicarskem zgledu so na Slovenskem ostale zgolj ideal.

Zanimiv je tudi prispevek o judovskem prebivalstvu na Slovenskem v obdobju do druge svetovne vojne. Evropski Judje so bili do 19. stoletja manjšina, ki se je glede vere, jezika, gospodarskega udejstvovanja in nenazadnje načina življenja povsem razlikovala od večinskega prebivalstva. Toda pod vplivom razsvetljenstva in liberalizma so evropski Judje postopoma dobili enake pravice kot ostali državljani. Z doseženo emancipacijo judovskega prebivalstva je tako nastopil proces vključevanja Judov v porajajočo se moderno družbo. Ta emancipacija je ključna za razumevanje judovske naselitve na slovenskem ozemlju. Po izgonu Judov iz Štajerske in Koroške leta 1497 ter iz Kranjske leta 1515 se namreč Judje na tem ozemlju niso smeli za stalno naseljevati vse do dokončne emancipacije avstrijskih Judov leta 1867. Toda tudi potem so se naseljevali le v manjšem številu. Nasprotno so se Judje v Prekmurju podobno kot drugje na Ogrskem lahko naseljevali. Z njihovo postopno emancipacijo in gospodarsko uspešno vključitvijo v agrarno okolje se je do konca 19. stoletja v Prekmurju tako oblikovala najbolj številčna judovska skupnost z ozemlja današnje Slovenije. Na podlagi uradnih popisov prebivalstva do leta 1931 in skoraj popolnega popisa članov judovskih verskih občin iz leta 1937 je avtor v prispevku lahko natančno analiziral razvoj judovskega prebivalstva Slovenije. Ta razvoj se je v Prekmurju odvijal povsem drugače kot drugje po Sloveniji. Iz gospodarsko zaostalega Prekmurja so se Judje iz vasi in malih mest vedno bolj izseljevali v večja mestna središča izven Slovenije. Nasprotno so judovsko skupnost drugje po Sloveniji sestavljali

večinoma priseljenci, od katerih je velik del prišel šele pred kratkim in so kot izrazito moderno prebivalstvo večinoma živeli v mestih. Toda v primerjavi z razvojem ostalega prebivalstva Slovenije sta se obe judovski skupnosti tako zelo uspešno vključili v moderno meščansko družbo, da sta v primeru mobilnosti, urbanizacije in demografske modernizacije najavljali trend, po katerem se bo v prihodnosti razvijalo večinsko prebivalstvo.

Obdobje druge svetovne vojne je globoko zarezalo v vsakdanje življenje. Na podlagi prispevka v zborniku pa ugotovimo, da je šolstvo tako med italijansko kot tudi kasneje med nemško okupacijo ostalo slovensko. Italijanski visoki komisar je že prvo leto okupacije sprejel vrsto novih predpisov z določili italijanske zakonodaje, saj je želel slovensko šolstvo vključiti v obstoječi italijanski šolski sistem. Tako je ukinil vse spominske dneve in šolske svečanosti, ki so bili do takrat stalnica v slovenskem šolskem sistemu, ter znižal starostno dobo za šolsko obveznost, s čimer so šoloobvezni postali že šestletni otroci. Nadalje je predpisal nove učne načrte, vendar pri tem k sreči ni poskušal črtati pouka slovenskega jezika oziroma je dopustil, da se je v tem jeziku celo poučevalo, je pa zato po eni strani z urnika ljudskih in srednjih šol zbrisal srbohrvaščino in po drugi strani vpisal več ur (fakultativne) italijanščine in telesne vzgoje. Velike spremembe so bile storjene tudi na področju pouka zgodovine in zemljepisa, saj naj bi se učenci in dijaki skozi povečevanje fašizma in spoznavanje Italije poglobljeno seznanili s kulturo okupatorja. Univerza je bila odprta ves čas italijanske okupacije, vendar je bilo njeno delovanje, predvsem pa študenti, pod budnim očesom okupatorskih oblasti. Tudi po italijanski kapitulaciji oziroma med nemško okupacijo je šolstvo ostalo slovensko. Kar se tiče telesne vzgoje in praznikov v šolah, so bile kmalu vzpostavljene osnove iz časa pred italijansko okupacijo. Nemški okupator se v strukturo in vsebinsko delo ljubljanskega šolstva načeloma ni spuščal, novi učni načrti pa so se v glavnem tikali le jezikov – pred italijanščino je prednost dobila nemščina. Za šolsko leto 1943/1944 je značilna tudi uvedba protikomunističnih predavanj. V tem šolskem letu so bila z Rupnikovo odredbo zaradi vojnih razmer (novačenje v domobransko vojsko in delovno službo) ukinjena predavanja in vaje na univerzi, kar pa ni pomenilo, da je univerza zaprla svoja vrata. Izpiti in promoviranja so potekali nemoteno dalje. Poleg šolske politike in posegov okupatorjev so na pouk negativno

vplivali tudi tako imenovani spremljevalci vojne – prostorska stiska oziroma pomanjkanje šolskih prostorov, ki so jih zasedale vojaške enote in begunci, številni alarmi in prekinitve pouka, pomanjkanje kuriva, omejena razsvetljava, delovna služba za izvršitev fortifikacijskih objektov, v katero so novačili tudi dijake itd. . Ti so svoje posledice v največji meri pokazali v letih 1944 in 1945, vendar so kljub izrazito slabim razmeram s poukom nadaljevale vse ljubljanske osnovne in srednje šole, s svojo prilagodljivostjo in iznajdljivostjo so več kot le sledile odredbi prezidenta Rupnika iz oktobra 1944, ki je prepovedovala prekinitvev pouka.

