

SLOVENIA IN FOCUS





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Authors of photographs: Miha Pavšek, AAMGI (Archives of the Anton Melik Geographical Institute of the Scientific Research Centre of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts), AGCO (Archives of the Government Communication Office of the Republic of Slovenia), ANMS (Archives of the National Museum of Slovenia), Dragan Arrigler, Oskar Dolenc, Aleš Fevžer, Jerneja Fridl, Marjan Garbajs, Peter Gedei, Franc Golob, Janez Gregori, Jože Hanc, Stojan Kerbler, Milan Klemenčič, The Kompas Archives, Blaž Komac, Janez Konečnik, Igor Lapajne, Tomaž Lauko, The Lek Archives, Matevž Lenarčič, Bojan Marčeta, Igor Maher, The Memento Archives, Andrej Mihevc, Igor Modic, NASA, Milan Orožen Adamič, Domen Pal, Luka Pintar, Jože Pojbič, Rudi Ramšak, The Revoz Archives, The Rogaska Slatina Archives, Jurij Senegačnik, Marjan Smerke, Zvone Šeruga, Marko Zaplatil, Ines Zgonc, Srdjan Živulović

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I FEEL
SLOVENIA

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FOREWORD



Dear Reader,

Slovenia lies at the crossroads of Europe, where routes between East, West, North, and South have converged since time immemorial. This small area in the heart of Europe has been influenced by larger and more powerful neighboring peoples, and has often been an object of their ambitions. Slovenia

is marked by a colorful history and the juxtaposition of various landscape forms. These have created a striking mosaic of cultures, languages, and customs – all very different, yet inextricably linked.

Slovenia in Focus is a beautiful testimony to this picturesque land. This rich and comprehensive volume is so much more than a book; it is an exhaustive source of information about the people in this part of the world, and the place and time in which we live. This publication is an important contribution to increasing the awareness and recognition of Slovenia, and appreciating and preserving its uniqueness and diversity – vital factors in shaping Slovenia's common identity.

The words and pictures in this volume are joined by outstanding thematic maps, the fruit of years of effort by Slovenian scholars and cartographers, presenting Slovenia and its regional diversity, position in Europe, distinguishing features, and identity, as well as the re-

lationship between nature and society. All of these details are presented so that everyone can understand and appreciate them. The pictures include not only classic Slovenian motifs, such as Mount Triglav, Lake Bled, and Postojna Cave, but also less-known yet equally interesting snapshots of Slovenia. This book is like a unique magnifying glass, offering readers a perfect view of Slovenia in the heart of Europe.

Slovenia in Focus is based on a number of publications that appeared in English. Among these, the *National Atlas of Slovenia* must be highlighted. It was published in English ten years after Slovenia joined the political map of the world as an independent nation. It was published at the right time, and it contributed to better recognition of our country during its efforts to become a member of the European Union. This volume is also being published at the right time. On the eve of the Slovenian Presidency of the Council of the European Union, this book will be a valuable addition to European libraries. Through pictures, maps, and words, it will again bring Slovenia closer to those that wish to know it better.

It is true that contemporary technologies and globalization have enabled us to present our diversity, thoughts, culture, and knowledge more quickly and easily. However, books have always been and always will be treasured friends to Slovenians. Therefore, I am honored to be able to present this book to you in lasting memory, and to express my sincere wish that you open it whenever all you need to feel good is a little more Slovenia.

Janez Janša

Prime Minister of the Republic of Slovenia



FACTS



▲ JERNEJA FRIDL

Sunset behind the kozolec southeast from Ljubljana.

SLOVENIA IN FOCUS



IMPORTANT DATES

APRIL 1990

The first democratic elections are held, with victories for the democratic parties.

23 DECEMBER 1990

A plebiscite is held with an exceptionally high turnout; 88% vote for Slovenian independence.

25 JUNE 1991

The Slovenian parliament adopts a declaration on the independence of Slovenia.

23 DECEMBER 1991

The new Slovenian constitution is adopted.

15 JANUARY 1992

Slovenia is recognized by all members of the European Community.

22 MAY 1992

Slovenia becomes a permanent member of the United Nations.

10 JUNE 1996

An association agreement is signed with the European Union and a membership application is submitted.

1 FEBRUARY 1999

The association agreement with the European Union enters into force.

29 MARCH 2004

Slovenia becomes a member of the NATO alliance.

1 MAY 2004

Slovenia becomes a member of the European Union.

1 JANUARY 2007

Slovenia adopts the euro.

21 DECEMBER 2007

The Schengen area expands to include Slovenia.

In the center of the Slovenian coat of arms is an image of Mount Triglav with two undulating blue lines beneath it, representing Slovenia's sea and rivers. The three gold six-pointed stars are taken from the coat of arms of the counts of Celje, who united nearly all of present-day Slovenian territory under their authority in the late Middle Ages.





MILAN OROŽEN ADAMIČ

On 26 June 1991, the day after the official declaration of independence, the largest public gathering in Slovenian history at Republic Square in Ljubljana was accompanied by a ceremonial proclamation of independence and flag-raising. Only a few hours later, the Yugoslav army attacked Slovenia, only to be defeated in a ten-day war.

Slovenia has successfully passed through transition and, in a decade and half, has transformed itself into a modern, politically stable, and economically successful country. Slovenia has well-developed infrastructure, a highly educated workforce, an excellent location in Central Europe, fairly moderate inflation and unemployment, a comfortable level of international reserves, and promising economic growth.



IGOR MODIČ/AGCO

Because of its position at the intersection of various natural and social units, Slovenia boasts a rich and diverse natural and cultural heritage. Among its most outstanding sites is Bled, with its glacial lake and island.



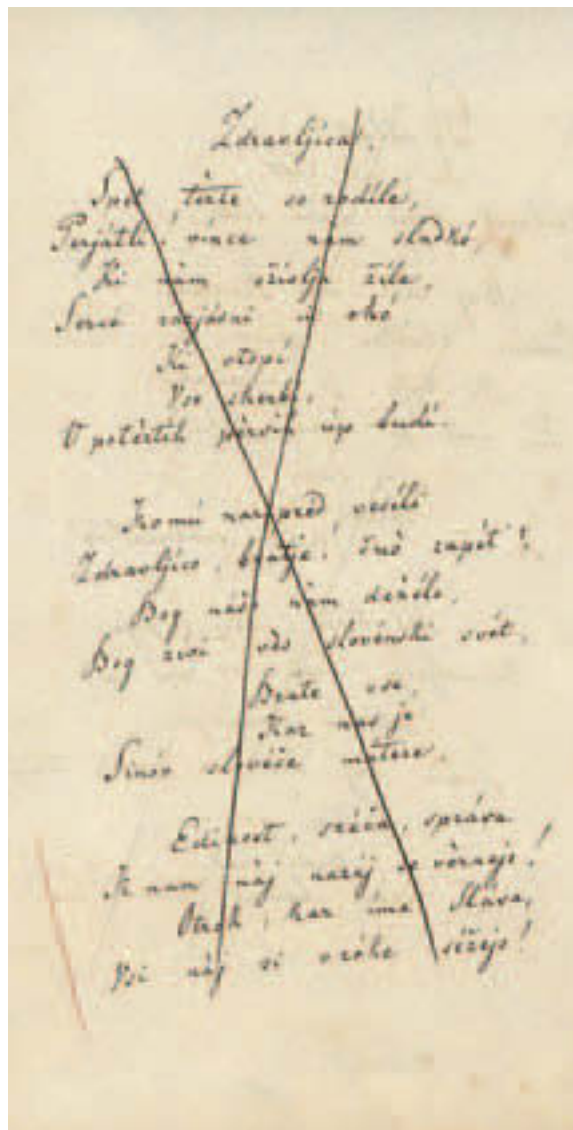
REVOZ ARCHIVES/AGCO

The Slovenian flag with the colors of the coat of arms of the crown land of Carniola was designed in 1848 and became the Slovenian national flag. Just before independence, the Slovenian assembly confirmed the white-blue-red flag with the newly designed Slovenian coat of arms as the state flag (Internet 9).



The Slovenian anthem

The seventh stanza of the poem »A Toast«, written by France Prešeren in 1844, became the Slovenian national anthem on 27 September 1989. The choral arrangement was composed by Stanko Premrl.



A Toast

*The vintage, friends, is over,
And here sweet wine makes, once again,
Sad eyes and hearts recover
Puts fire into every vein.
Drowns dull care
Everywhere
And summons hope out of despair.*

*To whom with acclamation
And song shall we our first toast give?
God save our land and nation
And all Slovenes where'er they live,
Who own the same
Blood and name,
And who one glorious Mother claim.*

*Let thunder out of heaven
Strike down and smite our wanton foe!
Now, as it once had thriven,
May our dear realm in freedom grow.
May fall the last
Chains of the past
Which bind us still and hold us fast!*

*Let peace, glad conciliation,
Come back to us throughout the land!
Towards their destination
Let Slavs henceforth go hand-in-hand!
Thus again
Will honor reign
To justice pledged in our domain.*

*To you, our pride past measure,
Our girls! Your beauty, charm and grace!
There surely is no treasure
To equal maidens of such race.
Sons you'll bear,
Who will dare
Defy our foe no matter where.*

*Our hope now, our tomorrow –
The youths – we toast and toast with joy.
No poisonous blight or sorrow
Your love of homeland shall destroy.
With us indeed
You're called to heed
Its summons in this hour of need.*

**God's blessing on all nations,
Who long and work for that bright day,
When o'er earth's habitations
No war, no strife shall hold its sway;
Who long to see
That all men free,
No more shall foes, but neighbors be.**

*At last to our reunion –
To us the toast! Let it resound,
Since in this great communion
By thoughts of brotherhood we're bound
May joyful cheer
Ne'er disappear
From all good hearts now gathered here.*

(English translation by Janko Lavrin.)



Prešeren wished to include »A Toast« in his 1846 collection *Poezije*. The state censor objected to the fourth stanza, and so Prešeren omitted it from his collection; this is why it is crossed out in the photo. The full poem was published in slightly modified form in 1848. The poem has the shape of a carmina figurata because the words create a recognizable shape or pattern. When centered, the verses create the shape of a wine goblet (Internet 10).



FACTS

The tolar and the euro

On 8 October 1991 the tolar became Slovenia's new legal tender. During the next three days, the old Yugoslav dinar was exchanged for temporary payment notes, which were replaced by tolar banknotes from 1992 to 1994. The tolar, which was a symbol of Slovenian independence and economic stability, was replaced by the euro on 1 January 2007.



DRAGAN ARRIGLER/AGCO

The tolar banknotes portrayed important Slovenians: the protestant preacher, writer, and translator Primož Trubar (1508–1586), the polymath Janez Vajkard Valvasor (1641–1693), the mathematician, physicist, geodesist, meteorologist, and artillery officer Jurij Vega (1754–1802), the painter Rihard Jakopič (1869–1943), the composer Iacobus Gallus Carniolus (1550–1591), the architect Jože Plečnik (1872–1957), the poet and lawyer France Prešeren (1800–1849), the painter Ivana Kobilca (1861–1926), and the writer, playwright, and poet Ivan Cankar (1876–1918).

The design of 296 million Slovenian euro coins, with a total value of 104 million euro and total weight of 1,465 tons, was unveiled on 7 October 2005. They were minted at the Mint of Finland. The Slovenian euro coins are the first to feature a new common side, with a new map of Europe on the bi-colored and Nordic-gold coins. The obverse sides of the coins show motifs of key importance in shaping Slovenian identity (Internet 11).

Slovenian euro coins



2-euro coin: France Prešeren, Slovenia's greatest poet. The words *Žive naj vsi narodi* (God's blessing on all nations) are from his poem »A Toast«, which is Slovenia's national anthem.



1-euro coin: Primož Trubar, who was responsible for the first Slovenian printed book. The phrase *Stati inu obstati* (To stand and withstand) are from his sermon on faith.



50-cent coin: Triglav, Slovenia's highest mountain and symbol of Slovenia, with the constellation of Cancer, under which Slovenia became an independent state. The inscription *Oj Triglav moj dom* (Oh Triglav, my home) is the first line of a popular folk song.



20-cent coin: A pair of Lipizzaner horses, an internationally renowned breed developed in Lipica, Slovenia.



10-cent coin: Plan for the Slovenian parliament (not executed); architect Jože Plečnik named this vision of future Slovenian independence the »cathedral of freedom«.



5-cent coin: The sower motif by painter Ivan Grohar. The seeds being sown include 25 stars, symbols of the members of the European Union.



2-cent coin: The Ducal Stone, on which the dukes of Karantania and later the dukes of Carinthia were enthroned in the Middle Ages. It is a symbol of the centuries-old orientation of the Slovenian nation toward independence and freedom. It stands in the foyer of the regional parliament in Klagenfurt.



1-cent coin: A stork, a symbol of birth and longevity.

BANK OF SLOVENIA ARCHIVES



Slovenia is a member of many international organizations:

United Nations and its specialized bodies, the European Union, NATO, Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organization, World Health Organization, Central European Initiative, Council of Europe, Central European Free Trade Association, and others.

Slovenian representation abroad:

Albania, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, FYR Macedonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Iran, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Lebanon, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, Pakistan, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States, Uzbekistan, Vatican, Zambia.

Foreign diplomatic missions and consular posts

(located in Slovenia):

Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, FYR Macedonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Latvia, Luxemburg, Malaysia, Malta, Mexico, Monaco, Montenegro, Morocco, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Seychelles, Slovakia, South Africa, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States, Vatican.

Foreign diplomatic missions and consular posts

(located outside Slovenia):

Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Belize, Benin, Brazil, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Columbia, Cuba, Dominica, Ecuador,



SRDJAN ŽIVLOVIČ/AGCCO

Estonia, Georgia, Ghana, Iceland, Iran, Israel, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Lithuania, Moldova, Nicaragua, Nigeria, North Korea, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Qatar, San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Tanzania, Thailand, Tunisia, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yemen, Zambia.

Foreign cultural centers:

American Center, Austrian Institute, British Council, Center for Latin America, Charles Nodier French Institute, Goethe Institute, Cervantes Institute for Spanish Culture, Italian Institute for Culture.

National holidays

January 1 and 2	New Year
February 8	Prešeren Day, Slovenian Culture Day
	Easter Sunday, Easter Monday
April 27	National Resistance Day
May 1 and 2	Labor Day
June 25	Statehood Day
August 15	Assumption
October 31	Reformation Day
November 1	All Saints' Day
December 25	Christmas
December 26	Independence Day

The Lipizzaner horses are a breed native to Slovenia whose origins reach back to the 16th century, when Archduke Charles II of Austria purchased the village of Lipica in western Slovenia along with its appertaining land, stud farm, and its entire herd of Karst horses. The breeding of top-quality horses for the Spanish Riding School in Vienna spread the fame of these noble horses throughout the world.



FACTS

BASIC GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Location

Slovenia is located in Central Europe.

Area: 20,273 km².

Land border length: total 1,370 km, with Croatia 670 km, with Austria 318 km, with Italy 280 km, with Hungary 102 km (*Slovenija v številkah* 2007, 5).

Coastline: 46.6 km.

Landscape

Four major European geographical features meet in Slovenia; the Alps, the Dinaric Alps, the Pannonian Basin, and the Mediterranean.

Highest point: Triglav (2,864 m).

Deepest sea point: 550 m from Madona Cape, Piran (−38 m).

Most extensive karst cave: Postojna Cave (19.5 km).

Largest lake: Lake Cerknica (intermittent, 26 km²).

Longest river: Sava (221 km).

Average elevation: 557.3 m.

Average inclination: 14.1°.

Waters: the land is crossed by some 26,989 km of rivers and streams (*Površinski vodotoki ...* 1998) and some 7,500 springs (Orožen Adamič 2001b, 14) with potable water rise to the surface, including several hundred first-class therapeutic mineral springs.

Land use (cadastral data 1999; Petek 2002, 216)

Fields: 12.5%.

Meadows: 17.8%.

Orchards: 1.9%.

Vineyards: 1.1%.

Pastures: 10.3%.

Forests: 48.9% (according to the land coverage data from 2001, forests and abandoned land already encompass 66%; *Slovenija v številkah* 2007, 6).

Other: 7.6%.



Blagay's daphne is one of Slovenia's special botanical features. It was first described in 1837 by the curator of the provincial museum in Ljubljana, Henrik Freyer, who assigned it the binomial *Daphne blagayana* after its discoverer, Count Blagay. The discovery of a new species in Europe created a sensation in the botanical world (*Gabrovec* 1998, 82–83).



Due to their exceptional natural and cultural heritage, the Sečoveljske soline were declared a nature park in 1989, and in 1993 this site was included on the Ramsar List of Wetlands of International Importance.

Climate

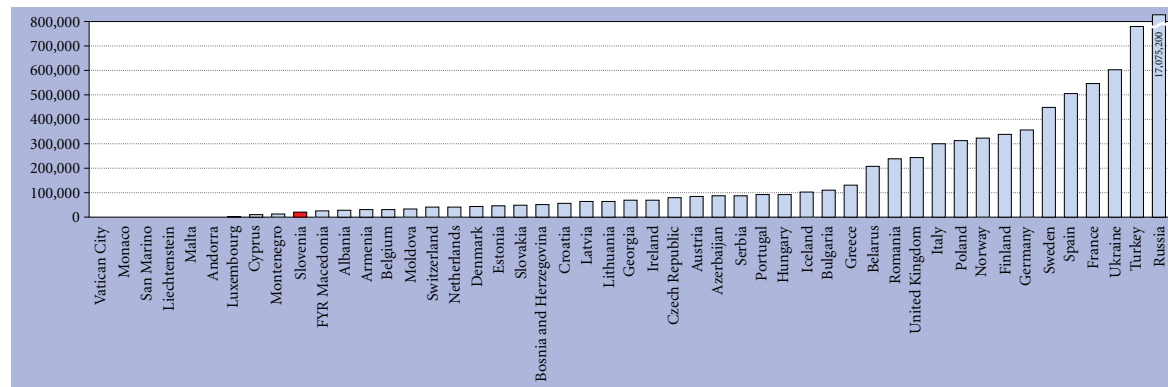
Most of Slovenia has a continental climate with cold winters and warm summers. The average temperatures are −1.1 °C in January and +19.9 °C in July (Ljubljana). The mountains have an alpine climate, and the southeast a Mediterranean climate. The average rainfall is 1,000 mm on the coast, up to 3,500 mm in the Alps, 800 mm in the southeast, and 1,400 mm in central Slovenia.

Biodiversity

Slovenia's varied geological composition and diversity of relief forms, combined with the fact that Slovenia encompasses four distinct bio-geographical regions, make possible a wealth of animal and plant species. Slovenia is home to more than 3,000 fern and flower species, and more than 50,000 animal species. There are also many native animal and plant species (Orožen Adamič 2001, 14).

Nature conservation

Approximately 11% of Slovenia's territory is specially protected; the largest area with this status is Triglav National Park, with an area of 838 km². There are 3 regional parks with a total area of 439 km², 41 nature parks, 49 nature reserves, and 623 natural heritage sites. In addition, the Nature 2000 network includes 286 areas



Comparison of the area of European countries (km²) (Internet 3).



that altogether encompass 36% of Slovenia's territory. These protected areas and Nature 2000 areas are well covered (Internet 4, Internet 5).

PEOPLE

Population: 2,008,516 (June 2007).

Ethnic composition: Slovenian 83.1%, Serbian 2.0%, Croatian 1.8%, Bosnian 1.1%, Muslim 0.5%, Hungarian 0.3%, Albanian 0.3%, Macedonian 0.2%, Romanyn 0.2%, Montenegrin 0.1%, Italian 0.1%, other 10.3% (2002 Census).

Ethnic minorities: Hungarians in the northeast and Italians in southwest are recognized as indigenous minorities with special rights under the constitution.

Slovenians abroad: There are Slovenian indigenous minorities in Italy, Austria, Croatia, and Hungary. Between 250,000 and 400,000 Slovenians (depending on whether second and subsequent generations are counted) live outside Slovenia, in other continents and in EU countries (Orožen Adamič 2001b, 15).

Density: 99.6 inhabitants per km² (June 2007)

Birth rate: 9.1 (2005).

Mortality: 9.4 (2005).

Natural population growth per 1000 inhabitants:

1.9 (1990), 0.0 (1995), -0.2 (2000), -0.3 (2005).

Age distribution: 14.0% (0–14 years), 70.1% (15–64), 15.9% (65+) (2006).

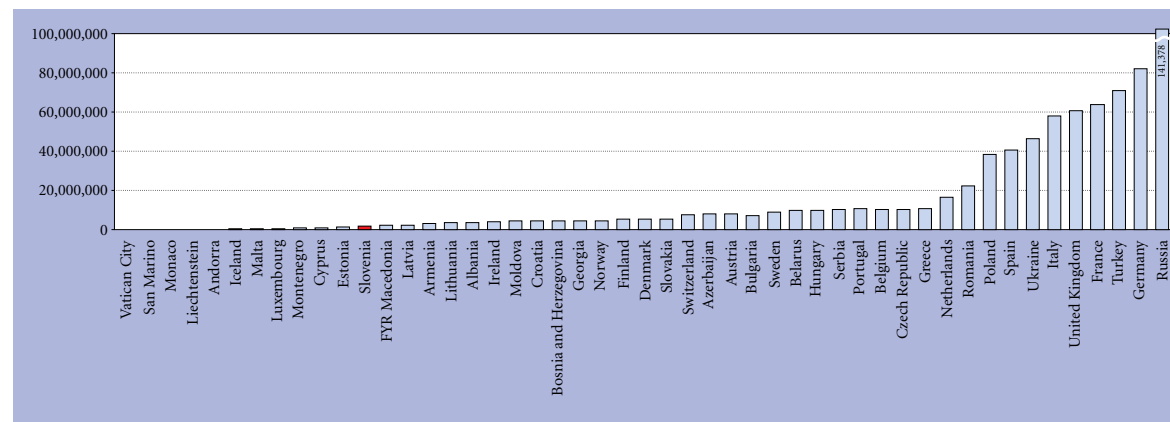
Life expectancy: 74.84 men, 81.89 women (2006).

Urban population: 51% (2005).

Religion: Catholic 58.0%, Muslim 2.4%, Orthodox 2.3%, Lutheran 0.9%, and others. Altogether 43 religious communities are registered (2002 Census).

Education (population over 15 years old): no education 0.7%, incomplete primary 6.3%, primary 26.1%, upper secondary 54.1%, short-term tertiary 5.1%, higher 7.9% (2002 Census).

More than 60% of people read at least one book a year, which puts Slovenia near the top of reading rates in Europe and more than 4,000 new book titles are published annually. Museums in Slovenia register 2.1 million visitors a year, 1.5 million people see films every year, and nearly half a million go to the theatre (*Facts about Slovenia* 2006, 15).

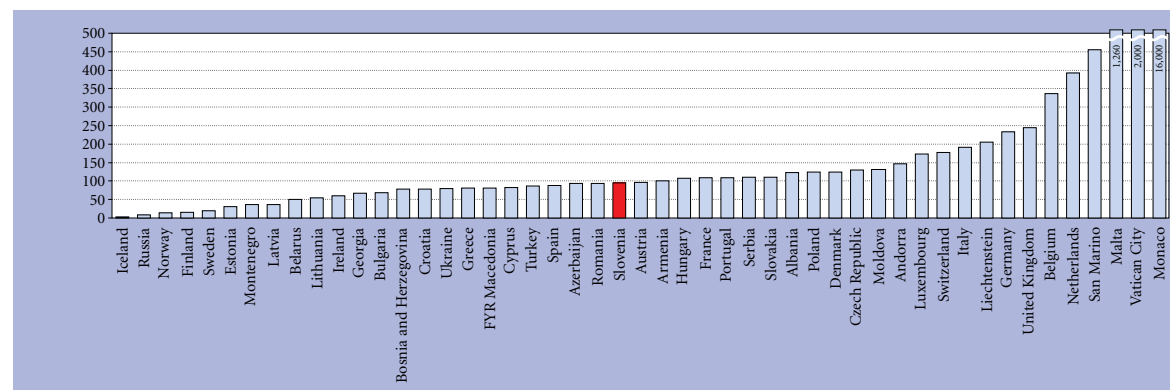


Comparison of the population of European countries (Internet 3).



ALEŠ FEVŽER/AGCO

Similar to trends in other modern societies, the average number of people per household is decreasing (2.8 in 2002) and the number of marriages is also falling. The average age of mothers at the birth of their first child is increasing; this stood at 29.4 in 2005. In 2005 the number of live births rose past 18,000 for the first time since 2000. Slovenian women have only 1.2 children on average (Internet 6).



Population density of European countries (per km²) (Internet 3).



FACTS

ECONOMY

GDP per capita: \$23,400 (2006 estimate; Internet 3), EUR 15,177 (2006).

Growth in GDP: 5.7% (2006).

Inflation rate: 8.9% (2000), 4.6% (2003), 2.3% (2005), 2.8% (2006).

Workforce: 969,000 (2006).

Unemployment (by ILO standards): 6.7% (2003), 6.5% (2006), 6.0% (2006).

Exports: EUR 16.8 billion (2006).

Imports: EUR 18.3 billion (2006).

Export/import ratio: 91 (2006).

Major foreign trade partners (2006): Germany, Italy, Croatia, Austria, France, Russia, Netherlands, Serbia, Poland, Hungary, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Spain, Belgium, United Kingdom, Czech Republic.

Value added by activity: Agriculture, hunting and forestry 2.0%, Fishing 0.0%, Mining and quarrying 0.4%, Manufacturing 21.0%, Electricity, gas, and water supply 2.6%, Construction 5.4%, Wholesale, retail, repair of motor vehicles 10.4%, Hotels and restaurants 2.0%, Transport, storage, communication 6.8%, Financial intermediation 4.3%, Real estate, renting, and business services 14.7%, Public administration and defense 5.3%, Education 4.9%, Health and social work 4.3%, Other community, social, and per-



DRAGAN ARRIGLER/AGCO

A developed transportation network linked up with international transport systems is of exceptional importance for economic development. Slovenia has been accelerating construction of its freeway network ever since independence

sonal services 3.2%, Private households with employed persons 0.0% (2006, *Slovenija v številkah* 2007, 64).

Education and science

Elementary schools: 797.

Pupils in elementary schools: 167,969.

Pupils per teacher: 10.5.

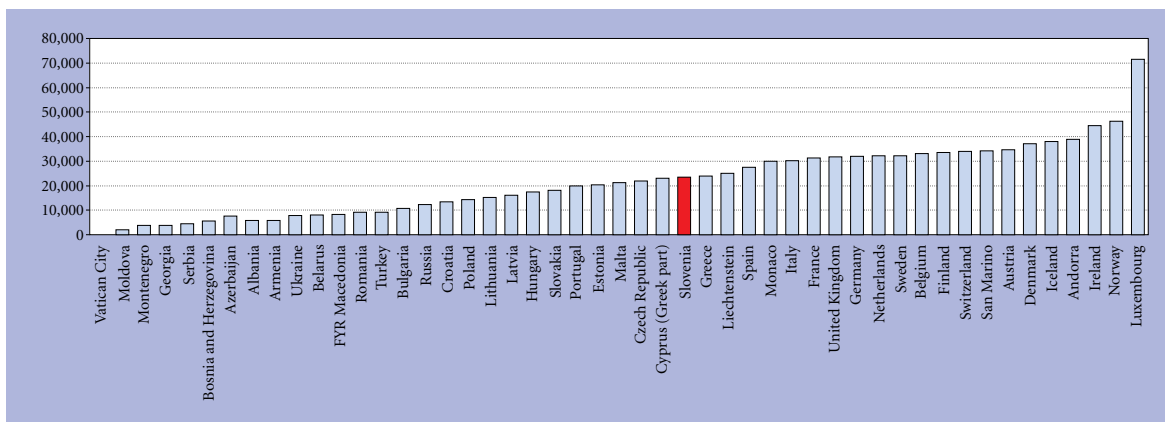
Secondary schools: 143.

Pupils in secondary schools: 99,860.

Tertiary education establishments: 89.

All students in tertiary education: 90,403.

Gross domestic product of European countries (USD per capita) (Internet 3).



Graduates from tertiary education (2004): 14,888.
 Students enrolled in graduate study: 8,378.
 (2005/2006 academic year, *Facts about Slovenia* 2006, 55).
 Research organizations: 388.
 R&D personnel (head count): 12,379.
 R&D personnel in FTE (full-time equivalent): 8,615.
 R&D personnel (FTE) per 1,000 total employment: 9.34.
 Researchers (head count): 7,027.
 Researchers (FTE): 4,642.
 Researchers (FTE) per 1,000 total employment: 5.03
 (2005, *Facts about Slovenia* 2006, 65).



LEK ARCHIVES/AGCO

Slovenia's economic structure is gradually approaching the structure of advanced postindustrial economies. The restructuring process continues in manufacturing and the strengthening of technology-intensive industries.



HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

The *Vače situla*, dating from the 6th century BC, is one of the most important finds from the Hallstatt period in what is now Slovenia. The original is kept at the National Museum in Ljubljana.



TOMAŽ LAUKO/ANMS

Antiquity

The territory of present-day Slovenia was settled in prehistoric times, which is shown by two stone tools approximately 250,000 years old found in Loza Cave near Orehek. There are many finds from later periods. They show that the Neolithic inhabitants here were engaged in animal husbandry and agriculture. In the 4th century BC this territory was settled by the Celts, who founded the Kingdom of Noricum. The names of certain places (e.g., Bohinj, Tuhinj) and rivers (e.g., Sava, Drava, Savinja) originate from this period. Their state was occupied by the Romans in the 2nd century AD and the territory of today's Slovenia was incorporated into the 10th region of Roman Italy and two provinces, Pannonia and Noricum.

Karantania, the Franks, and unification under the Habsburgs

From the Middle Ages onwards, history has been marked by the power and supremacy of the Italians, Hungarians, and especially Germans, which was evident in the social, economic, and political subordination of the Slovenians until 1918, and the constant shrinking of their area of settlement from the 6th century onwards, when they started settling in the eastern Alps. After a short period of the independent state of Karantania with its seat in the Klagenfurt Basin in present-day Austria in the 7th and 8th centuries, Slovenian territory was variously dominated by the Bavarians (who enforced Christianization) and the Franks (who introduced the feudal system and carried out extensive colonization), with a short Hungarian interregnum, and later by the Habsburgs. The first region (then referred to as a *march*) to come under Habsburg rule was Styria, and the last one was Gorizia in 1500 (Čepič et al. 1979, 208–214).

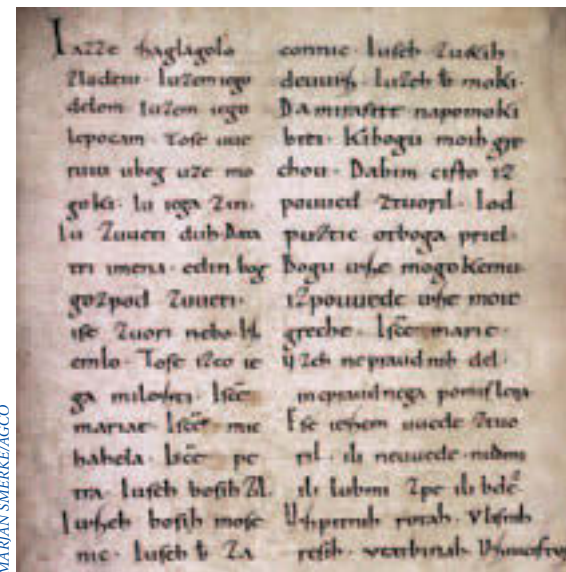
The protestant reformation and the first books in Slovenian

The Slovenian lands awaited the beginning of the modern era united within the unified and organized Habsburg monarchy, which ruled uninterruptedly (except



The democratic ritual of the enthronement of the Carinthian dukes on a stone throne was unique in feudal Europe. Detail from a fresco by Gojmir Anton Kos (1896–1979).

MARJAN SMERKE/AGCO



The first documents written in Slovenian are the Freising manuscripts (Brižinski spomeniki), dating from about AD 1000.

during the Napoleonic period) until 1918. The economic, political, social, and cultural development of central Europe also reached the Slovenian lands. Here it must be emphasized that the Slovenians did not have their own nobility, and later the townspeople were also mainly German speakers. Slovenian speakers constituted the lowest social stratum and were cut off from the mechanisms of economic and political power. The factor that linked them was language. The development of standard Slovenian began with the protestant reformation and the publication of an abecedary in 1550, a catechism in 1551, and the complete Bible in Slovenian in 1584. This achievement by the Slovenian protestants is considered the cultural birth of the Slovenian nation (Čepič et al. 1979, 295–298; Grdina 1996), which later became firmly Roman Catholic due to the strength of the Counter-Reformation (Čepič et al. 1979, 306–312). The formation of the modern Slovenian nation began in the middle of the 18th century with the Enlightenment, which reawakened publishing activity in Slovenian. The romantic poet France Prešeren (1800–1849) elevated Slovenian to the level of other European languages.



Formation of the nation

The English historian A. J. P. Taylor wrote that some nations or their revival movements in the Habsburg monarchy were actually created by men of letters (Grdina 1999, 115). This certainly applies to the Slovenians (Granda 2001, 69–93). Cultural emancipation led to the first attempts at political emancipation (Hroch 1985, 9). With the March Revolution of 1848, a United Slovenia movement also arose in Slovenia within the Austrian Empire. It contained demands for an administratively or politically united national territory that would emerge with the anticipated transformation of the Austrian Empire into a bourgeois parliamentary monarchy and with the internal administrative reorganization of the state. This program filled Slovenians with the hope that a greater administrative entity of Slovenia, extending across all



IGOR LAPAJNE

Atlant, the first world atlas in Slovenian, was printed in six sets of three sheets each between 1869 and 1877. It was important for awakening national consciousness and developing the native language. Facsimiles of eighteen maps and an accompanying scholarly monograph were published in 2005.

the territory populated by ethnic Slovenians, would come into being. Despite the fact that it did not succeed, the Slovenian lands, like the rest of Europe, had changed. With the emancipation of the serfs when plowmen became freeholders, the Austrian nobility lost its ancient power. German remained the standard language for merchants and the tiny educated elite, but a Slovenian bourgeoisie was growing and gradually becoming influential. Change was most evident in Carniola, where Ljubljana had become truly Slovenian by 1900. By strengthening the awareness of the importance of Slovenian, awareness of the unity of the Slovenian population regardless of the provincial borders strengthened as well. The ethnonym *Slovenec* 'Slovenian' became increasingly more established, and it gradually replaced old terms denoting Slovenians (e. g., *Wend* 'Wend', *Kranjec* 'Carniolan', etc.), although these were still used (Urbanc 2006, 256). At this time, the name *Slovenija* 'Slovenia' began to be used to denote the entire territory inhabited by Slovenians – that is, a unit that did not exist administratively, but aroused the idea of unification of all Slovenians. The Habsburg period ended after the First World War with the breakup of the multinational monarchy.

Unification with the South Slavs and the Kingdom of Yugoslavia

Ideas about the unification of the South Slavs, which guided the activities of Slavic nations in the last decades of the monarchy's existence, were realized in 1918 with the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, known after 1929 as the Kingdom of Yugoslavia (Čepič et al. 1979, 655). None of the former Habsburg crown lands inhabited by Slovenians were fully incorporated into the new country. Western Slovenia (i. e., the Gorizia region, Istria, and part of Carniola) went to Italy, whereas the lion's share of the former crown lands of Carinthia and Styria belonged to Austria. Yugoslavia received Prekmurje, which had belonged to the Hungarian half of the dual monarchy (in 1868, the Habsburg Monarchy was reorganized into the Austro-Hungarian Empire). Almost one-third of Europe's Slovenian speakers were left out-

side the boundaries of Slovenia. In Italy and Austria, they continued to be subject to discrimination and political pressure by the dominant ethnic majorities (Čepič et al. 1979, 716–720).

Incorporation into Yugoslavia did not fulfill Slovenian expectations, the major obstacle being strong central control imposed over the kingdom by Belgrade. Slovenian autonomy was restricted mainly to cultural affairs (Internet 1). In addition, from the beginning of the dictatorship in 1929, Slovenian territory was not organized into Slovenia as an administrative unit per se, but into the Drava Province (*Dravska banovina*; Yugoslavia had nine such provinces organized not on ethnic or historical grounds, but named after rivers). The Drava Province did not encompass all Slovenian ethnic territory (Čepič et al. 1979, 655). Its economy, the most developed in the kingdom, benefited from commercial contact with Belgrade, but progress was hindered by the new borders that cut off the economically vital former Habsburg centers of Klagenfurt and Trieste.

The Second World War and federal Yugoslavia

After the German invasion of Yugoslavia in 1941, Slovenia was occupied by Italy, Germany, and Hungary. The resistance groups that soon sprang up came under the domination of the communist-led Slovenian National Liberation Front. In November 1943, this organization joined Tito's Partisans in proclaiming a new Yugoslavia soon after the war. The Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia was established with Slovenia as a constituent element. Slovenia underwent a complete restructuring of its economy, politics, and society following Stalinist principles. After the split between Tito and Stalin in 1948, conditions improved. Slovenia retained and further improved its favorable economic situation compared to other Yugoslav republics. Through the 1980s, as the Yugoslav economy suffered heavy inflation, a crisis over ideas about full liberation and secession from the federal state swung into motion. This resulted in free, multiparty elections in May 1990 and in a referendum calling for a sovereign, independent Slovenia in December.



Independent Slovenia: the old dreams came true

The political battle was started by intellectuals in 1987 by calling for the establishment of a pluralistic democratic system, the formation of a market economy, and Slovenian independence in particular. Despite the communists' inclination to resolve the Slovenia issue within a restructured Yugoslavia, in November 1989 they permitted multiparty political life. The new democratic political parties, which had started to emerge since the beginning of 1989, united in the Democratic Opposition of Slovenia (DEMOS).

The DEMOS coalition won the first democratic elections in April 1990 and received a mandate to form a government. A plebiscite was held on 23 December and, with a large voter turnout, 88.2% of the people voted for Slovenian independence. In the spring of 1991,

Slovenia's political leadership was still seeking a confederation agreement for the Yugoslav republics, but without success. On 25 June 1991 the Slovenian parliament therefore adopted the Declaration of Independence of the Republic of Slovenia. After a ten-day war against Slovenia led by the Serbian-dominated Yugoslav People's Army, peace was concluded. With its new constitution adopted in 1991, Slovenia began its transformation into a modern democratic country. It redirected its politics and economy towards Central and Western Europe. It successfully passed through this transition period and achieved political stability. It entered the new millennium with rapid economic growth and a growing GDP. In 2004, Slovenia became a full member of NATO and EU, and at the beginning of 2007 it was the first among the new EU member states to enter the euro zone.



STOJAN KERBLER

Cultural differences within Yugoslavia contributed to Slovenians' overwhelming choice for independence.

Language

The Slovenian language has played a special role throughout Slovenian history and it is still considered one of the foundations of national identity. Slovenian is a South Slavic language and is the official language of Slovenia. It is the native language of approximately 2.4 million people, of which 1.85 live in present-day Slovenia (Internet 2). In spite of various (especially German) influences, it has preserved its special features. The most notable of these is the dual form, a grammatical number used for two people or things.

Literary Slovenian emerged in the 16th century with the works of Reformation intellectuals. The orthography of that time was called the *bohoričica* and was adapted from German orthography; it was used until 1845. The basic characteristic of the *gajica* orthography, in which Slovenian is still written today, was the replacement of the digraphs *zh*, *sh*, and *ſh* with the characters *č*, *ž*, and *š* (Internet 2). The modern Slovenian alphabet has 25 characters, and the characters *č*, *đ*, *q*, *x*, *y*, and *w* are also used for names of foreign origin. The writing itself in its pure form does not use any other signs, except additional accentual marks when it is necessary to distinguish between similar words with different meanings.

Feature	Number
Characters	25
Vowels	5 graphemes, 8 phonemes
Consonants	20 graphemes, 21 phonemes
Phonemes	29 (8 + 21)
Grammatical numbers	3
Cases	6
Declensions	11 (4 + 4 + 3)
Grammatical genders	3



FACTS

STATE AND POLITICAL SYSTEM

Conventional long/short form: Republic of Slovenia, Slovenia.

Local long/short form: Republika Slovenija, Slovenija.

Constitution

Slovenia proclaimed its constitution in December 1991 and, under this constitution, Slovenia is a democratic republic and a welfare state governed by the rule of law. The state's authority is based on the principle of the separation of legislative, executive, and judicial powers, with a parliamentary system of government. The highest legislative authority is the National Assembly (90 deputies), which has the right to enact laws. Elections to the National Assembly are held every four years.

Suffrage

According to the constitution, the right to vote is universal and equal. Every citizen that has attained the age of eighteen years has the right to vote and stand for office.

President

The president of Slovenia represents Slovenia and is the commander-in-chief of its defense forces. He or she is elected for a maximum of two consecutive five-year terms in direct, general elections by secret ballot. The president calls elections to the National Assembly, promulgates laws, proposes a candidate for prime minister to the National Assembly, issues instruments of ratification for international treaties and agreements, appoints and recalls Slovenia's ambassadors and envoys, accepts letters of credence of foreign diplomatic representatives, and performs certain other duties determined by the constitution. Slovenia's president is Danilo Türk (elected in November 2007).

The Karst area is riddled with karst caves. Jezerina Cave near Obrov is only one such cave with breathtaking limestone formations.

Political parties represented in the National Assembly, elected in October 2004

Slovenian Democratic Party (SDS): 29 deputies.

Liberal Democracy of Slovenia (LDS): 23 deputies.

Social Democrats (SD): 10 deputies.

New Slovenia–Christian People's Party (NSi): 9 deputies.

Slovenian People's Party (SLS): 7 deputies.

Slovenian National Party (SNS): 6 deputies.

Democratic Party of Pensioners of Slovenia (DeSUS): 4 deputies.

1 representative of the Hungarian minority.

1 representative of the Italian minority.

The speaker of the National Assembly is France Cukjati.



*The Carniolan honey bee (*Apis mellifera carnica*) is an indigenous subspecies that was developed in Slovenia.*

National Council

The National Council is a mainly advisory body composed of representatives of social, economic, professional, and local interests. It may propose laws to the National Assembly, and at the latter's request provides an opinion on specific issues. Members are elected for a five-year term (40 members). The chairman of the National Council is Janez Sušnik.

Executive authority

The government consists of the prime minister and other ministers. The government is independent within the framework of its jurisdiction and responsible to the National Assembly. The current government coalition consists of four parties: the Slovenian Democratic Party, New Slovenia–Christian People's Party, Slovenian People's Party, and Democratic Party of Pensioners of Slovenia. It is headed by Prime Minister Janez Janša.

Judicial authority

Judicial powers are executed by judges, who are elected by the National Assembly following a proposal by the Judicial Council. The constitution states that judges are independent in carrying out their functions, but are bound by the constitution and the law. Judicial power is implemented by courts with general responsibilities and specialized courts which deal with matters relating to specific



legal areas. Courts with general responsibilities are district courts (44), regional courts (11), higher courts (4), and the Supreme Court of the Republic of Slovenia.

Human rights

The institution of ombudsman was introduced in September 1994. The ombudsman is proposed by the president and elected by the National Assembly for a period of six years; ombudsmen are autonomous and independent in their work. Zdenka Čebašek Travnik was elected ombudsman in 2007.

The State Prosecutor

The State Prosecutor is an independent state authority responsible for prosecuting cases brought against those suspected of committing criminal offences. There are 11 regional state prosecutor's offices, 4 higher state prosecutor's offices and the Office of the State Prosecutor General of the Republic of Slovenia. The state prosecutor general is proposed by the government and appointed by the National Assembly for a period of six years, with the possibility of further appointment.

Administrative division

Until 1995, Slovenia was divided into 60 municipalities. Following an extensive reform of this system, 147 municipalities were founded, including 11 urban municipalities. By 2006 the number of municipalities had increased to 210. Above these are the administrative units (numbering 58 and more or less corresponding to the former large municipalities), which are responsible for carrying out all administrative tasks that do not fall under local government or special administrative bodies of particular ministries (e.g., the customs administration). Slovenia is also divided into 12 statistical regions. Regional information is used to support regional development, in technical planning and measuring the effects of regional policy, as well as for socioeconomic analyses. Discussion is currently underway on the division of Slovenia into administrative regions.

MIMI URBANC



JANEZ KONEČNIK

*Slovenia has extensive forests, which are home to approximately 300 (or by some estimates 450 to 550) brown bears (*Ursus arctos*) (Internet 7, Internet 8).*



INES ZGONC

The hayrack (kozolec) is a simple but effective wooden structure for drying hay. Several different types can be distinguished across Slovenia.



JERNEJA FRIDL

The National and University Library in the center of Ljubljana is an exceptional architectural monument. This library, which was designed by Jože Plečnik, houses over two million units.