Z višjo življenjsko ravniyo prebivalstva po drugi svetovni vojni je postal cilj gospodarskega delovanja tudi boljši osebni in družbeni standard. Položaj le-tega je v času socialističnih družbenih odnosov v Sloveniji določala nova revolucionarna oblast oziroma komunisti, ki so imeli svojo gospodarsko razvojno usmeritev načrtano v centralnih in republiških družbenih planih. Ti so urejali odnose med posameznimi federalnimi enotami in določali ekonomsko politiko na zvezni in republiški ravni. V prvem povojnem obdobju je bilo težišče življenjske ravni predvsem usmerjeno v zagotavljanje skupnih potreb prebivalstva, kot so zdravstvo, socialno zavarovanje, izobraževanje in komunalna opremljenost, osebni standard pa je bil v tem obdobju povsem zanemarjen in je stagniral. Položaj osebnega in družbenega standarda se je postopoma začel izboljševati šele sredi petdesetih let, ko se je spremenila gospodarska razvojna usmeritev. Takrat se je težišče razvoja s politike kapitalne graditve preusmerilo na povečevanje življenjske ravni, ki se je nato v šestdesetih letih zaradi povečane osebne porabe opazneje zvišala in v sedemdesetih prerasla v potrošništvo (takrat se je zviševala življenjska raven večine prebivalstva, tako mestnega kot kmečkega prebivalstva). Čeprav je v osemdesetih letih vladalo splošno gospodarsko nazadovanje, bila pa je tudi politična ter vsesplošna kriza, zaradi pretakanja privarčevanih sredstev v porabo in sive ekonomije, ti faktorji le niso občutneje vplivali na znižanje življenjske ravni.

V zborniku je predstavljena tematika moderne, katere pomemben produkt je nastanek znanosti in oblikovanje narodne identitete. V razpravi tako lahko beremo o poskusih oblikovanja slovenske znanstvene terminologije po marčni revoluciji do izdaje Splošnega tehniškega slovarja. To več kot stoletno

obdobje lahko označimo kot dobo poskusov »oranja ledine« na področju naravoslovno-tehnične terminologije. Sočasno s tem procesom pa je tekel tudi proces konstituiranja slovenske identitete, kulturne izgradnje, družbene modernizacije in emancipacije na področju izobraževanja ter dostopnosti znanja in znanosti. Sam proces oblikovanja terminologije je bil namreč integralni del narodno-političnih zahtev po utrakvizaciji srednjih ter v manjši meri visokih šol in je zaradi le delnega uspeha slovenizacije srednjih šol tako trpelo tudi oblikovanje terminologije. Društvo Slovenska matica je bilo prvo slovensko znanstveno društvo in je imelo kot tako ključno vlogo tako pri izdajanju slovenskih šolskih knjig za srednje šole in s tem pri procesu oblikovanja terminologije, kot tudi pri združevanju slovenskih intelektualcev in izobražencev, s čimer je tvorilo slovenski komunikacijski prostor. Poleg sektorske izdelave terminologije je potekala priprava za tisk koherentno sestavljene-ga slovenske-ga naravoslovno-tehničnega besedišča. Prizadevanja so bila kronana z izdajo »Znanstvene terminologije s posebnim ozirom na srednja učilišča« leta 1880, kljub temu pa se z izdajo slovarja prizadevanja niso končala, saj je jezik živ organizem. Poleg tega je obdobje druge polovice 19. stoletja eno izmed najbolj plodnih, kar se tiče tehničnih izumov in s tem tudi rojstva novih izrazov. Skozi oblikovanje slovenskih terminov namreč lahko sledimo recepciji izumov. Prizadevanja za oblikovanje terminologije so tako slonela na društvih Slovenska matica, Društvu jugoslovanskih inženirjev in Društvu kranjskih zdravnikov. Skrb za terminologijo pa se je spremenil šele ob ustanovitvi Tehniške fakultete leta 1919, ko so se predavatelji soočili z akutnim problemom slovenske terminologije in literature. Predavatelji niso objavljali v slovenskem jeziku, saj so imeli težave pri iskanju založnikov, zato so morali slušatelji študirati po nemški literaturi. Prelom za slovensko tehnično izrazoslovje pomeni šele ustanovitev Terminološke sekcije pri Slovenski akademiji znanosti in umetnosti, ko je tehnični del sekcije po desetletju priprav v letih 1962-1964 izdal Splošni tehniški slovar, s čimer je bila postavljena solidna platforma slovenske tehnične terminologije.

Zadnje, četrto poglavje z naslovom *Podobe tranzicije* se dotika izjemno pomembne prelomnice v slovenskem gospodarstvu in sicer obdobje, ko je Slovenija prešla iz socialističnega v kapitalistični sistem. V času tranzicije je na

gospodarskem področju v Sloveniji potekal intenziven proces preobrazbe v kapitalistično, tržno gospodarstvo, ki je bil najtesneje povezan z makroekonomsko stabilizacijo, lastninskim preoblikovanjem ter državnim prestrukturiranjem. Osnovni značilnosti slovenske tranzicije sta bili postopnost v spreminjanju gospodarskega sistema in pragmatičnost gospodarske politike, poimenovane gradualizem. Po začetni fazi prehoda, za katero je bilo značilno upadanje gospodarske rasti in življenjskega standarda prebivalstva, hitro zniževanje investicij ter zaposlenosti in še precejšnja makroekonomska nestabilnost, je slovensko gospodarstvo že sredi leta 1993 prešlo v obdobje transformacijskega okrevanja, ki sta ga zaznamovala intenzivno prestrukturiranje v proizvodnji in potrošnji ter dinamična gospodarska rast. V prvem prispevku zadnjega poglavja beremo o družbenih predstavah in idejah ljudi o modernizaciji v socializmu in postsocializmu v navezavi na tekstilno industrijo. Tekstilna industrija je vključena v več različnih zgodb modernizacije, saj se je prav v tekstilnih tovarnah porodila industrializacija, medtem ko se v sodobnem času v tekstilnih tovarnah pospešeno odvijajo procesi deindustrializacije, hkrati pa zavzema tekstilna industrija tudi ključno vlogo v razpravah o globalizaciji. Modernizacija in tranzicija sta termina, na katera so se intenzivno sklicevali ljudje tako v socializmu kot tudi v postsocialističnem času. Razprave o modernizaciji po drugi svetovni vojni so zajele industrializacijo, urbanizacijo in družbeno politični razvoj v socialističnem duhu. S propadom socialističnih držav se je začelo govoriti o novi globalni resnici, ki je socializem izenačila s historično stagnacijo. Diskurzi o modernizaciji so se v tem času v Sloveniji navezovali na ideje demokracije, tržnega gospodarstva in potrošništva. Čeprav so termini modernizacija, tranzicija in globalizacija ohlapni in pogosto niso analitično koncipirani, zgovorno kažejo na družbene ideje in predstave. V zborniku je na primeru še delujoče tekstilne tovarne Predilnica Litija predstavljeno, kako so postsocialistična podjetja vpeljevala nove strategije dela v kontekstu tako imenovanih modernizacijskih procesov.

Tranzicija je za slovensko podjetništvo nasploh pomenila veliko preizkušnjo. Podjetništvo je bilo vsekakor eden od ključnih elementov za delovanje tržnega gospodarstva. Še posebej je to veljalo v času prehoda iz enega družbenopolitičnega sistema v drugega. Slovenska podjetja so bila v

prejšnjem sistemu v tako imenovani družbeni lasti. Spremembe so se v Sloveniji na tem področju zgodile že v letu 1988, ko je na novo sprejeta zakonodaja omogočila ustanavljanje zasebnih podjetij in začetek privatizacije obstoječih podjetij. Sprejeta zakonodaja je sprožila dva procesa: množično so začela nastajati nova mala podjetja, velika pa so se drobila. V letu 1990 je bila zabeležena kar 1048 odstotna rast števila podjetij. Na razvoj malega podjetništva sta vplivala še leta 1991 sprejet Zakon o razvoju malega gospodarstva ter v letu 1994 sprejet Obrtni zakon. Glavna procesa, ki sta se odvijala v podjetništvu v času prehoda, sta bila privatizacija in prestrukturiranje. Decembra 1990 sta bili ustanovljeni dve državni ustanovi, ki sta nadzorovali in urejali izvajanje privatizacije in prestrukturiranja v Sloveniji: Agencija Republike Slovenije za prestrukturiranje in privatizacijo je spremljala in nadzirala proces, pripravljala navodila in potrjevala privatizacijske programe, Sklad Republike Slovenije za razvoj pa je prestrukturiral podjetja. Privatizacije, ki so bile izvedene pred sprejemom Zakona o lastninskem preoblikovanju podjetij (ZLPP), ki je bil po vseh zapletih sprejet šele novembra 1992, so se izvajale po jugoslovanskih zakonih. Podjetja so se, v kolikor so hotela uspešno poslovati naprej, morala prestrukturirati in to predvsem v lastninskem, velikostnem, finančnem, organizacijskem, tehnološkem in kadrovskega smislu. Položaj podjetij v začetku devetdesetih je bil namreč izredno slab, zato so v veliki meri poslovala z izgubo. Številna so izpolnila pogoje za izvedbo stečajnega postopka ali likvidacije, ravno novo nastalim malim podjetjem z do 50 zaposlenimi, ki so bila najpomembnejši vir ustvarjanja delovnih mest, pa se ima Slovenija zahvaliti, da ni bilo še večje nezaposlenosti. V obdobju prehoda so bili tudi direktorji slovenskih podjetij zelo črnogledi o prihodnosti slovenskega podjetništva. Predvsem so bili nezadovoljni z odnosom države, ki je bila tista, od katere je bila več ali manj odvisna uspešnost prehoda. Država je v razvitem tržnem gospodarstvu namreč lahko posegala v podjetja, ki so bila njena last in v podjetja tako imenovanega javnega sektorja, ki so bila pod njenim neposrednim in posrednim nadzorom. Prav tako je bila prisotna v podjetjih, ki bi sicer lahko delovala povsem po tržnih načelih, vendar pa se brez državne pomoči niso bila sposobna prestrukturirati. S svojo aktivno politiko pa je posredno pospeševala tudi nastajanje novih, privatnih, hitro rastočih podjetij. Prehod iz socialističnega v