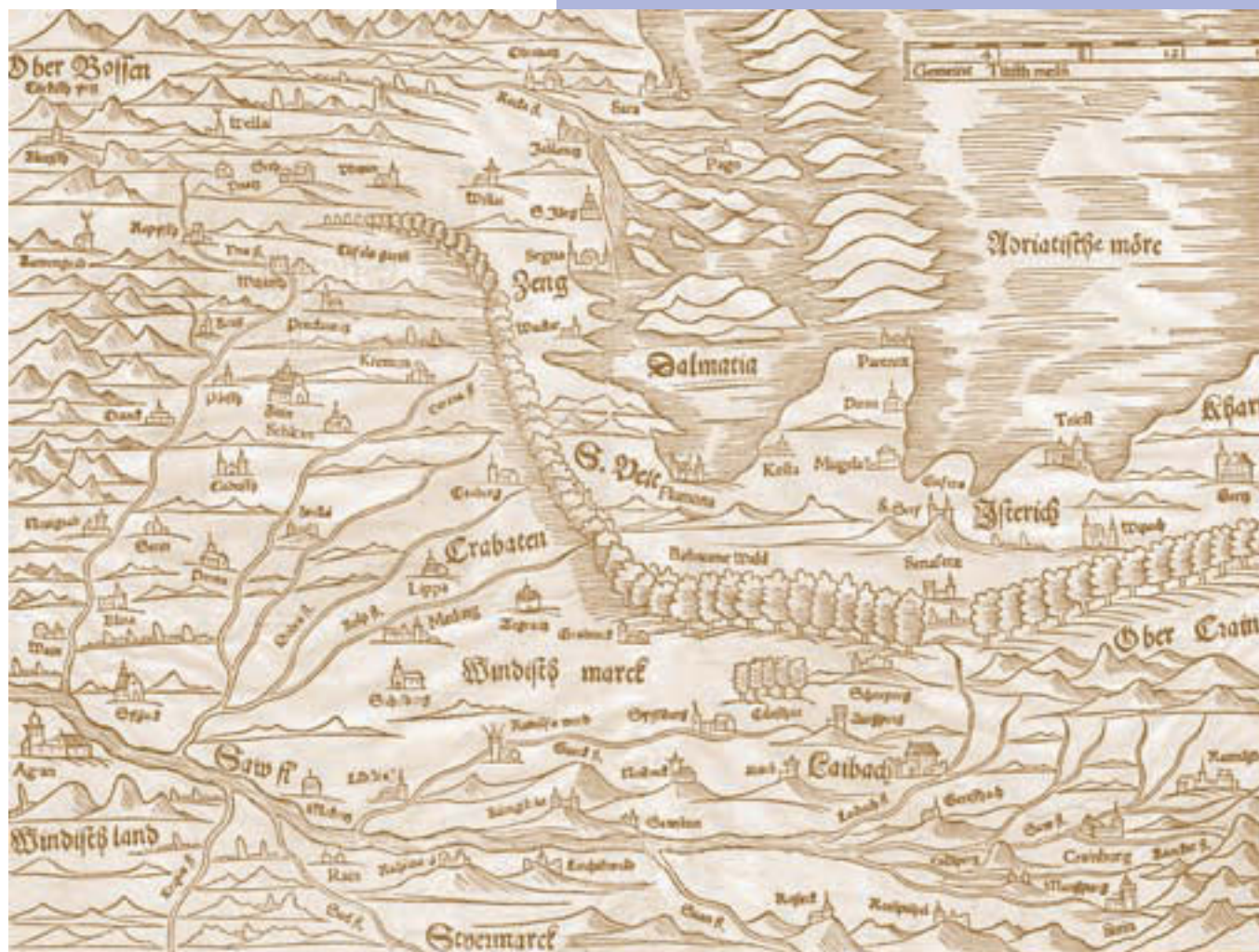


M A P S

Maps have great communicative value because the graphic images captured on paper testify to the characteristics of various lands, their peoples, and especially the rise of individual states and changes in their borders. Slovenia, which did not appear on the map of Europe as an independent country until 1991, has been part of various political and state formations during its long history.

Slovenia occupies an exceptional geographical position because it lies at the intersection of the Alps, the Dinaric Alps, the Pannonian Plain, and the Mediterranean, and four language cultures meet on its territory. Numerous routes passed through Slovenia in the distant past, connecting western Europe with the Middle East. Therefore, even in the 1st century AD the territory of present-day Slovenia was depicted on road maps of the Roman Empire (Goss 1993, 25). One of these rare maps was preserved through a medieval copy named the *Tabula Peutingeriana* after the Konrad Peutinger, a learned and enthusiastic collector of old books and manuscripts. For practical reasons, the image of the routes of the Roman Empire – which at the height of its power stretched from northern Britain to the gates of the east – was greatly compressed in the north-south direction. This medieval copy of an ancient map on a series of eleven sheets of parchment depicts the entire road network of the empire and appertaining rest stations, towns, and fortresses. The total length of the *Tabula Peutingeriana* is 675 centimeters, and it is about 33 centimeters wide.

◀ *The Noricum section from the first-century Tabula Peutingeriana road map. The place names Longatico (Logatec), Nauportus (Vrhnika), Emona (Ljubljana), and others appear in the center.*



The map Descriptio totius Illyridis (A Description of All of Illyria) by Sebastian Münster from his Cosmographia universalis, published in 1552. The southern orientation is a special feature of this map.



Augustin Hirschvogel's map Slavoniae, Croatiae, Carniae, Iстриae, Bosniae, finitimarumque regionum nova descriptio shows a greater than usual number of settlements. Nonetheless, their positions are somewhat imprecise.



Wolfgang Lazius's map, published in Ortelius' atlas in 1573, unfortunately contained many location- and content-related errors. The excessive size of Lake Cerknica (Cyrckniczer See) illustrates this.



In general, maps of Europe assumed a more recognizable shape during the Renaissance. This was primarily the result of new surveying instruments such as plane tables with alidades, polymeters, and theodolites. More precise calculation of the geographical longitude and latitude of individual locations made it possible to improve Ptolemy's cartographic projections (Fridl 2005, 12). Cartographers thus reopened the somewhat forgotten works by the Greek geographer, mathematician, and astronomer Ptolemy (or Claudius Ptolemaeus). Some 1,200 years after his death, his book *Geographia* was published in many adaptations. Ptolemy's preserved text was supplemented with various maps, including representations of what is now Slovenia. One of the most important of these works was Sebastian Münster's *Cosmographia universalis*, which was first published in 1544 in Germany. This book underwent several adaptations and translations into various languages and was one of the most popular publications of its kind in the 16th century. The last edition was published in 1628 (Goss 1993, 374), several decades after its author's death.

The cartographic work of Pietro Coppo (or Petrus Coppus) is also significant in the representation of what is Slovenian territory today. Between 1524 and 1526 he prepared the manuscripts *De summa totius orbis* and *Portolano* with fifteen colored maps. The entire work, also known as the Piran codex, is preserved at the Sergej Mašera Maritime Museum in Piran (Slukan Altić 2003, 123). His map of Istria, dated 1525, represents the oldest preserved map of this peninsula. In 1573 Abraham Ortelius included it in the third revised edition of his well-known *Theatrum orbis terrarum* (A Representation of the World; Internet 12).

In 1570 Abraham Ortelius, a Flemish cartographer of German origin, also used the map *Schlavoniae, Croatiae, Carniae, Istriae, Bosniae, finitimarumque regionum nova descriptio* (A New Representation of Slavonia, Croatia, Carniola, Istria, Bosnia and Neighboring Regions) by Augustin Hirschvogel in the first edition of his atlas *Theatrum orbis terrarum* (Perko 2005, 5). In 1573 Ortelius also supplemented the third edition of his atlas with

Wolfgang Lazius's map *Goritiae, Karstii, Chaczeolae, Carniolae, Histriae, et Windorum marchae descriptio* (A Representation of Gorizia, Karst, Kočevje, Carniola, Istria, and the Slovenian March).

Like Ortelius, the renowned cartographer Gerardus Mercator included depictions of Slovenian regions in his collection of maps. These are found on a map that was published in his atlas in 1589 (i. e., before his death) labeled *Forum Iulium, Karstia, Carniola, Histria et Windorum marchia* (Friuli, Karst, Carniola, Istria, and the Slovenian March; Mihevc 1998, 40). The cartographic projection that he himself designed was a great step forward towards a mathematically more accurate cartographic representation.

Alongside Dutch, French, and Italian cartography, in the 17th century German cartographic activity also began to develop and, indirectly, cartography in Slovenia as well. The work *Topographia Ducatus Stiriae* (Topography of the Duchy of Styria, 1681) and the map of Styria titled *Styriae Ducatus Fertilissimi Nova Geographica Descriptio* (A New Descriptive Geography of the Most Fertile Duchy of Styria, 1678) by the Austrian topographer Georg Matthäus Vischer are a rich source of information for the Slovenian lands, which were part of the Habsburg Monarchy at that time (Mihevc 1998, 42).

In 1763, at the order of Empress Maria Theresa, Habsburg military cartographers undertook demanding topographic measurements of the entire monarchy. This project was concluded in 1787. The mapmaking efforts were headed by her son, Joseph II, who became commander in chief of the military following the death of his father. The entire area measured was divided into 4,685 sections as part of the political units of the monarchy. The territory of present-day Slovenia covers 110 sections (Fridl 1996, 25–26). Due to the fathom-based measuring system in use at that time, the majority of map sheets were produced at a scale of 1 : 28,800. For military purposes, special attention was directed to the representation of relief, land use types, the hydrographic network, layouts of settlements, and prominent buildings. It was desired that the names be written in the



In creating his map Forum Iulium, Karstia, Carniola, Histria et Windorum marchia, Mercator relied on Lazius's map (mentioned above) and also copied many errors from it. He was especially confused by the poorly known and atypical hydrographic network in the Karst region.





1995 saw the publication of the first of eight volumes covering the territory of Slovenia titled *Slovenija na vojaškem zemljevidu 1763–1787* (1804) (*Slovenia on the Military Map 1763–1787 [1804]*) with accompanying facsimiles of sheets of individual sections of the map. This illustration shows section 190, with the Ljubljana Marsh.



MAPS

The cartographic representation of Lake Cerknica as a supplement to chapter 46 of volume 4 of The Glory of the Duchy of Carniola.

local language, although in the Slovenian-speaking area a Hungarian-based orthography was often used (Rajšp 1995, xvii). Unfortunately, because of military secrecy this extremely accomplished cartographic work was not publicly accessible and so it had no influence on the development of cartography in Europe.

In the 17th century, Slovenian researchers and cartographers took their place alongside non-Slovenian creators of maps and geographical works. Among these, Janez Vajkard Valvasor (or Johann Weichard Valvasor)

holds a special place. In 1678 he set up a copperplate-engraving workshop in addition to a printing press at his castle, Bogenšperk (or *Wagensperg*), where numerous maps were engraved and printed. Valvasor traveled to various lands and recorded information about their natural features, the life of their inhabitants, and the administrative arrangements of individual regions. In 1679 he presented his knowledge along with the book *Topographia Ducatus Carnioliae modernae* (A Modern Topography of Carniola), and in 1681 in the work *Topographia*

Archiducatus Carinthiae modernae (A Modern Topography of Carinthia; Internet 13). Due to his scientific explanation of the workings of intermittent Lake Cerknica, in 1687 he was named a member of the English Royal Society, which admitted only the most illustrious learned men of the time. He sought to explain intermittent Lake Cerknica with a system whereby the water drained into linked reservoirs. The apex of Valvasor's work is his four-volume collection *Die Ehre des Herzthums Krain* (The Glory of the Duchy of Carniola; Korošec 1978, 60–61). The entire text, with 24 supplements and 528 copperplate-engravings, is divided into fifteen thematic units, encompassing 3,532 pages altogether (Internet 14). Unfortunately, Valvasor had to sell all of his assets, including his extensive library, to cover the printing costs.

Valvasor's cartographic work had a great influence on the mathematician and cartographer Ivan Dizma Florjančič de Grienfeld (or Joannes Dismas Floriantschitsch de Grienfeld). His wall map *Ducatus Carnioliae Tabula Chorographica* (A Chorographic Map of the Duchy of Carniola), which appeared in 1744, was the most accurate map of this crown land at the time. The map, composed of twelve sheets, was the result of ten years of cataloging and geodesic measures. A special feature of the map is the panorama of Ljubljana in the upper right corner. Beneath it is the first published and most accurate plan of Ljubljana to that date, with a list of the most important structures. This layout is a good illustration of how Ljubljana began to successfully expand beyond its medieval limits. Florjančič's map represents a great step forward in the development of Slovenian cartography (Fridl & Mihevc 2001, 25).

In 1848, Slovenians in Vienna founded the United Slovenia (*Zedinjena Slovenija*) political program. This program demanded the administrative or political unification of Slovenian ethnic territory, which was to take place through the envisioned transformation of the Austrian Empire into a bourgeois parliamentary monarchy and with the internal administrative reorganization of the state (Kladnik et al. 2006, 351). The border of Slovenian





Ivan Dizma Florjancič de Grienfeld added an elegantly drawn panorama and plan of Ljubljana to his exceptionally precise map Ducatus Carnioliae Tabula Chorographica.



*Kozler's map
Zemljevid
Slovenske dežele
in pokrajin
of 1853 marked
the borders of
Slovenian ethnic
territory for
the first time.*

ethnic territory was first delineated on a map by Peter Kozler in 1853, although Slovenia still did not exist in an administrative sense. Kozler wished to clearly present the idea of the United Slovenia program with his *Zemljevid Slovenske dežele in pokrajin* (Map of the Slovenian Land and Regions). Because of its explicit propaganda value, the map was immediately confiscated when it was issued, with the explanation that the title itself violated the legal union of the Austrian crown lands (Fridl & Urbanc 2006, 59). It was released to the public only eight years later. In a relatively short time it was reprinted twice, in 1864 and in 1871 (Orožen Adamič 1991, 355). It is noteworthy because all of the place names within Slovenian ethnic territory are written exclusively in Slovenian, which had never been done before. The 1864 edition of the map was accompanied by the supplement *Imenik mest, trgov in krajev* (Gazetteer of Towns, Markets, and Places). This made the map even more useful. The content of the map overshadows its technical aspect, which also represents a noticeable cartographic advance.

The founding of the Slovenian Society (*Slovenska matica*) was extremely important for strengthening national identity. Among the West and South Slavs, the word *matica* 'queen bee' extended its meaning to include a national cultural organization that saw to book publication. On 4 February 1864, Emperor Franz Josef I permitted the establishment of the Slovenian Society. The purpose of the society was to »endeavor to the extent of its ability to broaden the education of the Slovenian nation and thereby support Slovenian literature« (Melik 1997, 415). The Slovenian Society began its activity with the reprinting of Kozler's map from 1864. It continued by realizing the idea that the Slovenians also needed a world atlas in their own language. The Slovenian Society entrusted the linguist and lawyer Matej Cigale with the editorship of *Atlant*, the first Slovenian world atlas. He worked in Vienna translating official state decrees into Slovenian and, as a professional reviewer, influenced the language used in schoolbooks (Urbanc 2005). Matej Cigale did an outstanding job because numerous



names from other languages were systematically written in Slovenian for the first time in translated or adapted forms. Because of the large financial commitment required to publish *Atlant*, it was not issued in book form, but was printed as individual sheets. From 1869 to 1877, 18 maps were published, but only a few collections have been preserved. In 2005, the Anton Melik Geographical Institute of SRC SASA issued a facsimile of these maps to reawaken knowledge of this exceptionally important work for the Slovenian people. These facsimiles were accompanied by a scholarly monograph that presents the political and social conditions of the time, the circumstances under which *Atlant* was created, the problems that arose with it, the life and work of Matej Cigale, and the cartographic techniques employed.

Despite the efforts of the Slovenian Society and numerous individuals for the active use of Slovenian in public life, school continued to be taught in German for many decades. This was also the reason that the school atlas by the Slovenian Blaž Kocen (or Blasius Kozenn), which was published in 1861 under the title *Geographischer Schul-Atlas für die Gymnasien, Real- und Handelsschulen der österreichischen Monarchie* (Geographical Atlas for Upper and Intermediate Secondary Schools and Trade Schools of the Austrian Monarchy) was never published in Slovenian even though the first edition of the atlas appeared in German, Hungarian, Czech, and Polish. Until his death in 1871, Kocen also adapted individual parts of this secondary school atlas for lower grades and for general use, and he also prepared two orohydrographic atlases with a collection of outline maps as a useful teaching aid. His atlases became one of the best known trademarks of Austrian cartography, and from 1861 onwards they were issued practically continuously in nearly two hundred different adaptations and reprints, totaling one million copies altogether (Južnič & Bratec Mrvar 2007, 74). As a result, some redesigned school atlases continue to bear his name today (e. g., the *Neuer Kozenn-Atlas*).

The prominent geographer Valter Bohinc participated in creating the Croatian editions of Kocen's school atlases, which also found increasing use in Slovenian

schools in the first half of the 20th century. Bohinc proposed many improvements and additions.

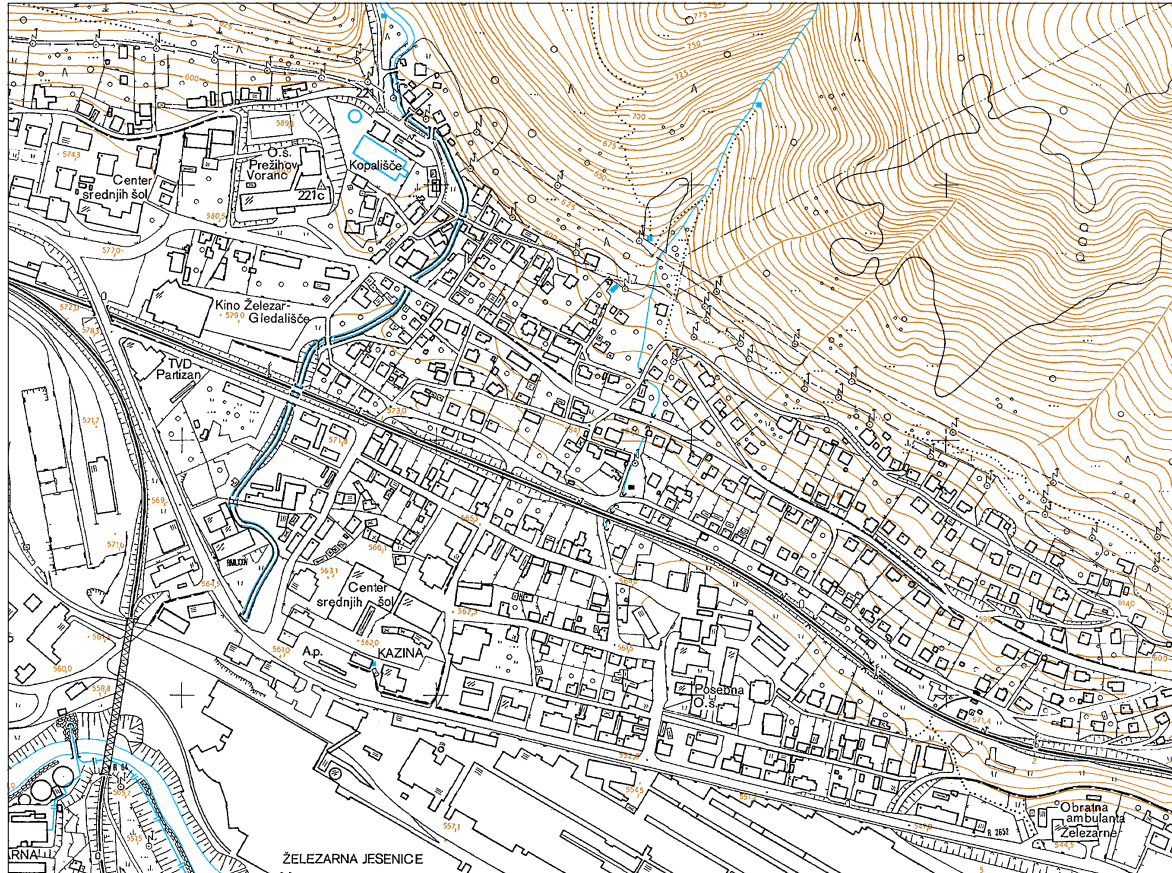
The first Slovenian school atlas, *Haardtov zemljepisni atlas za ljudske šole s slovenskim učnim jezikom* (Haardt's Geographical Atlas for Slovenian-Language Primary Schools) was published in 1899. This was an adaptation of Vincenz von Haardt's school atlas of 1882 prepared by Fran Orožen and Simon Rutar. The second edition of this atlas, which included fourteen maps and was thus considerably more extensive, appeared in 1902. Generally speaking, Orožen dedicated great attention to the use of maps in teaching geography and he translated numerous Austrian wall maps into Slovenian. He was also

responsible for the first globe printed in Slovenian, with a scale of 1 : 50,000,000.

Slavoj Dimnik was also active in school cartography. His brief period of creation resulted in the 1 : 650,000 *Ročni šolski zemljevid Dravske banovine in obmejnega območja slovenskega ozemlja* (Pocket School Map of the Drava Province and Bordering Slovenian Territory), the 1 : 600,000 *Ročni zemljevid Slovenskega ozemlja* (Pocket Map of Slovenian Territory), the 1 : 150,000 *Ročni zemljevid mariborskega okolja* (Pocket Map of the Maribor Region) on four sheets, and the 1 : 150,000 *Zemljevid ljubljanskega okrožja* (Map of the Ljubljana District) on three sheets (Fridl 1998, 51).



Title page of the first Slovenian atlas for primary schools, adapted from Haardt's atlas by Fran Orožen and Simon Rutar.



Excerpt from the 1:5,000 Base Topographic Map (Jesenice, 1994).



With the *Popisni atlas Slovenije 2002* Slovenia joined many countries throughout the world that also publish census data in atlas form.

Atlas, 1992), and the *Atlas sveta 2000* (2000 World Atlas, 1997). The *Atlas Slovenije* (Atlas of Slovenia), having appeared in four print editions and three CD editions, has been a best seller, with 1:50,000 topographic maps.

The independence of Slovenia in 1991 was an ideal opportunity for the staff of the Anton Melik Geographical Institute of the SRC SASA to present this new state both in Slovenia and internationally. Dedicated research over the past fifteen years has produced several thematic atlases. The *Geografski atlas Slovenije* (Geographic Atlas of Slovenia) was published in 1998; its extensive commentary and series of thematic maps provides a comprehensive overview of the natural, social, economic, spatial, and environmental characteristics of Slovenia, a very diverse country despite its small area. This was followed by the *Nacionalni atlas Slovenije* (National Atlas of Slovenia) in Slovenian and English versions, which is intended to contribute to raising Slovenia's international profile. It contains numerous maps addressing Slovenia's demographic, social, and ethnic composition, settlements, society, economy, and, not least of all, its natural features, social richness, and ecology (Fridl 2004, 167). With the publication of the *Popisni atlas Slovenije 2002* (2002 Census Atlas of Slovenia), which appeared five years after the collection of the census data, information on Slovenia's population, households, and residences was published in book form for the first time.

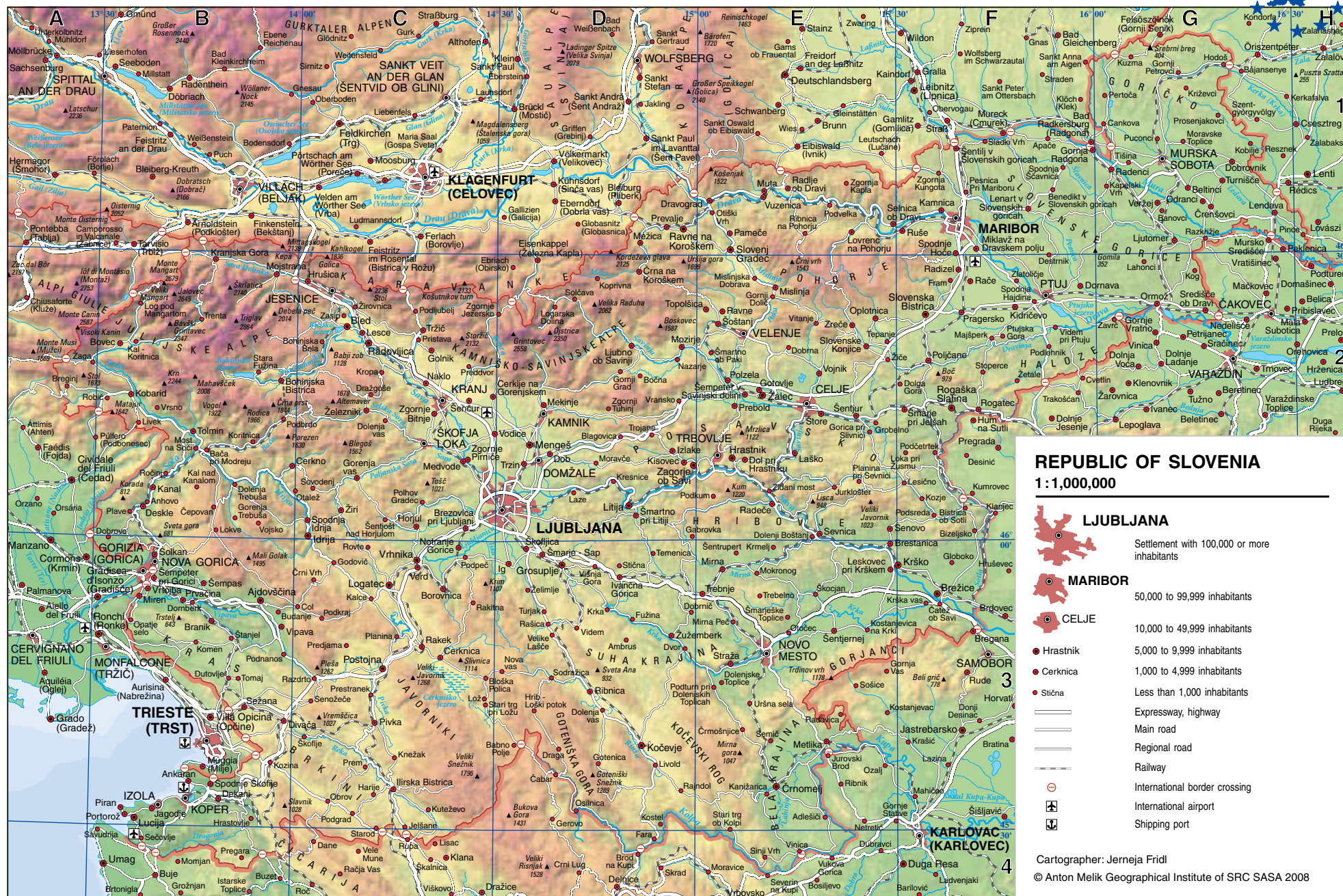
The company Geodetski zavod Slovenije, founded in 1947, and the Geodetic Institute of Slovenia, which has operated since 1953, play a leading role today in producing maps of national significance. Both institutions are primarily oriented toward the production of modern, technically outstanding base topographic maps, municipal and national topographic index maps, orthophoto maps, and city maps.

All national maps are public and are available to users in digital format. The Surveying and Mapping Authority of the Republic of Slovenia, which is part of the Ministry of the Environment and Spatial Planning is responsible for management and distribution of these maps.

JERNEJA FRIDL

Cartographic activity did not completely die out during the Second World War, although it was somewhat more oriented toward military cartography. The first cartographic activity after 1945 was taken up by Ivan Selan. In cooperation with the geographers Valter Bohinc and France Planina, Selan prepared some school atlases and a wall map of Slovenia.

General geographical atlases intended not only for use in schools, but also by the general public, were created relatively late in Slovenia. The first atlas of this type was the *Veliki atlas sveta* (Great World Atlas, 1972). This was followed by the *Timesov atlas sveta* (Times Atlas of the World, 1990), the *Veliki družinski atlas* (Great Family





LANDSCAPES

In the diversity of its landscape, Slovenia is comparable to only a few, often much larger, countries. In this tiny piece of Central Europe four extensive European regions – the Alps, the Pannonian Basin, the Dinaric Mountains (Dinaric Alps), and the Mediterranean – meet and intertwine, as do Germanic, Hungarian, Slavic, and Romance cultural influences (Perko 2001a; Perko 2004).

The **Alps** are the largest and highest mountain chain in Europe. Along them runs the divide between the North Sea and the Mediterranean Sea and the dividing line between the continental and Mediterranean climates. Covering about 200,000 km², the Alps are more than 1,200 km long and in some places up to 250 km wide. They run from France in the southwest to Austria in the northeast. The southeastern part of the Alps extends into Slovenia.

The **Pannonian Basin** lies between the Alps to the west, the Carpathians to the north and east, and the Dinaric Mountains to the south. Running about 600 km from north to south and 700 km from west to east, it covers an area almost twice as large as the Alps. The western margin of the Pannonian Basin extends into Slovenia.

The **Dinaric Mountains** are the southeastern continuation of the Alps between the Pannonian Basin and the Adriatic Sea. They form the divide between the Black Sea and the Adriatic. They are 700 km long and almost 200 km wide at their center, and cover less than half the area of the Alps. The northwestern part of the Dinaric Mountains extends into Slovenia.

The **Mediterranean** region is the area around the Mediterranean Sea, stretching almost 7,000 km from

Gibraltar to the Bosphorus. Between Trieste and Durrës, the arm of the Mediterranean known as the Adriatic Sea runs almost 700 km between the Italian Apennines to the southwest and the Dinaric Mountains to the northeast. Covering an area of 132,000 km², the Adriatic Sea is somewhat larger than the Dinaric Mountains. The northern margin of the Mediterranean extends into Slovenia.

In Slovenia, geography plays the leading role in landscape research. A pioneering role was played by the geographer Anton Melik, a member of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts, who published the first regional monograph on Slovenia in four extensive volumes between 1954 and 1960 (Melik 1954, 1957, 1959, 1960) as well as the first general monograph on Slovenia (Melik 1963).

At Melik's initiative, the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts founded the Geographical Institute in 1946, and this institute has carried his name since 1976. Almost half a century later, the Anton Melik Geographical Institute, which now operates as part of the Scientific Research Center of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts, prepared a second regional monograph on Slovenia entitled »Slovenia – Landscapes and People« (Perko & Orožen Adamič 1998) and the »Geographical Atlas of Slovenia« (Fridl, Kladnik, Orožen Adamič & Perko 1998). Three years later, the institute also prepared the first national atlas of the country, the »National Atlas of Slovenia« (Fridl, Kladnik, Orožen Adamič, Perko & Zupančič 2001), which was published in Slovenian and English versions. All three books contain chapters on regionalization and the typification of landscapes in Slovenia with numerous



View across Mount Uršlja gora to the southwest.



LANDSCAPES

	Landscape types					
	Alpine mountains	Alpine hills	Alpine plains	Pannonian low hills	Pannonian plains	Dinaric plateaus
Surface area (hectares)	306,177	466,002	81,920	299,447	129,697	380,931
% of surface area	15.1	23.0	4.0	14.8	6.4	18.8
Mean altitude in meters	1,055.6	583.3	373.4	289.0	195.9	668.7
Mean inclination (°)	25.6°	18.3°	4.4°	9.9°	1,08°	14.7°
Most frequently occurring rock	limestone 51.5%; carbonate gravel and conglomerate 17.4%	older volcanic rocks with tuff 20.9%; metamorphic rock 16.9%	carbonate gravel and conglomerate 74.2%; clay and silt 9.3%	marl 29.7%; clay and silt 27.8%	silicate gravel 58.4%; clay and silt 31.5%	limestone 58.9%; dolomite 29.4%
Most frequent vegetation	beech 36.9%; high-mountain vegetation 18.7%	beech 31.7%; beech, chestnut, and oak 30.6%	red pine 39.3%; beech 25.4%	beech, chestnut, and oak 86.5%; beech 4.6%	English oak 27.3%; hornbeam and English oak 25.1%	beech and fir 40.4%; beech 23.5%
Solar energy received in MJ/m ² yearly	3705.4	3953.3	4080.4	4131.4	4178.3	3946.8
Proportion of cultivated field (%)	2.8	9.2	24.5	21.3	40.8	5.9
Proportion of vineyard (%)	0.0	0.3	0.0	3.4	0.8	0.4
Proportion of pasture (%)	14.9	7.4	4.2	6.1	3.2	10.3
Proportion of forest (%)	68.8	68.5	29.3	40.3	17.9	69.5
Dominant types of field division	block and enclosure field patterns	block, enclosure, in some places furlong field pattern	furlong field pattern and strips with a pattern of compact holdings	block and enclosure field patterns	furlong field pattern and strips with a pattern of compact holdings	block, enclosure, in some places furlong field pattern
Dominant settlement types	dispersed settlements, hamlets, and isolated farms	dispersed settlements, hamlets and isolated farms	nucleate and roadside settlements, suburbanized settlements	dispersed, in some places nucleate and roadside settlements	roadside settlements, suburbanized settlements	nucleate and dispersed, in some places hamlets and roadside settlements
Dominant house types	Alpine types	Alpine types	Alpine types	Central Slovenian and Pannonian types	Central Slovenian and Pannonian types	Central Slovenian and Pannonian types
Number of settlements in 2002 (census)	301	1,509	408	1,249	383	779
Density of settlements in number per 100 km ²	9.8	32.4	49.8	41.7	29.5	20.4
Population in 1931 (census)	82,379	262,133	208,996	256,763	181,619	101,674
Population in 2002 (census)	91,133	338,008	495,116	250,324	296,920	62,877
Population density in 1931 (number of people per km ²)	26.9	56.3	255.1	85.7	140.0	26.7
Population density in 2002 (number of people per km ²)	29.8	72.5	604.4	83.6	228.9	16.5
Average size of settlement by population per settlement in 2002	302.8	224.0	1213.5	200.4	775.2	80.7

Some basic characteristics of landscape types and macroregions in Slovenia.



			Macroregions				Slovenia
Dinaric valleys or corrosion plains	Mediterranean low hills	Mediterranean plateaus	Alps	Pannonian Basin	Dinaric Mountains	Mediterranean	Slovenia
189,689	106,103	67,326	854,099	429,144	570,620	173,429	2,027,292
9.4	5.2	3.3	42.1	21.2	28.1	8.6	100.0
403.4	305.6	425.8	732.5	260.9	580.5	352.3	557,3
7.3°	12.2°	8.4°	19.6°	7.2°	12.2°	10.7°	14.1°
limestone 46.3%; clay and silt 23.2%	flysch 72.6%; clay and silt 11.9%	limestone 82.1%; flysch 10.9%	limestone 23.9%; carbonate gravel and conglomerate 17.4%	clay and silt 28.9%; silicate gravel 21.3%	limestone 54.8%; dolomite 26.6%	flysch 48.6%; limestone 38.7%	limestone 29.5%; dolomite 14.6%
hornbeam and fir 32.4%; beech 16.5%	sessile oak 31.9%; downy oak 30.7%	beech and hop hornbeam 74.7%; downy oak and hop hornbeam 19.8%	beech 33.4%; beech, chestnut, and oak 18.9%	beech, chestnut, and oak 77.1%; red pine 4.7%	beech and fir 34.9%; beech 21.9%	beech and hop hornbeam 32.7%; sessile oak 22.0%	beech 23.9%; beech, chestnut, and oak 23.9%
4122.2	4373.3	4381.1	3876.6	4145.5	4005.1	4376.3	4012.4
13.4	13.9	5.2	8.4	27.2	8.5	10.6	12.6
0.7	4.9	1.1	0.2	2.6	0.5	3.5	1.1
10.8	18.0	34.8	9.8	5.2	10.5	24.4	10.2
39.7	34.2	35.0	64.8	33.5	59.6	34.5	54.1
Enclosure, block, in some places furlong and strip field patterns	block and furlong field patterns	block and furlong field patterns					
nucleate, in some places dispersed and roadside settlements	nucleate, in some places suburbanized settlements	nucleate settlements					
Central Slovenian and Mediterranean, in some places Pannonian types	Mediterranean types	Mediterranean types	Alpine types	Central Slovenian and Pannonian types	Central Slovenian and Mediterranean, in some places Pannonian types	Mediterranean types	
840	384	135	2,218	1,632	1,619	519	5,988
44.3	36.2	20.1	26.0	38.0	28.4	29.9	29.5
136,289	128,745	30,174	553,508	438,382	237,963	158,919	1,388,772
245,308	161,632	22,718	924,257	547,244	308,185	184,350	1,965,986
71.8	121.3	44.8	64.8	102.2	41.7	91.6	68.5
129.3	152.3	33.7	108.2	127.5	54.0	106.3	97.0
292.0	420.9	168.3	416.7	335.3	190.4	355.2	328.3



MARIJAN GARBAJS

Alpine landscapes: in the background, the Julian Alps, the Karavanke Mountains with Mount Stol (2,236 m), and the Kamnik-Savinja Alps converge; in the foreground is the Sava Plain (Savska ravan) with forest-covered conglomerate and cleared gravel river terraces near the small town of Radovljica in the northwestern part of the Ljubljana Basin.



MARIAN GARBAYS

Pannonian landscapes: in the foreground, the cultivated Drava Plain (Dravska ravan); in the background, the vineyard-covered low Dravinja Hills (Dravinjske gorice), behind these the steeper Haloze region, known for its frequent landslides, and above this table-shaped Mount Donačka gora (882 m).



MARJAN GARBAJS

Dinaric landscapes: in the foreground, the Dinaric karst plateau of Nanos (1,262 m) rises steeply above the Mediterranean flysch Vipava Valley (Vipavska dolina) and the low Vipava Hills (Vipavska brda); in the background, beyond the Pivka valley system (Pivško podolje) and Postojna, Dinaric plateaus and valley systems alternate.



MARJAN GARBAYS

Mediterranean landscapes: in the foreground in the low Koper Hills (Kopraska brda) lies the picturesque Istrian ridge village of Padna (205 m) with its greatly overgrown cultivated terraces; in the background, first the village of Korte and then the Bay of Piran on the Adriatic Sea.



The Kamnik-Savinja Alps (Kamniško-Savinjske Alpe) in the background, Limbarska gora in the Sava Hills (Posavsko hribovje) in the foreground.



IGOR MAHER

Lake Bohinj in the Julian Alps.



MATEVŽ LENARČIČ

maps. The institute has also published numerous other publications about Slovenian landscapes.

Another branch of the Scientific Research Center of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts, the Karst Research Institute, actively studies karst landscapes, primarily the landscape of Karst (Slovenian *Kras*), the region of Slovenia where research on karst phenomena began on a global scale. Karst landscapes are very frequent in Slovenia because more than half of its surface is covered by carbonate rock, the basis of karst landscapes.

Academy member Ivan Gams, the author of the university textbook »Essentials of Landscape Ecology« (Gams 1986) and several textbooks on Slovenian landscapes with maps of the regionalization of Slovenia, has also been active in landscape studies (Gams 1983, 2001; Gams & Vrišer 1998).

The main characteristics of Slovenia's landscapes are determined by Slovenia's location at the juncture of the Alps, the Pannonian Basin, the Dinaric Mountains, and the Mediterranean. One can distinguish nine landscape types and four landscape type groups. The landscape types are Alpine mountains, Alpine hills, Alpine plains, Pannonian low hills, Pannonian plains, Dinaric plateaus, Dinaric valleys and corrosion plains, Mediterranean low hills, and Mediterranean plateaus. The landscape type groups are Alpine, Pannonian, Dinaric, and Mediterranean (Perko 1998a, Urbanc 2002).

The regionalization of Slovenia is also linked with the typification of landscapes. The majority of Slovenian geographers divide Slovenia into four or five macroregions – the Alps (or separately the Alps and the Prealps), the Pannonian Basin, the Dinaric Mountains, and the Mediterranean – which are further divided into forty to sixty regions (48 regions in this book).

The **Alpine landscapes** lie in northern Slovenia, cover two-fifths of its territory, and are subdivided into mountain, hill, and plain landscapes.

The **Alpine mountains** in northwestern Slovenia are largely composed of carbonate rock, primarily limestone and dolomite. Rivers carved deep valleys that glaciers reshaped during the ice ages. Above the forest line, which



lies at an altitude of around 1,600 m, one-fifth of the surface is covered by dwarf pine and, below this, four-fifths is covered by dense forest. Beech, beech-fir, and spruce forests dominate. The density of settlement is three times lower than the Slovenian average. Only the broader valleys are more densely populated, and extensive high-mountain areas are completely uninhabited. The population here is increasing only slightly.

The most imposing mountains are the Julian Alps (*Julijske Alpe*) around Mount Triglav (2,864 m), Slovenia's highest mountain. Below it is the Triglav Glacier (*Triglavski ledenik*), the southeasternmost glacier in the European Alps. Triglav National Park was established to preserve the many natural wonders of this area. On the south side, the blue-green Soča River winds through its deep valley toward the Adriatic Sea. Its upper section, the Trenta Valley, is one of Slovenia's most beautiful alpine valleys. Farther south lies Tolmin (population 3,737 according to the 2002 census), the only major town in the central Soča Valley. Picturesque glacial valleys open to the north: Krma, Kot, Vrata, and Planica. The last is called the »Valley of Ski Jumps« and is the cradle of ski flying, one of Slovenia's most popular winter spectator sports. From the north side of the Julian Alps, the rivers flow to the Black Sea. The Sava Dolinka runs past Jesenice (13,429) and its ironworks, and the Sava Bohinjka flows from glacial Lake Bohinj, Slovenia's largest natural lake (328 ha), past the cosmopolitan tourist resort of Bled (5,252) and Lake Bled (145 ha), which boasts a small picturesque island with a church. Together, they join to form the Sava River. Toward the east, the Karavanke Mountains (highest peak: Mount Stol, 2,236 m) stretch along the Austrian border and, south of these, the Kamnik-Savinja Alps (*Kamniško-Savinjske Alpe*) around Mount Grintovec (2,558 m). Below Mount Skuta (2,533 m) are the remnants of a glacier, and the romantic Logar Valley (*Logarska dolina*) at the head of the Savinja River is especially attractive.

To the south and east, the broad band of the **Alpine hills** borders the Alpine mountains. These are primarily composed of dolomite, limestone, metamorphic



The old medieval core of Kranj stands on a conglomerate terrace between the Sava and Kokra rivers.



The romantic Logar Valley (Logarska dolina).



MARKO ZAPLATIL

Slovenian territory was also inhabited during the ice ages, as shown by numerous archeological finds, including a discovery that astounded the world in 1996. In Divje Babe Cave near Cerklje na Gorenjskem that year, Slovenian archeologists unearthed the 45,000-year-old femur of a cave bear with four equally spaced small holes, believed to be the oldest musical instrument in the world, a prehistoric flute that may have been played by Neanderthals.



MARIJAN GARBAJS

The hilly region along the Drava River.

rocks, claystone, siltstone, and flint sandstone and conglomerate. Two-thirds of the surface is covered by forest. There is a pronounced prevalence of various beech forests. The density of settlement is twice as great as in the mountains. Isolated farms appear in this region, each typically consisting of a large house and outbuildings surrounded by an unbroken cultivated parcel of land cleared from the forest. In other places, small clustered villages formed whose buildings stand separately in random order but as a recognizable compact group, as do the agricultural plots. Increasing numbers of farmhouses are being converted into vacation houses owned by city dwellers, some farms are engaged in farm tourism, and remote villages are in decline. The main sources of income are livestock production, forestry, and employment in minor industrial centers in the valleys. In the western part, which is well known for its lacemaking, are the towns of Idrija (5,878) with its famous but now abandoned mercury mine, and medieval Škofja Loka (12,289). In the mining-oriented eastern part are the ironworks of Ravne na Koroškem (7,797), Velenje (26,742) with its lignite mine, and Trbovlje (16,290), the largest of the mining towns in Slovenia's biggest hill region, the almost 100-km-long Sava Hills (*Posavsko hribovje*) with their largely exhausted coal deposits.

The **Alpine plains** were formed by rivers that deposited gravel and sand at the bottoms of basins and formed terraces. Older terraces where gravel cemented to form conglomerate have been karstified and overgrown with forest, primarily red pine, whereas fertile fields cover the younger gravel terraces, where mainly potatoes and corn are cultivated. Cultivated fields cover one-quarter of the entire surface area. Settlements on the plains are large and greatly urbanized. The density of settlement is six times greater than the national average. In the northern part of the Ljubljana Basin, Slovenia's largest basin, the Sava River and its tributaries fill the Sava Plain (*Savska ravan*), where more than one-fifth of Slovenia's population lives on only one-thirtieth of its territory. Here lie Slovenia's capital Ljubljana (258,873), the industrial city of Kranj, the fourth largest city in



Slovenia (35,587), and several smaller but economically significant towns: Radovljica (5,937), Tržič (3,920), Kamnik (12,197), and Domžale (11,582). The Celje Basin is Slovenia's second largest basin, on the floor of which the Savinja River and its tributaries created the Savinja Plain (*Savinjska ravan*). This basin includes Celje (37,834), Slovenia's third-largest city, once the seat of the historically important Counts of Celje, and Žalec (4,919), surrounded by extensive hop fields that reflect Pannonian climate influences from the east.