tržno gospodarstvo, iz regionalnega v nacionalno gospodarstvo ter prehod v velike strukturne spremembe predvsem zaradi prilagajanja novim trgov, je za slovensko državo oziroma podjetništvo predstavljal velik izziv in preizkušnjo. Kljub vsem preizkušnjam tranzicije ne gre mimo dejstva, da je slovensko podjetništvo zahvaljujoč tranziciji zaživelo v novi podobi in postalo bolj odprto, konkurenčno ter primerljivo z zahodnimi državami.

Abstract

The paper is a result of work carried out by researchers at the Institute of Contemporary History, within the 2005/2008 programme period in the framework of a research programme entitled “Images of Economic and Social modernization on the Slovene territory in the 19th and 20th Centuries” (*Podobe gospodarske in socialne modernizacije na Slovenskem v 19. in 20. stoletju*). At the end of the programme period, the researchers presented their knowledge in a transparent manner, and the anthology, which is comprised of 4 extensive chapters including contributions by many different authors, is the result of this process. Chapters on economic and social modernisation in the 19th and 20th centuries offered by the anthology are certainly additional contribution to a more comprehensive image and presentation of life in Slovenia during the two centuries.

Chapter 1 entitled “Images of Historiography” (*Podobe zgodovinopisja*) defines the development path of the Slovene economic historiography which has been on the margin of the expert public's interest for a long time. The reason for this may be found in the fact that the research topics (mainly the topic of industrialisation) were restricted, while the framework of research and referential work was focused on Slovenia. Emergence of the subject of economic history as a recognisable discipline was, among other things, restricted by the social context. After World War II and until the mid-1980s, economic history was limited by the framework of the Communist-era interpretation pattern. As a study area, Slovenian economic historiography thus

began to emerge as late as the 1960s. This empirical fact needs to be given the conceptual-methodological emphasis saying that the Slovenian economic historiography was constituted on the basis of a traditionally descriptive-positivistic pattern. The restructuring of economic historiography was fully shaped in the 1990s and coincided with the generation break, i.e. the appearance of a few younger economic historians who evolved into researchers in the early 1990s. The staff team was enhanced with the number of researchers doubled, and so did the scope of research. Changes were gradual at both levels – the conceptual as well as methodological. Moreover, it should also be emphasised that it is impossible to speak of a prevailing pattern from the 1990s onwards. By means of generalisation, we can define two study areas, the more emphasised area of an ambitious problem treatment carried out over longer time periods with aspirations towards inter-disciplinarity, and the traditional historiographic descriptive-positivist approach.

The content of Chapter II entitled “Images of Economy” (*Gospodarske podobe*) is very diverse. It presents problems and methodological issues which the history experts faced in their research of entrepreneurship. In historiography, two methods of recognising an entrepreneur within the institution of a company were established in particular. The first is called functional definition and defines the entrepreneur as a person who makes fundamental or “strategic” decisions in a company. The second definition, which is also more appropriate for recognising entrepreneurs, is “status definition”. The latter sees the entrepreneur as the person who assumes the highest position in the company’s hierarchical scale. The status definition mainly relies on the formal structure of authority within a company determined by legal regulations which usually linked the position of the greatest formal authority with decision-making. The functional and status definition thus partly overlap, as it is both probable and logical that strategic decisions were made by persons who assumed the highest positions in companies.

Chapter II also presents the development of the Tiskarna Merkur printing company, where printing machines were in operation for eighty years. The printing works continuously operated without from 1923 until 2003, but the company name was changed several times in line with the social situation

of the time. The company was established after WWI, in the period when the Slovene national economy was emerging, in the new state, and ceased to operate in the transition period after the state of Yugoslavia fell apart. In the framework of national economy, the company experienced successful development and kept up with technical advancements emerging in the printing business. However, it did not follow the trend of uniting in the graphic industry, it did not join with larger companies, nor did it enter the international work distribution scheme. The printing facility remained a small, independent and self-sufficient company throughout this entire period, and was as such over-run by the globalisation process.

The paper entitled “Regional Differences in the Drava Banovina Province in the 1930s” (*Regionalne razlike v Dravski banovini v tridesetih letih*) provides some statistical data on the Drava banovina province during the mid-1930s, when regional differences in this field could basically be defined as the contrast between the eastern and western part.

Larger towns proved to have achieved the highest level of economic development, and so did the districts of Laško and Radovljica, considering the number of their working population. Industrial facilities were concentrated mainly in Maribor, Ljubljana, Kranj, Celje, Jesenice, Tržič, Hrastnik and Kamnik, which means they were mostly located in the Upper Carniola region. On the other hand, districts found at the extreme east of the banovina stood out as the most agrarian areas. Other development indices also gave a rough indication of a contrasting image in terms of the eastern and western parts. The following appeared the most common districts showing the worst results: Murska Sobota, Lendava, Ljutomer, Črnomelj and Šmarje pri Jelšah.

The population density was the highest in the districts of Laško, Lendava, Ptuj (including the town), Maribor left bank, Murska Sobota, Brežice, Maribor right bank, Ljutomer, Celje and Šmarje.

Houses with the largest number of households were mainly situated in towns and districts with well-developed industry, whereas the least households were found in the houses of the Ptuj, Metlika, Šmarje, Črnomelj and Krško districts. The smallest households were found in large towns such as Radovljica and the districts of Maribor right bank and Laško. The low birth and death rates were recorded concurrently only in the city of Ljubljana and partly

also in the districts of Radovljica, Šmarje pri Jelšah and Murska Sobota. The mortality rate in babies was the highest in the extreme eastern part of the banovina, and the lowest in larger town (with the exception of Maribor) and in the Radovljica district. While the mortality rate due to tuberculosis was the highest in the eastern districts and in towns, where also the population from the neighbouring districts was dying in hospitals, the mortality rate due to typhoid and dysentery was particularly high in the districts of Novo mesto, Črnomelj, Lendava and the Dolenjska region. Generally speaking, it was also quite high in the strip-shaped area extending from the Slovenske Konjice, via Celje and Gornji Grad districts. Illiteracy rate was the highest in the border districts of Dravograd, Murska Sobota, Metlika, Gornji Grad and Dolnja Lendava. Considering the agricultural image of banovina, its extreme eastern part could be named its granary – the largest quantities of grain per a rural inhabitant were produced in the Lendava and Ljutomer district, on the Maribor right bank, in Murska Sobota and in Laško. The district with the highest production of fruit per a rural inhabitant was the left bank of Maribor, which is followed by the Slovenj Gradec, Ljutomer and the second Maribor district. Similarly, wine growing was mostly prevalent in eastern parts, while the largest wine growing areas were found in the Ptuj district, Maribor left bank, and Krško district. On the other hand, the greatest number of forests was found in the northern part of banovina (with the exception of the Pannonian part), especially in the strap of land stretching from the Dravograd district, through the Slovenj Gradec and to the Slovenske Konjice districts. With regard to the number of animals per one rural person, cattle farming was of the greatest importance in the Upper Carniola region, namely in the districts of Radovljica, the surrounding area of Ljubljana, Kranj with Škofja Loka and Kamnik. In this, pig breeding was more frequently practiced in the area of former Styria region, and poultry breeding was present throughout the entire banovina. According to the standard of industrial development, it is thus possible to speak of contrasts between the eastern and western part of the Drava banovina province, whereby western districts may be classified as those being more developed and eastern part as less developed. This naturally raises the question of whether the industrialisation level represents an adequate criterion for progress. If industrialisation brought harder life with inferior working and living

conditions, such a definition can prove somewhat questionable. In addition to industrial underdevelopment, districts in the east of the banovina also showed a poor image by some other criteria defining the quality of life (mortality rate of babies, mortality rate due to tuberculosis, typhoid and dysentery etc), and so it can easily be concluded these parts were indeed less developed and life there was harder and less friendly.

The paper on modernisation and economic development of Slovenia between 1945 and 1991 explains that, during the second Yugoslavian state, the term “modernisation” began to be used as late as the beginning of the 1960s and was understood until the disintegration of the state in its widest sense. In addition to updating equipment and production capacities, the term also included the introduction of contemporary scientific, technical and technological achievements as well as improvements in organisation, human resources and operations. Between 1945 and 1991, Slovenia stood out among the Yugoslavian republics with its efforts towards faster modernisation of the economy and an increase in its competitive abilities. Despite the problems occurring due to slow parting with the old and strengthening the new economic methods, the structure of Slovenian economy acquired a more modern image as early as the mid-1950s. Significant deviations between the modernisation goals and the level of their realisation occurred in the following years, mainly due to an inappropriate economic system and development policy. A one-way investment policy, which moved the majority of investment assets into the construction of energy and transport routes, prevailed. In the mid-1980s, the Slovene political elite took advantage of chaotic circumstances and began to prepare conditions for faster modernisation of its economic structure by itself. Compared with the situation prior to the war, Slovenia changed its economic structure significantly by 1989. It became an industrial country where industry and mining contributed 48% of the entire social product. The shares of service activities accompanying industry development also increased significantly. The fulfilment of this primary and general modernisation goal, however, did not mean per se that the Slovene economy was ready for the changed conditions which arose with the establishment of the independent state. Besides the treatment or general characteristics and the course of the modernisation process, the paper also includes an analysis of modernisation at a local level.

The Municipality of Celje and the Tovarna vijakov Plamen screw factory from Kropa are discussed as examples.