The **Pannonian landscapes** lie in eastern Slovenia and cover one-fifth of its territory. They are composed of densely settled and intensively cultivated areas where forest no longer covers even one-third of the surface. They are divided into landscapes of low hills and plains.

The winegrowing **Pannonian low hills**, which meet the Alpine mountains in the west, are composed of weakly cemented rock, primarily marl, sand, and clay, and are therefore vulnerable to landslides. Dispersed settlements that are not compact are prevalent, with cultivated land between the houses. Houses are most frequently located on the tops of rounded ridges. Below them on the sunny slopes are vineyards that produce high-quality wine and orchards, whereas the shady slopes are primarily forested, mostly with beech, chestnut and oak, which covers a good third of the entire surface. Farmers are primarily engaged in winegrowing and fruit growing. In the middle of the vineyards, traditional wooden wind-rattles turn in the wind, driving birds away. Many of the ridge houses have been converted into vacation houses, and the population is decreasing slightly. The largest Pannonian low hill regions are Slovenske gorice and Goričko, Slovenia's most northerly region.

The vast **Pannonian plains** lie between the low hills along the slow and meandering Mura, Drava, and Krka rivers, on which numerous mills once operated. Vulnerable to flooding, these plains are of major agricultural importance. Maribor (93,847), Slovenia's second largest city, and Ptuj (18,339), its oldest inland city, are located on the Drava Plain (*Dravska ravan*). Murska Sobota



JERNEJA FRIDL

*Beekeeping is a traditional agricultural activity. It was Slovenian beekeepers that developed the most »industrious« bee in the world, the well-known Carniolan bee (*Apis mellifera carnica*). The original Slovenian folk art of painting the boards and sides of Carniolan beehives with openings for the bees is connected to beekeeping. At first these depicted religious scenes, and later secular and even roguish scenes, such as the devil sharpening a woman's tongue.*



MATEVŽ LENARČIČ

*The extensive hop fields near Žalec on the floor of Savinja Plain (*Savinjska ravan*).*



RUDI RAMŠAK

Because of lignite mining in the coal seams beneath the Velenje Basin, three large depressions formed between Velenje and Šoštanj. These filled with water and became Lake Škale, Lake Velenje, and Lake Družmirje, with a total surface area of 2 km². Part of Lake Velenje, where ash from the Šoštanj coal-fired power plant was dumped until 1983 (in the background in the photo), was separated with a levee and named Tourist Lake. These sunken lakes have greatly altered the landscape, and plans to expand digging threaten further sinkage.



JURI SENEGAČNIK

Velenje, a young planned garden city built after World War II is an important industrial and mining town.

(12,437) is on the Mura Plain (*Murska ravan*), and Krško (6,994) with its nearby nuclear power plant, the medieval town of Kostanjevica na Krki (701), and the Krakov Forest (*Krakovski gozd*) nature reserve – the remains of a once large lowland swamp forest – are on the Krka Plain (*Krška ravan*). Today, forest covers less than one-fifth of the surface of the plains, the lowest proportion in Slovenia; only the more frequently flooded areas are still covered with oak forests. In order to exploit the arable land more efficiently, people built their homes and outbuildings only along the main traffic routes. Large long villages arose with buildings evenly distributed in a row on one or both sides of the road. The large stork nests frequently seen on the chimneys of these single-story houses add a picturesque touch. Large farming plots extend behind the houses, usually divided into unbroken strips. The farmers are primarily involved in crop farming and raising livestock. Thermal and mineral water rising to the surface at tectonic faults in this region formed the basis for developing spa tourism (Rogaška Slatina, Radenci, Terme Čatež, and Šmarješke Toplice).

In the south, the Alpine and Pannonian landscapes give way to the **Dinaric landscapes**, which run from northwest to southeast and occupy the greatest part of southern Slovenia. Dinaric landscapes, primarily the karst valley systems and the karst plateaus between them, constitute a good quarter of Slovenia.

The **Dinaric plateaus** are composed almost entirely of limestone and dolomite and are the most forested regions of Slovenia; forest covers almost three-quarters of their surface. Beech and beech-fir forests dominate. Surface waters are rare, and droughts and forest fires occur frequently. The traditional economic activities are forestry and wood-related industries. Small clustered villages with irregularly distributed buildings predominate. Because of unfavorable natural conditions, the farms survive on forestry and livestock production. The population density is six times less than the Slovenian average, and the population is decreasing, even though the majority of households are equipped with modern telecommunications and household equipment.



KOMPAS ARCHIVES

The national costume of Upper Carniola (Gorenjska).

Dinaric valley systems and corrosion plains, where forest still covers two-fifths of the surface, lie between the Dinaric plateaus. The corrosion plains are largely composed of limestone and dolomite, and in the valley systems there is some clay and flysch as well. Farthest east lies White Carniola (*Bela krajina*), a low corrosion plain with strong Pannonian influences, and the undulating landscape around Novo mesto (22,415), the capital of Lower Carniola (*Dolenjska*). Toward the west are valley systems (Slovenian *podolje*) important for traffic with karst poljes that provide the greatest proportion of arable land, but also the threat of flooding. These include the Lower Carniola valley system (*Dolenjsko podolje*), the Ribnica-Kočevje valley system (*Ribniško-Kočevsko podolje*) with Kočevje (9,027), the Inner Carniola valley system (*Notranjsko podolje*) with the famous intermittent Lake Cerknica (three hundred years ago, the Slovenian polymath Janez Vajkard Valvasor was made a member of the Royal Society in London for describing this unusual phenomenon), and the Pivka valley system (*Pivško podolje*) with Postojna (8,548).

Beneath this relatively inhospitable surface is a fairy-tale underground world carved out by water. More than seven thousand caves rich in stalactites, stalagmites, and other karst cave formations have been discovered so far below the Dinaric and neighboring



MARJAN GARBAJS

With population of less than 300,000, Ljubljana is the largest city in Slovenia. It lies in a circular valley at the transition between the fertile Ljubljana Basin to the north (in the photo) and the Ljubljana Marsh (Ljubljansko barje) to the south. During the Roman era it was named Emona, and it was first mentioned in medieval sources in 1144 with the German name Laibach, and two years later with the old Slovenian name Luwigana. In the 19th century it became a central town for Slovenians. Although it served as the capital of the Illyrian Provinces, the Austrian crown land of Carniola, the Drava Province in Kingdom of Yugoslavia, and the Yugoslav Republic of Slovenia, it was only with Slovenia's independence in 1991 that it became a truly modern capital city with central state institutions and foreign embassies. The picturesque medieval part of the city, which was badly damaged in an earthquake in 1895, is nestled between the Ljubljanica River and Castle Hill, and the newer areas have developed mainly to the north.



Lent, the medieval center of Maribor.

OSKAR DOLENC



The oldest grapevine in the world grows in Maribor.

IGOR MODIČ



Ptuj along the Drava River.

MATEVŽ LENARČIČ

Mediterranean karst regions. Among these are Škocjan Caves, which were added to the UNESCO list of world-wide cultural and natural heritage sites in 1986 and are known for the world's largest underground canyon (2.5 km long and 130 m high), and the world famous Postojna Cave, which has been visited by several million people. The karst underground is also renowned for its fauna, which has adapted to life without light. The best known species is the olm or cave salamander (*Proteus anguinus*), which is endemic to the Dinaric karst region and is the symbol of Slovenian natural science.

To the southwest, the Dinaric landscapes join the **Mediterranean landscapes**, which occupy somewhat less than one-tenth of Slovenia. These are divided into the more densely populated flysch low hills with their vineyards and orchards and the less densely populated lower karst plateaus. Here are found typical Mediterranean settlements with each building attached to the next. The houses are built of stone and have one or two floors. Every village has at least one square with a com-



mon stone well, which due to modern water supply infrastructure has only architectural value today. The settlements located on elevations are the most outstanding. One example is Štanjel, where houses built from local stone run along the contour lines of the sunny side of a hill. This compact village is surrounded by a wall and retains the appearance of a small medieval town. Today it is protected as a first-class architectural monument of Slovenian cultural heritage.

The **Mediterranean plateaus** are composed almost entirely of limestone and are therefore pronouncedly karstified. A typical example is the *Kras* region, which gave its name to the science of karstology because it was here, on Slovenian territory, that the study of karst phenomena created through the dissolution of permeable limestone began. Many other Slovenian terms have also been incorporated into the international terminology for karst phenomena. Cave tourism began here as well. The oldest tourist cave in the world is Vilenica Cave near Divača, where entrance fees were collected as early as



MILAN KLEMENČIČ

A traditional wooden wind-rattle (klopotec) turns in the wind, driving birds away.



MARIAN GARBAJS

Lenart in the Slovenian Hills (Slovenske gorice).



MARIJAN GARBAJS

White Carniola (Bela krajina) is a low corrosion plain.

the first half of the 17th century. The grey-white color of the karst stone complements the white Lipizzaner horses at the Lipica stud farm and the intensely red terra rossa soil. The Mediterranean plateaus have the highest amount of sunshine in all of Slovenia, receiving on average almost 4,400 MJ/m² yearly.

The **Mediterranean low hills** receive almost as much solar energy. In the extreme southwest these hills extend to Slovenia's 47-km-long Adriatic coast, with its great concentration of population and variety of activities. Here are three towns with typical ancient Mediterranean town centers: Koper (23,726), Slovenia's largest port,



MARIJAN GARBAJS

The Mount Snežnik region is the most forested part of Slovenia.

which ships almost twenty millions tons of goods annually, the fishing town of Izola (10,381), and the tourist town of Piran (4,143). The Adriatic cuts most deeply inland at the Bay of Piran. On its northern side is Portorož, the largest Slovenian tourist center, and there were once vast salt works not far away at the delta of the Dragonja River on the border with Croatia. At present, salt is only extracted from a small portion of the salt pans. Due to their halophyte vegetation and numerous bird species, the abandoned areas of the salt pans are extraordinarily interesting from the point of view of the natural sciences. Another interesting feature is the nearby pre-

cipice at Strunjan, the tallest flysch cliff on the Adriatic coast.

The immediate coastal area of the Koper Low Hills with its vineyards and orchards – in some places the cultivated terraces are unfortunately greatly overgrown – rises rapidly to the high and imposing limestone wall of the Karst Rim, behind which the extensive karst corrosion plains of Čičarija and Karst begin. The Karst plateau descends in the north to the Vipava hills (*Vipavska brda*) and the fertile Vipava Valley (*Vipavska dolina*), which is notorious for its violent bora winds. To the west, the Karst plateau extends to the Soča River and the bor-



der city of Nova Gorica (13,491) and in the northwest rises again to the flysch winegrowing and fruit-growing Gorica hills (*Goriška brda*), which in turn approach the Alpine mountains in the north, where this journey through Slovenia's regions began.

Slovenia's **cultural landscapes** are distinguished by their incorporation into the natural environment, and their high ecological, cultural, and emotional value. The basic appearance of the cultural landscapes was created in the Middle Ages, and this legacy is still quite evident. Economic and social developments in recent decades have triggered rapid changes in the appearance and function of these landscapes, especially the rural ones, which comprise the greater part of Slovenia because built-up areas cover less than five percent of its surface and only the capital Ljubljana has a population over 100,000. Favorable natural conditions foster more rapid economic and social development and, with this, intensive shaping and changing of the cultural landscape; unfavorable natural conditions limit human activity, life, and leisure activities.

Slovenia's location at the junction of the Germanic, Slavic, Romance, and Hungarian cultural areas and the millennia of human settlement in its territory have left deep traces on the landscape. The period of medieval colonization was particularly significant because during that time the landscape acquired its most basic features, which have been preserved to the present day with only minor changes. The legacy of this period is particularly evident in the shape and arrangement of settlements and the distribution of cultivated fields. Various states (Habsburg Monarchy, Yugoslavia, etc.), the administrative measures linked with them, and the level of economic development reshaped natural landscapes into cultural landscapes. In recent years since independence, extremely rapid and profound changes have taken place due to the changed economic and social situation (Perko & Urbanc 2004).

The rural landscapes and their elements that are today the subject of the greatest admiration (isolated farming settlements high in the mountains and the varied



ANDREJ MIHEVC

*The subterranean world of Karst is also known for its animal life, which has adapted to life in darkness. The best-known species is the olm or cave salamander (*Proteus anguinus*). This amphibian is Europe's only cave vertebrate, is endemic to the Dinaric karst, and is a symbol of Slovenian natural science. Measuring 25 to 30 cm, it is the world's largest cave animal. Its long body has two small pairs of wide-set legs, with three toes on the front feet and two on the rear. Its vertically flattened tail is adapted for swimming, and its pear-shaped head terminates in a flattened snout. The small mouth opening contains tiny teeth. It has simple lungs, but primarily uses external gills for respiration; these are bright red because of the blood in them. It is a predator and feeds on various water creatures. It is able to survive without food for several years and can live for 100 years. It lays eggs in captivity, but cases of live birth (of two well-developed young at a time) are also known. Sexually maturity occurs in the larval stage after 14 years. Its eyes and skin pigmentation were lost through adaptation to living in caves. Its blood can be seen through the skin, giving it a rosy tinge reminiscent of human skin. This is also the origin of its Slovenian name človeška ribica (literally, 'little human fish').*

forms of minute land division) are often the result of poverty or economic stagnation. The farmhouses characteristic of individual landscapes were constructed according to the existing level of technological development and were adapted to the different needs of different people. Climate conditions also influenced the development of the landscape. At the end of the Middle Ages, winegrowing disappeared completely in Upper Carniola

(*Gorenjska*) because the climate grew colder. Today, only local site names and place names testify to its existence. The Kras region is a typical example of the dilemmas linked to a cultural landscape. The Austrian authorities encouraged the reforestation of the Kras region in the 18th and 19th centuries, an archetypal devaluation of a natural environment when the marvelous forests were replaced by the barren karst landscape. However, it was



Part of the village of Štanjel is a protected monument.



JOŽE HANČ

Piran.



MARIJAN GARBBAJS

precisely this barren karst landscape that not only carried the glories of karst phenomena into the world, but was also the foundation for the formation of a unique cultural landscape. Reforestation in this case would mean the loss of natural and cultural values (Perko & Urbanc 2004).

The visual appearance of and changes to the cultural landscape are decisively dependent on the characteristics and development of agricultural production. This means that concern for the cultural landscape is first and foremost connected with the government's agricultural policy. From this viewpoint, the period following World War II must be mentioned in particular because it was marked by a negative attitude toward farmers as private producers and by measures regarding maximum land ownership, due to which the average size of farms decreased. Only a small proportion of farmers were able to carry out modernization, not to mention that the proportion of the rural population began to decrease rapidly. Simultaneously, a special class of people emerged: part-time farmers that sought extra income working in nearby factories. These people deserve credit for the fact that the countryside lived on and developed. These factors, however, prevented the normal development of Slovenian agriculture, which – as a positive consequence – is reflected in the preservation of the particular cultural landscapes that Slovenians are identified with. Thus, administrative and political measures helped preserve Slovenia's cultural landscapes. The negative side of agriculture lagging behind other economic and social progress is evident in the abandonment of farmland, the aging of the rural population, the further fragmentation of land, the small size of farms, and outdated farming methods.

In recent decades, a *laissez-faire* approach began to appear, particularly after inclusion in the European Union. Free-market policies will further accelerate the differentiation of the countryside, which is already acquiring clear outlines. In naturally more advantageous regions, intensive farming with large-scale cultivation is developing that requires large consolidated surface areas with-



Koper, known to the Romans as Capris, lies on the northwest coast of Istria. The town's old medieval core stands on a former island and the newer parts of the city extend along the nearby hills. Despite Koper's age, its port was not built until 1957 because the port in Trieste was used during Italian rule. The growth of the port, which has terminals for containers, wood, and general and bulk cargo, was followed by the growth of other industries. This has strengthened Koper's role as Slovenia's third regional center alongside Ljubljana and Maribor.



MATEVŽ LENARČIČ

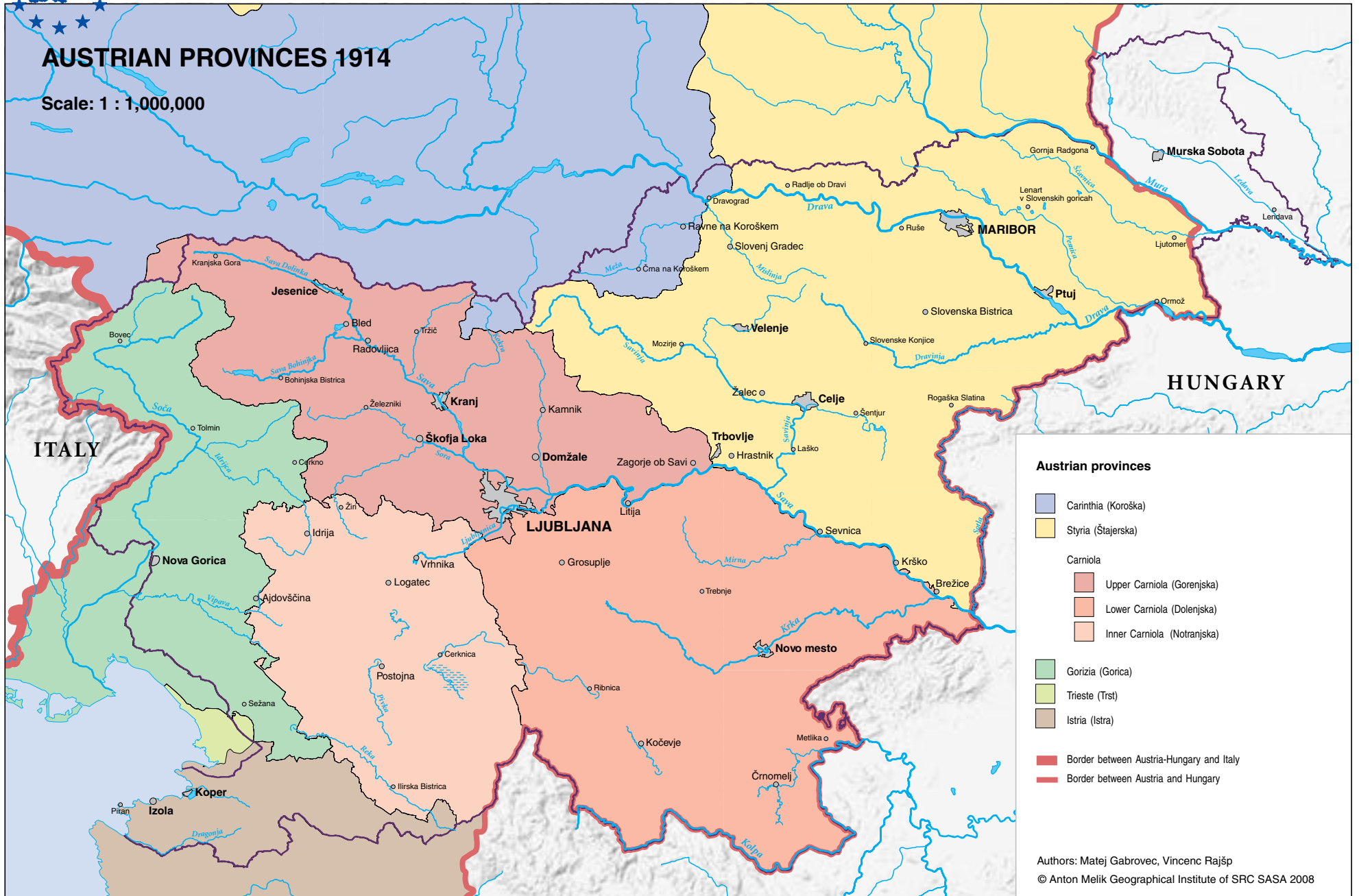
out interfering elements (e. g., hedges, free-standing trees, and the traditional hayrack or *kozolec*). At the same time, the valleys and basins are centers of civilization where numerous activities intertwine and various users of the space compete with each other. First-class agricultural land is disappearing due to freeway construction and the growth of cities. Rural settlements are acquiring the status of suburbs, and the countryside as a whole is acquiring a different role because it is becoming a place of residence and recreation for the non-farming population. The boundaries between cities and the countryside are already quite indistinct in Slovenia (Perko & Urbanc 2004). At the same time, the cultural landscape in the greater part of Slovenia is disintegrating, primarily in the low-hill and hill regions (Gabrovec & Kladnik 1997). A largely aging population remains on the farms; these people are emotionally bound to the land and for the moment still maintain the appearance and function of the landscape through their work. However, further abandonment of agricultural areas is to be expected in the future because there are no young people except in areas closer to cities, and these no longer cultivate the land because their education allows them to work at better-paid non-farming jobs. The complete liberalization of the agricultural market would cause a considerable decrease in the number of farms and the gradual emptying of low hilly and remote regions, and thus the loss of the identity of the countryside.

DRAGO PERKO



MARIAN GARBAS

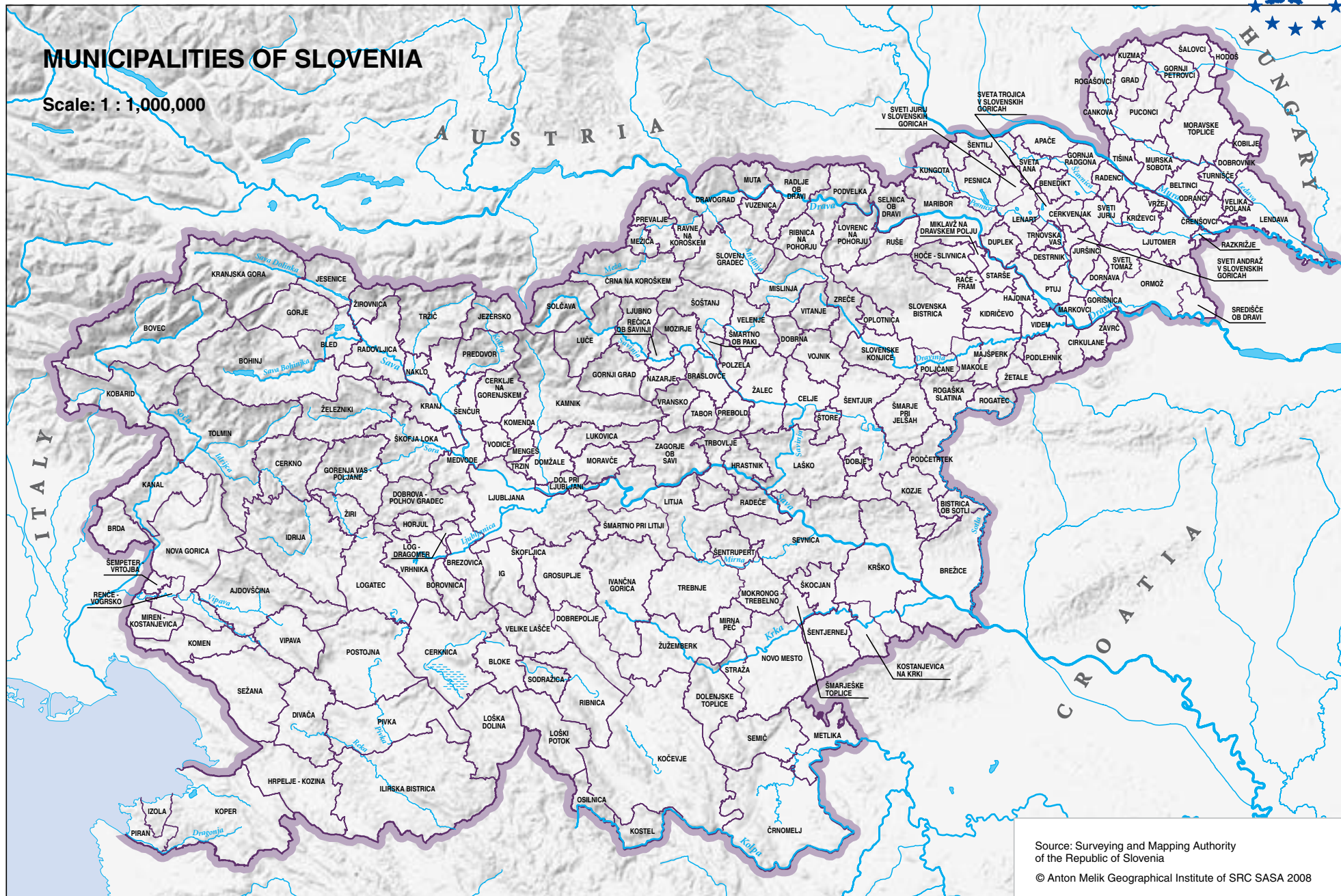
The marina in Portorož is one of the largest on the Adriatic Sea.





MUNICIPALITIES OF SLOVENIA

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000

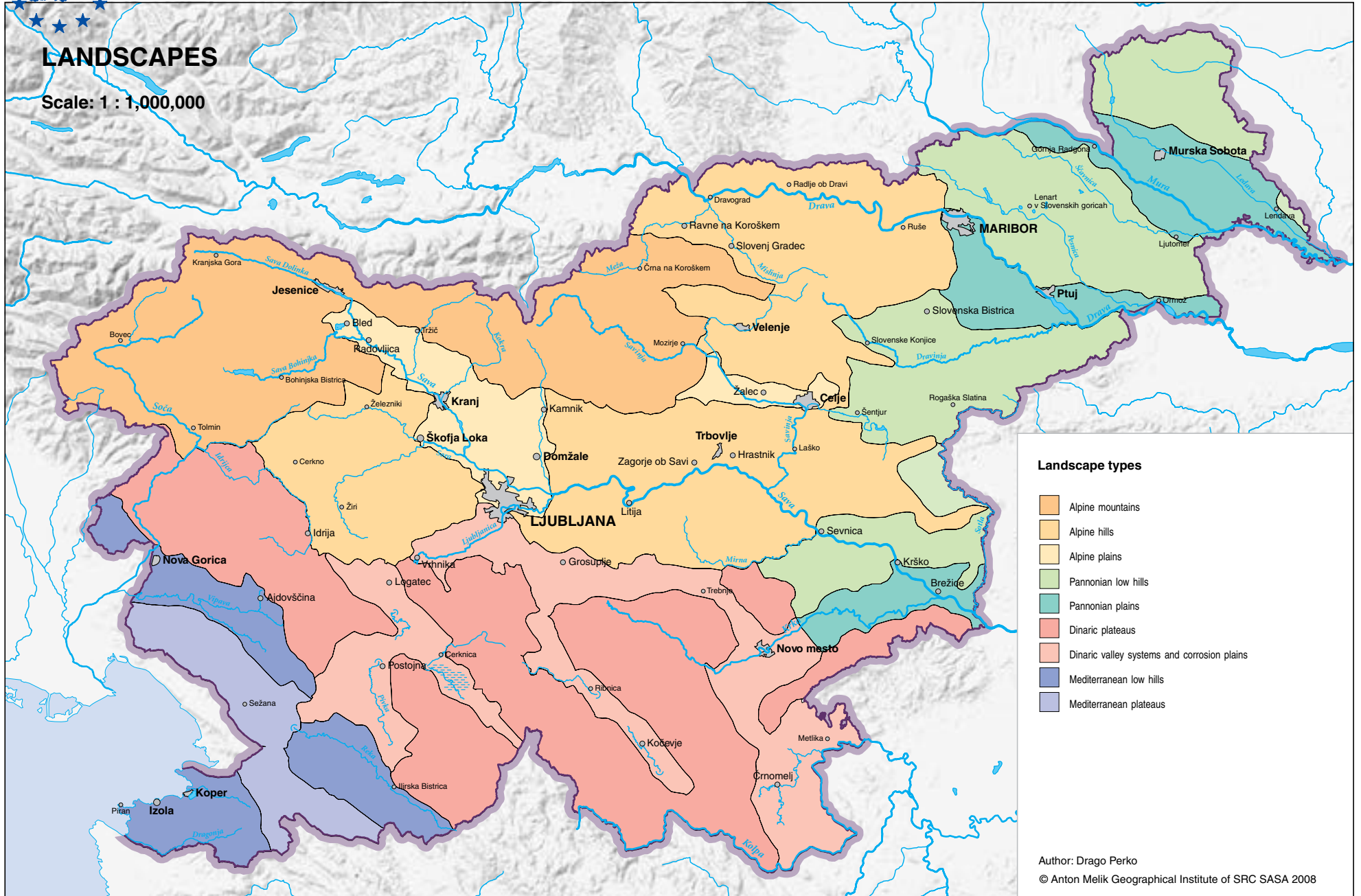


Source: Surveying and Mapping Authority of the Republic of Slovenia
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LANDSCAPES

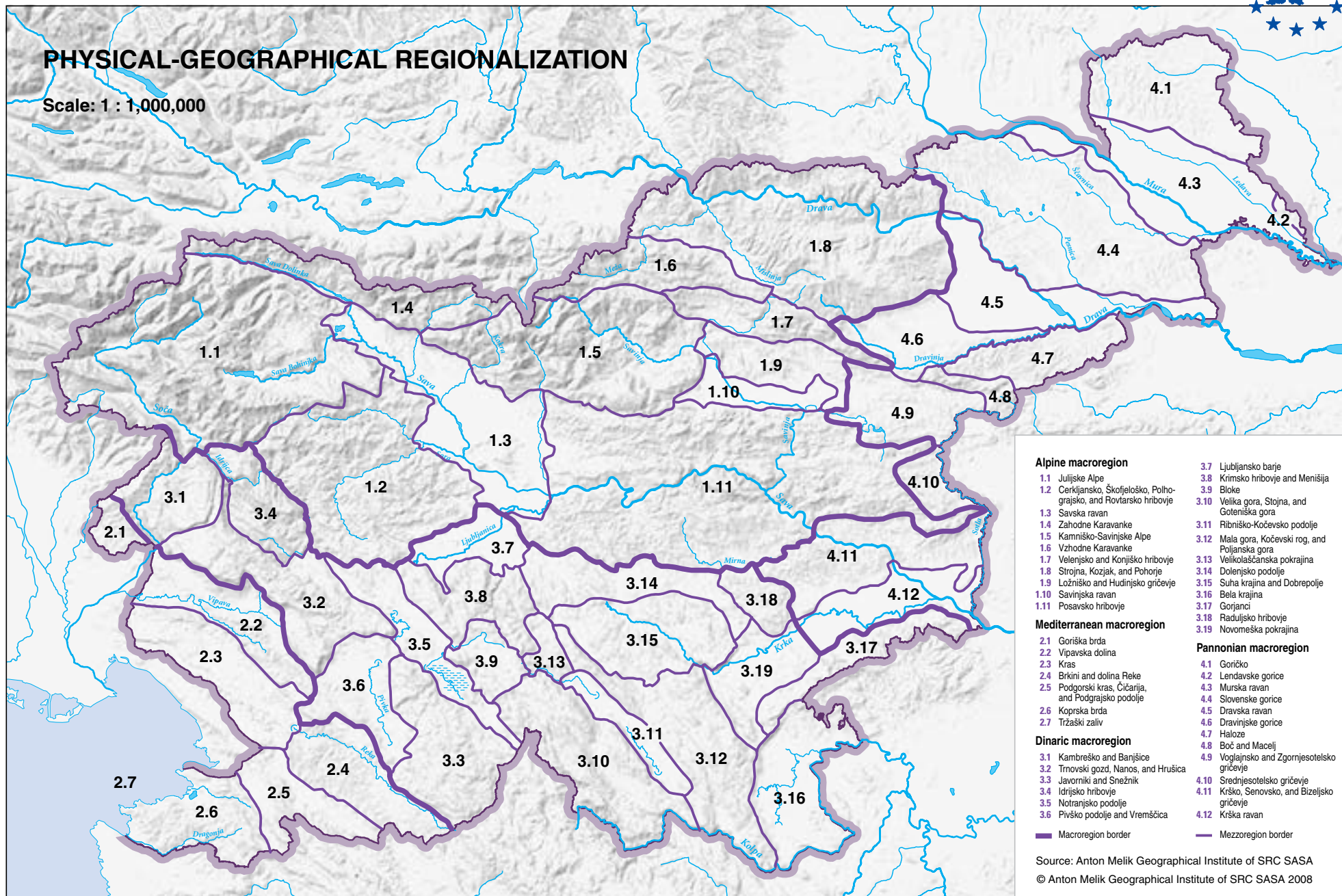
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PHYSICAL-GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONALIZATION

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- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| Alpine macroregion | | |
| 1.1 Julijske Alpe | 3.7 Ljubljansko barje | |
| 1.2 Cerkljansko, Škofjeloško, Polhograjsko, and Rovtarsko hribovje | 3.8 Krmsko hribovje and Menišija | |
| 1.3 Savska ravan | 3.9 Bloke | |
| 1.4 Zahodne Karavanke | 3.10 Velika gora, Stojna, and Goleniška gora | |
| 1.5 Kamniško-Savinjske Alpe | 3.11 Ribniško-Kočevsko podolje | |
| 1.6 Vzhodne Karavanke | 3.12 Mala gora, Kočevski rog, and Pojljanska gora | |
| 1.7 Velenjsko and Konjiško hribovje | 3.13 Velikolaščanska pokrajina | |
| 1.8 Strojna, Kozjak, and Pohorje | 3.14 Dolenjsko podolje | |
| 1.9 Ložniško and Hudinjsko gričevje | 3.15 Suha krajina and Dobropole | |
| 1.10 Savinjska ravan | 3.16 Bela krajina | |
| 1.11 Posavsko hribovje | 3.17 Gorjanci | |
| Mediterranean macroregion | | |
| 2.1 Goriška brda | 3.18 Raduljsko hribovje | |
| 2.2 Vipavska dolina | 3.19 Novomeška pokrajina | |
| 2.3 Kras | Pannonian macroregion | |
| 2.4 Brkini and dolina Reke | 4.1 Goricko | |
| 2.5 Podgorski kras, Čičarja, and Podgrajsko podolje | 4.2 Lendavske gorice | |
| 2.6 Kopska brda | 4.3 Murska ravan | |
| 2.7 Tržaški zaliv | 4.4 Slovenske gorice | |
| Dinaric macroregion | | |
| 3.1 Kambreško and Banjšice | 4.5 Dravska ravan | |
| 3.2 Trnovski gozd, Nanos, and Hrušica | 4.6 Dravinjske gorice | |
| 3.3 Javorniki and Snežnik | 4.7 Haloze | |
| 3.4 Idrijsko hribovje | 4.8 Boč and Macej | |
| 3.5 Notranjsko podolje | 4.9 Voglajnsko and Zgornjesotelsko gričevje | |
| 3.6 Pivško podolje and Vremšičca | 4.10 Srednjesotelsko gričevje | |
| | 4.11 Krško, Senovsko, and Bizeljsko gričevje | |
| | 4.12 Krška ravan | |
- Macroregion border
 Mezzoregion border

Source: Anton Melik Geographical Institute of SRC SASA
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Slovenia lies in the narrow transitional region between the Alps, the Pannonian Basin, the Dinaric Mountains, and the Mediterranean, so in spite of its small size, it is famous for its great natural diversity, variability, and transitional characteristics. Many geographers have observed that Slovenia is a natural geographical laboratory (Perko 2004, 11).

The chief natural factors influencing the regional differences within Slovenia are rocks, relief, climate, and vegetation (Perko 1998, 23).

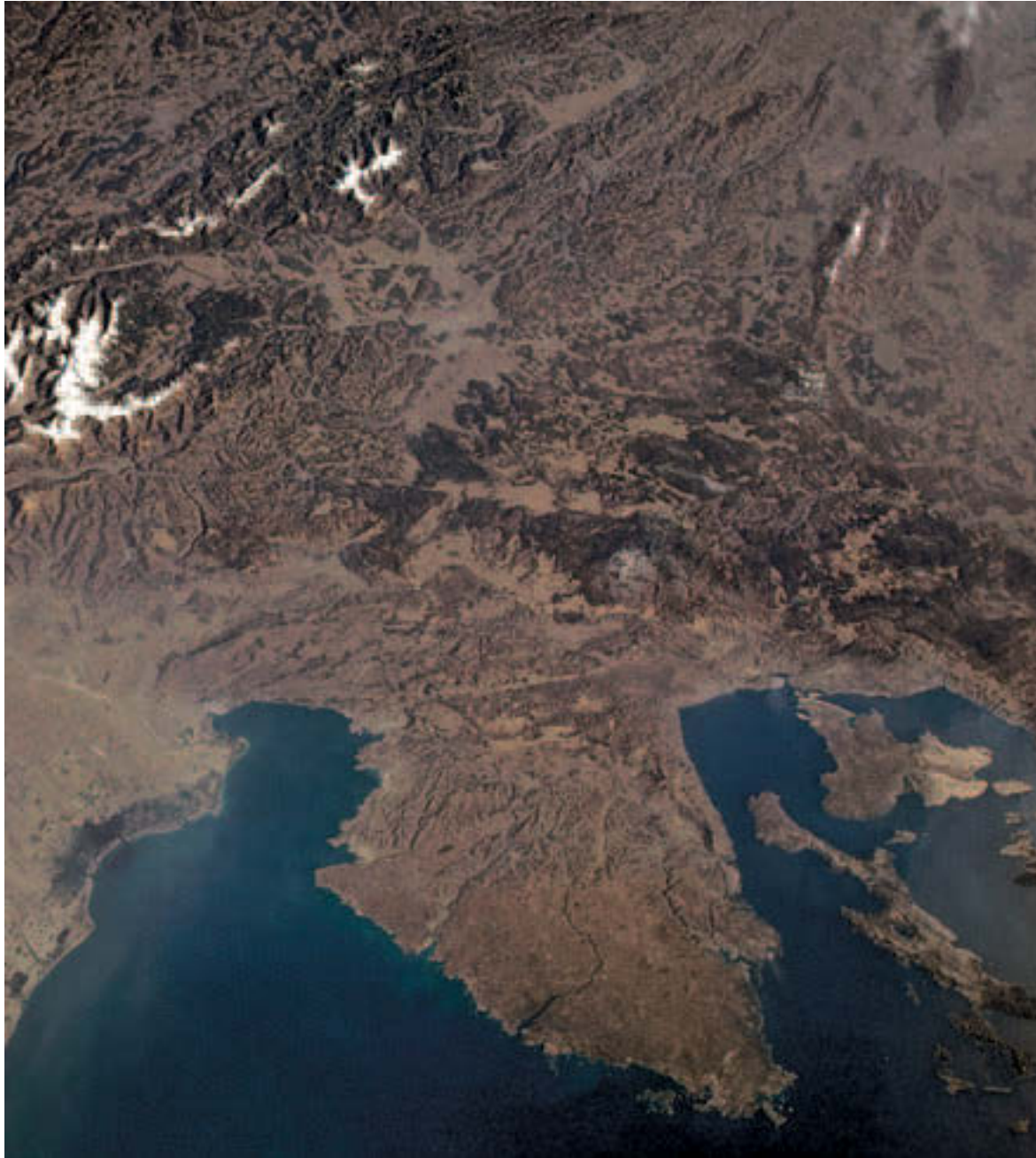
Rocks are classified by their origin as igneous, metamorphic, or sedimentary. Igneous rocks created by the hardening of magma constitute only 3% of Slovenia's surface, while metamorphic rocks created by the transformation of any type of stone in the Earth's interior due to increased pressure and higher temperatures constitute 4%. These two types are found primarily in the Pohorje mountains and in the eastern Karavanke mountains. Some 93% of Slovenia's surface is composed of sedimentary rocks created from whichever pre-existing rock particles that have been broken down by weathering and erosion. Clay, silt, sand, rubble, gravel, and till (morainic material) cover a good quarter of Slovenia's surface. The greatest amounts of these are found on the flatlands along Slovenia's largest rivers: the Mura, Drava, Krka, Savinja, Sava, and Soča. Through the cementing of grains, claystone is created from clay, siltstone from silt, sandstone from sand, breccia from rubble, conglomerate from gravel, and tillite from till. These cemented rocks cover a tenth of Slovenia's surface. Marl, which constitutes the majority of the Pannonian low hills, and flysch, which constitutes the Mediterranean

low hills, comprise a good tenth of the surface. The same proportion is composed of dolomite, which constitutes primarily the Alpine hills. The greatest part of Slovenia's surface, almost one third, is composed of limestone, particularly the Alpine mountains and the Dinaric plateaus. The oldest rock in Slovenia is the metamorphic rock in the Pohorje and Kozjak mountains, which is believed to originate in the Precambrian, while the oldest sediment is the Devonian limestone found in the central Karavanke mountains (Hrvatín, Komac, Perko & Zorn 2006, 297).

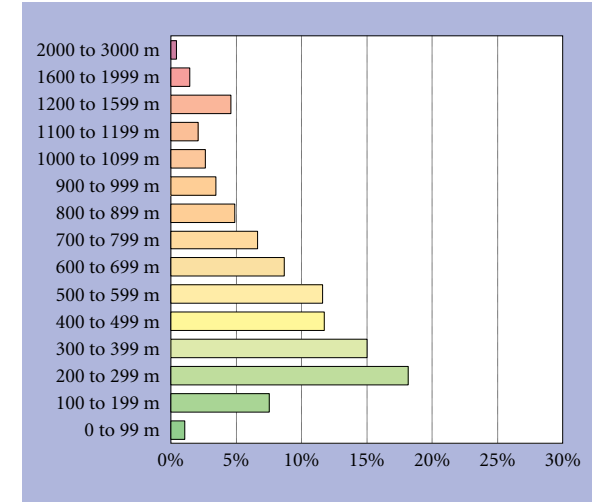
Events during the Pliocene and Pleistocene were of major significance for the **relief** of present-day Slovenia. In the middle of the Pliocene, the surface was largely levelled due to strong corrosion and denudation in the then moderately warm and wet temperate climate. Numerous planated areas remain from this period. As the climate became cooler at the end of the Pliocene, mechanical weathering increased and areas primarily composed of mechanically less resistant impermeable rocks, which were considerably more widespread at the time than they are today, consequently became smaller. Through deepening and lateral erosion, the rivers carved deep valleys, above which the remnants of former terraces have survived. During the Ice Ages of the Quaternary, the temperature dropped by more than 10 °C. In the Alps and the Dinaric Mountains, extensive glaciers developed whose creeping widened valleys and created enormous quantities of rubble. Water flowing from under the glaciers carried it away and deposited it on lower areas. Periods of accumulation were followed by periods of erosion and the deepening of valleys. The erosion was so strong that none of the later accumulations reached



A view through the »window« in the Alpine region.



Slovenia with Istria and the Adriatic Sea.

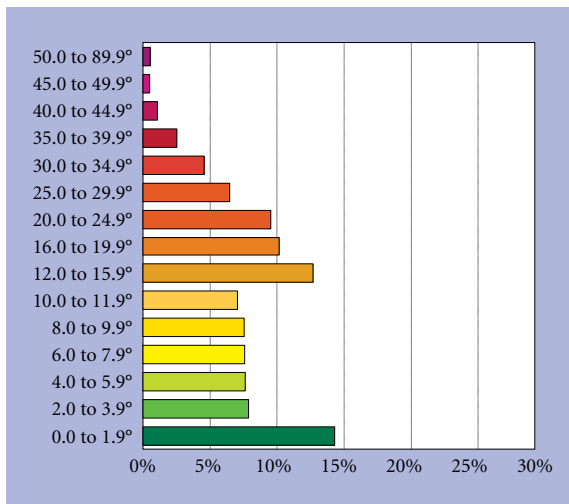


Proportion of surface by elevation belts.

the heights of the preceding ones. In the course of the many alternations of these processes, the valleys were deepened by 100 to 300 m, and five to seven levels of terraces, increasingly younger toward the bottoms of the valleys, remain visible on the valley sides (Perko 2001b, 43).

Today in Slovenia we can find six basic genetic types of relief: destructive fluvio-denudatival, accumulative fluvial-denudatival, glacial, limestone karst, dolomite karst, and coastal. In some areas, these genetic relief types are interwoven (Gabrovec & Hrvatin 2004, 27).

Some 44% of Slovenia is covered by limestone and dolomite karst. In Slovene, the word »karst« (»*kras*«) means »bare rocky terrain«. The basic reasons for the creation of karst are the fissure permeability and the solubility of the rocks. Pure water can dissolve only a little limestone, but when CO₂ from the air and soil combines with water, a weak carbonic acid is created that accelerates the dissolution (corrosion). The karst surface thus slowly and imperceptibly dissolves and lowers. Added up, the quantity of dissolved limestone carried away by the Ljubljana River lowers its karst hinterland by 6 mm every hundred years (Perko 2001b, 43).



Proportion of surface by inclination classes.