In the process of modernising our environment, an important role was played by the construction of the Southern Railway which was planned mainly as a transit route through the Slovenian territory, by which Trieste was to be reached in the shortest time possible. In the provinces of Inner Austria and Trieste as well as at the Austrian state elite, the construction of this railway stirred great hopes that, once the railway would have been constructed, Trieste would become a port for the widest Austrian, Southern German and Northern Italian industrial hinterland. In planning and building the railway towards Trieste, the Austrian authorities considered the interests of the Czech and Lower Austrian areas, where industry developed faster, rather than interests of the countries which developed at a slower pace but through which the railway ran. After transferring the hardly built Southern Railway to a private company, the majority of which was under French capital, the latter took the position which was in opposition to the plans of the Austrian state, namely that the future of Trieste mainly lied in the intermediate trade in Hungarian and Middle European agricultural produce. This way, the Southern Railway failed to significantly accelerate the development of non-agrarian production in the Slovene territory directly after its construction. It did, however, deepen the agricultural crisis. This only served to strengthen the belief of those in charge of regional economic development in the Trieste hinterland that construction of railways should be continued and that railways should be connected into an efficient transport network as soon as possible. Discussions became especially sharp when it came to the question of another connection with Trieste independent of the Southern Railway, which was stopped only by the decision regarding the construction of the Karavanke-Bohinj route made by the competent ministry in Vienna at the end of the 19th century. The decision to build the Karavanke-Bohinj railway route was based on the belief that this was the shortest connection between Trieste on one side and Salzburg, Upper Austria and the Czech Republic on the other, and that it would re-direct the transport and trade routes from the northern countries with better developed industry, which were mostly directed towards the Northern German ports, towards the south. Trieste did not succeed in becoming the export port for

Hungarian grain and agricultural produce as was expected by the Southern Railway management, nor did it become a transit port for the Austrian industry as the authorities in Vienna had hoped. Quite the contrary – the Trieste hinterland shrank mainly to the Primorje region, the Inner Austrian regions and the Upper and Lower Austria. Although the Southern Railway was a vital import and export route for the countries through which it ran, it did not encourage a more ambitious industrialisation process in the Carniola and lower Styria regions.

In Chapter III entitled “Social images” (*Socialne podobe*), the authors mention various social subjects and issues. The work also treats alcoholism, which represented a burning problem as early as the 19th century. In the industrial era, a dual system of sociability was formed and strengthened in the hospitality industry. On the one hand, regular male guests in “better” public and coffee houses were typical of the bourgeoisie circles, while on the other hand, pubs for proletarian men who considered going to pubs as a socially accepted form of organised leisure perfectly normal. A ritual drink at the end of working shift was considered an unwritten male right and the newly-acquired privilege of the factory workers who were now free to spend their pastime whichever way they pleased. The culture of pubs became the most vivid manifestation of working class patriarchy, and, for men, going to a pub represented a means of escape from social misery and poor living conditions as the influence of alcohol enabled them to forget reality, even if it was only for a short while. Besides sociability, pubs were places where the social movement began to develop as well as, due to frequent drunkenness, the discourse on the ever more burning issue of alcoholism. In the 19th century, the triumph of cheap spirit now available as a mass product caused increasing worries. Alcohol became the drug of the 19th century. The abuse of alcohol became significant among the working classes of the first factory facilities occurring in the period prior to the March Revolution. The unbearable situation and misery experienced by working classes was also closely related to alcoholism in the decades that followed, the period prior to WWI. The anti-alcohol campaigners kept warning about the spread of the spirit plague. Alcoholism was said to be disastrous both for individuals as well as for the entire nation. Moralists kept

warning of the harm alcohol could inflict on physical and mental health as well as the unnecessary expenses incurred due to frequent visits to the pub, which caused even more suffering to the impoverished workers' families. By improving the housing conditions of workers which would enable a decent family life, alcoholism was planned to be put under control. But efforts made by the anti-alcohol movements did not harvest crops. According to the words of Leopold Puhar, a workers' activist and recovered alcoholic, in 1913 the entire families still suffered on account of "the drunkard father". For a drunkard, his wife was said to be nothing more but a "modern slave" and the children the unfortunates wandering the streets hungry, neglected, bare-foot and dressed in rags. In Slovenia, non-alcohol pubs modelled according to the Swiss example remained an unrealised ideal.

Similarly, the contribution treating the Jewish population in Slovenia in the period up to WWII is also very interesting. Until the 19th century, the European Jews were a minority which was completely different from the majority of the population in terms of religion, language, economic participation and also their way of life. Due to the influence of enlightenment and liberalism, European Jews gradually acquired the same rights as the other citizens. Once the emancipation of Jewish population was achieved, the process of integrating Jews into the emerging modern society began. This emancipation process is of key importance when it comes to understanding the Jewish population in Slovenia. After the exile of Jews from Styria and Carinthia in 1497 and Carniola in 1515, Jews were not allowed to settle permanently in this territory until the final emancipation of Austrian Jews in 1867. However, even after that only a small number of Jews settled in these areas. In the Prekmurje region, however, Jews were able to populate the area in a similar way as in other places in Hungary. With their gradual emancipation and successful economic integration in the agrarian environment, the largest Jewish community in the territory of present-day Slovenia had formed in the Prekmurje region by the end of the 19th century. Based on official censuses held until 1931 and an almost complete census of the members of Jewish religious communities from 1937, the author of the contribution was able to conduct a thorough analysis of the development in Slovenian Jewish population. In comparison to other parts of Slovenia, the course of this

development in Prekmurje was completely different. Jews left the villages and small towns of the economically underdeveloped Prekmurje and increasingly settled in the larger town centres outside Slovenia. On the contrary, the Jewish communities elsewhere in Slovenia were mainly composed of immigrants a large portion of which had arrived only recently. As a distinctively modern population, they mostly lived in towns. In comparison to development in the rest of Slovene population, both Jewish communities were so successful in their integration into the modern bourgeois society that they represented a trend in terms of mobility, urbanisation and demographic modernisation upon which the majority of the population was to develop in the future.

The period of WWII brought grave disruptions into the course of everyday life. Based on a paper contained in the anthology, it can be established that schools remained Slovenian both during the Italian and, subsequently, under German occupation. Already during the first year of occupation, the Italian High Commissioner adopted a series of new regulations along with provisions of the Italian legislation, as he wished to integrate the Slovenian schools into the existing Italian school system. He thus abolished all memorial days and school festivities which were, at that time, a constant occurrence in the Slovene school system. Moreover, he lowered the age upon which children had to start attending school to the age of 6. Furthermore, he prescribed new curricula. Fortunately, he did not attempt to try and eliminate the Slovene language classes; he even allowed teaching to be conducted in our language, but he eliminated Serbo-Croatian from the curricula of folk schools and secondary schools and introduced more Italian (non-compulsory) and physical education classes. Great changes were also introduced to history and geography lessons, as primary and secondary school students were to become closely acquainted with the occupying force's culture through a glorification of Fascism and learning about Italy. University was open throughout the entire period of Italian occupation, but its functioning, and students in particular, were under the careful observing eye of the occupying forces. Even after the Italian capitulation and during the German occupation, schools remained Slovenian. As far as physical education and holidays in schools were concerned, the basic situation similar to the one from the time prior to the Italian occupation was soon established. In principle, the German occupying

forces did not interfere with the structure and contents taught at the Ljubljana schools. The new curricula were mainly concerned with languages – German now acquired priority over the Italian language. Among other things, anti-Communist lectures were introduced in the school year of 1943/1944. That year, Rupnik's order abolished lectures and practical lessons at the university due to war (recruitment into the Home Guard army and work service). This, however, did not mean that the university was closed. Examinations and promotions continued uninterrupted. Besides the school policy and interferences by the occupying forces, classes were also affected by the negative influence of "war indicators", i.e. spatial inadequacy or lack of school facilities occupied by military units and refugees, numerous alarms and class interruptions, lack of fuel, limited lighting, work service for the implementation of fortification facilities high school students were also recruited in, etc. . To the greatest extent, the consequences were evident in 1944 and 1945, but, despite extremely aggravated conditions, all Ljubljana elementary and secondary schools continued with their classes. By being adaptable and resourceful, they did more than just follow the decree issued by President Rupnik in October 1944 which forbade discontinuance of classes.

With an improved living standard of the population after WWII, the objective of the economy was, among other things, to achieve better personal and social standard. Its position during the socialist regime in Slovenia was determined by the revolutionary power or communists whose economic development orientation was outlined in the central and republican social plans. These regulated relations between federal units and defined the economic policy at the federal and republican level. In the first period following the war, the centre of the living standard was mainly directed towards providing the common necessities for the population such as healthcare, social insurance, education and communal organisation, while personal standard was completely neglected and therefore stagnated at that time. The position of personal and social standard gradually began to improve only in the mid-1950s as directions in the economic development changed. At that time, the centre of development shifted from the capital building policy towards the improvement of living standard, which was then significantly improved in the 1960s due to the increase in personal spending, and grew into

consumerism in the 1970s (in that period, the quality of life improved for most of the population, both those who lived in cities and those living in province). Even though the 1980s witnessed general economic regression, along with political and overall crisis due to the flow of saved assets into consumption and grey economy, these factors did not have a significant impact in terms of lowering the quality of life.

The anthology presents the subject of the Modernist era, an important product of which was the emergence of science and establishment of national identity. The paper deals with the attempts of creating a Slovene scientific terminology after the March revolution, until the publication of the General Technical Dictionary (*Splošni tehniški slovar*). This period of more than one hundred years can be labelled as a period of attempts in "breaking ground" in the field of natural science and technical terminology. Simultaneously with this process, there were also processes emerging in the establishment of Slovene identity and culture as well as processes of social modernisation and emancipation in the field of education and availability of knowledge and science. The process of forming terminology per se was namely an integral part of national and political requirements after the "utraquism" in secondary schools and, to a lesser extent, also universities. Due to only partial success of Slovenisation underwent by secondary schools, the formation of terminology was also affected. The Slovene Society (*Slovenska matica*) was the first Slovene scientific association. As such, it played a key role in publishing Slovene school books used in secondary schools and thus also in the process of forming terminology. Also, it was important in the process of uniting Slovene intellectuals and scholars, thus forming a Slovene communication environment. In addition to composing terminology by sectors, preparations were also under way for the printing of a coherent Slovene natural science and technical vocabulary. These efforts were crowned with the publication of the "Scientific Terminology with Special Regard to Secondary Schools" (*Znanstvena terminologija s posebnim ozirom na srednja učilišča*) in 1880. Nevertheless, efforts did not stop when the dictionary was published, as language is a living organism. The period of the second half of the 19th century was also one of the most fruitful periods as far as technical inventions were concerned, which also meant the emergence of new expressions. Through the formation of Slovene