The characteristic surface of the limestone karst region is composed of karst depressions and rounded peaks. The most frequently occurring karst depressions are sinkholes. In places their density is extraordinarily high, exceeding 200 sinkholes per km². Uvalas and poljes rank among the larger karst depressions. In Inner Carniola, the best known poljes are Cerkljansko polje and Planinsko polje, and in Lower Carniola, Ribniško polje and Kočevsko polje. Slovenia's largest corrosion plain, which is several kilometers long and wide with numerous sinkholes, is in White Carniola. Where surface rivers and streams flowed from impermeable rocks onto limestone, blind valleys were created, for example, on the southwestern rim of the flysch Brkini low hills. Around the karst sources of the Ljubljanica, Unica, and Krka rivers, pocket valleys were formed that typically end in an unusually steep hillslope or even a vertical wall. The flowing of karst rivers underground created numerous caves and potholes (shafts). Slovenia's largest caves were created near the swallowholes of larger rivers. The Postojna and Planina caves were formed by the Pivka River, and the Škocjan and Kačna caves by the Reka River. The deepest shafts explored so far, over 1000 m deep,

UNKNOWN AUTHOR



The Triglav Glacier in September 1957.

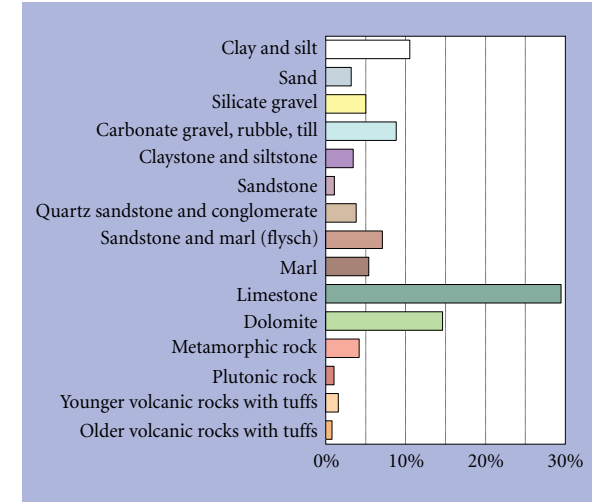
MIHA PAVŠEK



The remains of the Triglav Glacier in September 2007.



Coastal relief with flysch cliffs and alluvial flood plains between Izola and Piran.

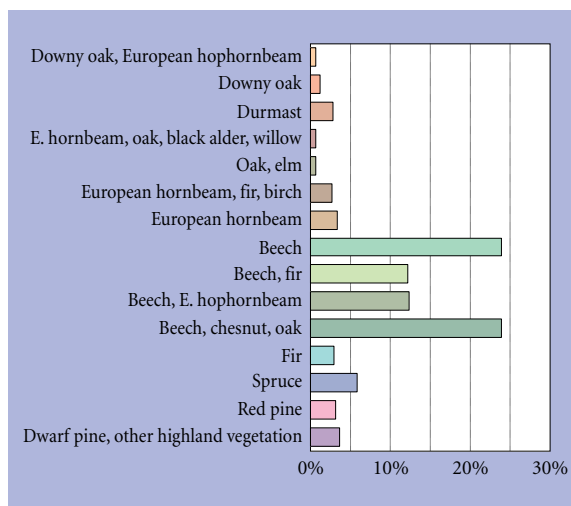


Proportion of rock types.

are on Mount Rombon and on Dleskovaška planota. With a depth of 1502 m, the Čehi 2 shaft at Rombonski podi is one of the deepest shafts in the world. Due to the sinking of the roofs of karst caves, deep collapse dolines called »koliševka« or »kukava« in Slovene formed on the surface. The 124-meter deep Unška koliševka and Laška kukava, which has a volume of 2.75 million m³ and is the largest collapse doline in Slovenia, were created above the underground streams in the karst catchment of the Ljubljana River. Although underground streams dominate in the limestone karst region, individual rivers such as the Kolpa and the Krka flow on the surface. Among Slovenia's dry river valleys, Čepovanska dolina between Banjšice and Trnovski gozd is the most distinctive.

Along with the chemical dissolution of rock, erosion and denudation are significant in the dolomite karst region, and the dolomite karst relief is therefore less distinctive than the limestone relief and in many places resembles fluviodenudative relief. Surface karst forms are rarer, and small and shallow dry valleys called »dolci« are characteristic. This relief type is frequently called »fluviokarstic« and is typical of the Temenica River catchment (Gabrovec & Hrvatin 2004, 30).

MARIAN GARBALIS

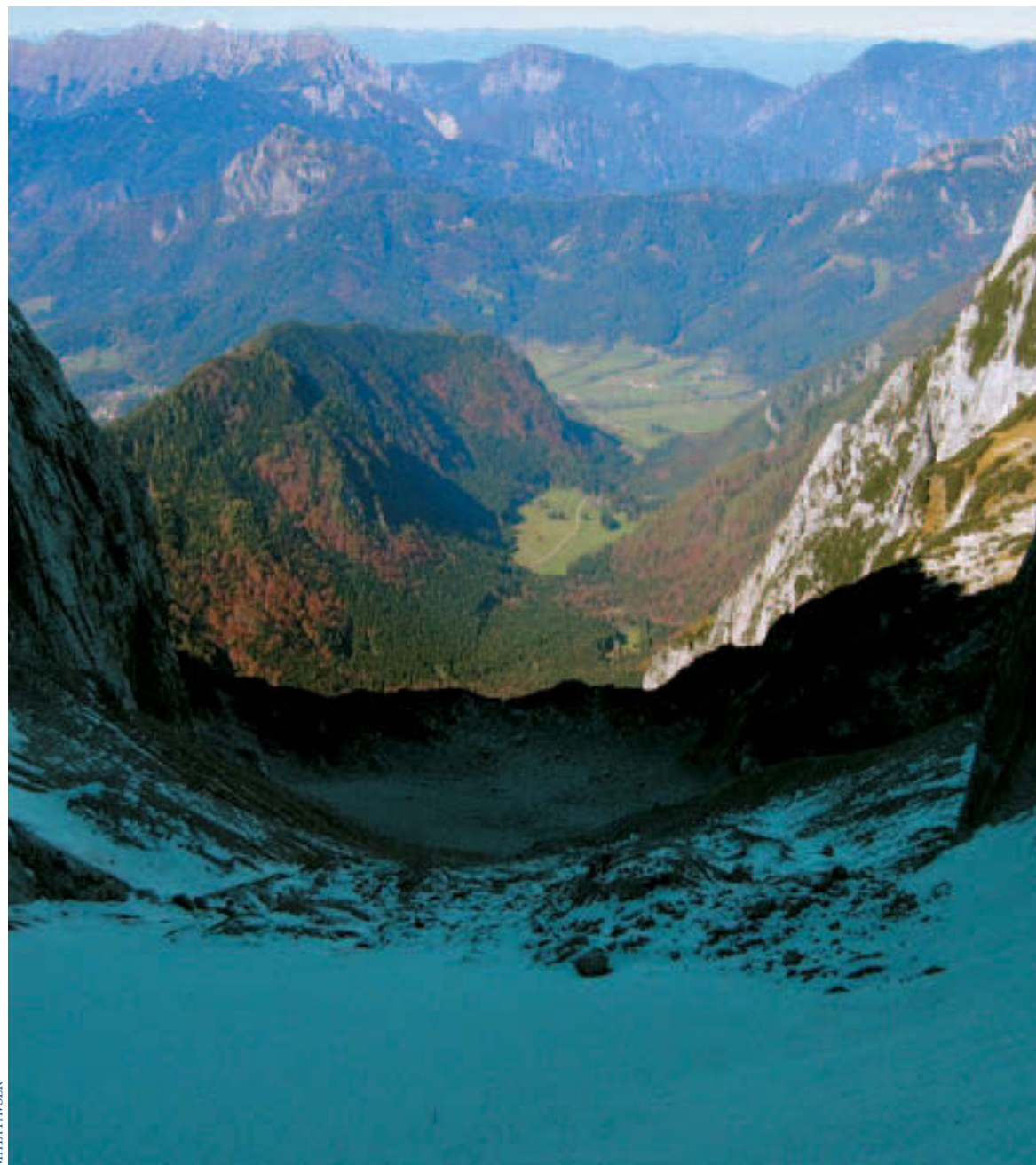


Proportion of real vegetation types.

Six relief types are used to categorize surface structure: flatlands, low hills, hills, mountains, and low and high plateaus (Gabrovec & Hrvatin 2004, 30). Flatlands were created by accumulation processes. Today the deposition process is occurring only on the youngest flood plains of rivers and streams. Older conglomerate terraces are already karstified. In the low hills, where the altitude difference between the valleys and ridges is less than 300 m and in the hills where it is more than 300 m, denudative and erosion processes dominate. In the mountains, the peaks and ridges extend above the tree line, which is around 1700 m in Slovenia. Numerous glacial forms have survived from the Pleistocene, and fluviodenudative and karst processes dominate here today. The low hills, hills, and mountains are dissected by numerous valleys, but valleys are rare on the plateaus due to the prevailing karst processes. On the plateaus, rounded peaks and various karst depressions alternate. Low plateaus extend to 700 m above sea level, while the peaks on the high plateaus exceed 1000 m.

Slovenia's average inclination is 14°, and the average altitude is 557 m, two thirds of the world's average. Its highest point is the peak of Mount Triglav (2864 m),

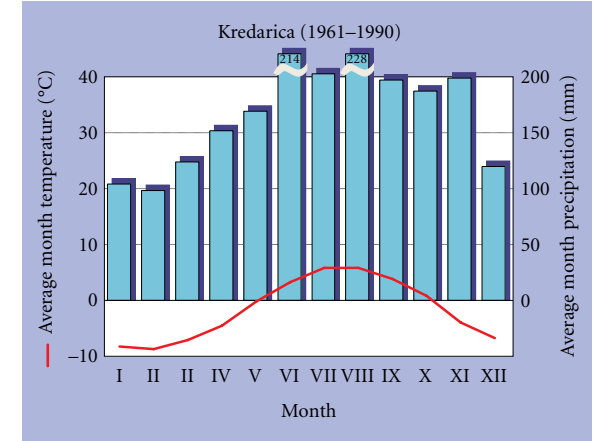
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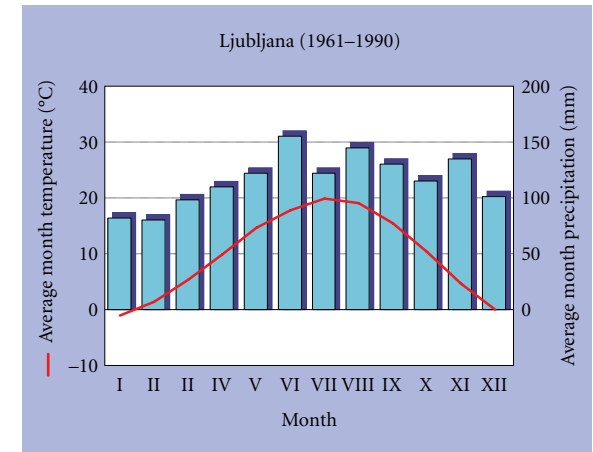
Glacial relief below the Skuta Glacier.



Glacial and destructive fluvial-denudational relief in the Loška Koritnica Valley with Mount Rombon (2,208 m) in the Julian Alps.



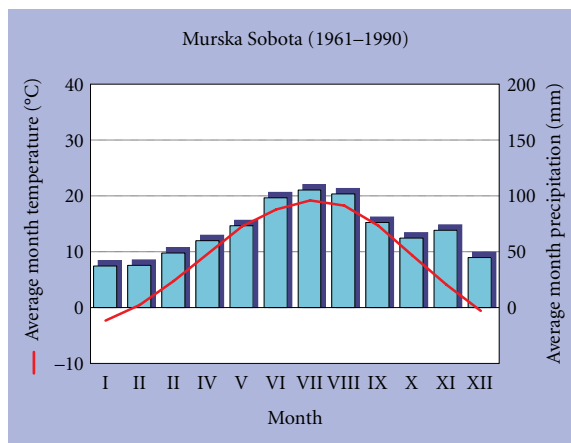
High mountain climate.



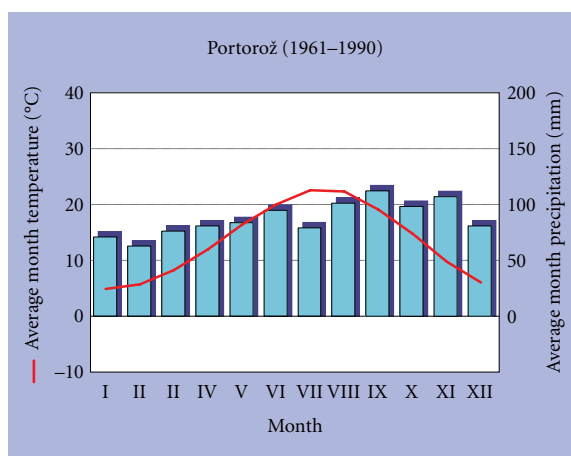
Continental climate of central Slovenia

and its lowest is the coastline (0 m). The altitude belt from 0 to 200 m, which includes the Pannonian and Mediterranean plains, altogether encompasses less than one tenth of Slovenia's surface; the belt from 200 to 400 m that includes mainly the Pannonian and Mediterranean low hill areas and the Alpine plains encompasses almost one third; the belt from 400 to 800 m that includes the majority of the Alpine and Dinaric hills encompasses almost two fifths; the belt from 800 to 1200 m that in-

MIHA PAVŠEK



Continental climate of eastern Slovenia.



Submediterranean littoral climate.

cludes mainly high Dinaric plateaus and the highest Alpine hills encompasses one eighth; and the belt above 1200 m encompasses only 6%. Due to the influence of altitude, various altitude borders have been formed. The snow line in Slovenia is around 2700 m, and the forest line lies between 1600 and 1900 m in the Julian Alps, between 1700 and 1800 m in the Kamnik-Savinja Alps, between 1800 and 1900 m in the Karavanke mountains, and only a little above 1500 m in the Snežnik mountains.

MARIAN GARBAJS



Accumulative fluvial-denudational relief along the lower course of the Krka River before its confluence with the Sava River.



Dell »dolec«, small and shallow dry valley, is a characteristic form of dolomite karst relief.

The average altitude border of human settlement runs about 500 m below the tree line. The highest farmsteads are found at 1300 m in the eastern Karavanke mountains. The altitude border for corn is 800 m, and for vineyards, 500 to 600 m (Perko 2001b, 45).

Slovenia is rich with **water**. It has access to the sea, rich reserves of underground water, and a dense network of surface waters. Due to the great diversity of relief and rock types, the watercourses are short. While the total length of all watercourses adds up to 26,989 km, as many as two fifths of them are torrential streams and only 46 are longer than 25 km. Only the Sava, Drava, Kolpa, and Savinja rivers are longer than 100 km. Some four fifths of Slovenia falls in the Black Sea catchment, and the rest belongs to the Adriatic catchment (Hrvatín 2004, 31).

The **soils** are also distinctly linked with relief and rock types. In the Alpine mountains the prevailing soil is Rendzina; in the Alpine hills, Cambisol; on the Dinaric and the Mediterranean plateaus, Chromic Cambisol; in the Pannonian low hills, Cambisol and Planosol; and in the Mediterranean low hills, Cambisol (Perko 2001b, 45; Repe 2004a, 54).

According to precipitation regimes, the average temperatures of the warmest and coldest months, and the ratio between October and April temperatures, Slovenia has three **climate** types with nine subtypes. It has two precipitation regimes: continental and submediterranean. The continental precipitation regime has its peak rainfall in summer and its low point in winter. The primary peak of the submediterranean precipitation regime is in autumn and its primary low point occurs between winter and spring with a secondary peak falling between spring and summer and a secondary low point occurring in summer, which indicates the intermingling of the continental regime with the Mediterranean precipitation regime that has its precipitation peak in winter and its low point in summer (Perko 2004, 45). Due to the global warming these characteristics are changing.

The submediterranean climate (the average temperature of its coldest month is over 0 °C and in its warmest month exceeds 20 °C; the average temperature



is higher in October than in April; submediterranean precipitation regime) has two subtypes: the littoral subtype or olive tree climate (the average temperature of its coldest month is over 4 °C and in its warmest month exceeds 22 °C; average annual precipitation between 1000 and 1200 mm) and the littoral hinterland subtype (the average temperature of the coldest month ranges between 0 and 4 °C, and of the warmest month between 20 and 22 °C; average annual precipitation between 1200 and 1700 mm). The latter subtype extends up the Soča Valley to Tolmin and to the high Dinaric plateaus.

The temperate continental climate (the average temperature in the coldest month is between -3 and 0 °C and in the warmest month between 15 and 20 °C; continental precipitation regime) has four subtypes: the temperate continental climate of western and southern Slovenia (average April temperature lower than that of October; submediterranean precipitation regime; average annual precipitation between 1300 and 2800 mm), the temperate continental climate of central Slovenia (average April temperature lower than that of October; continental precipitation regime; average annual precipitation between 1000 and 1300 mm), the temperate continental or subpannonian climate of eastern Slovenia (average April temperature equal to or higher than that of October; continental precipitation regime; average annual precipitation between 800 and 1000 mm), and the temperate continental or subpannonian climate of southeastern Slovenia in White Carniola (average April temperature approximately equal to that of October; submediterranean precipitation regime; average annual precipitation between 1200 and 1300 mm). The regions where April temperatures are higher than those of October correspond to the winegrowing regions of north-eastern and eastern Slovenia.

The montane climate (average temperature of the coldest month below -3 °C) has three subtypes: the climate of higher mountain regions lying above the tree line (average temperature of the warmest month below 10 °C; submediterranean precipitation regime; average annual precipitation between 1600 and 3500 mm); the



Limestone karst relief with periodically flooded uvala near the picturesque village of Retje in southern Slovenia.



The intermittent Lake Cerknica is located in the Notranjska valley system (Notranjsko podolje).

climate of lower mountain regions and intermediate valleys in western Slovenia (average temperature of the warmest month above 10 °C; submediterranean precipitation regime); and the climate of lower mountain regions and intermediate valleys in northern Slovenia (average temperature of the warmest month above 10 °C; continental precipitation regime, average annual precipitation between 1100 and 1700 mm).

The most important visible indicator of natural conditions is **vegetation**. After the retreat of the Pleistocene glaciers, forests covered the entire territory of present-day Slovenia except for the highest and steepest locations. Over many centuries, human activity cleared more than a half of all the forest. However, forest overgrowth has been so intense in recent decades that according to the latest data the proportion of forest cover is approaching 60%, thus ranking Slovenia among the most densely forested countries in the world. Most widespread are various beech forests, which comprise almost three quarters of all forests and cover two fifths of Slovenia's surface. In the Alpine mountains and hills and on the Dinaric plateaus, the predominant species are beech, fir, and spruce; on the Alpine plains, red pine, beech, and European hornbeam; in the Dinaric valley systems, European hornbeam, beech, chestnut, and oak; on the Pannonian plains, English oak, red pine, and European hornbeam; on the Mediterranean plateaus, European hop hornbeam and downy oak; and on the Mediterranean low hills, durmast oak, downy oak, and European hop hornbeam (Perko 2001, 47; Repe 2004b, 59).

Due to the pronounced diversity of Slovenia, the most varied **natural disasters** are characteristic of Slovenia. Although the material damage caused by natural disasters is relatively high, human casualties are relatively low. The greatest number of deaths are caused by avalanches (37%), followed by earthquakes (30%), lightning strikes (13%), floods (12%), storms (6%), and other natural disasters (2%) (Orožen Adamič 2001a, 173).

The areas most threatened by earthquakes are Tolmin and Idrija, where earthquake magnitudes of 9^o MCS and a 500-year recurrence cycle can be expected. These ar-

JOŽE HANČ



areas cover 1.8% of Slovenia's surface where 0.5% of the population lives. Part of the Ljubljana region, which overall ranks in the 8° MCS category, is a microregion where earthquakes with a magnitude of 9° MCS can occur. Some 21.4% of Slovene territory on which 32.6% of the population lives is situated in 8° MCS regions where substantial earthquake damage can be expected. The MCS scale used in Slovenia's civil defense legislation is gradually being replaced by the very similar EMS European earthquake scale (Orožen Adamič 2004, 67).

Flooding threatens almost three thousand square kilometers of Slovenia. The greatest threat is to valley regions (237,000 ha) where there are some thirty larger flood areas. Less extensive flooding occurs along the sea and on karst poljes (70,403 ha). The most frequent causes of floods are torrential downpours and rapidly melting snow. Approximately 7% of Slovenia's population lives in areas vulnerable to regular flooding. More than a quarter of the population, valuable farmland, industrial sites, and other facilities are located in areas where major floods occur every fifty years (Orožen Adamič 2004, 69).

Hail causes the greatest damage in northeastern Slovenia, although Goriška brda is also quite threatened. Although there are regions of Slovenia that receive almost the greatest rainfall in Europe and although the greater part of the country records more than 1,200 mm of precipitation every year, longer periods of minimal precipitation occur every year. The main reason for periodical drought in Slovenia is the serious lack of rain, the consequence of oscillations in annual precipitation and its varied distribution during the year. Strong winds regularly accompany heavy downpours and storms, but hurricane winds and tornadoes are rare in Slovenia. During catastrophic periods of freezing rain, great damage is caused to the electricity grid when layers of ice more than 50 mm thick coat the power lines (Orožen Adamič 2004, 70).

DRAGO PERKO

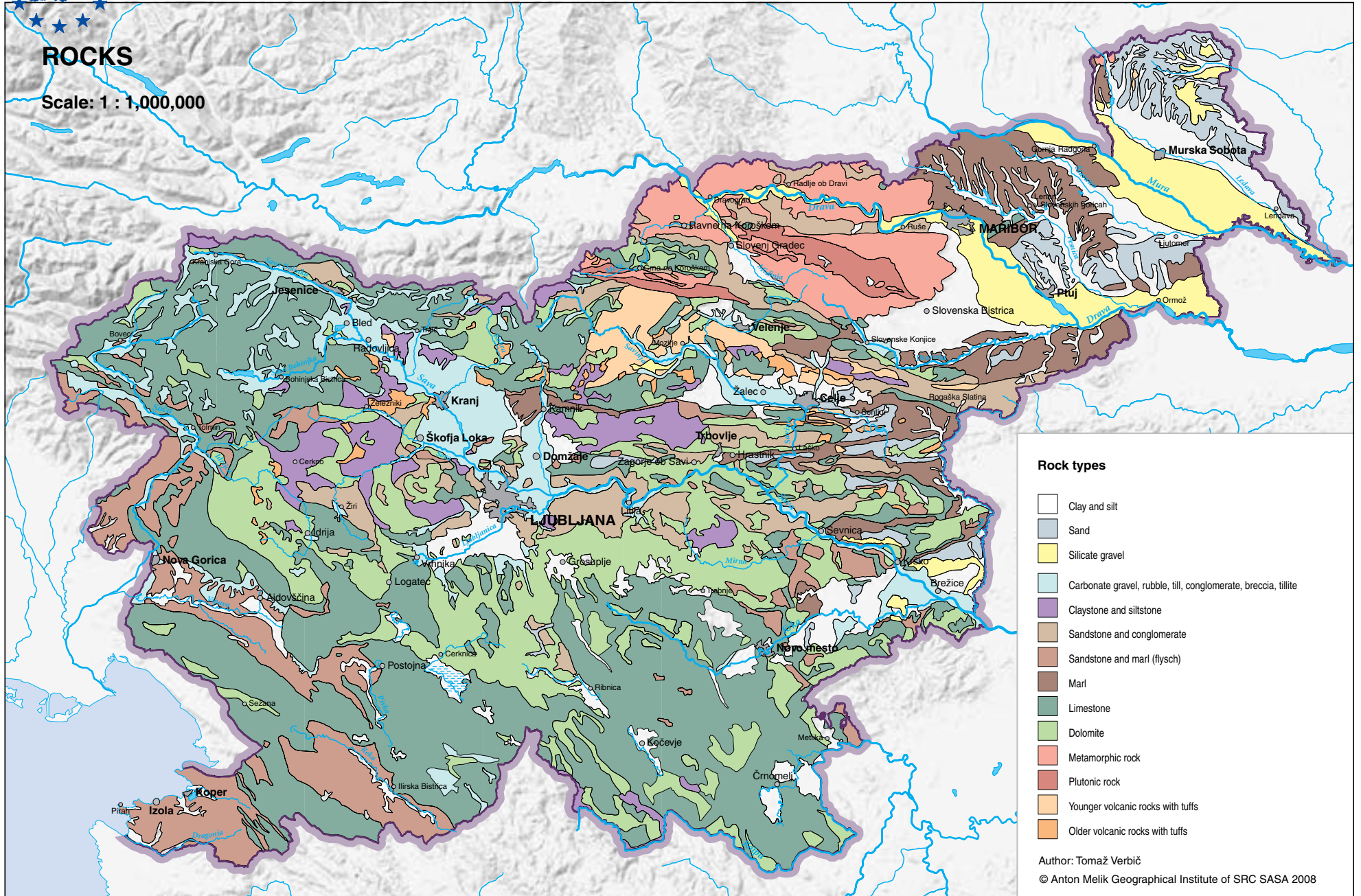
FRANC GOLOB



Columns in Postojna Cave (Postojnska jama), best-known Slovenia's cave.

ROCKS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



Rock types

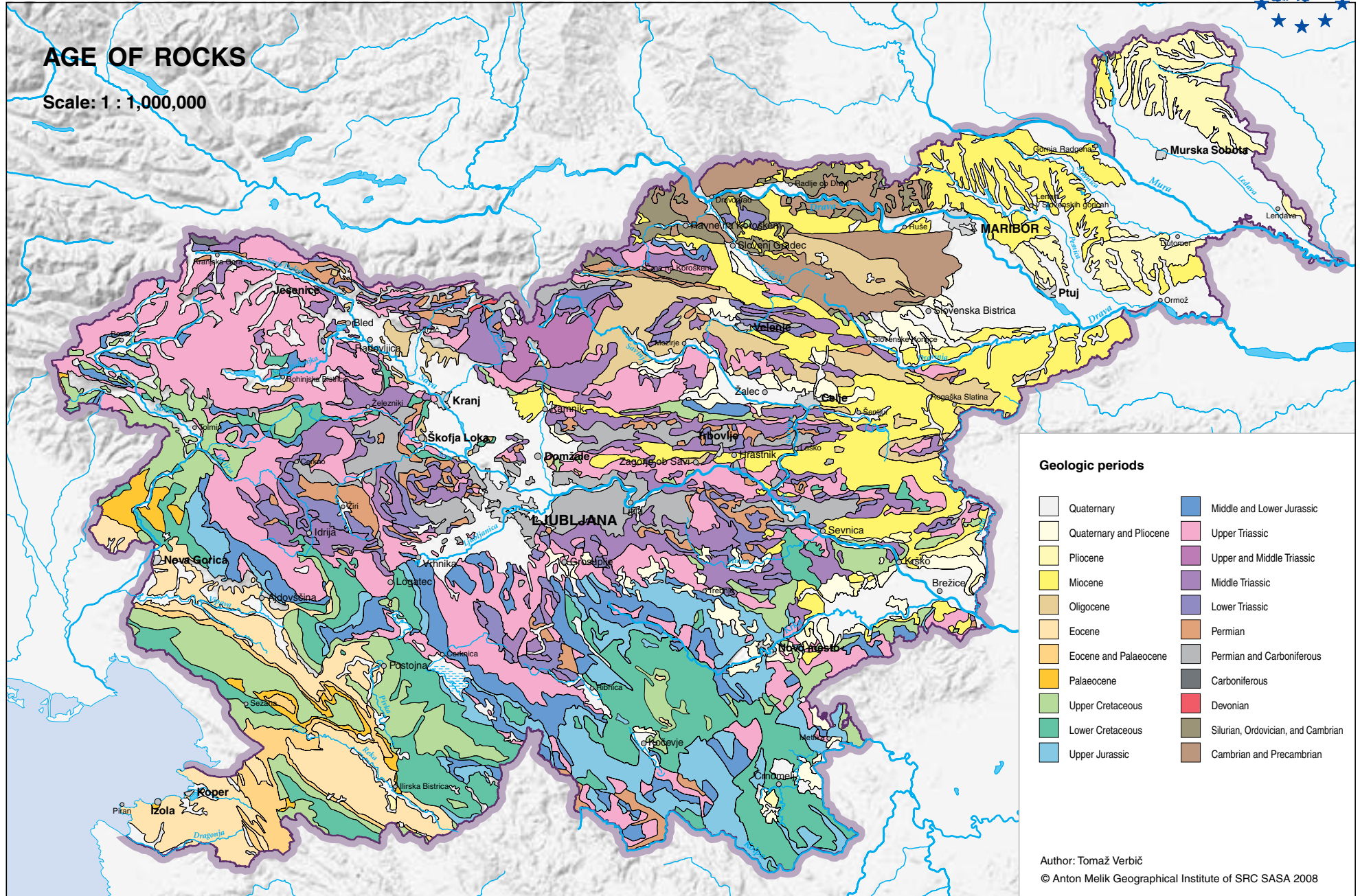
- Clay and silt
- Sand
- Silicate gravel
- Carbonate gravel, rubble, till, conglomerate, breccia, tillite
- Claystone and siltstone
- Sandstone and conglomerate
- Sandstone and marl (flysch)
- Marl
- Limestone
- Dolomite
- Metamorphic rock
- Plutonic rock
- Younger volcanic rocks with tuffs
- Older volcanic rocks with tuffs

Author: Tomaž Verbič
 © Anton Melik Geographical Institute of SRC SASA 2008



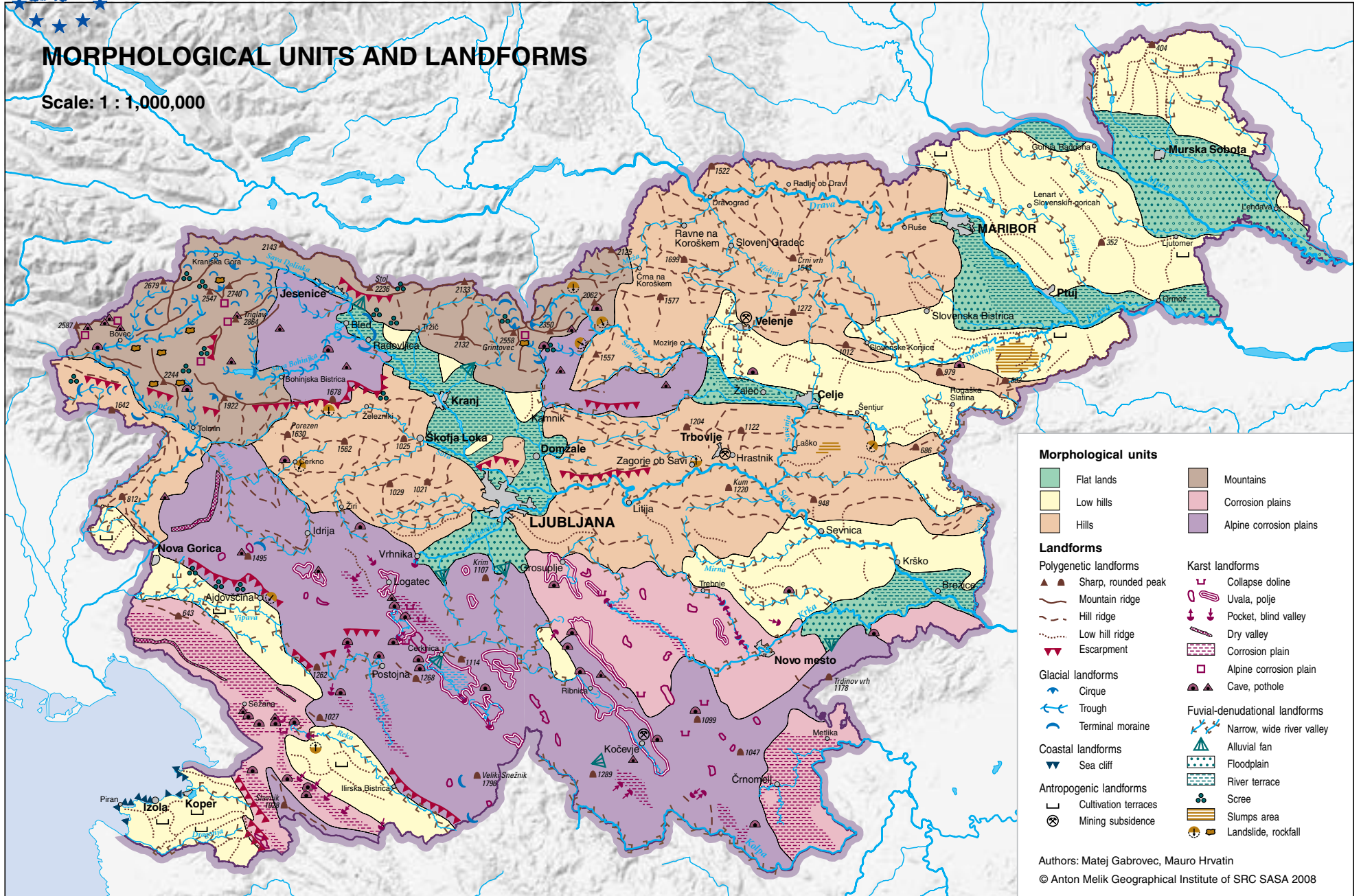
AGE OF ROCKS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



MORPHOLOGICAL UNITS AND LANDFORMS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



Morphological units

- Flat lands
- Low hills
- Hills
- Mountains
- Corrosion plains
- Alpine corrosion plains

Landforms

Polygenetic landforms

- Sharp, rounded peak
- Mountain ridge
- Hill ridge
- Low hill ridge
- Escarpment

Glacial landforms

- Cirque
- Trough
- Terminal moraine

Coastal landforms

- Sea cliff

Antropogenic landforms

- Cultivation terraces
- Mining subsidence

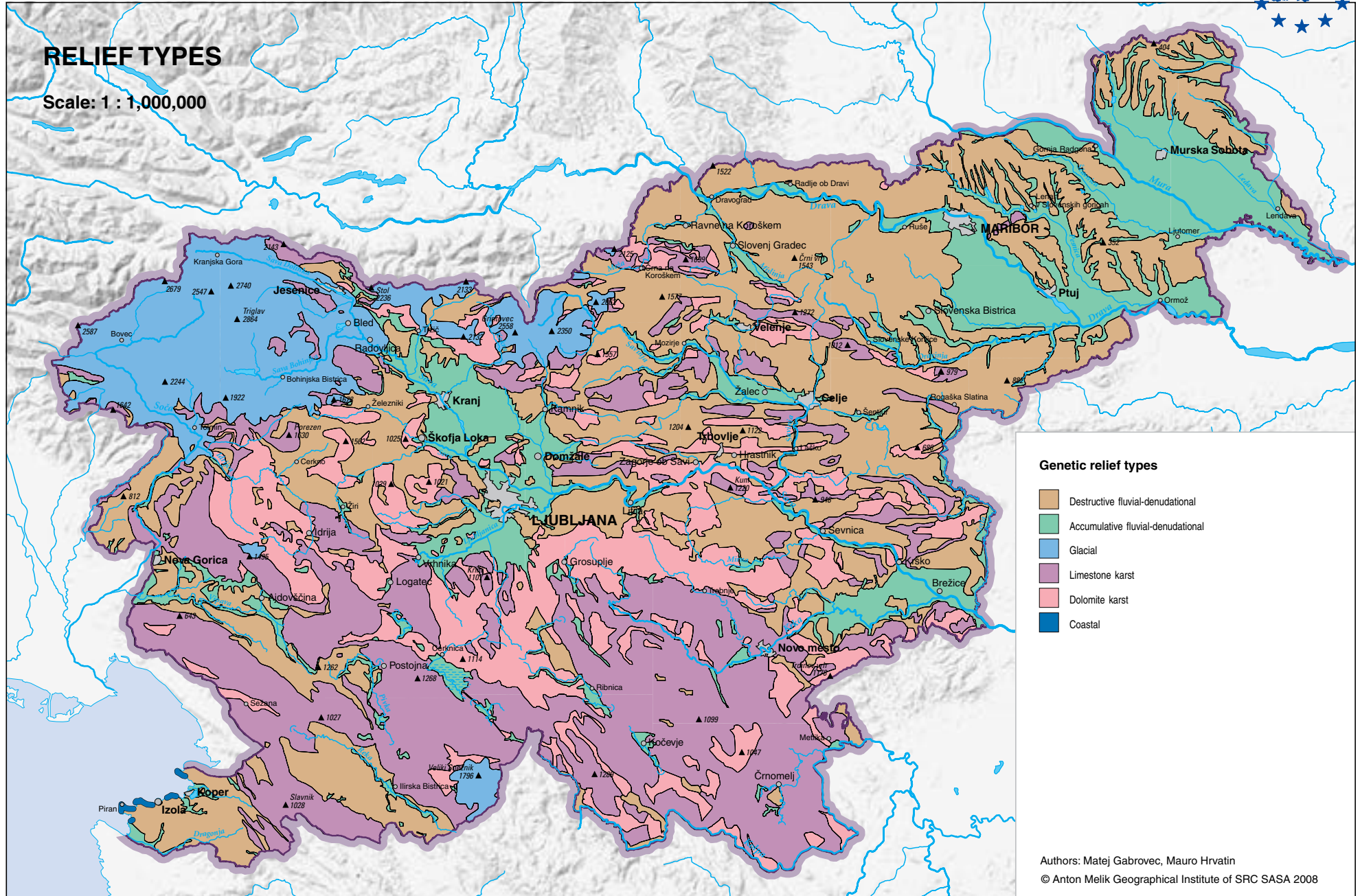
Karst landforms

- Collapse doline
- Uvala, polje
- Pocket, blind valley
- Dry valley
- Corrosion plain
- Alpine corrosion plain
- Cave, pothole

Fluvial-denudational landforms

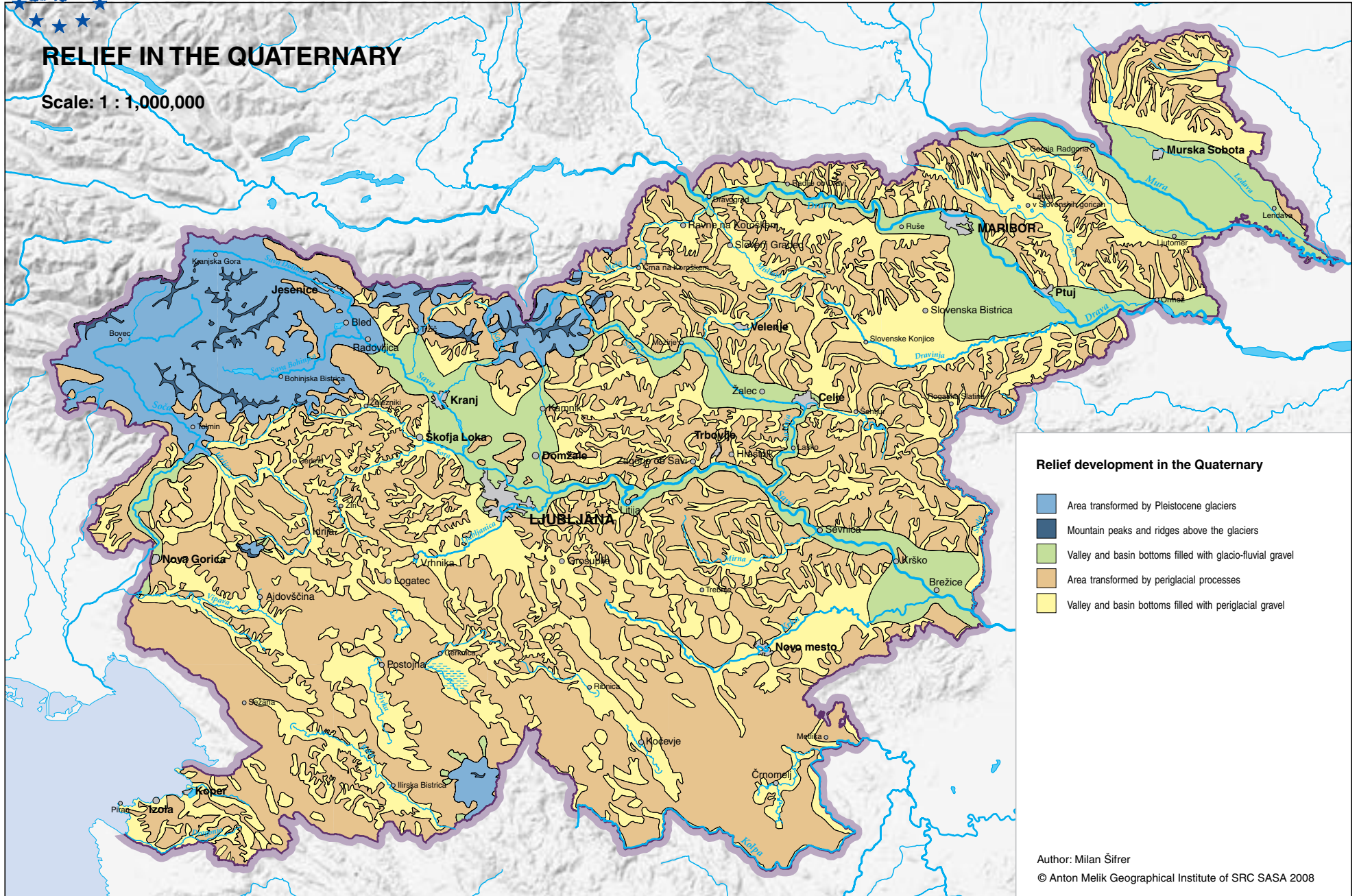
- Narrow, wide river valley
- Alluvial fan
- Floodplain
- River terrace
- Scree
- Slumps area
- Landslide, rockfall

Authors: Matej Gabrovec, Mauro Hrvatin
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RELIEF IN THE QUATERNARY

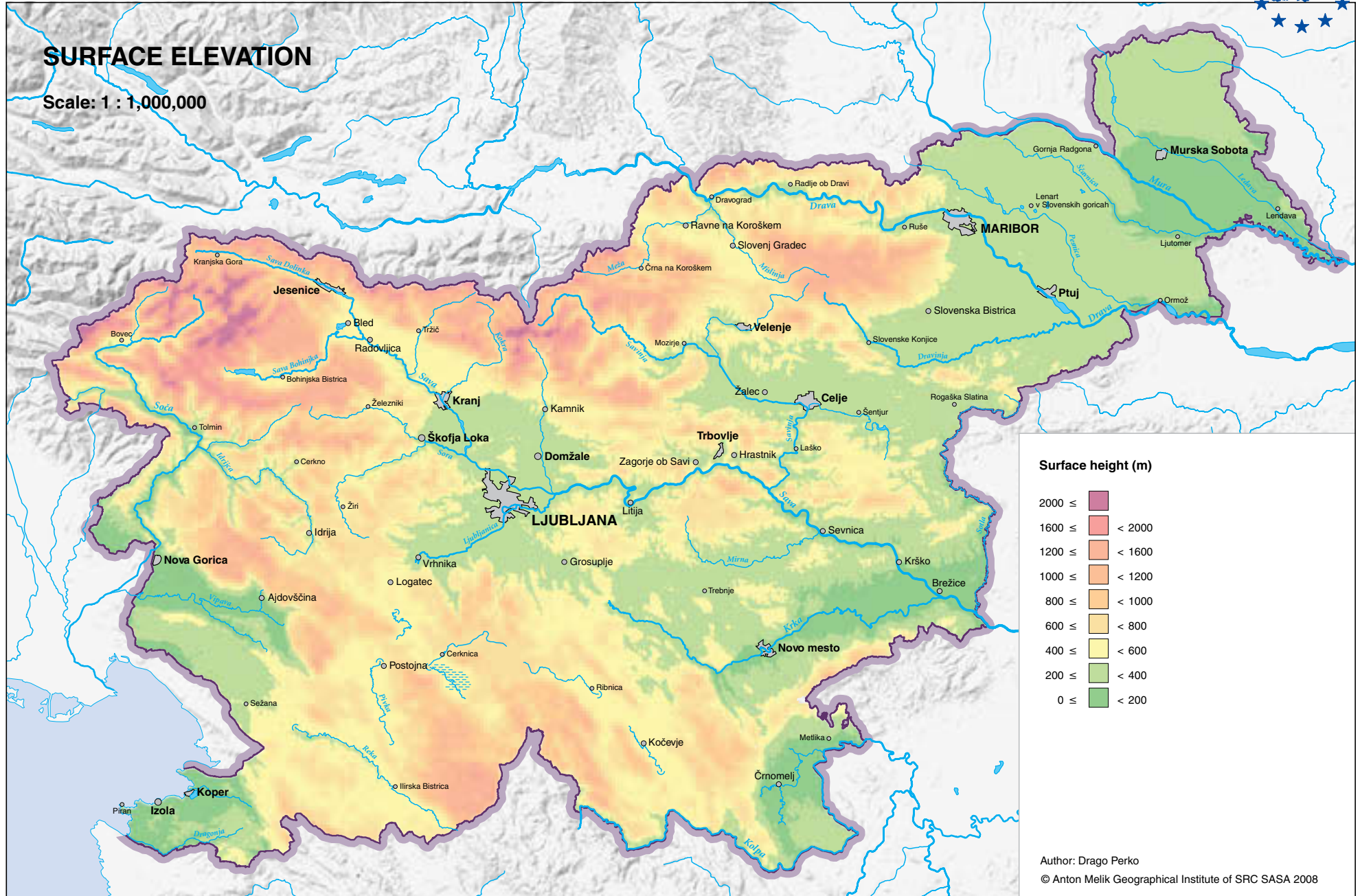
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Relief development in the Quaternary