terms, one can namely follow the reception of inventions. Efforts in the field of forming terminology thus leant on societies such as the Slovene Society, the Yugoslav Engineering Society (*Društvo jugoslovanskih inženirjev*) and the Association of Carniolan Doctors (*Društvo kranjskih zdravnikov*). The concern for terminology changed only with the founding of Technical Faculty in 1919, when lecturers faced an acute problem regarding Slovene terminology and literature. Lecturers did not publish works in the Slovene language as they had problems finding publishers. Students therefore had to study by means of the German literature. A turning point for the Slovene technical terminology occurred with the founding of Terminology Section at the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts, as the technical part of the Section published the General Technical Dictionary after a decade of preparations from 1962 to 1964. This represented a solid platform for Slovene technical terminology.

The last chapter, Chapter IV, which is entitled “Images of Transition” (*Podobe tranzicije*), mentions an extremely important milestone in the Slovene economy, namely the period when Slovenia abandoned the socialist and acquired the capitalist system. During the transition period, an intensive process of transforming into a capitalist, market economy took place in Slovenia. The process was closely connected to macroeconomic stabilisation, ownership restructuring and state restructuring. The basic characteristics of the Slovene transition were the gradual nature of changes in the economic system and pragmatism of the economic policy, which was called gradualism. After the initial transition phase which witnessed a typical decline in economic growth and living standards of the population, a rapid decrease of investments and employment along with considerable macroeconomic instability, the Slovene economy entered the period of transformation recuperation as early as in 1993. This period was marked by intense restructuring in production and consumption as well as dynamic economic growth. In the first text of the final chapter, we can read about social conceptions and ideas of people regarding socialism and post-socialism in connection to the textile industry. The textile industry is included in several stories of modernisation, as the textile factories are the very place where industrialisation was born. In the modern period, textile factories became places where the processes of deindustrialisation are

rapidly taking place. At the same time, the textile industry also has the key role in discussions about globalisation. Modernisation and transition are two terms which people in the socialist as well as the post-socialist period intensively referred to. Papers on modernisation after WWII comprise industrialisation, urbanisation and the social and political development carried out in the spirit of socialism. As the socialist countries dissolved, people began to speak of a new global truth which equated socialism with historic stagnation. In Slovenia of that time, discourses on modernisation were linked to the ideas of democracy, market economy and consumerism. Even though the terms modernisation, transition and globalisation are loose in meaning and are frequently not analytically conceived, they are eloquent in pointing out social ideas and conceptions. The example of the still existing Predilnica Litija textile factory included in the anthology shows how post-socialist companies introduced new work strategies in the context of "modernisation processes".

For Slovene entrepreneurship, transition was generally considered a great trial. Entrepreneurship was certainly one of the key elements in the functioning of market economy. This was especially true during the transition from one social and political system to another. Under the previous system, Slovene companies were in "public ownership". Changes in Slovenia in this field occurred as early as in 1988, when the newly adopted legislation enabled establishment of private companies and the beginning of the privatisation of the existing companies. The adopted legislation triggered two processes: New, small companies were formed en masse, while large companies were broken up into smaller entities. In 1990, as much as 1048% growth in the number of companies was recorded. Development of small businesses was especially influenced by the Small Business Development Act adopted in 1991, and the Small Business Act adopted in 1994. The main processes taking place in entrepreneurship during transition were privatisation and restructuring. In December 1990, two state institutions were established which controlled and regulated the processes of privatisation and restructuring in Slovenia: The Agency of the Republic of Slovenia for Restructuring and Privatisation monitored and controlled the process, prepared instructions, approved privatisation programmes, while the Development Fund of the Republic of Slovenia was in charge of the restructuring process in companies. Cases of

privatisation carried out prior to the adoption of the Ownership Transformation of Companies Act (ZLPP), which was adopted only in November 1992 due to various complications, were conducted in line with the Yugoslavian laws. If they wanted to continue to operate successfully, the companies had to restructure, especially in terms of ownership, size, finances, organisation, technology and human resources. The position of companies was very poor in the early 1990s and they mostly generated loss. Many of them met the criteria necessary to carry out the bankruptcy or winding off proceedings. It is to the newly established small companies with up to 50 employees that Slovenia should be grateful for, as they represented the most important source of new positions of employment, thus preventing an even greater unemployment rate. In the transition period, the directors of Slovene companies were also very pessimistic about the future of Slovene entrepreneurship. They were mainly unsatisfied by the attitude of the state, as the success of transition more or less depended on the latter. In a developed market economy, the state was able to interfere with companies in its possession and with the companies from "the public sector" which were under its direct or indirect supervision. The state was also present in companies which could function in line with market principles but were unable to restructure without the help of the government. By means of its active policy, the state also indirectly facilitated the creation of new, private and rapidly growing companies. The transition from a socialist to market economy, from the regional to national economy and the transition to great structural changes mainly due to the need to adjust to new markets represented a major challenge and test for the Slovene state or entrepreneurship. Despite all trials brought by the transition, it is impossible to ignore the fact that transition is the reason why the Slovene entrepreneurship developed a new image and opened up and became more competitive as well as comparable with the entrepreneurship in western states.