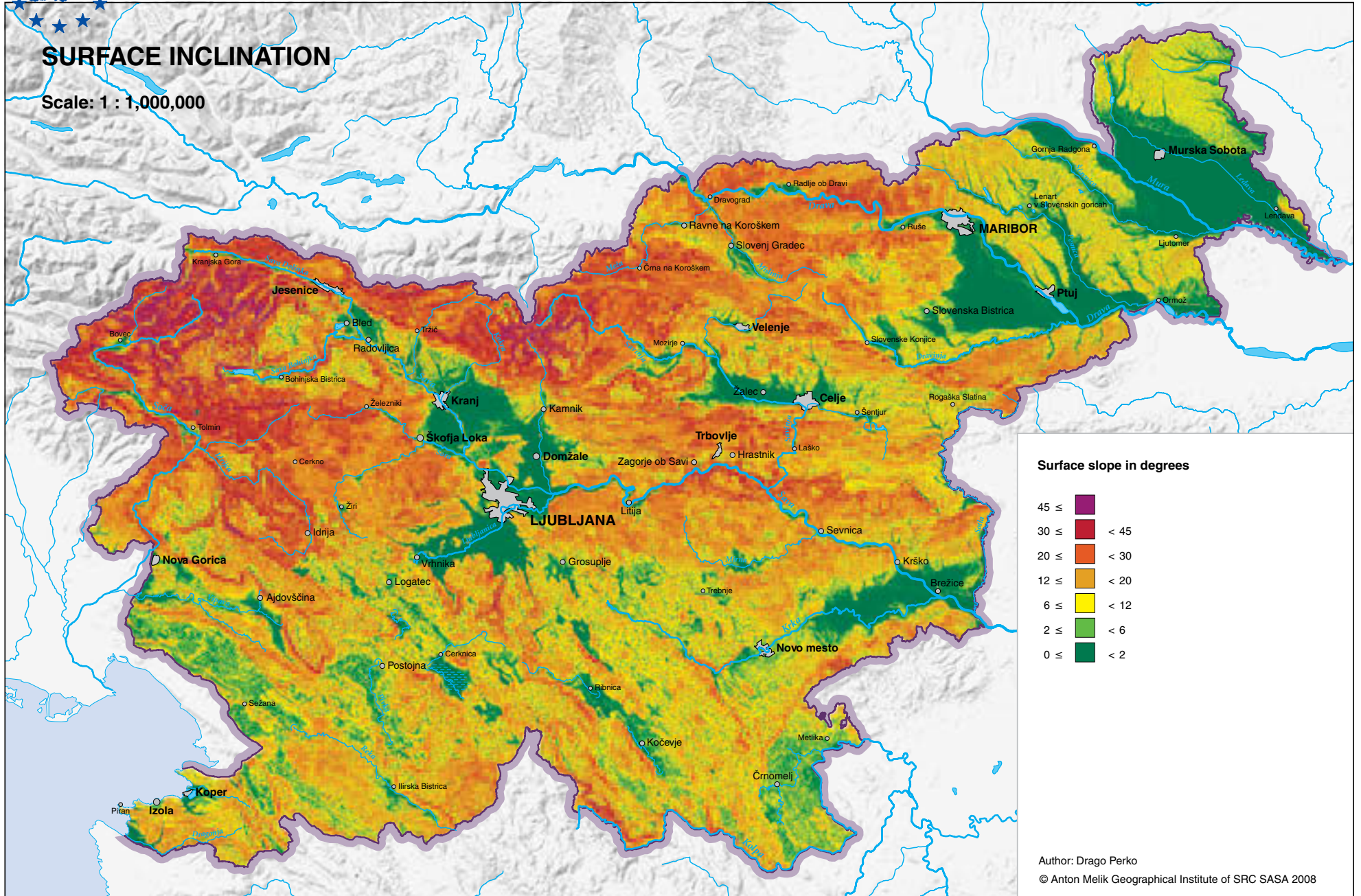
- Area transformed by Pleistocene glaciers
- Mountain peaks and ridges above the glaciers
- Valley and basin bottoms filled with glacio-fluvial gravel
- Area transformed by periglacial processes
- Valley and basin bottoms filled with periglacial gravel

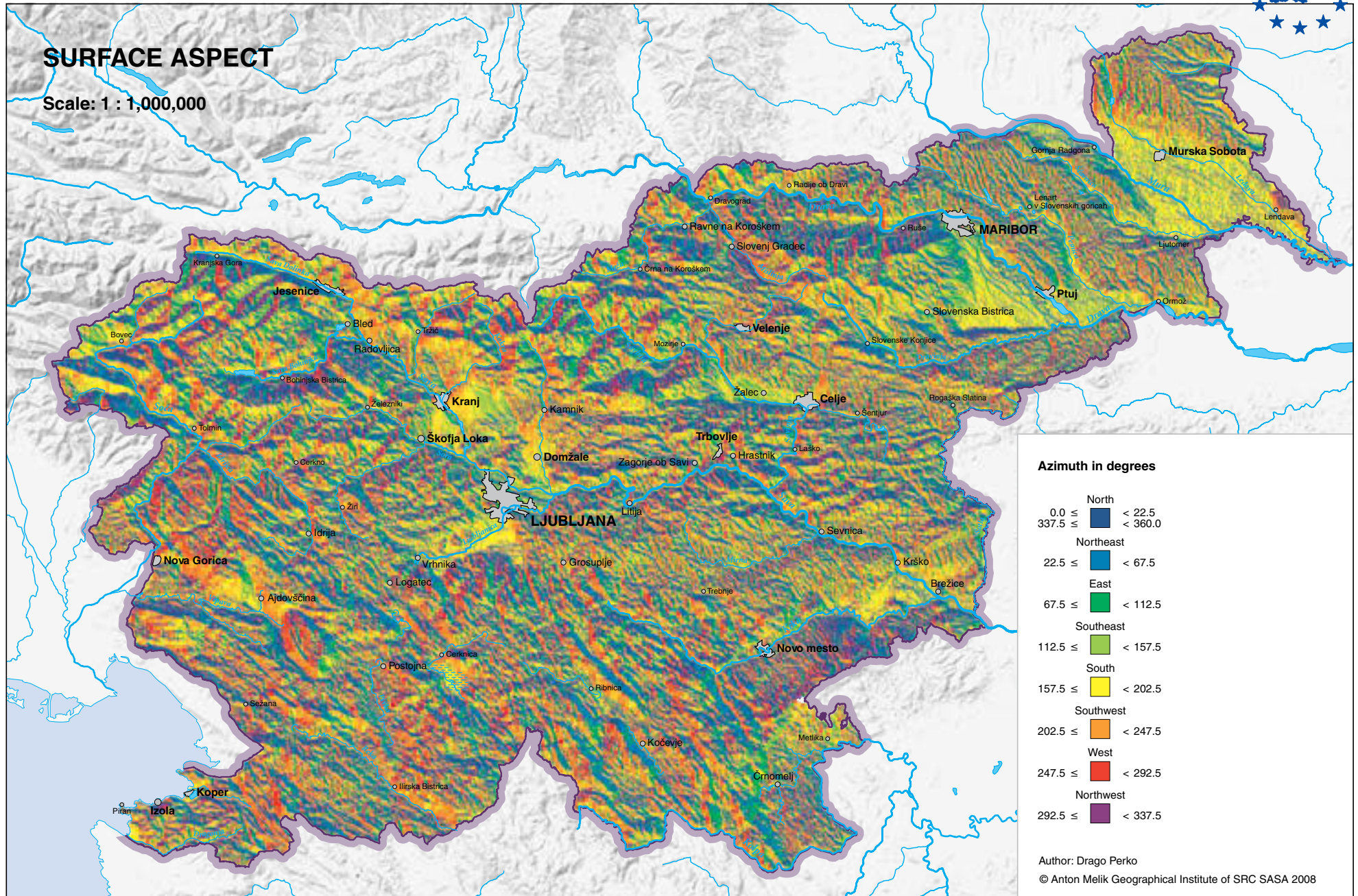
Author: Milan Štirer
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SURFACE INCLINATION

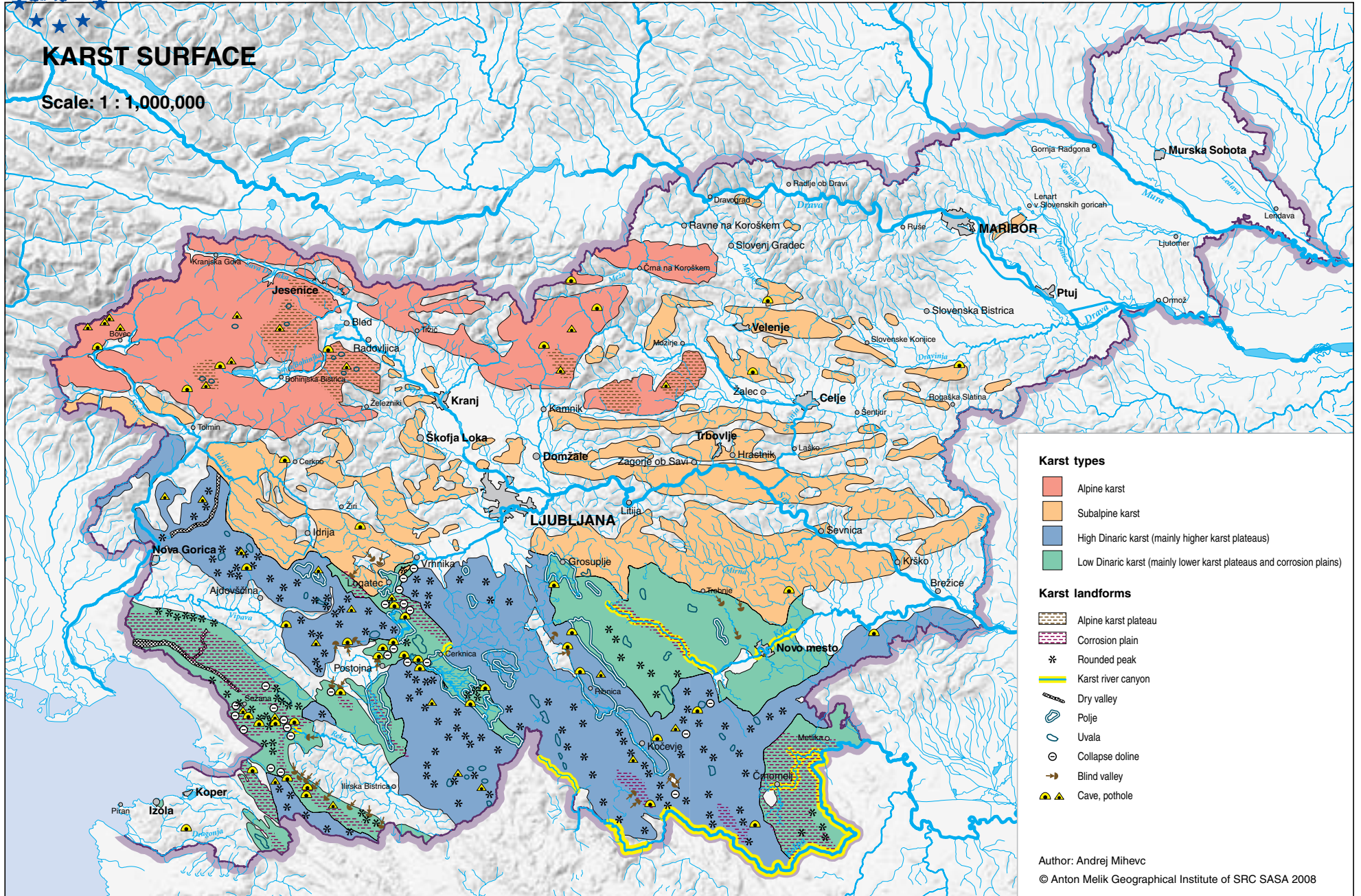
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000





KARST SURFACE

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



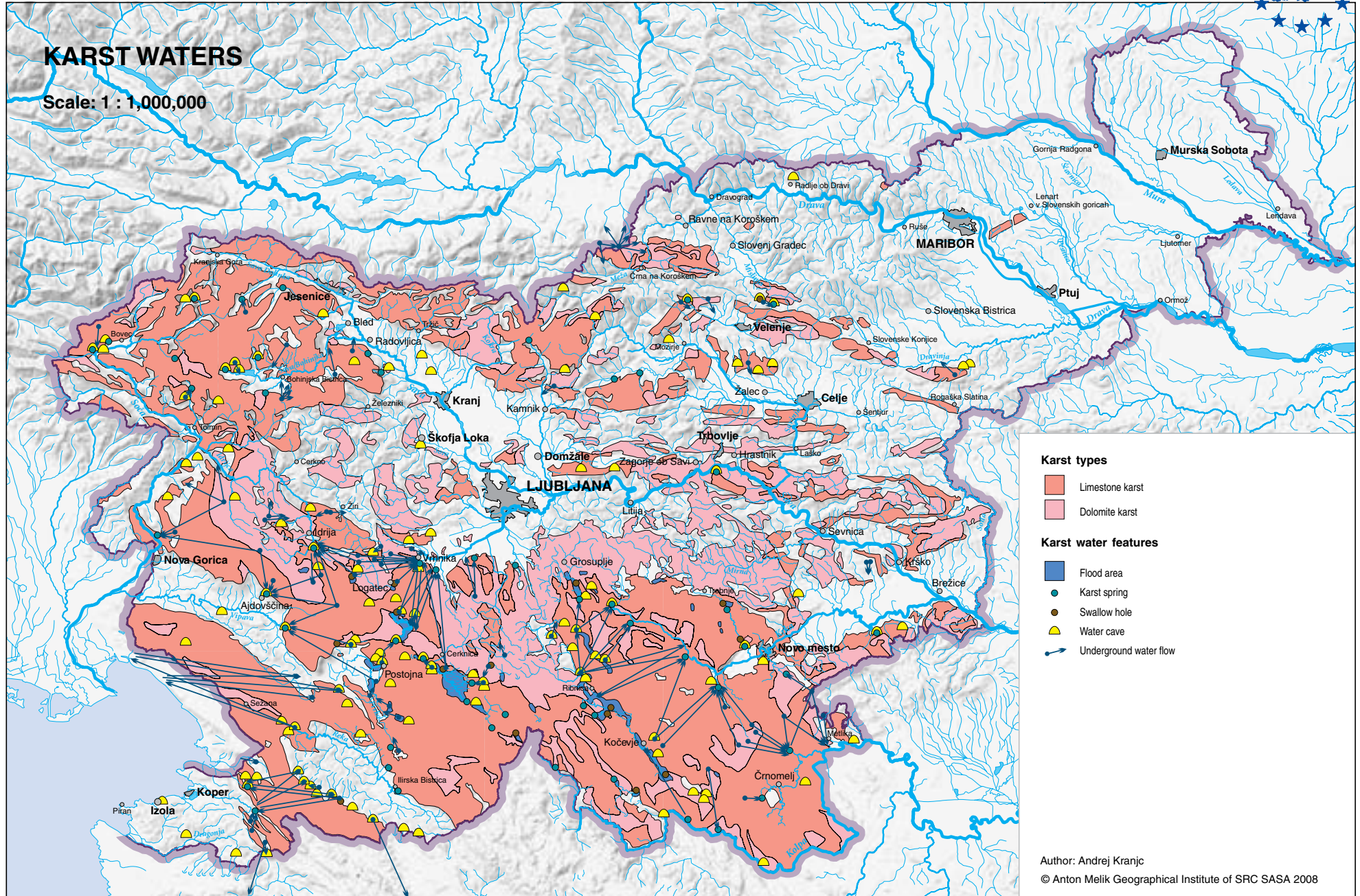
Karst types

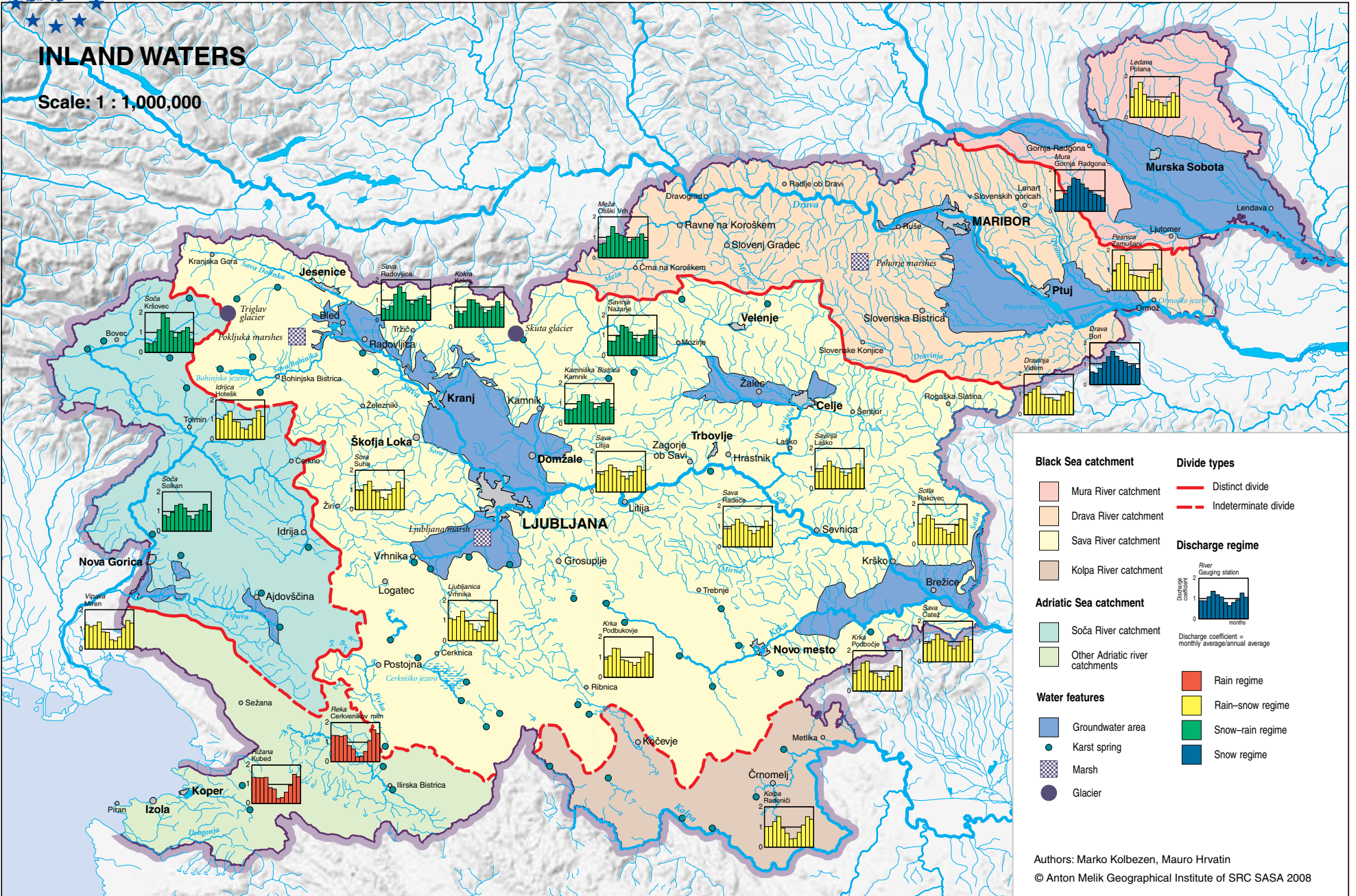
- Alpine karst
- Subalpine karst
- High Dinaric karst (mainly higher karst plateaus)
- Low Dinaric karst (mainly lower karst plateaus and corrosion plains)

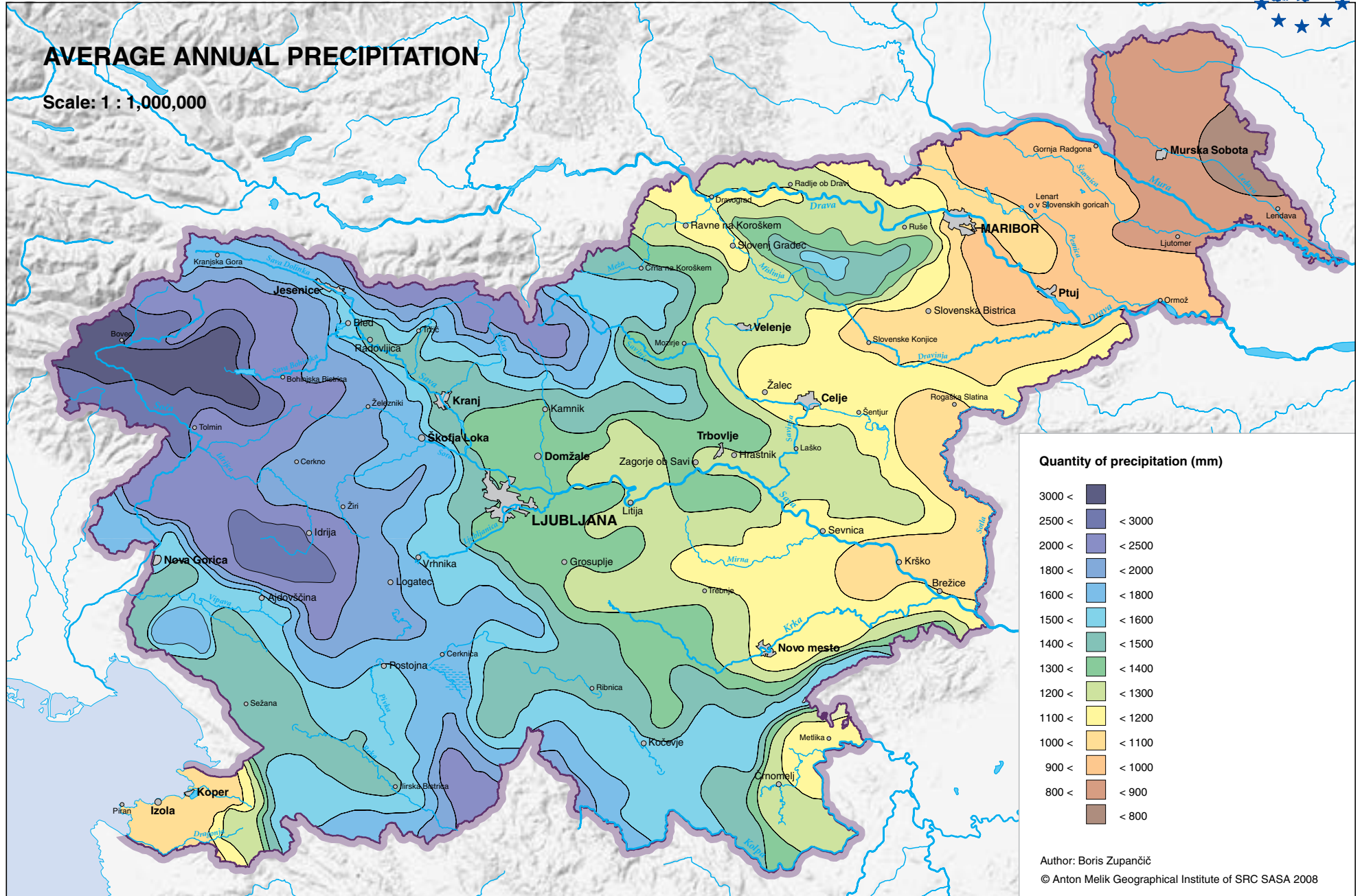
Karst landforms

- Alpine karst plateau
- Corrosion plain
- * Rounded peak
- Karst river canyon
- Dry valley
- Polje
- Uvala
- Collapse doline
- Blind valley
- Cave, pothole

Author: Andrej Mihevc
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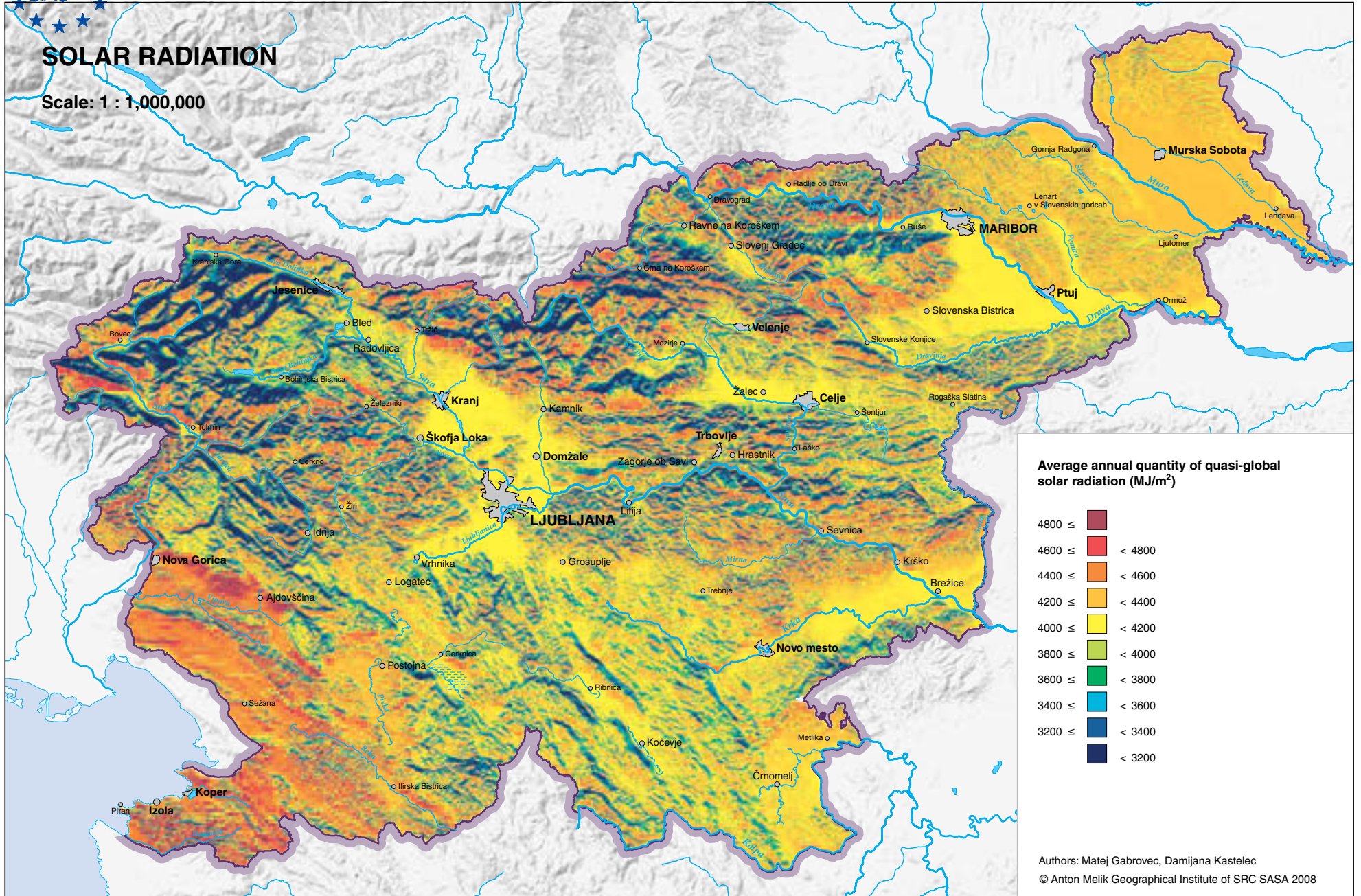






SOLAR RADIATION

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



Average annual quantity of quasi-global solar radiation (MJ/m²)

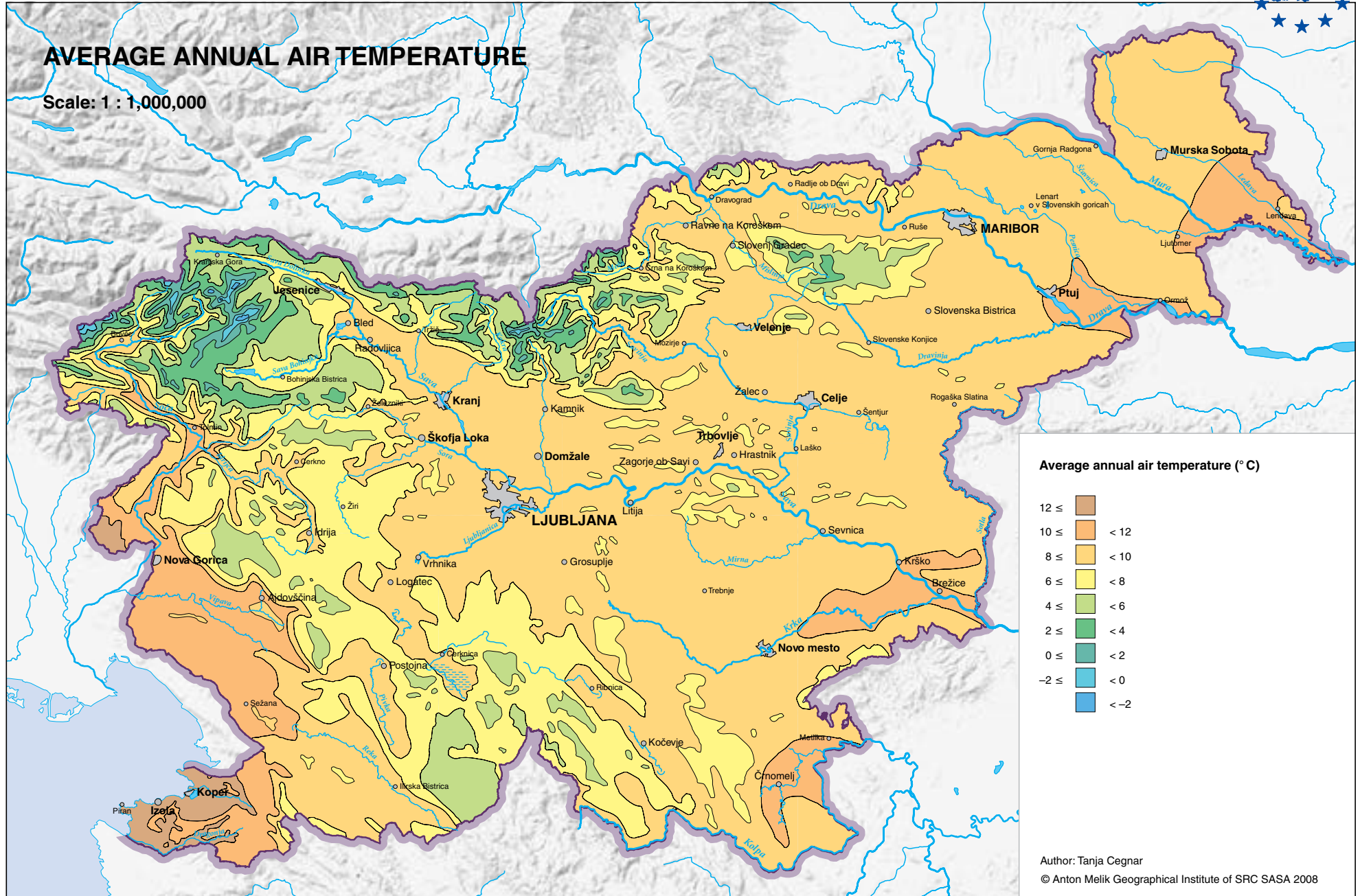
4800 ≤	Dark Red
4600 ≤	Red
4400 ≤	Orange
4200 ≤	Light Orange
4000 ≤	Yellow
3800 ≤	Light Green
3600 ≤	Green
3400 ≤	Light Blue
3200 ≤	Dark Blue

Authors: Matej Gabrovec, Damijana Kastelec
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AVERAGE ANNUAL AIR TEMPERATURE

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



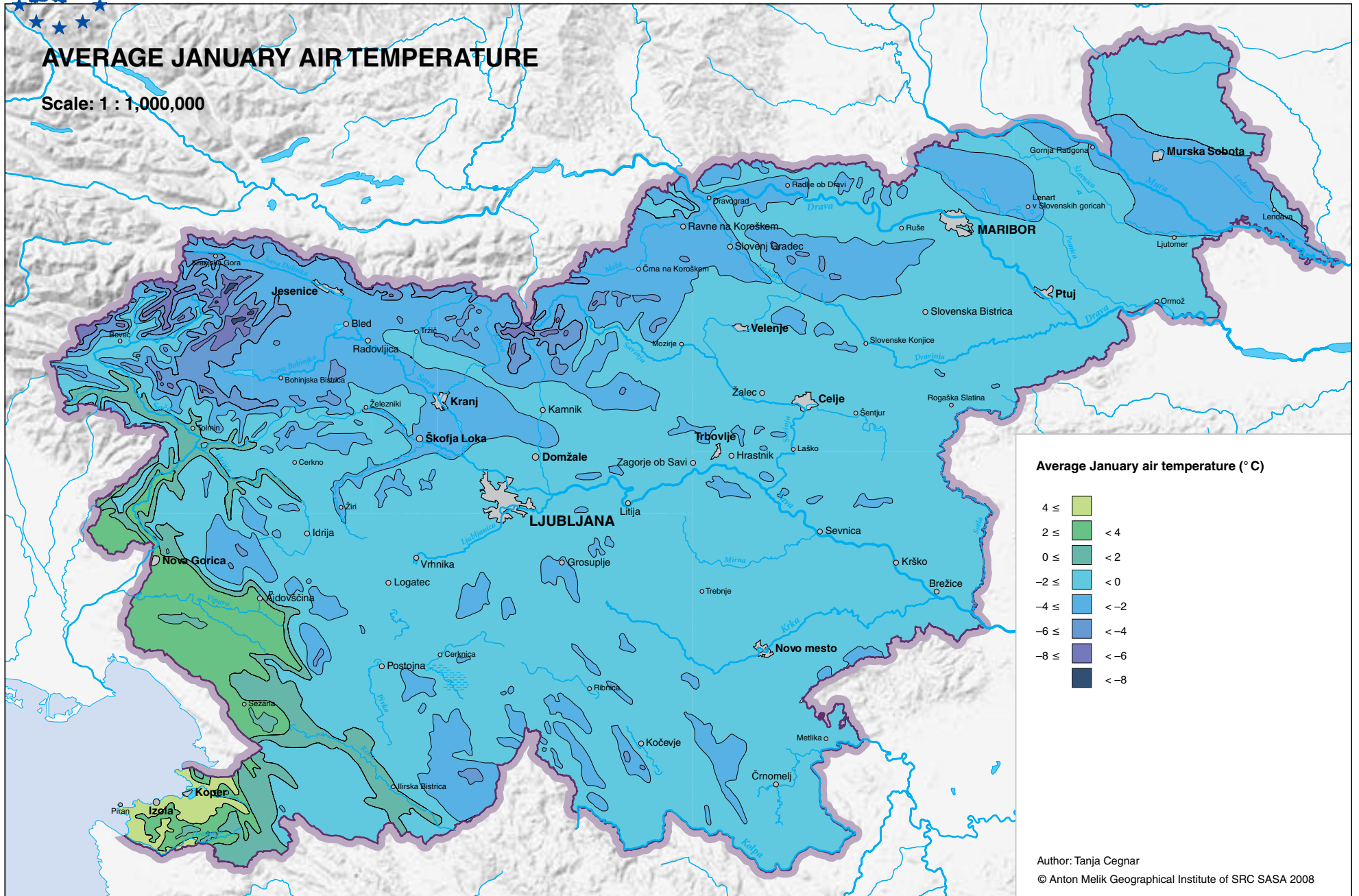
Average annual air temperature (°C)

$12 \leq$	< 12
$10 \leq$	< 10
$8 \leq$	< 8
$6 \leq$	< 6
$4 \leq$	< 4
$2 \leq$	< 2
$0 \leq$	< 0
$-2 \leq$	< -2

Author: Tanja Cegnar
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AVERAGE JANUARY AIR TEMPERATURE

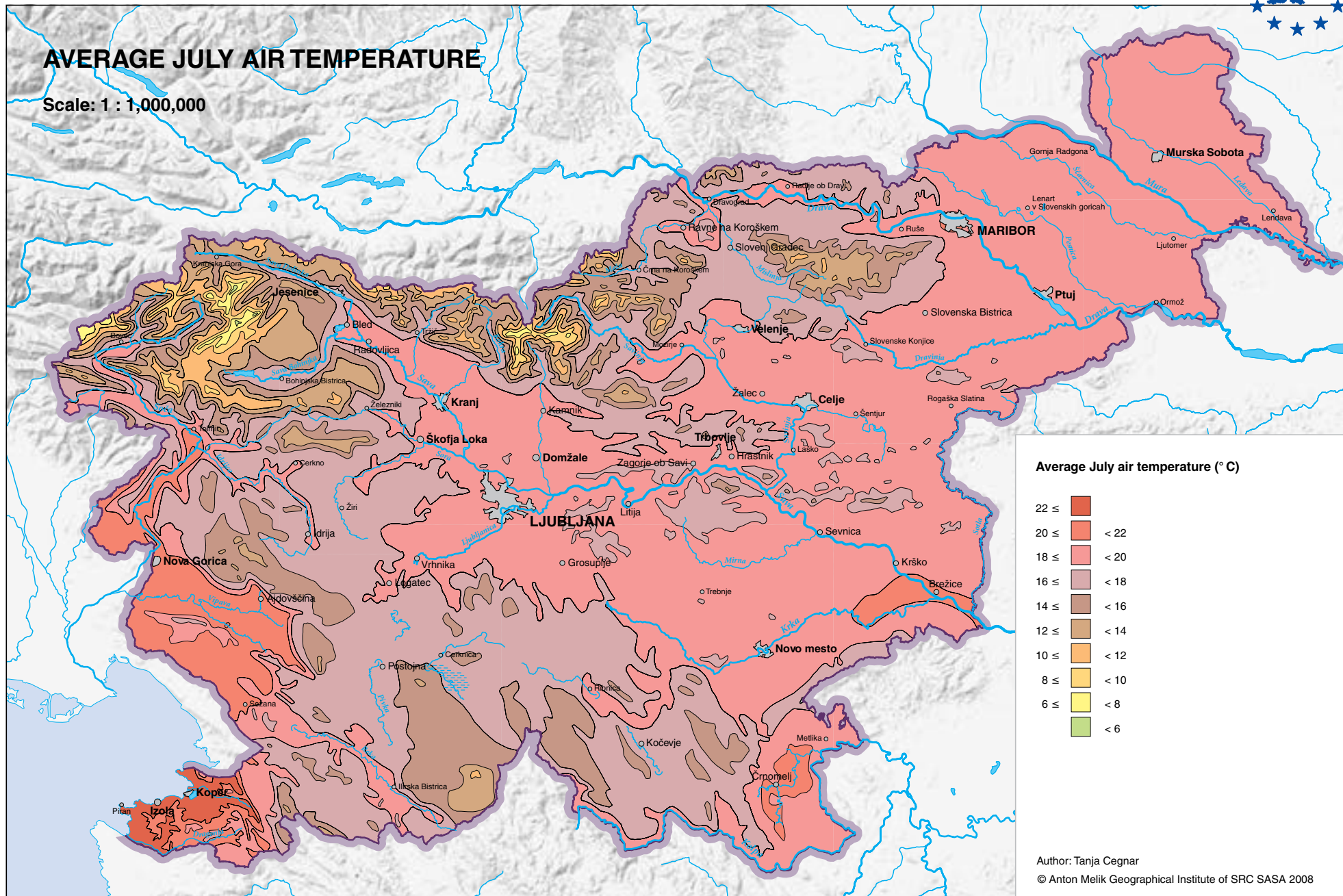
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000





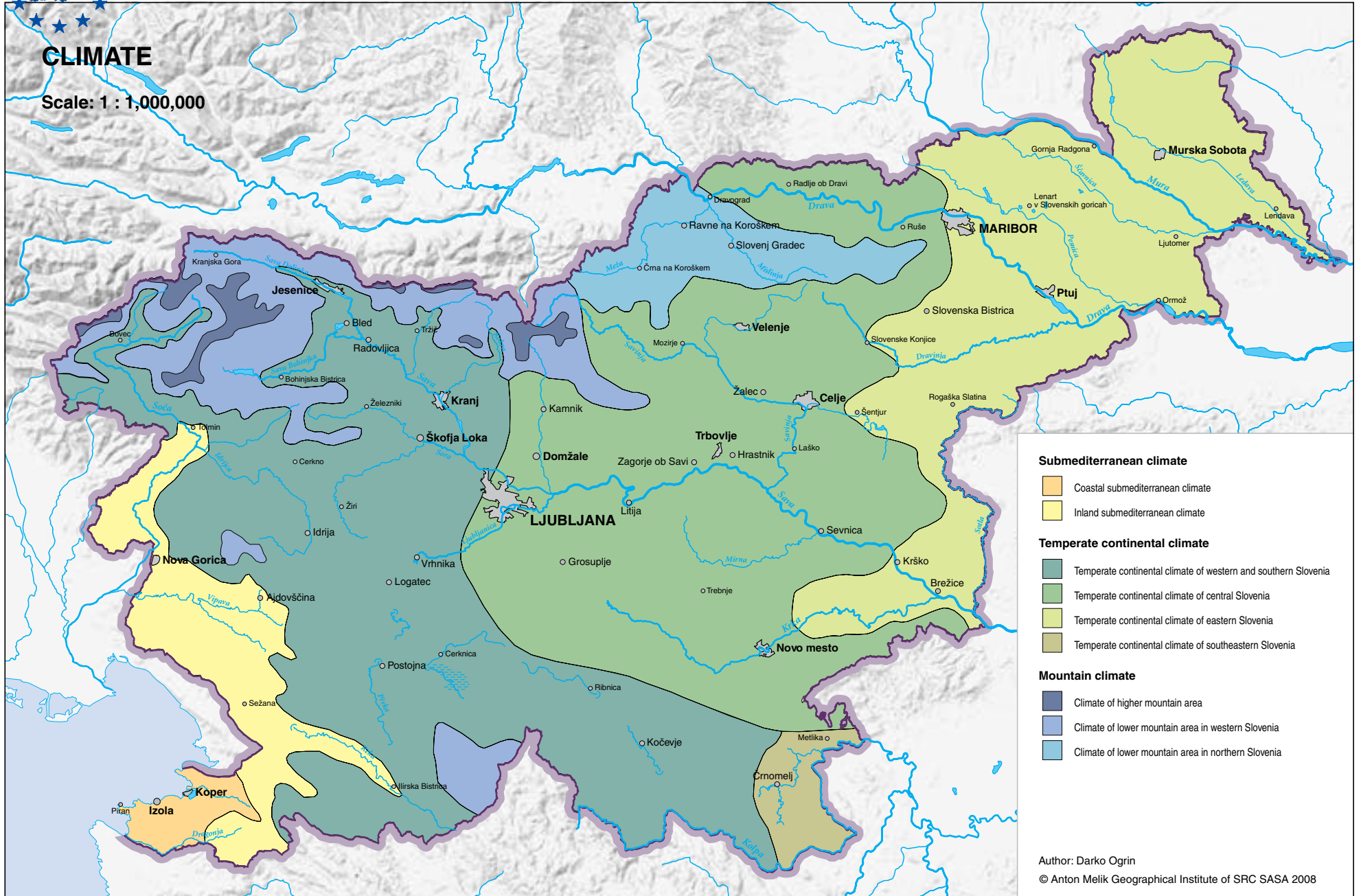
AVERAGE JULY AIR TEMPERATURE

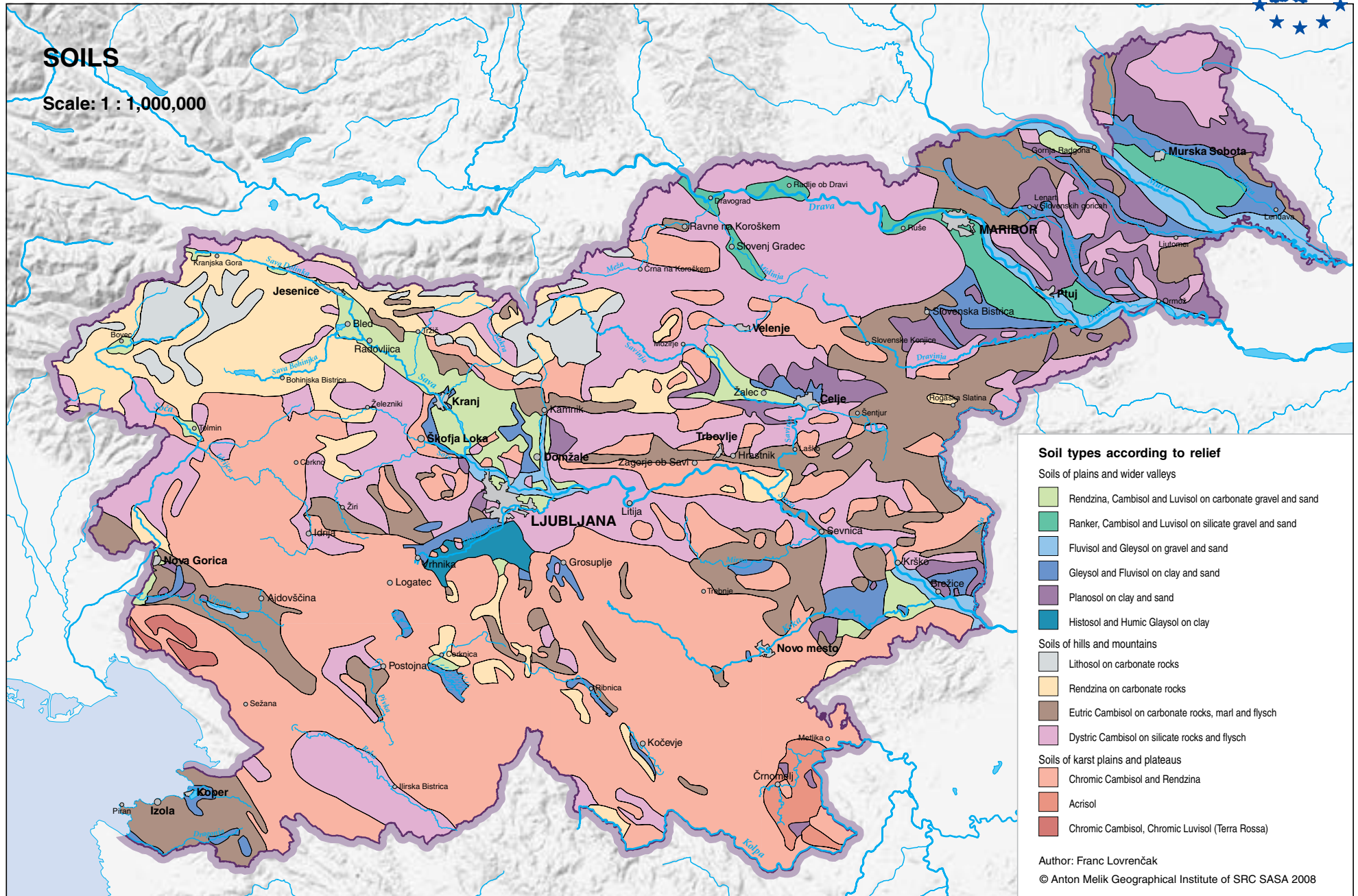
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000

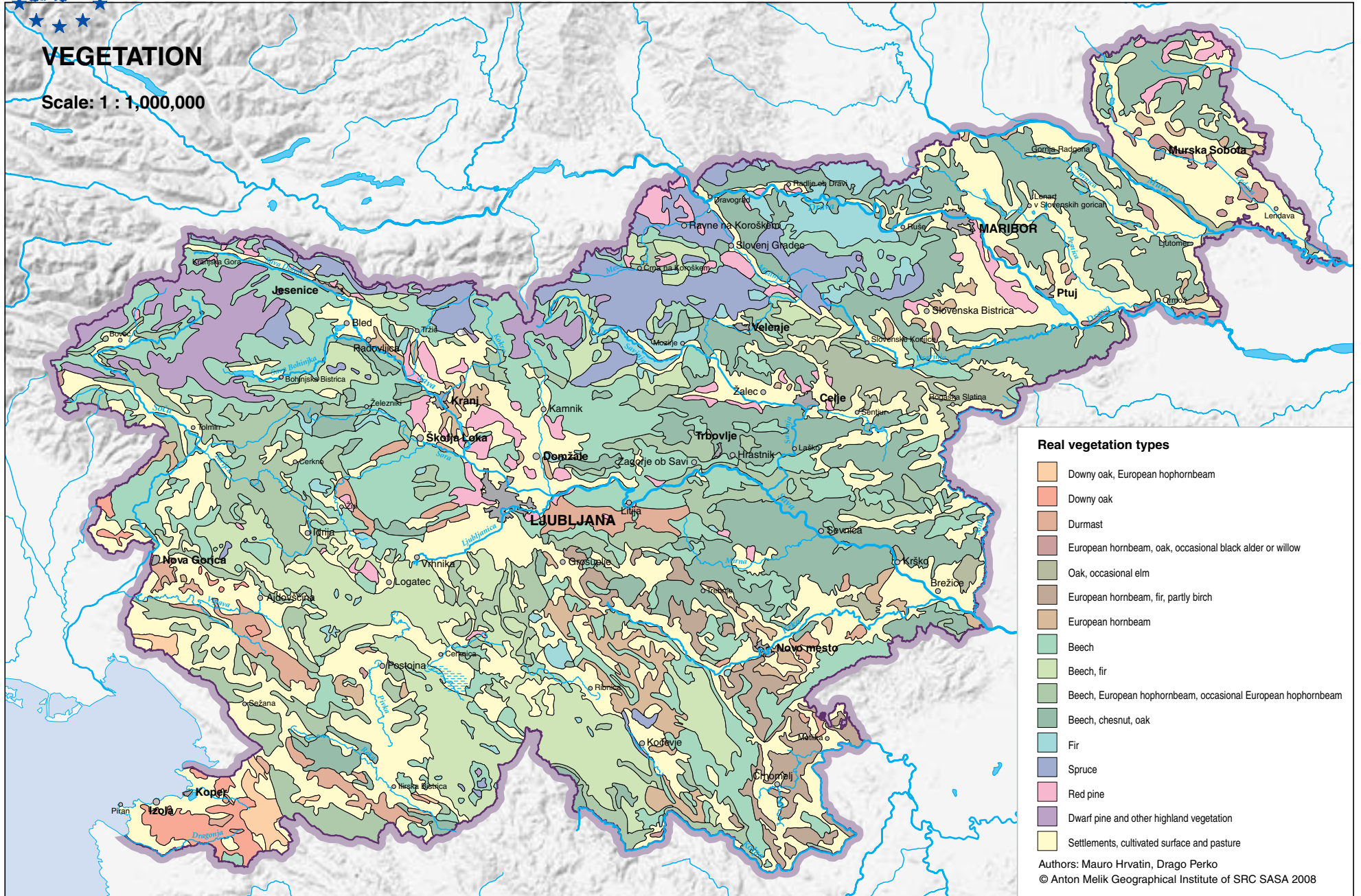


CLIMATE

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



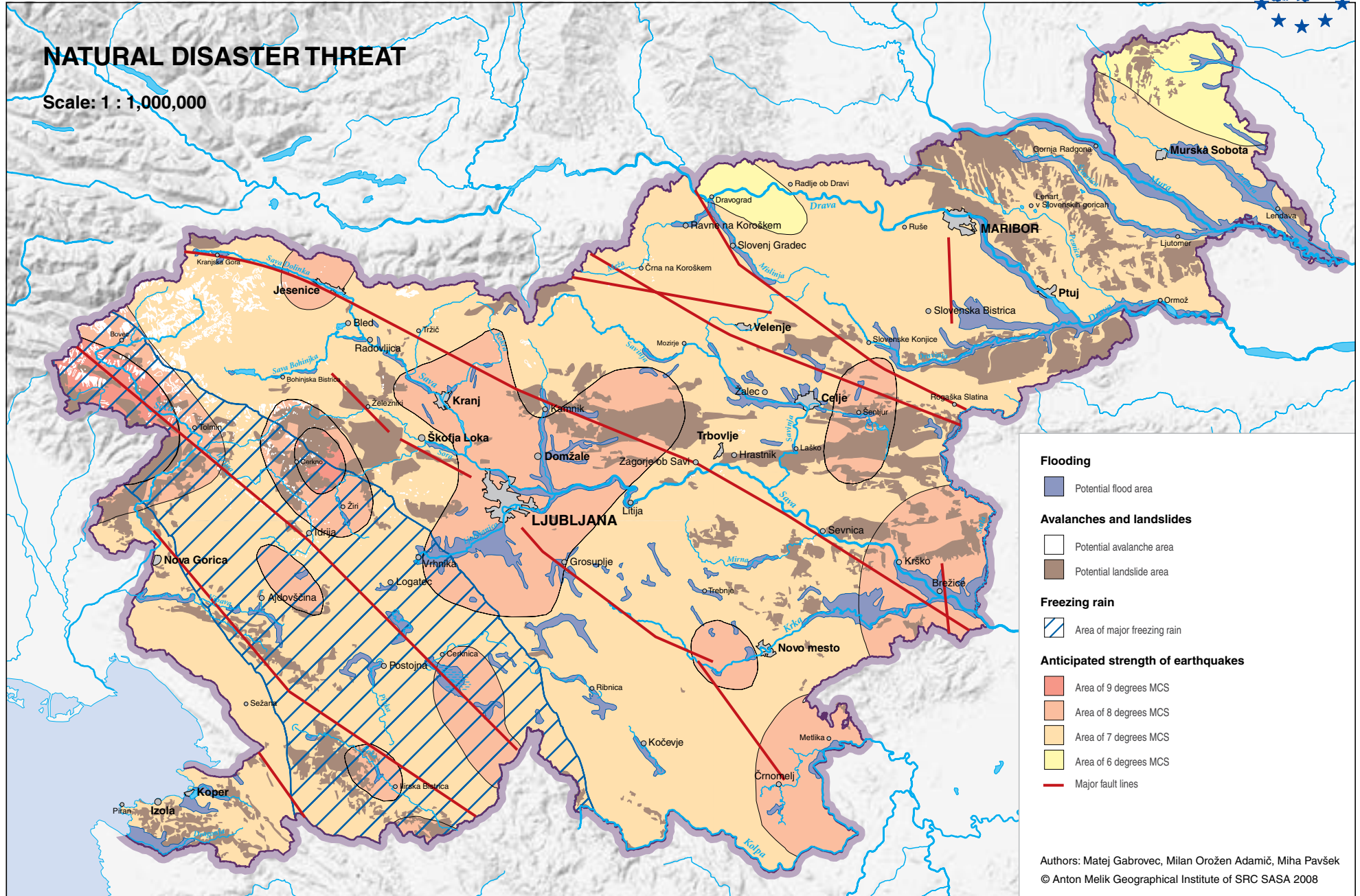






NATURAL DISASTER THREAT

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000

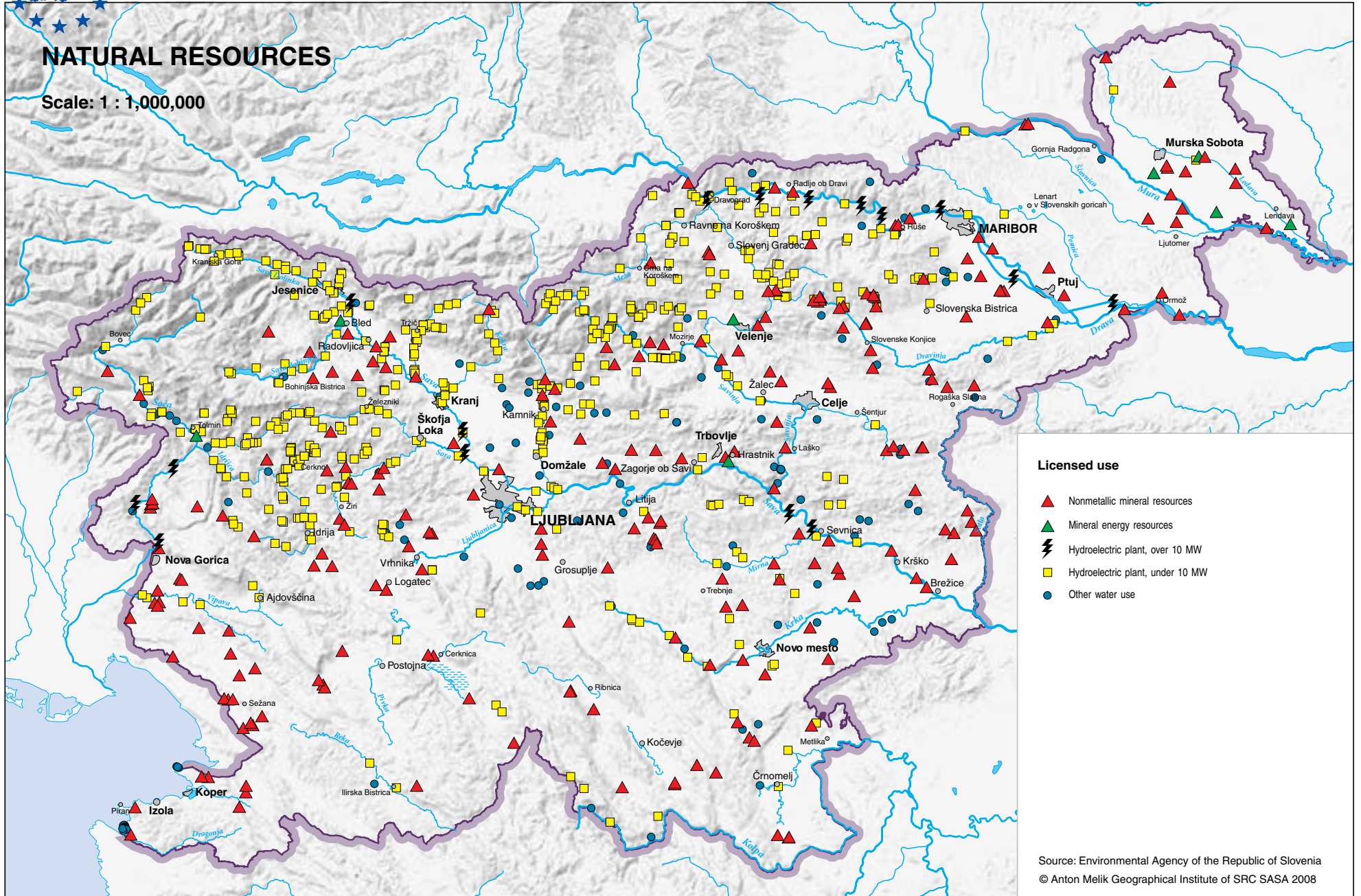


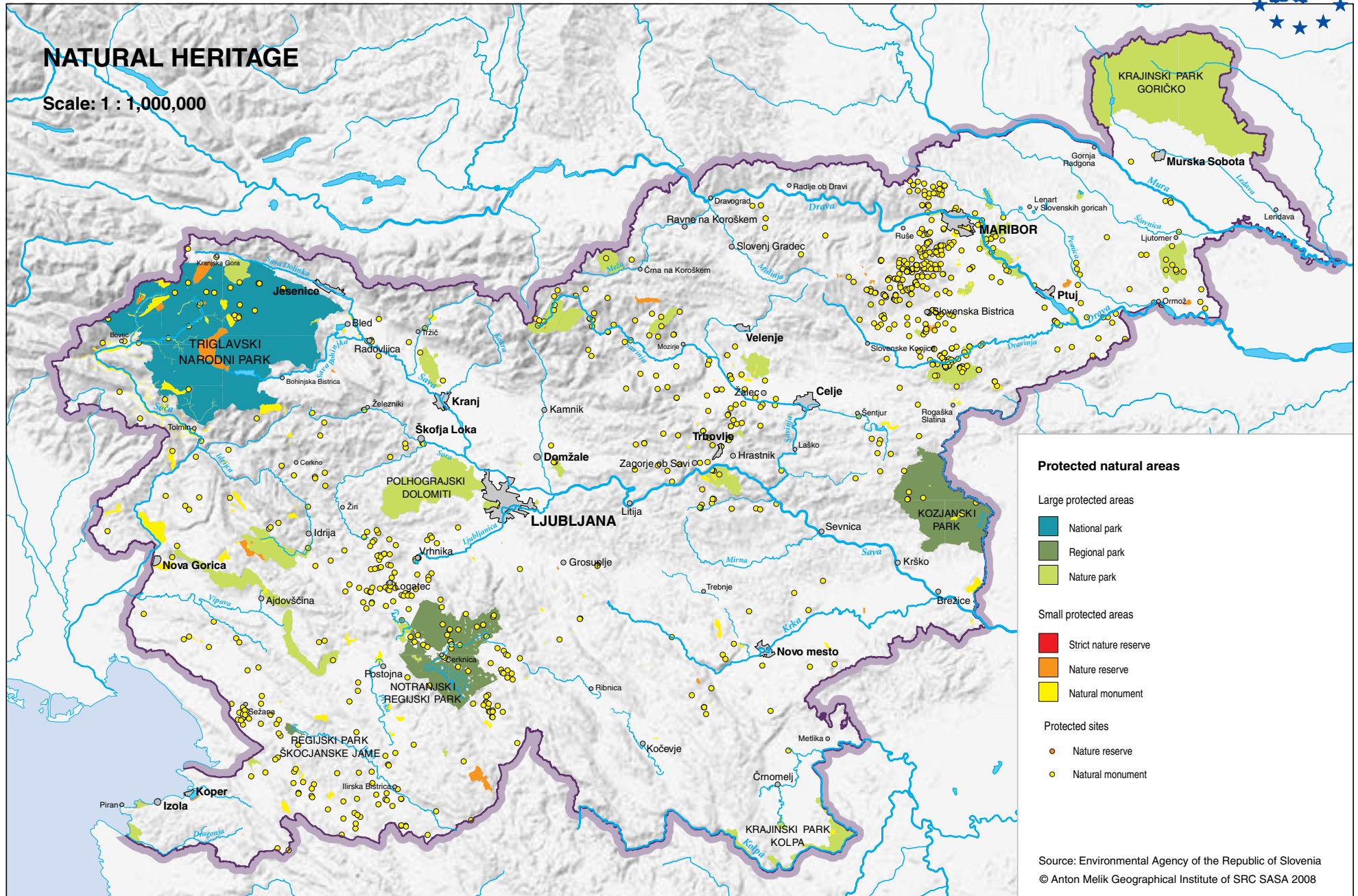
- Flooding**
 - Potential flood area
- Avalanches and landslides**
 - Potential avalanche area
 - Potential landslide area
- Freezing rain**
 - Area of major freezing rain
- Anticipated strength of earthquakes**
 - Area of 9 degrees MCS
 - Area of 8 degrees MCS
 - Area of 7 degrees MCS
 - Area of 6 degrees MCS
- Major fault lines

Authors: Matej Gabrovec, Milan Orožen Adamič, Miha Pavšek
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NATURAL RESOURCES

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000







The territory of what is now Slovenia was sparsely settled during the Stone Age and Copper Age. One can speak of the appearance of a cultural landscape only at the end of the Bronze Age and the beginning of the Iron Age. When the Romans occupied what is now Slovenia, they brought with them a more developed civilization and established the first towns. These were administrative, commercial, and religious centers and at the same time focal points of Romanization. Major changes in the settlement structure were later caused by the Migration Period in the early first millennium AD and were a consequence of Slovenia's exposed position in a transit location. The indigenous population took refuge in outlying hilly regions and settled in fortified towns.

The appearance of the Slovenian landscape was radically altered by medieval and early modern **colonization**, which left its mark on the field division systems and the shape of settlements, as well as in the density of settlement and the distribution of languages and dialects. Colonization took place in four phases. The oldest Slovenian colonization occurred following the arrival of the ancestors of the present-day Slovenians in the eastern Alps and lasted from the second half of the 6th century to the 9th century. The second phase, termed »internal colonization,« followed between the 10th and 13th centuries. The third phase stretches from the 13th century to the 15th century, and is called »highland colonization« after the predominant areas of settlement. The fourth or »additional colonization« phase, which occurred from the 16th century onwards, was a consequence of social changes experienced by the rural population and simultaneously the impact of refugees from the Balkan

interior fleeing before the Turkish invasion. During this period of colonization, new individual settlements were formed, sometimes next to older settlements and appearing here and there in the vast and previously uninhabited forested areas.

The majority of Slovenian **settlements** developed when agriculture was the basic activity, and this is reflected in their locations and development patterns. Characteristic forms of rural settlement, which depend mainly on the natural conditions and the period of colonization, include isolated farmsteads, tiny hamlets, and dispersed and compact settlements; these latter are divided into nucleated and roadside types. Suburbanized settlements form a special group and include the extremely transformed villages found throughout the country.

The process of urbanization has been marked by the physical growth of cities and the spread of the urban lifestyle. This is most simply expressed as the proportion of the population living in cities, but it is preferable to employ several indexes linked by their contents. One Slovenian characteristic is the great dispersion of settlements because only just over half of the population lives in cities. Just over two million people are distributed across almost 6,000 settlements, and only the capital Ljubljana has more than 100,000 residents. Although almost one-half of the population lives in rural areas, less than 5% survive on farming alone; the rest commute daily to centers of employment. Under the influence of the concept of polycentrism, the original concentration of the population in the center of the country was followed first by the growth of regional centers, and later



Nucleated settlement of Šmartno in Goriška brda.



especially by municipal centers, where the seats of administrative units are now located as a rule.

Urbanization is based on the uniformity of the city and country lifestyles. Urbanized areas have created breaks in the fabric of rural settlement due to the construction of residential buildings inappropriate for these areas. Developments in transportation, primarily the automobile, ultimately led to the population becoming distributed around the cities in the form of »orbiting bodies«. A wide spectrum of interaction between the cities and their suburbs, and the transformation of settlements' appearances – a consequence of the social layers within the population – are characteristic of Slovenia's urbanization. The construction of private housing and heavy daily commuting of the workforce due to dispersion of workplaces play an important role in this. One-third of Slovenia's surface area is occupied by areas of very strong urbanization, where four-fifths of the population lives.

Most Slovenian towns are small, even though some of them are several centuries old. In addition to the history of their construction, their layouts indirectly reflect economic power, adaptation to the topographical situation, and concepts of the arrangement of human habi-

tation. The heritage of most Slovenian cities originated in the Middle Ages; this also applies to the urban system, the location of towns and boroughs, and their construction plan. Their most intense construction and spatial development only began with industrialization and the rise of the middle class. The prevalence of the classical layout is typical of the 18th and 19th centuries, whereas the modernist layout gained ground in the second half of the 20th century. Velenje, Nova Gorica, and Kidričevo are Slovenia's youngest towns, based on the city-planning concept of a garden city prevalent when they were developed.

The size of towns increased most after 1950, largely due to the construction of apartment buildings demanded by large-scale immigration. The layouts of the new cities are much less compact, adapted to automobile traffic, and in many places contrast brutally with the scale of a medieval center. The new layouts include neighborhoods of apartment buildings, areas of single-family houses, shopping centers, and industrial areas.

Central settlements are basic centers in the spatial organization of human society. Service activities are concentrated in them, and economic and other contact between regions and settlements take place through them. They are arranged in a hierarchy, so that central settlements at a higher level also have various more advanced functions along with basic ones. The formation of centers depends on the number of consumers in the countryside around them and the number of the consumers in the centers themselves. The Slovenian network of central settlements – numbering more than 600 centers, divided into six levels and the capital city – has primarily been influenced by the uneven distribution and density of the population, surface relief, historical development, and political and administrative territorial divisions. Only Ljubljana and Maribor rank in the highest – sixth and seventh – levels as distinct macroregional centers (Kladnik 2001a, 83–85).

With the attainment of independence, Slovenia oriented itself towards the world's most highly developed **economies**. It has managed to join all the important in-

ternational and regional economic associations. In the course of a century, the Slovenian economy (and consequently, Slovenian society) has transformed itself from a traditional agricultural society, via an industrial society, to a post-industrial society, in which services play the primary role. Nonetheless, agriculture has preserved its role as the mainstay of a regulated, attractive, and diverse cultural landscape.

Land use today is the result of rapid postwar development characterized by dispersed industrialization that stimulated urbanization. Both processes caused people to move out of the countryside and abandon farming. All of this resulted in specialized production and market-orientated agriculture. During the period of predominantly subsistence farming, modernization of production techniques and mass introduction of agricultural machinery caused extensive abandonment of farming on land where the use of machinery was not possible or economical (Kladnik & Gabrovec 1998, 181).

According to the amount of agricultural land per inhabitant (0.31 ha), Slovenia almost matches the European average; however, Slovenia has only 0.09 hectares of cultivated fields per inhabitant, the critical level for ensuring self-sufficiency in food production. At the same time, there is 0.66 hectare of forest per inhabitant (*Statistični letopis* 2006). As much as 72% of agricultural land is in areas affected by various factors that hinder farming. Since World War II, an average of 1,700 hectares of agricultural land has been permanently lost every year (Kladnik 2001b, 133).

Relative to land use, complicated relationships between natural and socioeconomic factors can be observed that are mirrored in the distribution of individual land categories. For a graphic illustration, six main land categories that form the basis of agricultural and forestry activity have been selected: cultivated fields, vineyards, orchards, meadows, pastures, and forests. The basic source for the study of land use is data from the land register (Kladnik 2001b, 133).

In terms of land use, there are important differences among individual elements of the natural landscape.

*Degustation
of new wine.*



ZYVONE SERUGA/AGCO



These are primarily due to natural factors, although the role of social and economic circumstances must not be overlooked. By far the largest extent of arable land is located on the gravelly and loamy plains of eastern and northeast Slovenia. Vineyards are especially common in the Mediterranean regions of southwest Slovenia and in the sub-Pannonian hills. Similarly, orchards are also most widespread across the hills of sub-Pannonian Slovenia, but a considerable number of them can also be found in the Ljubljana and Celje basins. There are more meadows in the eastern than the western part of the country, whereas the most pastures can be found in the Mediterranean region and the alpine high mountains, where the zone of alpine pastures spreads along and above the timber line. The pre-alpine region has the most forests, which also spread across more than half of the alpine region and the predominantly karstified land of the Inner and Lower Carniola. Most of the unproductive land can be found in the alpine high mountains due to the rocky surface above the timber line, but both of the great basins and plains in the east and northeast of Slovenia have come very close to this as well. A large share of unproductive land in this area is the result of rapid construction on the fertile land.

The area of arable land has decreased the most in the alpine region and the least in the plains of eastern and northeast Slovenia. Similarly, the vineyard area has shrunk in all the natural landscape units, by far to the greatest extent in the alpine region (the Tolmin area), where the conditions for growing grapes are extremely unfavorable, and the least in Lower Carniola. In contrast, the orchard area has increased everywhere, and in the Mediterranean region to the greatest extent. Due to the effect of two counter-processes, changes in the area of meadows appear to be statistically negligible (the greatest increase was recorded in the sub-Pannonian hills and the greatest decrease in the alpine region), whereas the area of pastures has decreased everywhere – most evidently in the plains of eastern and northeast Slovenia, and in Lower and Inner Carniola, and the least in the Mediterranean region. Forests are spreading everywhere

except in the Ljubljana and Celje basins, where they have even slightly shrunk. They have grown most notably in the predominantly karstified regions of Lower and Inner Carniola. The area of non-productive land has also increased everywhere. In the alpine regions this has happened only slightly, in the pre-alpine and sub-Pannonian regions it has increased by more than one-third, in the plains of eastern and northeast Slovenia by more than half, and in both great basins by even more than two-thirds.

The strong predominance of forests and arable land is evident on the map of predominant land use. A glance at the map of land use changes reveals that, despite the increasing importance of intensification and urbanization, afforestation and grassing over still predominate. The most frequent afforestation is intensive afforestation, which predominates in the karstified areas of Lower and Inner Carniola. Among the other two types of afforestation, the shares of notable and significant changes are balanced, but considerably larger in all areas than the share of weak changes (Kladnik & Gabrovec 1998, 182).

One of the main barriers to the more economical use of agricultural land is land fragmentation. The most significant reasons for land fragmentation in Slovenia are the varied relief of the land and the inheritance system. Recently, the fragmentation of land has been aggravated by the rampant spread of the infrastructure network and urbanization. The amalgamation of land is proceeding too slowly and on too small a scale to successfully eliminate the consequences of many years of land fragmentation. As a result of the economic crisis, land ownership has become a guarantee of social security and consequently a large proportion of agricultural land is owned by the non-farming population (Kladnik 2001b, 133).

Following a long period of decrease in the average size of property, this began gradually increasing again after Slovenia's independence. Even in 1991, the average Slovenian farm measured only 5.9 hectares (Kladnik 2001b, 133), whereas in 2005 the average Slovenian farm measured 6.3 hectares, of which agricultural land rep-

resented 3.6 hectares and arable land only 2.2 hectares. The smallest farms are located where the natural conditions for agriculture are most favorable and in the countryside surrounding some larger towns. The number of farms has been decreasing for quite some time now. Between 1981 and 1991, the number of farms dropped from 192,090 to 156,549, and by 2005 their number had dropped to 77,042. This means that after Slovenia's independence the number has decreased by more than half. Because this decrease was not followed by a relative increase in average farm size, this also shows that it was primarily the smallest farms that disappeared. Over 75% of farms are located in areas with limited agricultural factors; almost three quarters of these are located in hilly or mountainous areas, and the remaining quarter in karst areas. Nearly 2% of farms are involved in organic farming (*Statistične informacije* 88/2006).

One of the indicators of the socioeconomic importance of agriculture is the percentage of food-producing households. Food production covers production for one's own needs and for sale regardless of the area and ownership of the property that the household is using for this purpose. This therefore also includes those

Mountain pasturing continues to be practiced in Slovenia's alpine region.



JERNEJA FRIDL



In Rogaška Slatina, a modern glass industry developed on the foundations of the former glassworks.



DRAGAN ARRUGLER, ROGAŠKA SLATINA ARCHIVES

using small garden plots. Slovenian farms are too small for a large-scale market-oriented agricultural production; this is why the people living and working on these farms have always sought additional sources of income in other, non-agricultural activities. Numerous farms have a labor force that is insufficient or too old; many farmers are unmarried and so these farms are left without any heirs. In 2002, 292,786 or nearly 43% of households produced food in Slovenia, of which 213,200 or just under 73% only produced crops, and 79,586 or just over 27% of households only raised animals or had a combination of animals and crops. On average, the percentage

of households is smaller in the western than the eastern part of the country and, logically, is the smallest in all the major towns (Kladnik & Ravbar 2007, 105).

The sowing structure of cultivated fields is increasingly less varied, and thus the crop rotation cycle is becoming narrower. Influenced by the relatively rapid development of livestock production, the proportion of fields devoted to growing fodder has increased greatly in recent years, primarily due to increased production of silage corn.

The most important branch of farming in Slovenia is livestock production. In the Julian Alps, the Kamnik-Savinja Alps, and the Karavanke Mountains, this is traditionally linked to mountain pasturing. In 1994, around 150 alpine pastures were registered, considerably fewer than before World War II.

The most important branch of livestock production is raising cattle. According to the 1991 census, more than half of Slovenia's farms raised livestock, of which almost 90% was cows. More than ten head of cattle were bred on only about 10% of farms. In overall importance and equal distribution, raising cattle is followed by pig breeding. Pig breeding has developed primarily for the market on former state-owned farms, whereas its extent on private farms has steadily decreased. The illustrations of raising cattle and pig breeding only cover livestock in the private sector. According to the value of increase, poultry breeding ranks ahead of pig breeding but is concentrated on large farms with diverse activities. Production is based on a cooperative system in which 650 farmers participate. Other branches of livestock production such as raising sheep and horses are relatively insignificant (Kladnik 2001b, 133–134).

Winegrowing and wine production have a thousand-year history in Slovenia and have given a special stamp to Slovenia and Slovenian culture. Even today, Slovenia is a winegrowing country renowned for its varied and high quality wines. Among these are several that are characteristic only of Slovenia; for example, Teran, Zelen, Rebula, and Cviček (Kladnik 2001b, 134). On the basis of natural conditions, varieties of grape grown, and the characteristics of the wines, Slovenia is divided into

three major winegrowing regions: the Drava Valley (*Podravje*), the Lower Sava Valley (*Posavje*), and the Littoral region (*Primorska*). The winegrowing districts are smaller, more homogenous units with relatively uniform natural conditions that identify the specific origin of the wines. There are nine of these altogether. The Drava Valley winegrowing region includes the Styria (*Štajerska Slovenija*) and Prekmurje winegrowing districts, the Sava Valley winegrowing region includes the Bizeljsko-Sremič, Lower Carniola (*Dolenjska*), and White Carniola (*Bela Krajina*) winegrowing districts, and the Littoral winegrowing region includes Goriška brda, Vipava Valley (*Vipavsk dolina*), Karst (*Kras*), and Istria (*Slovenska Istra*) winegrowing districts. The individual winegrowing districts are divided into winegrowing sub-districts (25 altogether), these into local winegrowing districts (83 altogether), and these into winegrowing locations (450 altogether) (*Pravilnik o seznamu geografskih označ za vina in trsnem izboru* 2007).

In discussing agriculture, the question arises how to present its main spatial characteristics most clearly. Complex production conditions and specific regional circumstances combine to create characteristic rural systems that are further divided into subsystems. The most widespread fodder system is characteristic of 56% of agricultural land use in Slovenia. At 18%, the root-crop system is second in importance, followed by the cereal system (10%), Slovenia's most intensive and most productive system. At one time the mixed system was much more widespread and it still occupies about 12% of agricultural land. The remaining 4% falls under the special system and includes the winegrowing, fruit-growing, and hop-growing subsystems (Kladnik 2001b, 134).

In spite of modern development trends, industry remains one of the most important economic activities. It employs a third of the working population and contributes more than a quarter of the GDP (26.8% in 2001, rising to 33.0% in 1990) (Kladnik 2004, 125).

Slovenia already had several important mines and manufacturing workshops before the beginning of the industrial period. Along with metallurgy, glassmaking



was of great importance, based on rich forests and deposits of silicate sand. The heralds of the industrial period were the coal mines, which went into operation from the middle of the 18th century until the beginning of the 19th century; the first coal mine opened in 1752 in Zagorje ob Savi (Kladnik 2004, 122).

Factories began to appear in the first half of the 19th century, at first in the textile industry and later in the iron, paper, and metalworking industries. Slovenia experienced three waves of industrialization: the first at the beginning of the 20th century, the second in the 1920s before the Great Depression, and a third, particularly pronounced, wave following World War II. In June 1993, industry employed roughly 260,000 people, around 120,000 fewer than in the 1980s because companies were struggling with the loss of the major part of the former Yugoslav market, the restructuring of production, lack of investment funds, and privatization. Industrial companies were located in 515 towns and cities. Three-quarters of these were single-industry towns or had at most two industrial branches. Only seven major cities (Ljubljana, Maribor, Velenje, Kranj, Novo mesto, Celje, and Murska Sobota) had more than 5,000 people employed in industry (Kladnik 2001b, 134–135).

With the Slovenia's independence in 1991 and the introduction of the market economy, the majority of industrial companies found themselves in difficulty due to the loss of the major part of their extensive market in the former Yugoslavia, the restructuring of production, the lack of investment funds, and privatization, but many companies have gradually managed to overcome these problems. Some went bankrupt, many were sold off plant by plant, and others were partly or entirely bought by foreign entrepreneurs or simply ceased operation. Simultaneously, some Slovenian companies reoriented production to the Balkans or eastern European countries offering cheaper labor.

In spite of distinct restructuring and individual successful companies, Slovenian industry is still prevalingly characterized by too many employees, insufficient orientation toward foreign markets, technological backward-

ness in many areas, and insufficient capital for investment, in some cases even for ensuring uninterrupted production. In general, low productivity and lack of innovation still characterize Slovenian industry (Vrišer 1998).

The nuclear power plant at Krško contributes the most (nearly 40%) to the total production of electrical energy, followed by coal-fired power plants (just over 36%), and hydroelectric power plants (24%) (*Statistični letopis* 2006). The largest consumers of energy are industry (34%) and transportation (30%) (Kladnik 2001b, 134).

At the juncture of four European macroregions, Slovenia is crossed by the shortest land routes between

Central Europe, the Balkans, southeast Europe, and the Middle East on the one hand, and northern Italy and the Mediterranean area of western Europe on the other.

The majority of passenger and goods traffic runs on the road network. The most burdened roads are those that simultaneously carry major local, intercity, and transit traffic. The most important transit route runs northeast to southwest. The Slovenian freeway network will be nearly fully completed by 2010. A very extensive network of bus lines is a characteristic feature of Slovenia. Until 1960, bus traffic only supplemented railway traffic, but during the 1960s it surpassed rail in the number of

Koper harbour, Slovenia's gateway to the world.



MATEVŽ LENARČIČ



passengers carried and today buses carry ten times more passengers than trains. In the last decade, however, buses have competed increasingly less successfully with personal transport.

Some thirty years after the birth of the railway, the European rail network reached Slovenia. In 1861, Slovenia had 380 kilometers of rail lines, just under one third of their current length. In recent decades, rail has lost its importance, and its competitiveness is increasingly weaker, limited to long-distance transport of goods. The completion of the railway line to the port of Koper in 1967 was economically very important. The port of Koper is extremely important for Slovenia and for neighboring Austria and Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Slovakia. Air traffic is modest by European standards, and the majority goes through the central airport at Brnik near Ljubljana (*Letališče Jožeta Pučnika*). Some European budget airlines have also started serving the Maribor airport. Small industry has always been an important and vigorous economic activity and includes both production and services. In general, the distribution of small industry matches the distribution of the population. In the second half of 19th century, the concept of domestic crafts developed and became firmly es-

Traditional pottery still lives today.



JOZE POJBIČ

tablished. Today, domestic crafts encompass a varied range of jobs and the production of items at home or in home workshops either for personal use or the market. The lack of formal training in individual branches of domestic arts and crafts is a matter of concern. There is a lace-making school in Idrija, and some extracurricular educational programs are being introduced at agricultural schools (Kladnik 2001b, 135).

Because the network of retail stores in Slovenia has been shaped relative to the distribution and density of the population, it is closely connected with the network of central settlements. Almost one out of three Slovenian settlements has a store. The smaller centers are dominated by stores selling mixed goods or foods where consumers shop frequently. Medium-term and long-term commodities in particular are provided by the largest centers because consumers buy such items less frequently. With the transition to a market economy, the retail store network has expanded and multiplied; the quality and diversity of their selection and the accessibility of stores are improving. Modern shopping centers have sprung up on the outskirts of all large towns.

Tourism is one of the most important and most promising economic branches in Slovenia. The map shows only the ninety most important tourist areas in which more than 450 overnight stays were recorded in 1995. The majority of tourist traffic (82% of overnight stays) was recorded in the group of 32 largest tourist centers. The highest proportions of overnight stays by international tourists were in Ljubljana, Nova Gorica, Postojna, Bled, Portorož, Bovec, and Rogaska Slatina. In monofunctional tourist areas, everything is subordinate to tourist activity, which is reflected in their appearance. In polyfunctional tourist areas, tourism is interwoven with industrial, supply, and other activities (Kladnik 2001b, 136). In recent years, Slovenia has nearly reached the number of international tourists from the period before its independence, which peaked in 1990. Following Slovenia's entry into the European Union, there has been a strong increase in the number of visitors from abroad to Ljubljana.

In the last census of 2002, 777,772 residences were recorded in Slovenia. In 1991, only 70% of residences were privately owned, but by 2002 this share had increased to more than 92% (Žnidaršič 2007, 131). There are vacation residences in nearly 59% of Slovenian settlements. Especially due to a large number of vacation residences, the number of inhabited residences in non-urban areas is smaller than in urban areas. The largest share of vacation residences is in southeast Slovenia (10%); an above-average share is also typical of the Lower Sava, Coastal-Karst, Mura, and Upper Carniola statistical regions (Jeršič 1998, 248).

Residences in independent or individual houses predominate, accounting for nearly 58% of the total residences. On average, a little less than a third of Slovenian residences are located in apartment buildings, although apartment buildings account for only 4% of the residential buildings in Slovenia. The share of residences located in apartment buildings, which started increasing after 1946, has been decreasing again since 1985. Of course, the share of residences located in apartment buildings is much greater in urban areas, with almost 60% of such residences, whereas in non-urban areas the share falls below 5%. The highest percentage of residences located in apartment buildings is recorded in the Sava and Central Slovenia statistical regions, and the lowest percentage is recorded in the Mura region. The average size of residences located in individual houses is 83.4 m², whereas the average size of a residence in an apartment building is only 55.8 m² (Žnidaršič 2007, 133)

The greatest part of Slovenian healthcare is organized at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels and is carried out at healthcare centers, clinics, hospitals, pharmacies, social welfare institutions, and health resorts. Hospitals are the centers of medical knowledge and technology, and a central role is played by the Medical Center in Ljubljana. Statistically, every resident of Slovenia visits a general outpatient clinic 2.5 times a year and a specialized clinic once a year.

There are around 780 preschools, 860 primary schools, and 150 secondary schools in Slovenia. The oldest form



of secondary school is the upper secondary school (Sln. *gimnazija*), which has existed in Slovenia since the 16th century. College and university education began developing only in the 20th century. Higher education is provided at the universities in Ljubljana, Maribor, Koper, and Nova Gorica and at individual faculties located in Kranj and Portorož. Slovenia is considerably behind the more developed countries of Europe in providing adult education facilities and programs.

Culture is an important aspect of a nation's existence; in the past, culture played a decisive role in the development of Slovenians' national identity. Slovenia has long been part of the cultural space of Central Europe and Europe as a whole. Cultural and artistic activity includes all forms of creation and the propagation and protection of cultural values. The majority of cultural activities take place in professional institutions; however, the role of amateur and independent groups with specialized, experimental, and avant-garde orientations is also significant. The concentration of major institutions in Ljubljana, and to a lesser extent in Maribor, is characteristic of the organization of cultural activities (Kladnik 2001b, 156–157).

Cultural heritage encompasses the work of men and women in earlier periods that has historical, scholarly, or esthetic value. The map indicates 1,174 selected sites where some 12% of Slovenia's registered cultural heritage is protected. This reflects the extraordinary frequency of places where traces of Slovenia's rich history can be encountered (Orožen Adamič 2001a, 174).

In spite of the hostile attitude of the state toward religion between 1945 and 1990, religion did not vanish; on the contrary, old religious institutions were joined by numerous new ones, primarily those of the major world religions. In Slovenia, Roman Catholic churches are visible everywhere, mostly on prominent elevations, in the middle of settlements, or at their edges (Kladnik 2001b, 157). The Roman Catholic Church has five dioceses in Slovenia with seats in Celje, Koper, Murska Sobota, Novo mesto, and Maribor, as well as one archdiocese with its seat in Ljubljana.

The **population** is all the people that live in a particular region. In 2002, census takers recorded 1,964,036 people living in Slovenia. The census followed international guidelines, according to which the population of a country only consists of the people actually living in its territory; in contrast with other censuses carried out after World War II, this census thus did not take into account people with permanent or temporary residence registered in Slovenia but that had lived abroad for over a year. In addition, for the first time the census took into account the duration of stay in Slovenia and only considered those immigrants as Slovenian inhabitants that had lived in Slovenia for at least a year regardless of whether they had had a registered residence there or not (Perko 2007, 13).

The birth rate (the number of living newborn children per thousand people per year) was high in Slovenia in the second half of the 19th century, around 35‰. In the 1960s and 1970s it was stable, between 18.5‰ and 15.9‰, and then it began to drop quickly. After World War II, the greatest number of children were born in 1950 (35,992), and in 1979 the number was still over 30,000. In 1991, however, when there were 21,583 newborn children, the birth rate was only 10.8‰ (Kladnik 2001c, 101). In 2003, the number of newborns reached its minimum (17,321), but then started increasing again, reaching 18,157 in 2005 (*Statistični letopis* 2006). Since 1981, the total birth rate has not been sufficient to reach replacement rate. In recent years, the fertility rate has been approximately 1.2 children per woman, which is only three-quarters of the annual number of newborns required for replacement rate (Josipovič & Repolusk 2007, 24). Women born around 1875 gave birth to almost five children on average, their daughters only three, their granddaughters two, and their great-granddaughters fewer than two (1.8). Infant mortality in Slovenia is among the lowest in the world (Kladnik 2001c, 101).

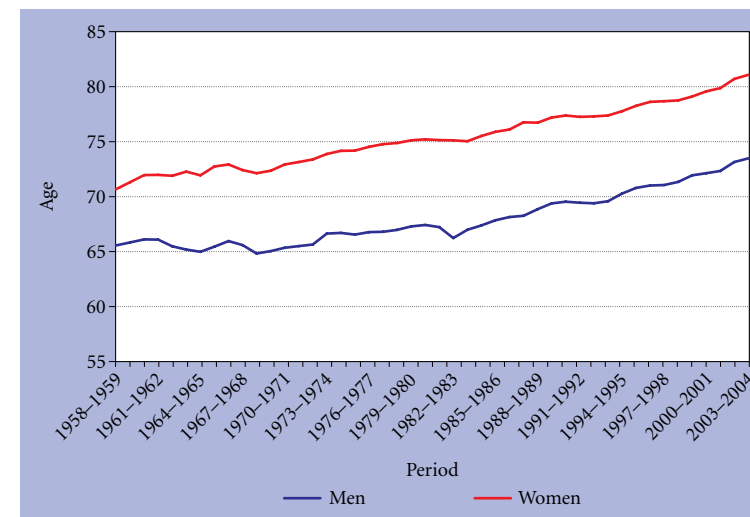
The main areas of relatively high birth rate stretch in the shape of an arc to the west, south, and east of the Ljubljana urban area. These are mainly the areas of the Škofja Loka, Idrija, and Rovte Hills, Bloke, Suha

krajina, and central Lower Carniola (Josipovič & Repolusk 2007, 26).

The term mortality refers to the frequency of deaths in the population or the length of life. Due to improvements in healthcare, mortality (the number of dead per thousand people) in Slovenia decreased substantially between the two world wars. In 1991, when 19,324 people died, the death rate was 9.7‰. Life expectancy is increasing (Kladnik 2001c, 101). In the mid-19th century, life expectancy was only about 40 years whereas in 2005 it was 74.1 for men and 81.3 for women (*Statistični letopis* 2006).

Natural increase is the difference between the number of newborn children and the number of deaths in a calendar year. The gap between the start of regression in mortality and fertility in a period of demographic transformation contributes to a large increase in natural increase. In Slovenia, the general level of mortality began to drop considerably in the mid-19th century, and the birth rate at the beginning of the 20th century. For the mortality drop, some sixty years were needed and, for the birth rate drop, about forty years. This demographic transformation ended in the 1960s. Its particular feature was a high rate of emigration, and therefore

Life expectancy according to sex structure between 1958 and 2004.



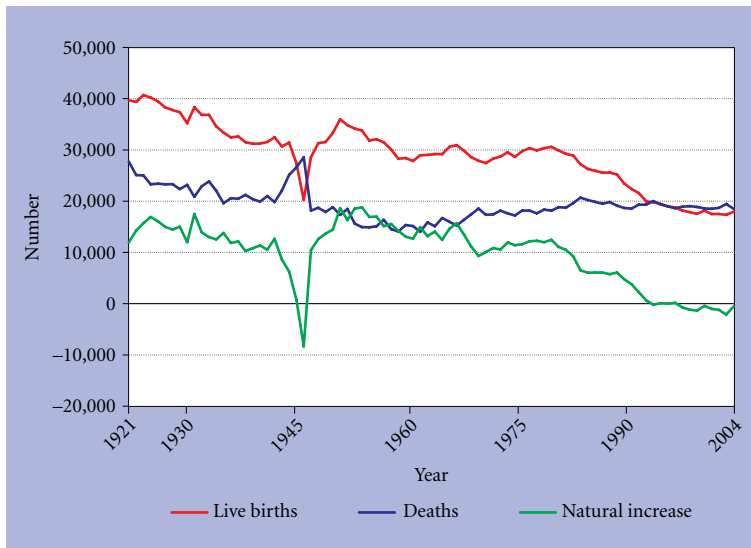


the population only increased by around 80% during this period. The degree of natural increase (the difference between newborn and dead per thousand people) was about 8‰ in the 1960s and about 6‰ in the 1970s. After 1980, it began to drop rapidly and reached an average of only 0.3‰ between 1991 and 1995 (Kladnik 2001c, 101); in the first years of the 21st century, it became negative because the number of the deceased exceeds the number of newborns.

The movement or migration of populations reflects economic, political, national, religious, and cultural conditions. The spatial distribution of the population of Slovenia has been influenced more by internal migration between settlements and municipalities than by cross-border migration, accounting for more than 80% of migration (Kladnik 2001c, 101).

Nearly half of the Slovenian population does not live in the settlement where they were born or the place of their first residence. Settlements with the highest percentage of population that has been living there since birth are usually small with weak population dynamics, but they also include towns, which, due to their larger population, are less »sensitive« to the numerical impact

Natural changes of population number between 1921 and 2004.



of immigration flows. Among the large towns, Ljubljana and Trbovlje are typical examples; Trbovlje (in the Sava Valley) primarily because it no longer attracts a substantial number of immigrants. All other large towns have a »native« population of less than 50%. A share of immigrants exceeding 50% is the result of recent immigration, which is especially typical of settlements in the suburbs of large towns. Because the migrating population is usually relatively young, it holds the »status« of immigrant population for a longer time and thus has a longer effect on the total share of immigrant population.

The highest percentage of inter-regional migration is evident in the border areas between individual regions. Ljubljana must be highlighted here because its inter-regional immigrants account for more than 40% of all its immigrants in terms of their last migration.

Because of its high level of development, Slovenia attracted immigrants from the poorer regions of the former Yugoslavia after World War II. At first, they came mainly for jobs and higher wages, and later due to better living conditions. Of Slovenia's total of 169,605 foreign immigrants, 151,432 or 89.3% come from elsewhere in the former Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia; they account for 7.7% of Slovenian population. The majority of people that moved to Slovenia from abroad live in large towns, but their share among the total number of immigrants only rarely exceeds 16%. The largest shares are in Ljubljana, Velenje, Koper, Jesenice, and Izola. From the regional point of view, the largest shares of immigrant population are found in central Slovenia in the Ljubljana urban area, along the coastal belt of the Mediterranean region, in Upper Carniola, and to some extent also along the Slovenian-Croatian border (Dolenc & Josipovič 2007, 55–56).

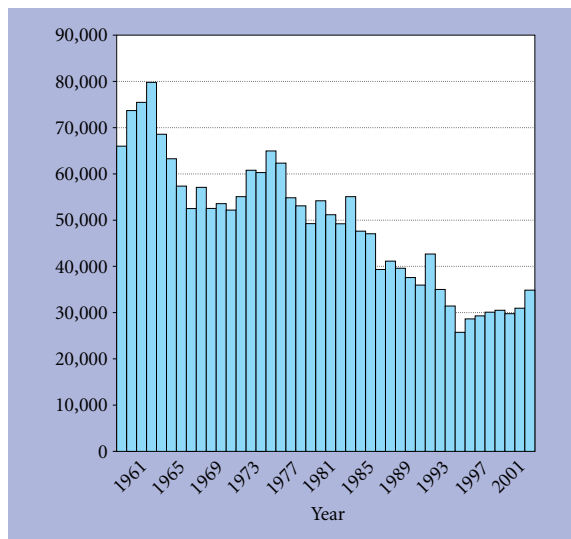
Over some one hundred years, half a million people emigrated from what is now Slovenia. This ranks Slovenia among the nations that were most greatly affected by emigration. The level of emigration (the number of emigrants per one thousand people) was between 3‰ and 5‰ in the 1960s and between 2‰ and 4‰

in the 1980s. In 1991, when 9,060 people left due largely to the political events leading to Slovenia's independence, this increased to 4.5‰ and then dropped again to less than 2‰ (Kladnik 2001c, 104).

The sum of natural and migration changes in the population equals the total change in the population. During the first census, which took place in 1857, 1,101,854 people were recorded, and during the 1869 census the population recorded was 1,128,768. Until World War I, the population increased steadily by approximately 3 to 4‰ a year. Due to the consequences of war and massive emigration, the population decreased between 1910 and 1921, but continued to increase by an average of 6‰ a year until 1931. World War II caused a similar halt in the population growth, but a new increase followed again after the war. The population increased by nearly one percent a year on average up to the 1981 census, by nearly point five percent on average up to the 1991 census, and only by a quarter percent up to the 2002 census (Perko 2007, 13–14).

The population density in Slovenia recorded in the 2002 census was 97 people per square kilometer. Due to great diversity of Slovenia's relief, its population is distributed unevenly and the differences continue to increase. The most densely populated were the alpine plains with 582 people per km², and the most scarcely populated were the Dinaric plateaus with only 18 people per km². During the 20th century, population density increased the most in the alpine plains, where it nearly tripled, and the Pannonian plains, where it doubled; it decreased the most in the Dinaric plateaus (by a good third), and the Mediterranean plateaus (by a good fifth). At the beginning of the 20th century, two-thirds of today's Slovenia had a below-average population. Due to the constant increase in population density, three-quarters of Slovenia's territory had a below-average population in the middle of the century, while the proportion reached four-fifths by the end of the century (Perko 2007, 14–15).

In 2002, there were 685,023 households in Slovenia, of which just over 76% were family households – that is, composed of one or several families. The average Slo-



Inner migration between 1961 and 2002.

venian household had 2.8 members. Every fifth household only had one member, every sixteenth combined several families, and in every eighteenth household, in addition to the family members, included an individual that was not a member of the family. Children under 15 lived in nearly every third household; these had 1.5 children on average. Households with members 65 or older were even more frequent, but only 1.3 older individuals lived in them on average. Urban households were smaller by 0.4 people than non-urban ones (Urbanc & Žnidaršič 2007, 39).

In 2002, 555,945 families were recorded in Slovenia. 77% of the families had at least one child. The total number of children was approximately 695,000. An average family with children comprised 3.4 family members. Most frequent were families in which the parents were married (3.7 family members); followed by the families comprised of cohabiting couples (3.5 family members); the average single-parent family comprises 2.3 family members. Approximately half (49%) of families have one child, 42% of families have two children, and the percentage of large families (i. e., with at least three chil-

dren) is 9%. The largest families included in the census had 11 children.

In the eleven years between the last two censuses, only the number of single-child families increased. The number of families with two children decreased the most. Among large families, the number of families with three children decreased only slightly, especially in towns. Nonetheless, large families remain typical of non-urban areas where families with four children are twice as frequent, and families with five or more children even three times as frequent as in urban areas. Families with the largest number of family members are found in southeast Slovenia, in the Škofja Loka and Sava hills, and in the Vipava Valley – that is, in areas with the highest birth rate. In terms of children, the smallest families are found in the Drava Plain, the Central Sava Valley, and Slovenian Istria (Urbanc & Žnidaršič 2007, 38).

With regard to the relation between the number of women and men, Slovenia is a relatively balanced country. Although there are slightly more women, 6 to 7% more boys than girls are born each year. A higher age-specific death rate in men, especially in younger generations, causes the number of women to exceed the number of men at a certain age. In Slovenia, this happens around the age of 50. A disproportion in the representation of the sexes can exert important influences on other aspects of the population. It has an especially important effect on the opportunity to establish relationships. Areas of notable disproportion between the sexes in favor of men include primarily the traditional emigrant areas with a more notable emigration of women that married across the state border or into larger urban centers. One of the most well-known areas in this regard is Brkini, from which many women went to Trieste in Italy or the coastal towns in Slovenia.

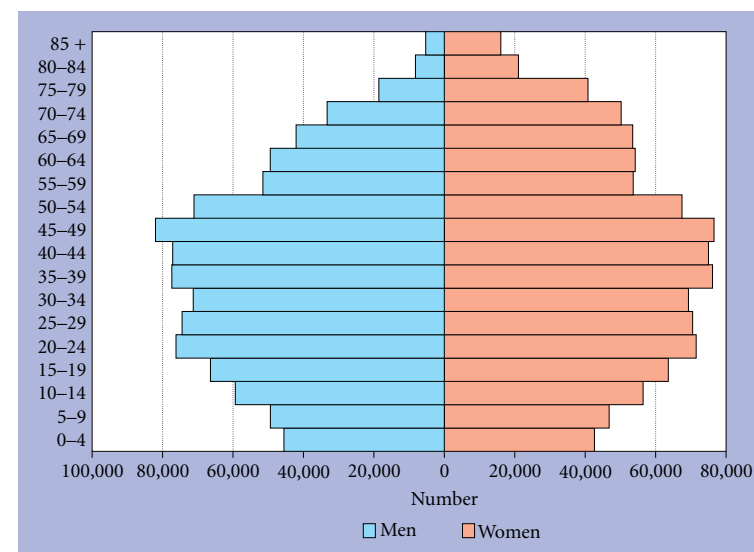
In 2005, the average Slovenian man was 38.7 years old and the average woman was 42.0 years old. In the last thirty years, the average age has increased by 6.6 years. The ratio between the proportion of the older and younger population is indicated by the age index. Between the 1991 and 2002 censuses, the age index increased considerably,

from 53.6 to 96.3. It varies between individual Slovenian regions and reflects their demographic »health«. It is favorable primarily in areas with higher population reproduction and in recently suburbanized areas. It is less favorable in large urban centers and the peripheral and bordering countryside; in many places one could speak of demographically endangered areas (Josipovič & Repolusk 2007, 22–23).

The census information on the structure of the Slovenian population is based on the interviewees' responses regarding their affiliation to a specific religion. Due to political and ideological reasons, religious affiliation was not recorded in the Yugoslav censuses of 1948, 1961, 1971, and 1981. In the 2002 census, 1,248,988 people or 63.6% of the Slovenian population declared affiliation to a specific religion.

Slovenia is a country with a strong Roman Catholic tradition both in the organization of the Church and from the demographic point of view. 1,135,626 people (or nearly 58% of the total population, or almost 91% of all the people that declared affiliation to a specific religion) declared their affiliation to Catholicism. In addition to the majority of Slovenians, other ethnic groups

Age pyramid for 2002.





in Slovenia – Italians, the majority of Hungarians and Roma, and Croats – are also Catholic. The Catholics also include a small number of members of the Eastern Catholic Church, locally represented in White Carniola and in certain large towns.

Lutheranism is also a religion with a long historical tradition in Slovenia; 14,736 people declared themselves Lutheran. Protestantism began spreading in Slovenia in the 16th century, but persisted only in Carinthia and Prekmurje, to which it is primarily limited today.

Currently, the second largest religious group in Slovenia is the Muslim community, which ranked third (behind members of the Orthodox Church) in the 1991 census. According to the 2002 data, the Muslim community has 47,488 members. The Orthodox Church (primarily the Serbian Orthodox Church) is now in third place (Josipovič & Repolusk 2007, 85–87).

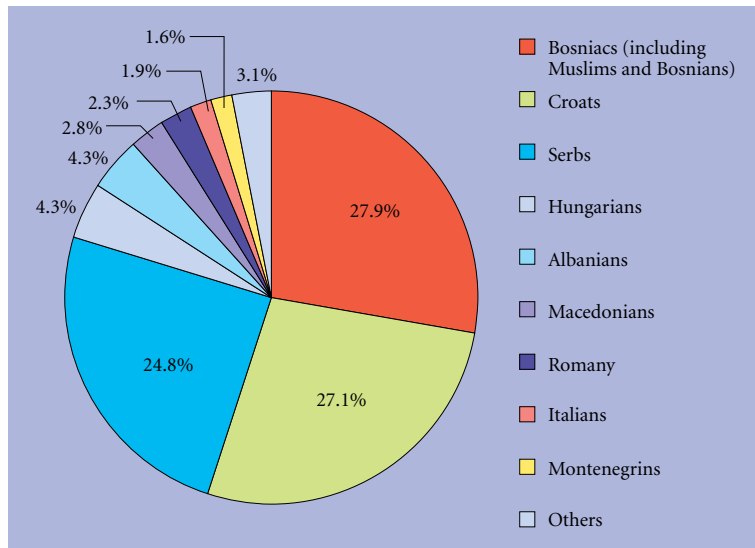
In the 2002 census, the majority of the Slovenian population – that is 1,723,434 or nearly 88% of the population – identified Slovenian as their native language. Regional differences in the share of the population using Slovenian as a native language are similar to the share of the population declared as Slovenian. For all other

languages, the number of those so declared is larger than the number of those declared per individual ethnic group. Thus, there are 153,760 Serbo-Croatian speakers (this term is less appropriate today and is only used for simplification; it includes the Croatian, Serbian, Bosnian, and Montenegrin languages and the census combinations Croato-Serbian and Serbo-Croatian), 3,762 Italian speakers, 7,713 Hungarian speakers, 7,177 Albanian speakers, 3,834 Romany speakers, and 4,760 Macedonian speakers (Josipovič & Repolusk 2007, 84).

With around forty dialects and numerous subdialects, Slovenian is the most dialectally diversified Slavic language, especially taking into account that it has relatively few speakers in a small territory. The splitting of Slovenian into dialects or dialect groups has been a long-term historical process, affected by numerous factors. Along with historical and ethnic influences, natural and administrative borders were very significant in the formation of Slovenian dialects (Repolusk 1998, 160).

Slovenia is an ethnically homogenous country with a predominance of Slovenians (just over 92%) and three officially recognized indigenous ethnic minorities: Italian (0.1%), Hungarian (0.3%) and Romany (0.2%). Following World War II, the majority of the Italian and German populations emigrated. Immigration from the poorer regions of the former Yugoslavia after World War II partly changed the ethnic structure. Currently, Serbs make up 2.0%, Bosnians 2.0%, and Croats 1.8% of Slovenia's population, along with several thousand Macedonians, Montenegrins, and Albanians. With the exception of the Croats, all of these immigrants are densely settled in larger towns and industrial centers (Kladnik 2001, 105). Compared to 1991, the numbers of people declared as Italians, Montenegrins, Hungarians, and Croats decreased the most. Due to strengthening ethnic awareness among young people and thus a larger share of declared ethnicity, an increase in the number of the Roma is notable. In addition, the total number of Albanians increased; since 1991, they have been among the most frequent immigrants to Slovenia (Josipovič & Repolusk 2007, 84).

Ethnic structure of Slovenia's population (without Slovenians) in 2002.



Title page of the first Slovene translation of the Bible (Jurij Dalmatin 1584).

In modern societies the educational structure is the key element characteristic of a development-oriented sociopolitical community. It denotes not only the professional qualifications required for performing jobs, but indirectly the innovational ability of an environment to adapt to the modern challenges of a post-industrial society as well. The main characteristic of the Slovenian educational structure is that it has not been developed completely in harmony with the strongly diversified



network of educational institutions, nor with the dynamic social progress after World War II (e. g., industrialization). Thus in 2002, just under 7% of adults had not even completed elementary school, 25% had completed elementary school, just over 50% had completed secondary school, and fewer than 13% had a university degree. Notably, the lowest level of education is characteristic of the Lower Sava, Lower and Inner Carniola statistical regions; areas with a high percentage of the population with a university degree are located in the Central Slovenia, Coastal-Karst, and Upper Carniola statistical regions. An above-average level of education is typical of towns and larger settlements with a population above 1,000, where on average more than 20% of the population has a university degree and around 40% of the population has completed at least the secondary level of education (Kladnik & Ravbar 2007, 105–106).

In 2002, Slovenia had a labor force of 949,079 people or just over 48% of the population: 518,068 men and 431,010 women. There were 818,304 active working persons; the level of active working men was just over 56%, compared to just under 43% for women.

The largest share among the active working population is represented by employed persons, accounting for 738,055 or 90.2% of all active working persons. The remainder is composed of self-employed persons accounting for 80,249 persons, of whom 56,111 were sole proprietors and persons performing a professional activity, and 24,138 were farmers.

The educational structure of the population and its changes are one of the socioeconomic indicators that best reflect the changes in the regional and economic structure of certain areas. By far the most – that is, 240,404 active working inhabitants – were employed in the processing industry. This was followed by a group of activities composed of trade and repair of motor vehicles accounting for 104,617 employees. In addition, over 50,000 people were employed in construction, real estate, rental, business services, and education; activities such as traffic, storage and communications, public administration, defense, social insurance, healthcare,

and social security were also close to this figure (Kladnik & Ravbar 2007, 101–102).

For greater transparency and easier comparability, individual activities are combined into three main groups of activities. The formerly-used division into primary, secondary, and tertiary (and also quaternary) sector activities has been replaced by a conceptually similar division into agricultural activities, non-agricultural activities (excluding services), and service industries. Agricultural activities include farming, hunting, forestry, and fishery; non-agricultural activities (excluding services) include mining, processing industries, electricity, gas and water supply, and construction; and service industries include trade, motor vehicle repairs, catering, traffic, storage, communications, financial intermediation, real estate, rentals, business services, public administration, defense, social insurance, education, healthcare, social security, and other public, group, and personal services.

In 2002, 32,649 people or 4% of the active working population was involved in agricultural activities. The highest percentages were found in the hilly regions of northeast Slovenia (Goričko, Slovenske gorice) and in the Sotla region, whereas in western Slovenia they were traditionally found only in Goriška brda. A high percentage is also found in the mountainous villages with predominantly isolated farms in the Upper Savinja Valley and on the slopes of Mount Uršlja gora, Pohorje, and Kozjak. High percentages are also present in small remote villages (Bloke, the Velike Lašče region, Suha krajina, the countryside of the Mirna Valley, the Kozje region), where people still make their living predominantly through farming (partly subsistence farming).

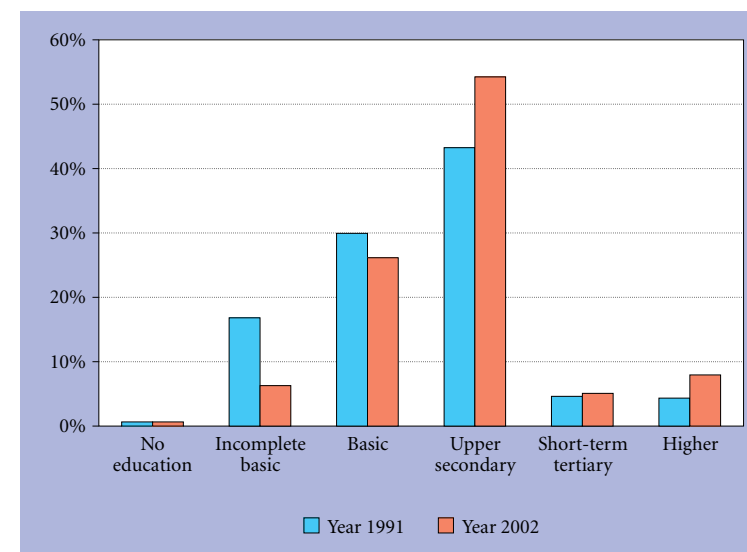
311,180 people or 38% of the active working population was involved in non-agricultural activities (excluding services). The highest percentages were found in rural areas with a monostructural industrial orientation and daily commuting to larger industrial centers in the vicinity, which, apart from rare exceptions (Velenje, Ravne na Koroškem, Hrastnik, Žiri, Senovo, and Metlika), are already undergoing tertiarization and therefore the shares are significantly smaller there. Larger concen-

trations of settlements with high percentages of active working population in industry are located in the Škofja Loka and Cerklje hills, in the Lož Valley, White Carniola, the Velenje Basin, the Mežica Valley, and the Dravinja Hills.

A rapid increase of employment in service industries is typical of all of Slovenia, and especially in larger towns and areas with notable communications, tourism, and border roles, as well as in suburbanized areas. In 2002, 431,494 people or 52.7% of the active working population was involved in service industries. The highest percentages were found in large towns; Ljubljana and Koper with their broad adjacent countryside, and to a smaller extent Nova Gorica, Sežana, Radovljica, Maribor, Celje, and Brežice, in which the tertiary support area is limited to a small number of less distinctly oriented support areas, whereas Ptuj, Murska Sobota, and Novo mesto represent islands of a sort amid surrounding agricultural and industrial activities (Kladnik & Ravbar 2007, 102–103).

Extensive daily commuting began in the 1960s and 1970s and replaced the mass migration from the countryside to the towns. Daily commuters account for 60%

Changes in educational structure between 1991 and 2002.





of employees (a total of 445,000) or full-time students (a total of 213,000). The transfer from public transport to personal transport has been typical of the last decade. Today, a typical Slovenian daily commuter drives to work from a smaller settlement in the vicinity of one of the major employment centers in his or her own car, and a single journey takes him or her less than half an hour.

The major flows of daily commuting in the morning are oriented toward the larger centers and clearly indicate the extent to which people are attracted to these centers. There are 127 settlements to which at least 500 daily commuters travel to work, accounting for 78% of all daily commuters (Dolenc & Josipovič 2007, 56–59).

Since the 1980s, unemployment has been a great Slovenian developmental problem. Due to socialist em-

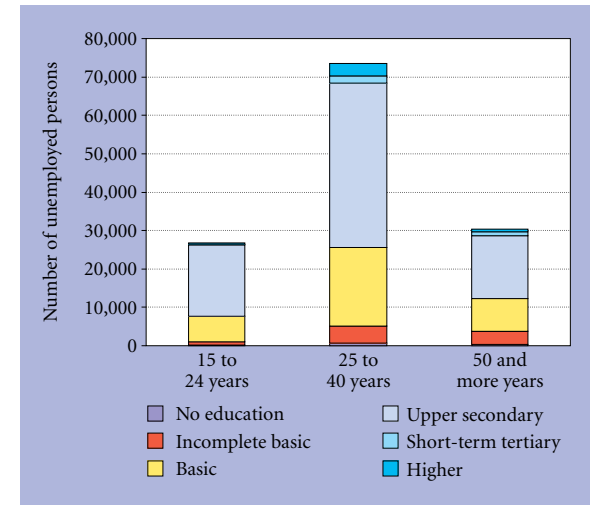
ployment policy principles, unemployment was long concealed, and was not significantly evident in the labor market. The number of unemployed started increasing more noticeably after 1988. In 1993, there were already 137,142 unemployed people, or more than 13% of individuals capable of working. Thanks to an active employment policy, their number has decreased considerably in recent years, and in 2002 this dropped below 100,000 (92,575 in 2005; *Statistični letopis* 2006). According to census information, the general unemployment rate in 2002 was nearly 14%; almost 3% among men and almost 15% among women. The percentage of unemployed is highest among individuals with poorer professional qualifications. The number of older people that have lost their jobs and are regarded as extremely difficult to employ is increasing (Kladnik & Ravbar, 2007, 104).

In studying migration in Slovenia, one cannot overlook those working abroad long-term (i. e., »guest-workers«), which often represents the final mode of leaving one's homeland. Life and work abroad arose as a political solution to the economic problems in the former Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. It was extremely widespread at the end of the 1960s, when around 60,000 Slovenians worked and lived abroad. It is still widely practiced because the 2002 census recorded 18,512 people, of whom 17,635 were citizens of Slovenia, that had been living abroad uninterruptedly for more than a year. Considering the simultaneous intense industrialization and the labor need in Slovenia, this seems to be a kind of paradox. Therefore, one cannot ascribe mere economic reasons to this foreign workforce because at that time the potential emigrants could have found employment almost anywhere in Slovenia. One proof of the extremely important role of political and geographical factors is the simultaneous immigration of the first foreign workers from other former Yugoslav republics to central Slovenia. Generally, the foreign workforce is most prevalent in Prekmurje, Haloze, Drava Plain, Slovenske Gorice, and the Sotla region. Working abroad has produced visible effects on the appearance and function of the Slovenian landscape. The majority of Slovenians working abroad

Coal miners from Velenje.



MILAN OROŽEN ADAMIC



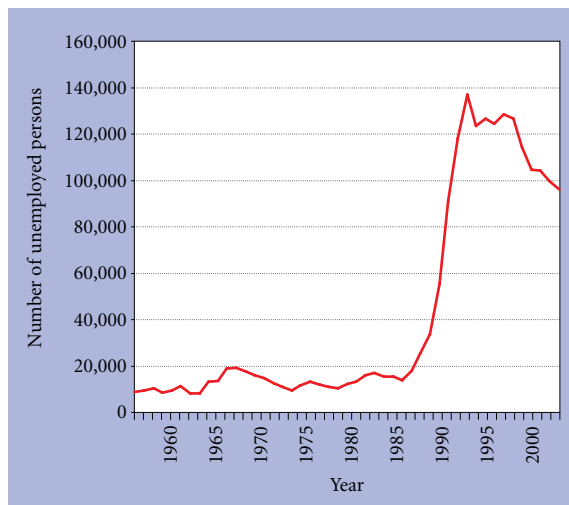
Unemployed persons according to age and educational structure.

long term live in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and Italy (Dolenc & Josipovič 2007, 56).

Foreigners with permanent or temporary residence in Slovenia follow the settlement pattern of immigrants from the area of former Yugoslavia, which is not at all surprising considering that the majority of immigrants from abroad still come from the traditional emigrant areas of the successor countries to the former Yugoslavia. However, increasing numbers of current immigrants are coming from other European Union countries. In addition to Ljubljana, the Karst and Goričko regions appear to attract these the most.

Almost one third of the approximately 2.5 million Slovenians and persons of Slovenian ethnic background live outside Slovenia. Indigenous Slovenian minorities live in the border regions of all the neighboring countries. The Slovenian minorities in Italy and Austria play an important role in the promotion of cross-border cooperation and contribute significantly to the development of the border regions.

The Slovenian minority in Italy occupies approximately 1,500 km² of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region, where according to Slovenian estimates there are between



Number of unemployed people between 1957 and 2003.

83,000 and 100,000 Slovenians and, according to official Italian estimates, 52,000. Around 10,000 Slovenians also live in the Friuli lowlands outside the area of indigenous settlements. For several centuries, this region belonged to the Patriarchate of Aquileia and the Counts of Gorizia, mainly to the Habsburg Austrian Empire from the 15th century until 1918, and after 1918 to Italy.

The Slovenian minority in Austria occupies some 2,600 km² of southern Carinthia and Styria, where according to official Austrian data (1991 census) there are some 15,100 Slovenians and, according to Slovenian estimates, between 45,000 and 50,000. More than 5,000 Slovenians live outside indigenous territory, mostly in Vienna and Graz. After the collapse of the Slovenian principality of Karantania, the region fell under Frankish domination and then under the Habsburg Empire for almost a millennium until its disintegration in 1918. The current Slovenian-Austrian border was established by the October 1920 plebiscite.

The Slovenian minority in Hungary occupies around 100 km² along the Rába River in Hungary. According to the official Hungarian census, 2,252 Slovenians lived in this region in 1990, although Slovenian estimates

placed the figure at up to 5,000. A further 2,000 Slovenians live dispersed throughout Hungary. The Slovenian area between the Rába and Mura rivers has been under Hungarian rule since the 11th century. The 1920 Treaty of Trianon established the current border. Between 1948 and 1990, Hungary was cut off from Yugoslavia and, with the border closed, contact with other Slovenian regions was practically non-existent.

The indigenous Slovenian minority in Croatia numbers a few hundred individuals altogether that live in five small and separate areas. The vast majority of Slovenians in Croatia are emigrants and their descendants (Zupančič 2001).

Slovenian emigrant communities, which include more than one-fifth of all Slovenians, were created in

five phases: economic emigration prior to World War I, largely political emigration between the world wars, deportation during World War II, exiles and refugees immediately following World War II, and economic migration after 1960. According to estimates, the largest populations of Slovenian ethnic origin live in the United States (300,000), Germany (50,000), Canada (30,000), Argentina (30,000), Australia (25,000), Croatia (25,000), Serbia (10,000), Austria, Italy, France, Sweden, and Brazil (Zupančič 2001, 127–128).

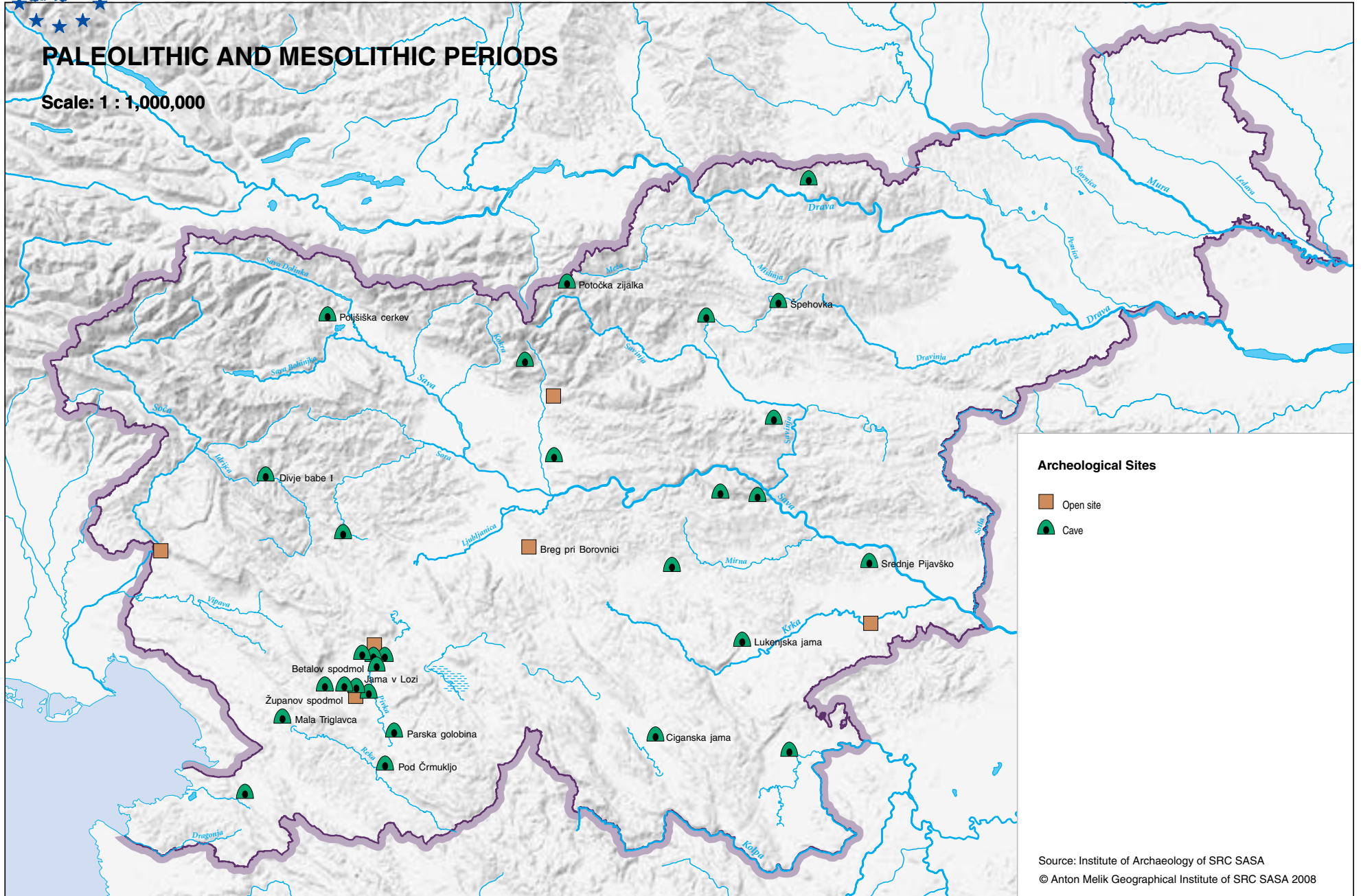
DRAGO KLADNIK

Emigrants in Trieste wait for departure to overseas destinations (around 1905). Emigration from Slovene territories was strongest at the end of the 19th century and beginning of 20th century.



PALEOLITHIC AND MESOLITHIC PERIODS

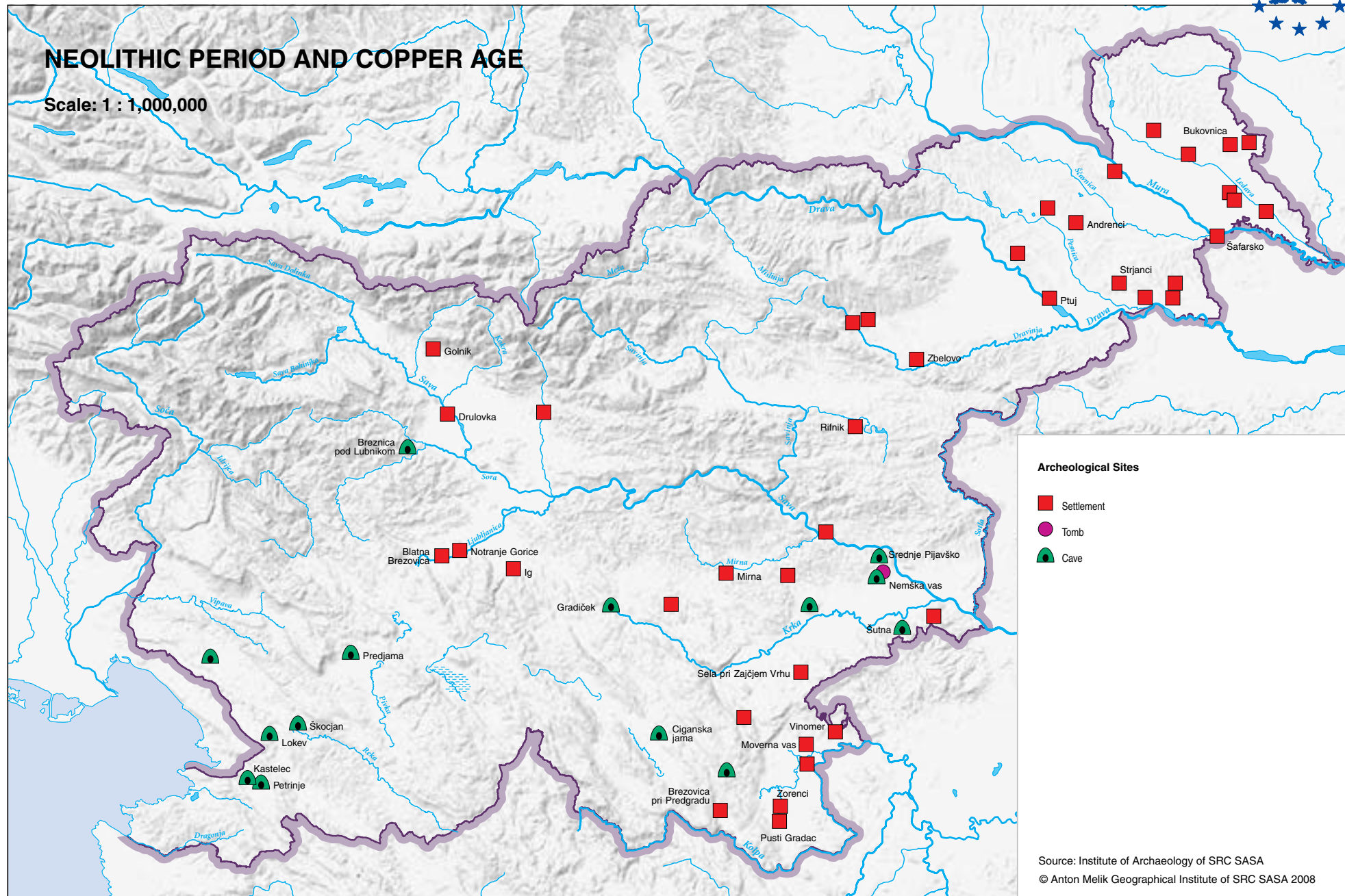
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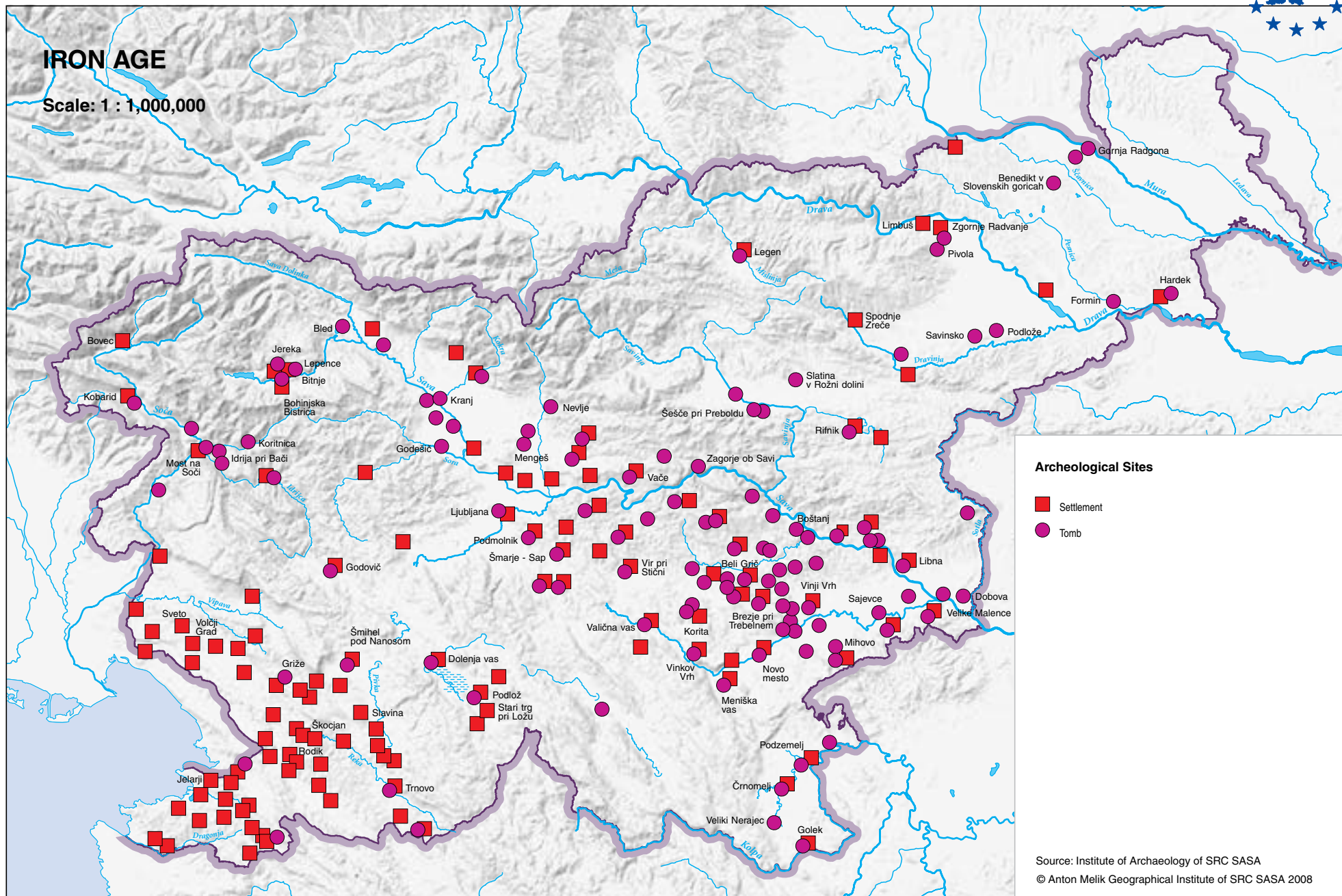


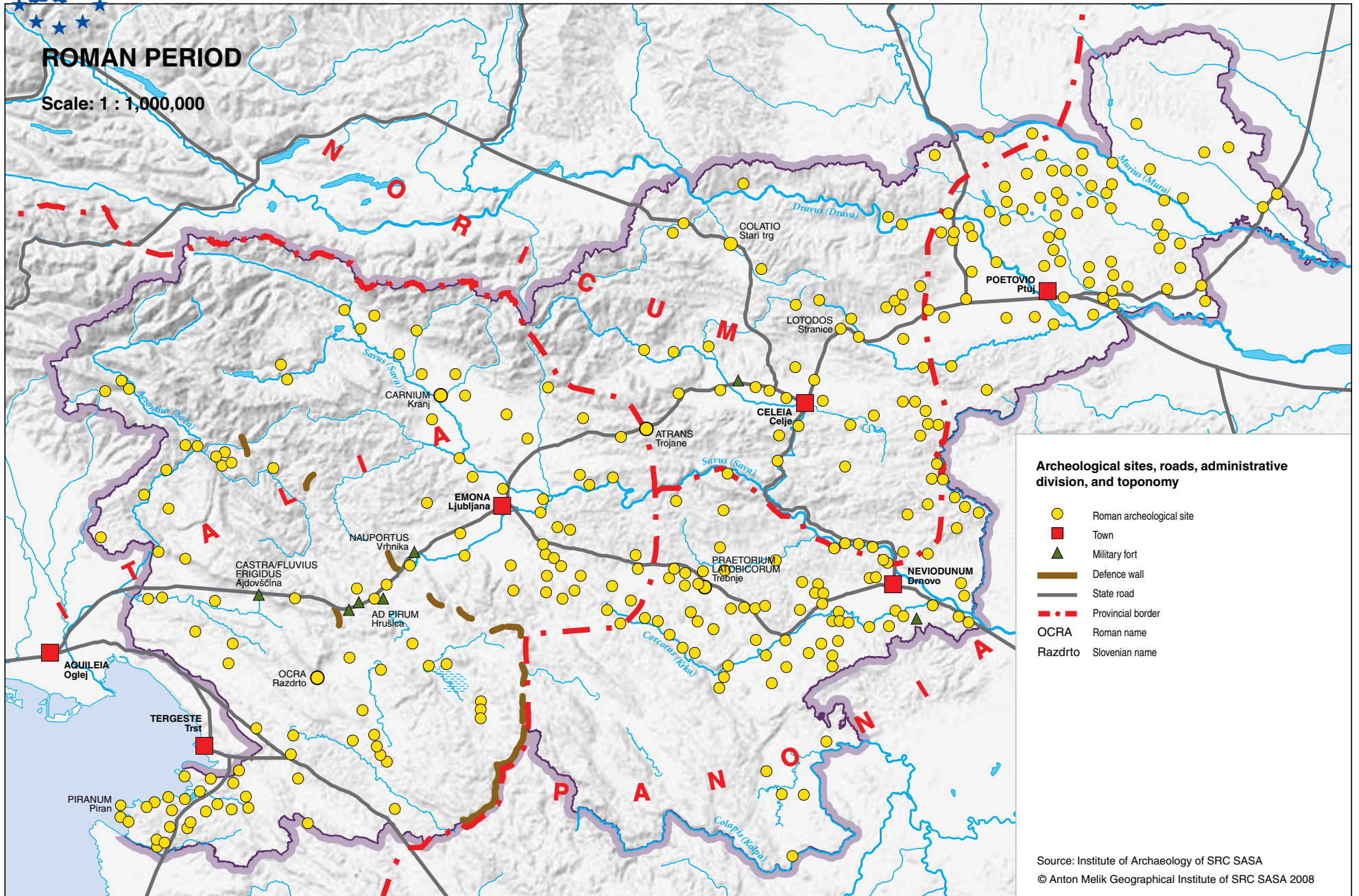


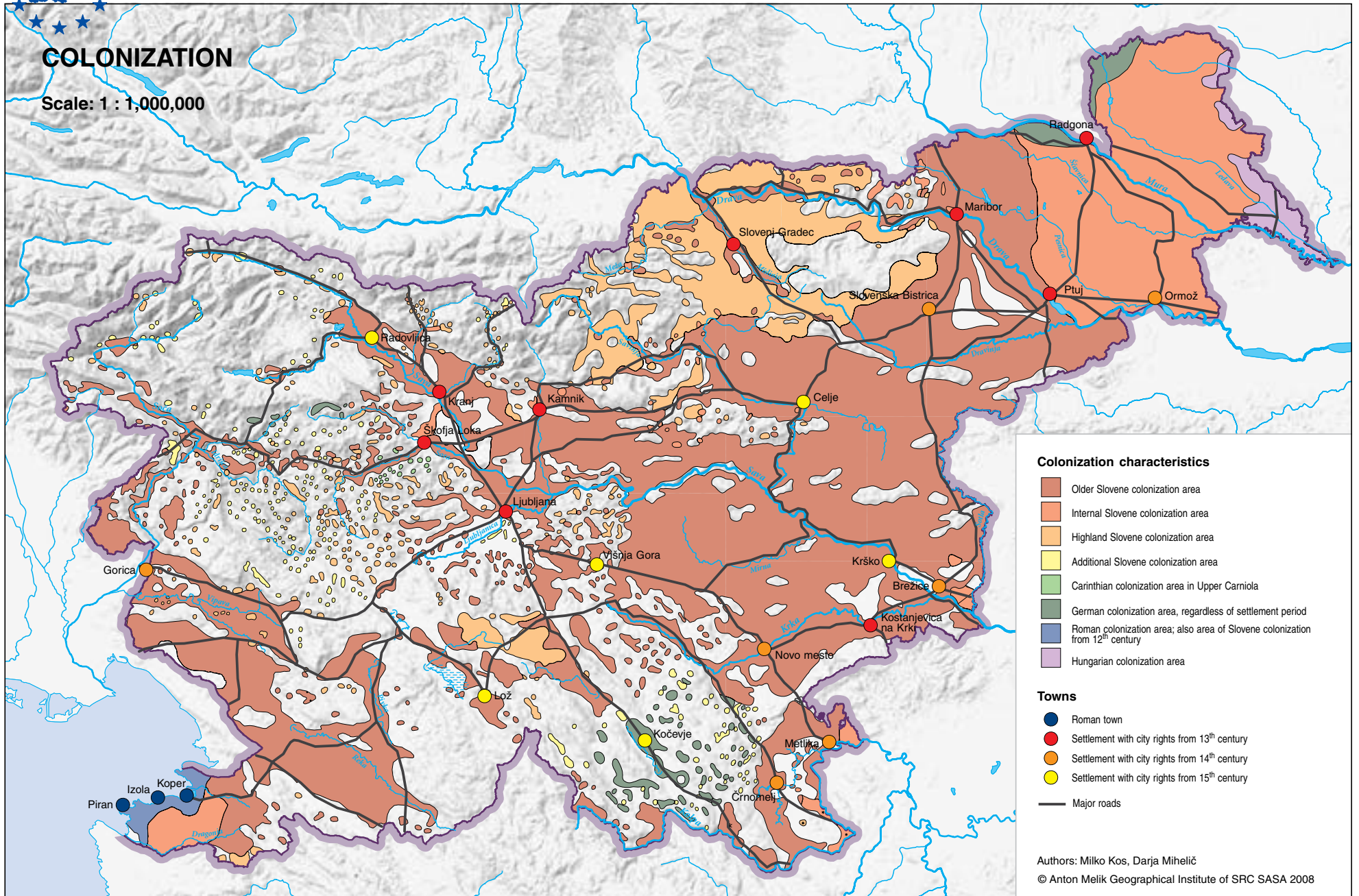
NEOLITHIC PERIOD AND COPPER AGE

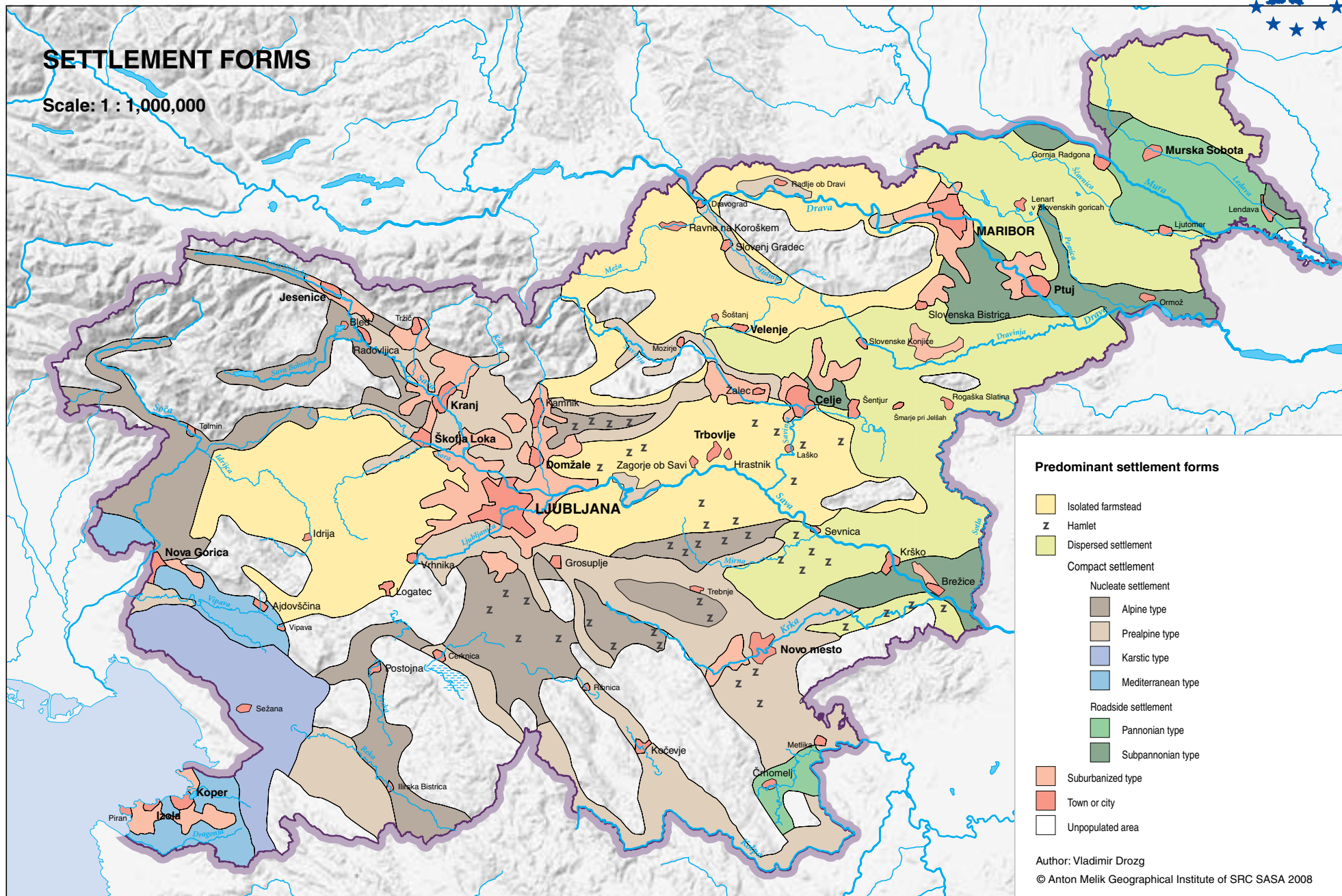
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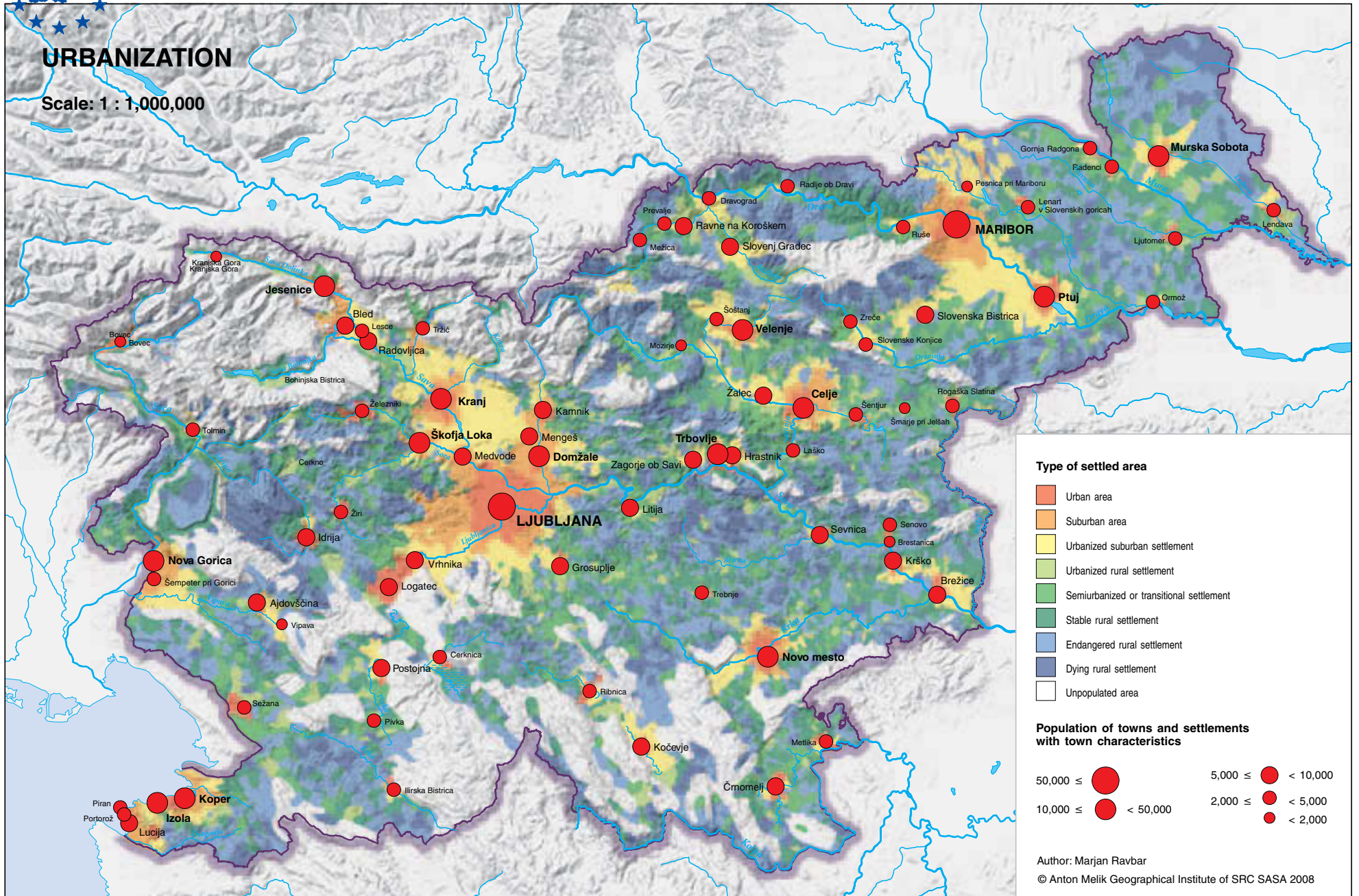








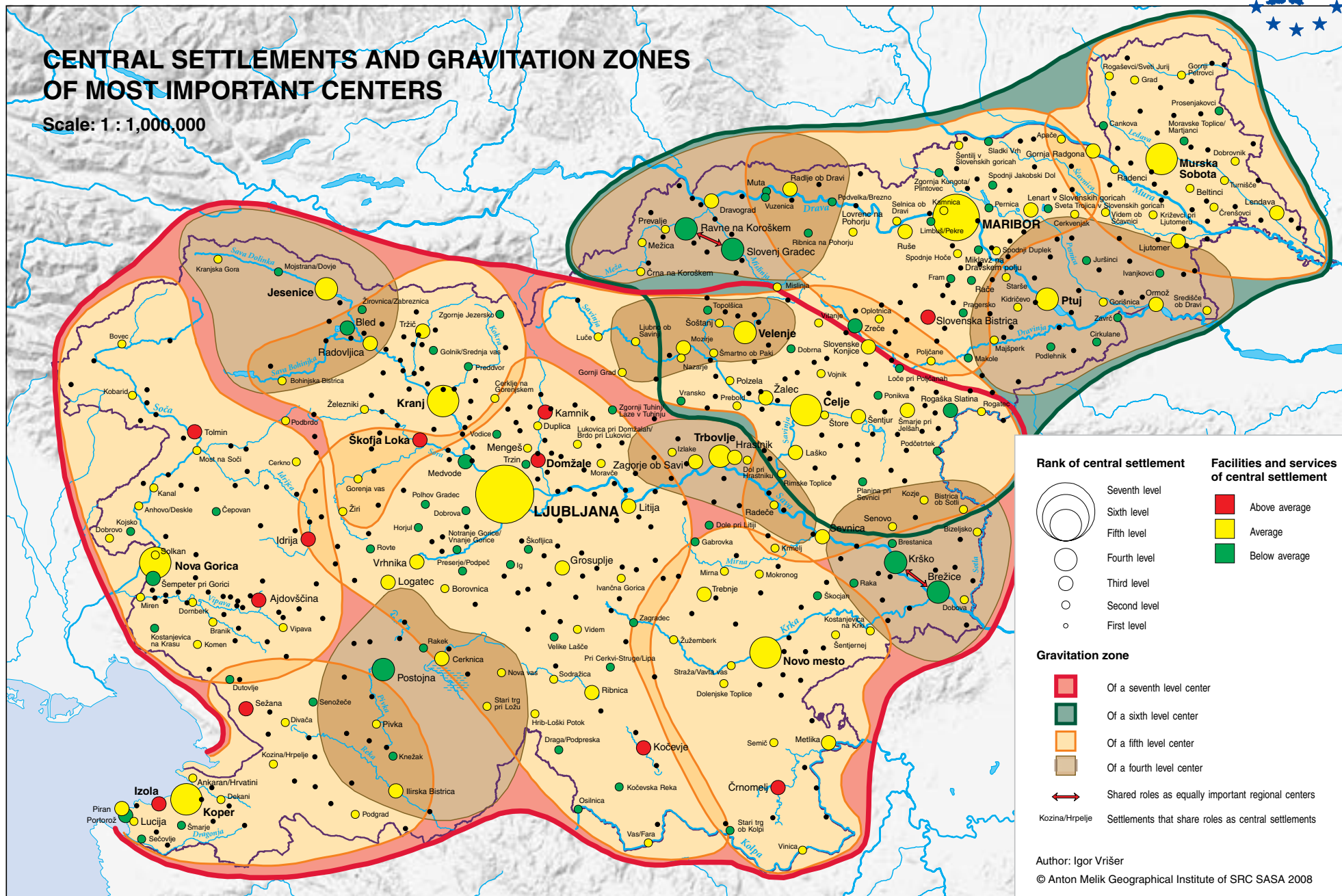






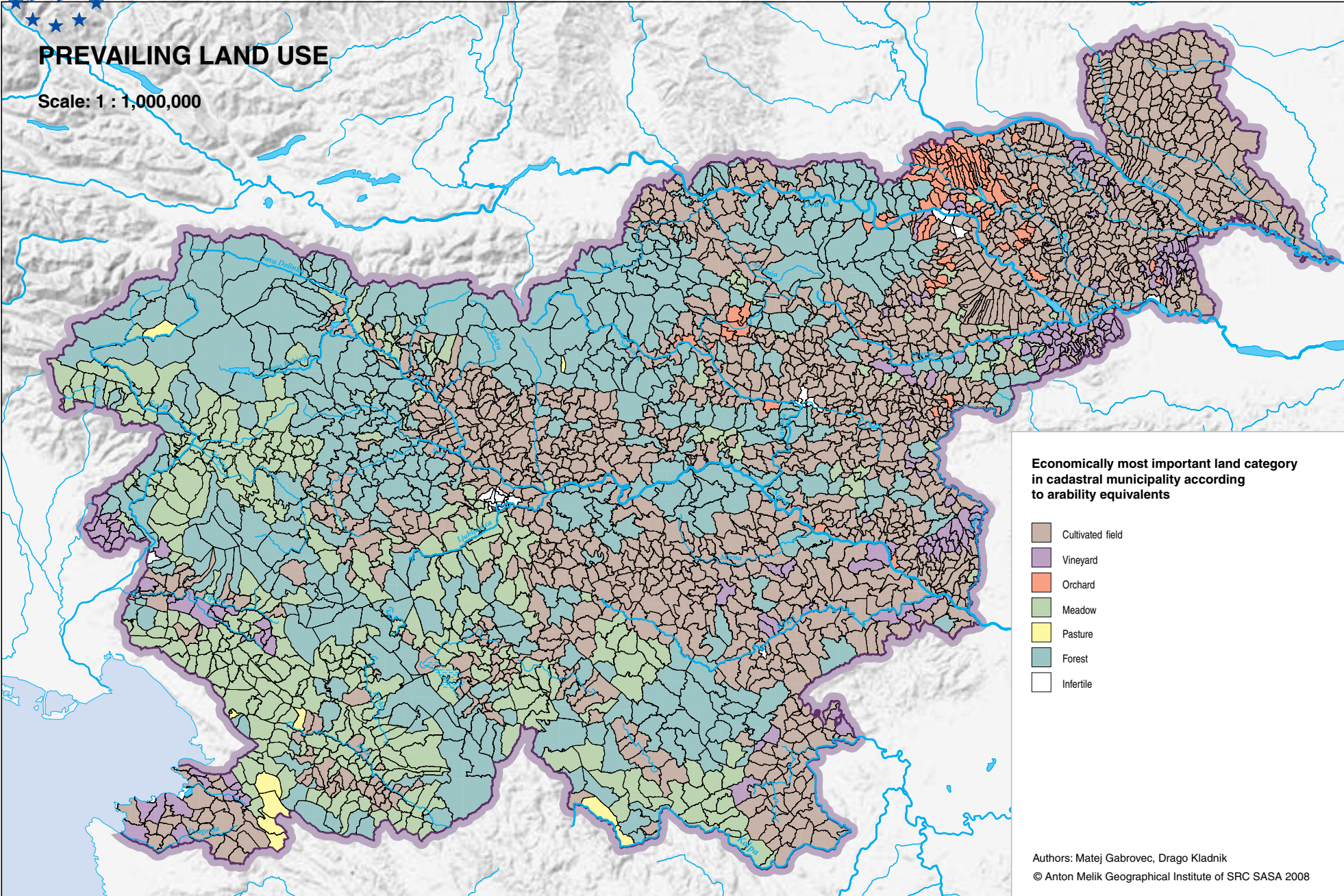
CENTRAL SETTLEMENTS AND GRAVITATION ZONES OF MOST IMPORTANT CENTERS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



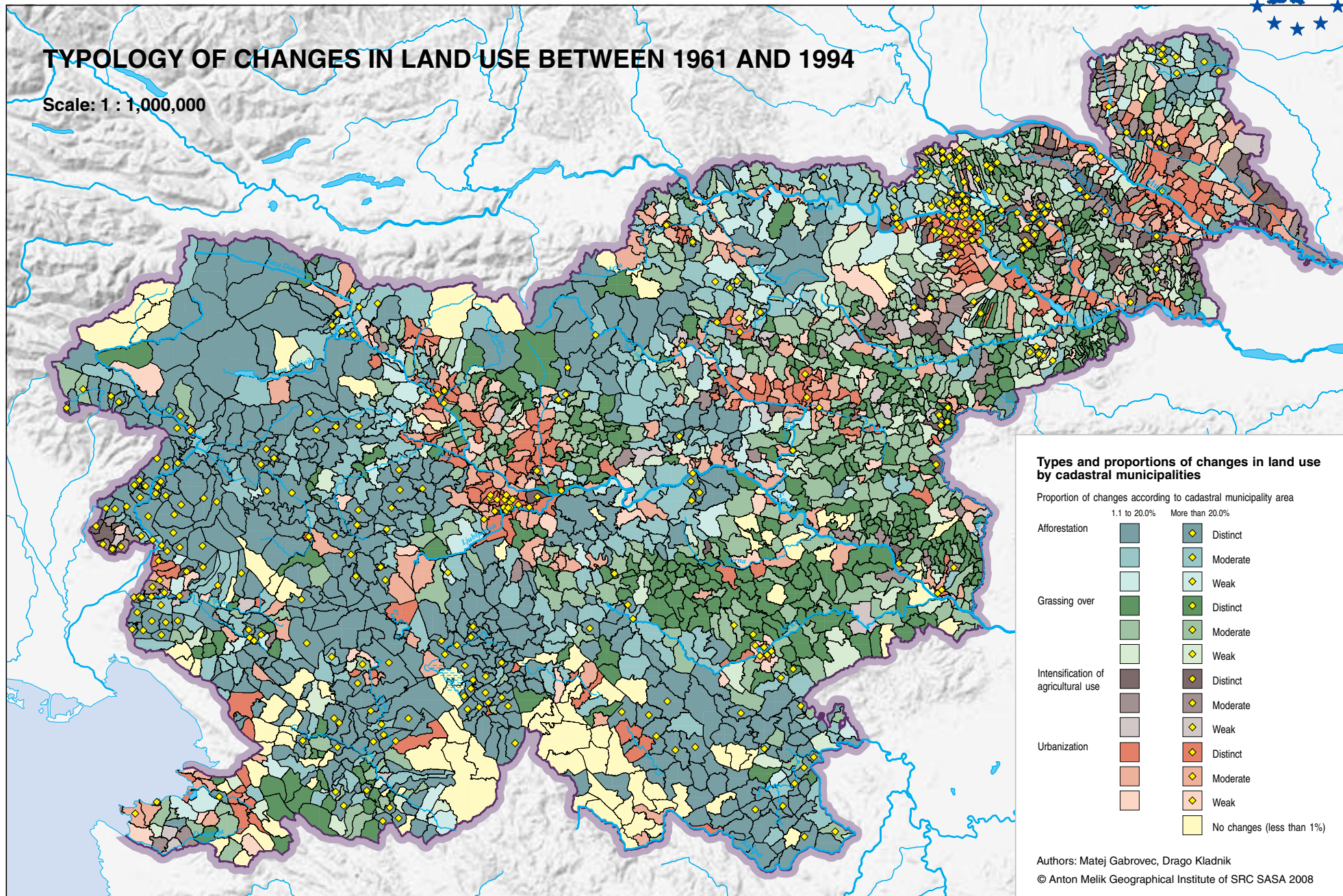
Rank of central settlement	Facilities and services of central settlement		
	Seventh level		Above average
	Sixth level		Average
	Fifth level		Below average
	Fourth level		
	Third level		
	Second level		
	First level		
Gravitation zone			
	Of a seventh level center		
	Of a sixth level center		
	Of a fifth level center		
	Of a fourth level center		
	Shared roles as equally important regional centers		
	Settlements that share roles as central settlements		

Author: Igor Vrišer
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TYOLOGY OF CHANGES IN LAND USE BETWEEN 1961 AND 1994

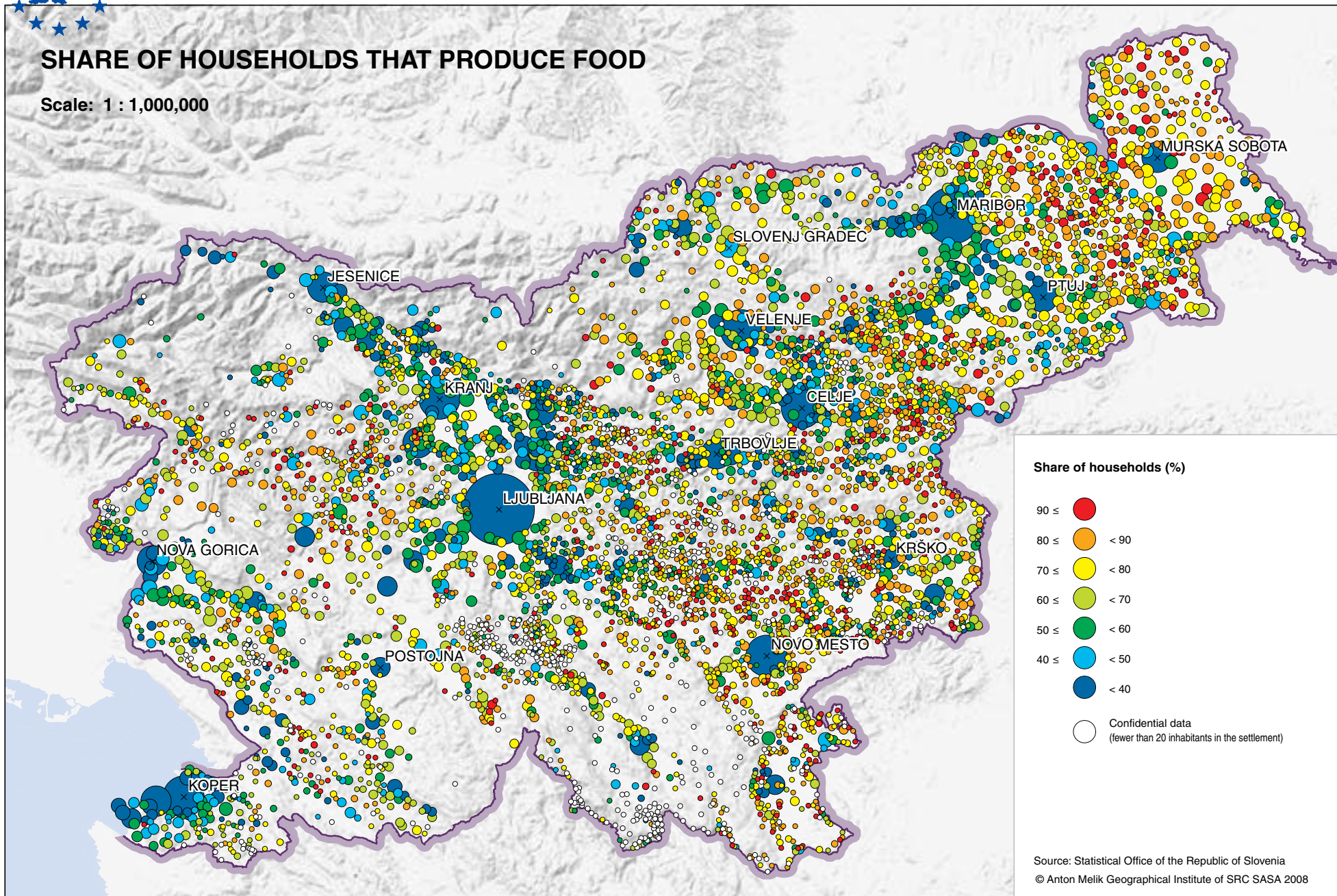
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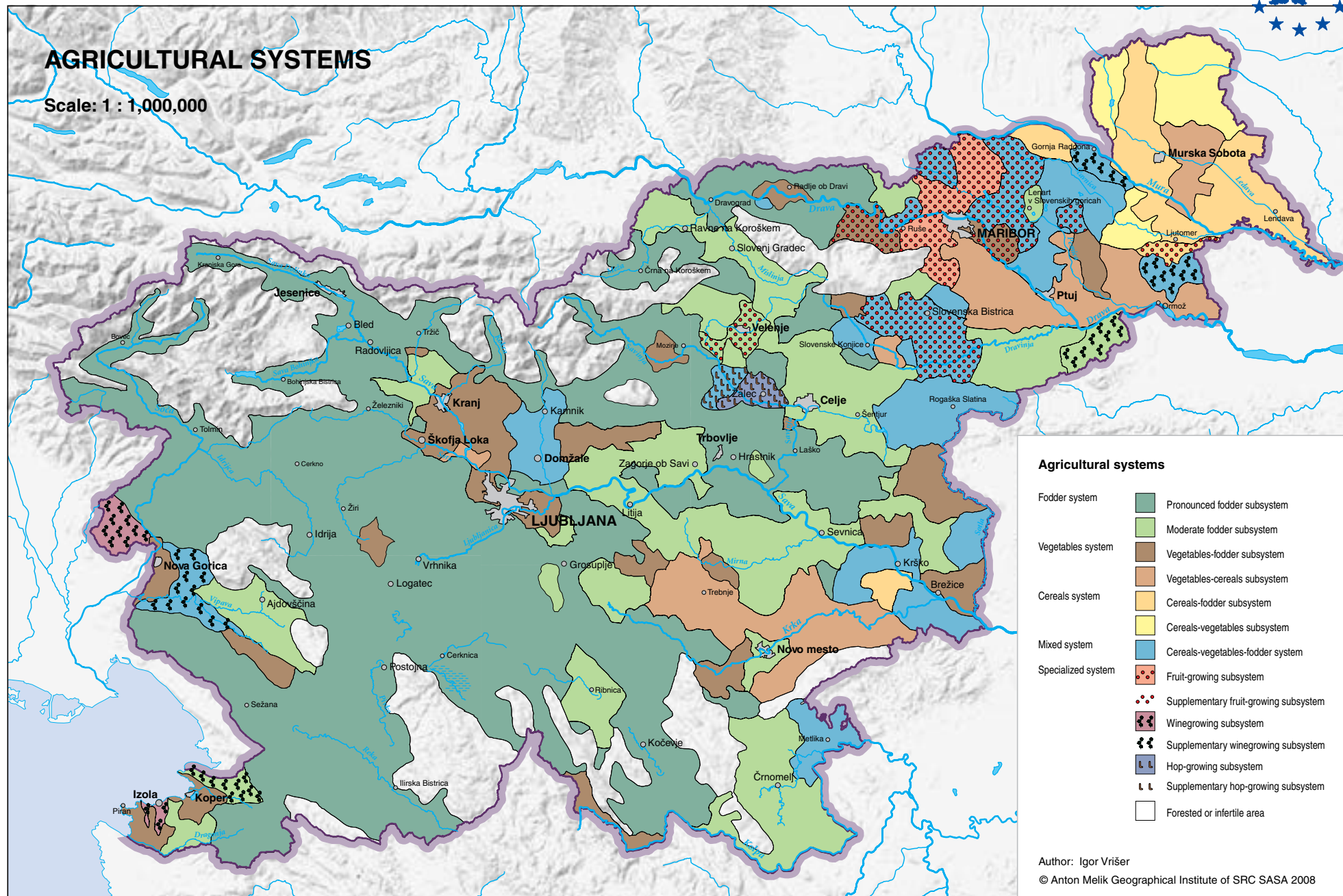




SHARE OF HOUSEHOLDS THAT PRODUCE FOOD

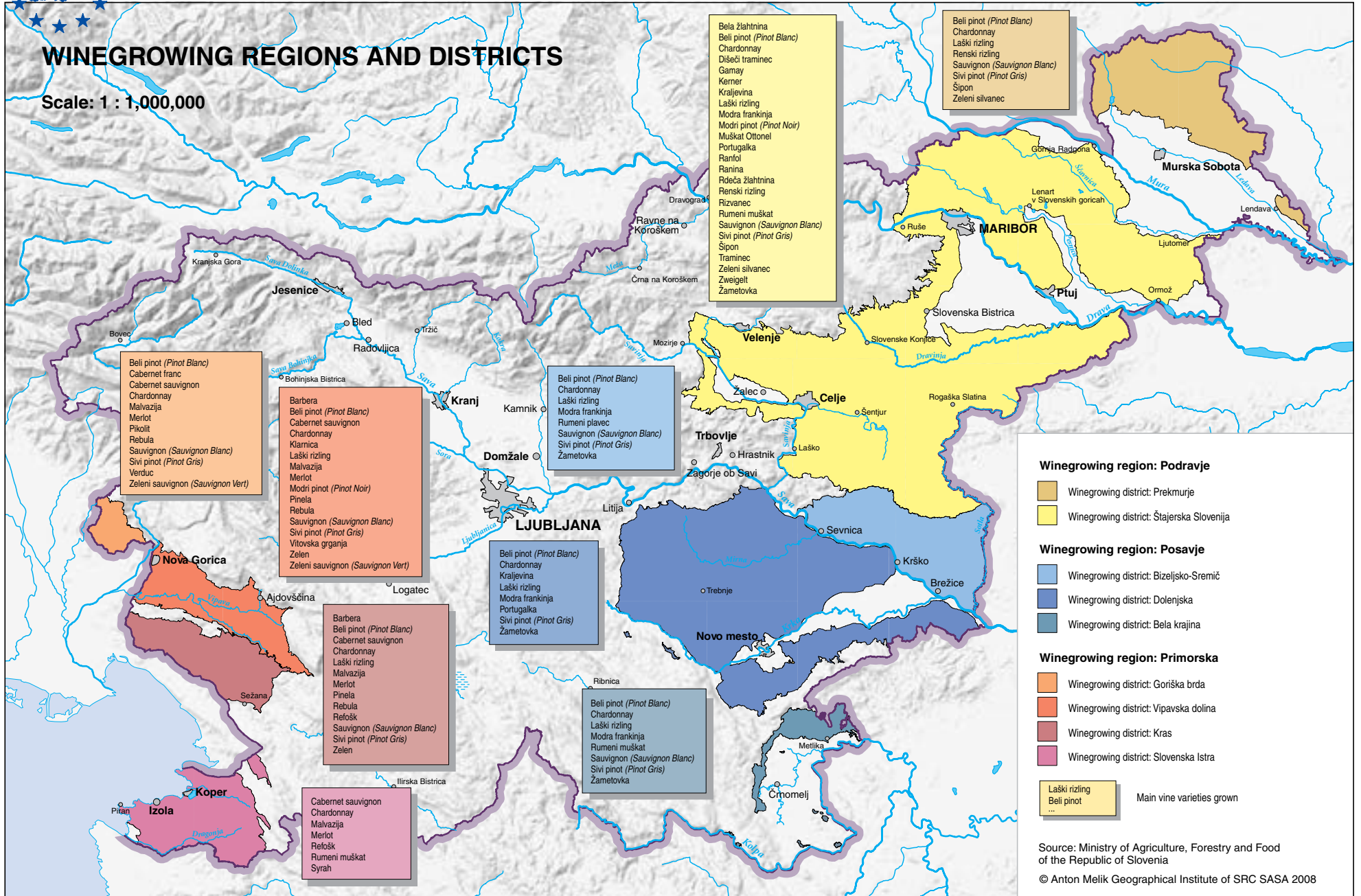
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000





WINEGROWING REGIONS AND DISTRICTS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



Winegrowing region: Podravje

- Winegrowing district: Prekmurje
- Winegrowing district: Štajerska Slovenija

Winegrowing region: Posavje

- Winegrowing district: Bizeljsko-Sremič
- Winegrowing district: Dolenjska
- Winegrowing district: Bela krajina

Winegrowing region: Primorska

- Winegrowing district: Goriška brda
- Winegrowing district: Vipavska dolina
- Winegrowing district: Kras
- Winegrowing district: Slovenska Istra

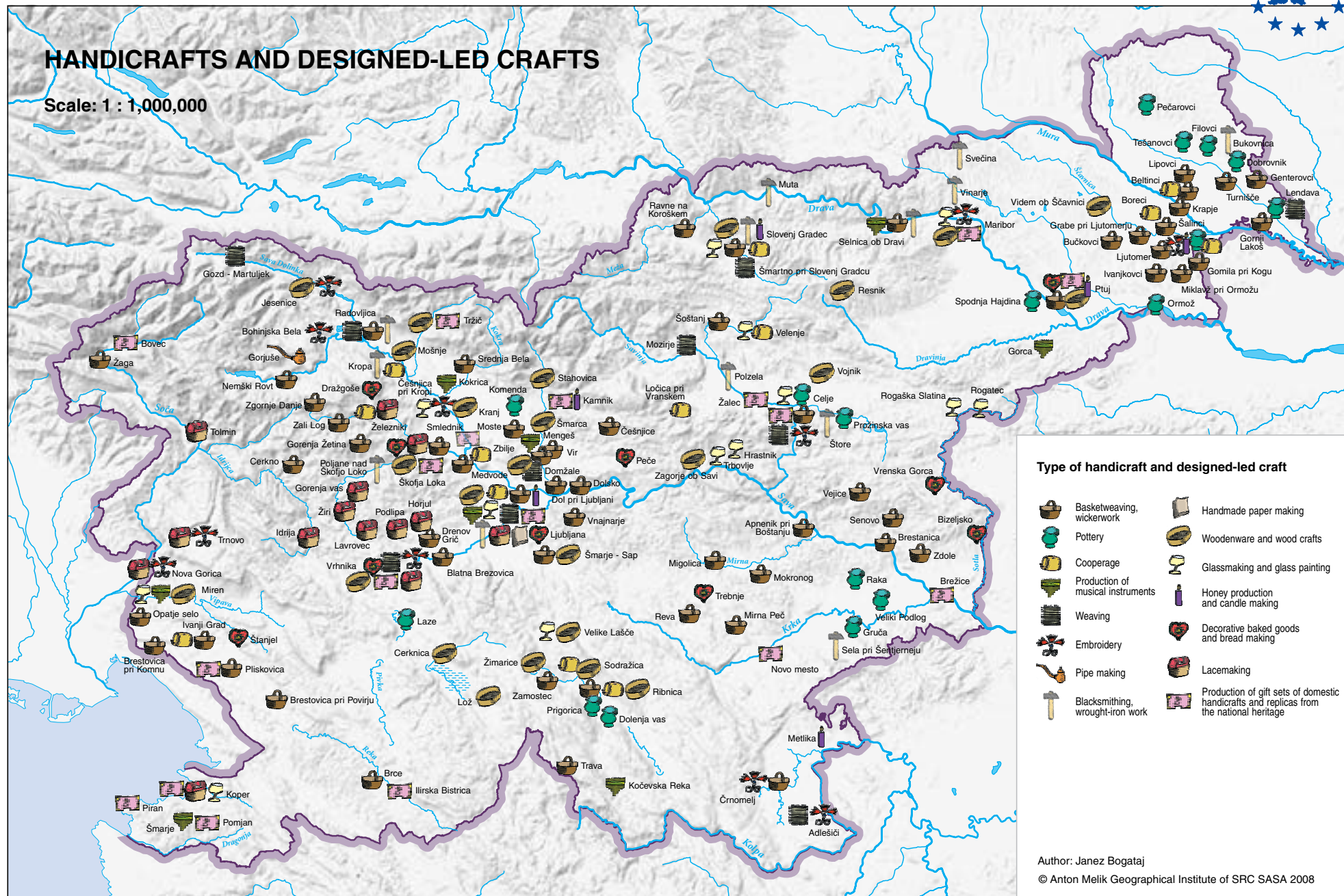
Laški rizling
Beli pinot
... Main vine varieties grown

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Food of the Republic of Slovenia
© Anton Melik Geographical Institute of SRC SASA 2008



HANDICRAFTS AND DESIGNED-LED CRAFTS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



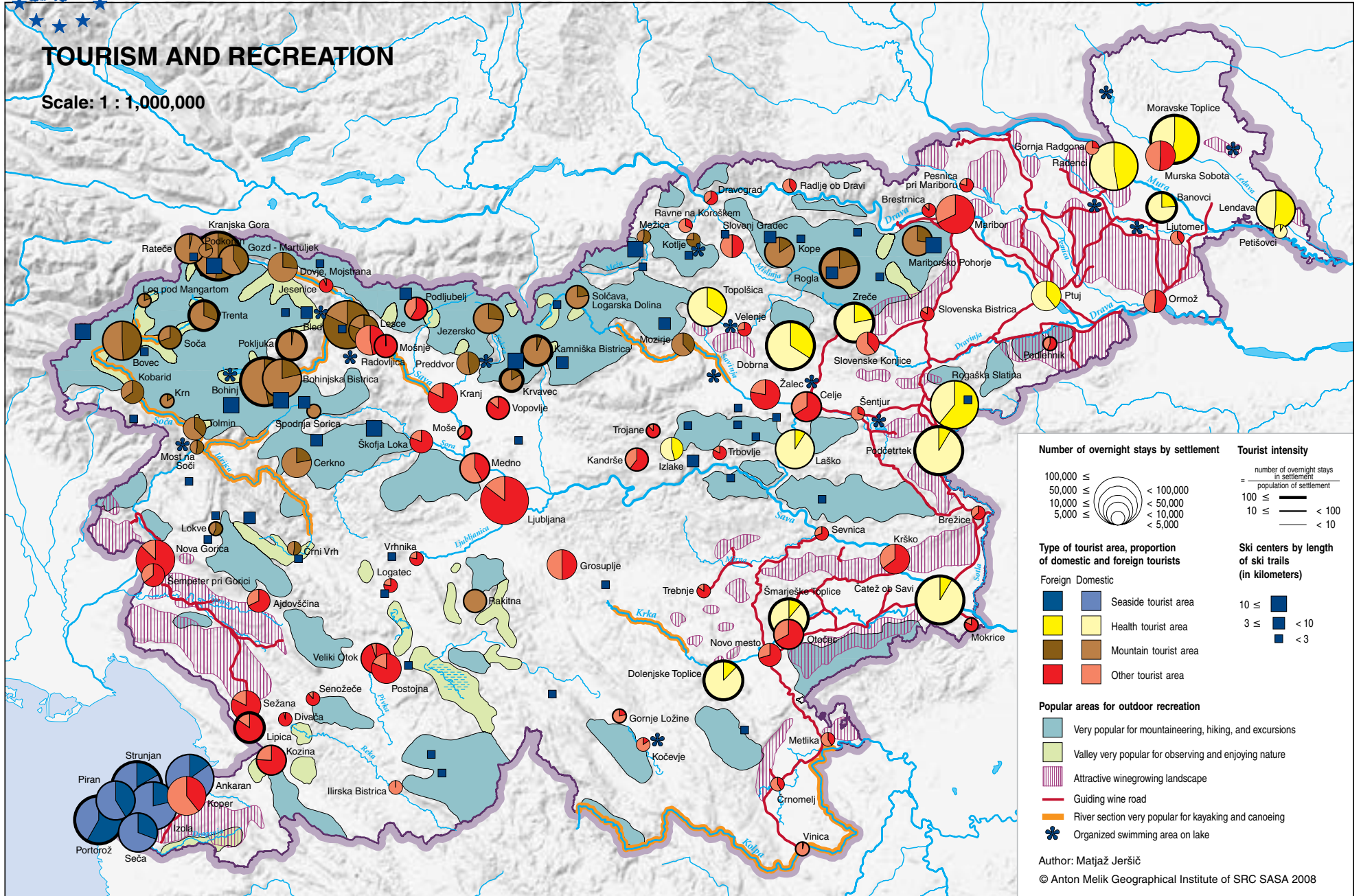
Type of handicraft and designed-led craft

	Basketweaving, wickerwork		Handmade paper making
	Pottery		Woodenware and wood crafts
	Cooperage		Glassmaking and glass painting
	Production of musical instruments		Honey production and candle making
	Weaving		Decorative baked goods and bread making
	Embroidery		Lacemaking
	Pipe making		Production of gift sets of domestic handicrafts and replicas from the national heritage
	Blacksmithing, wrought-iron work		

Author: Janez Bogataj
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TOURISM AND RECREATION

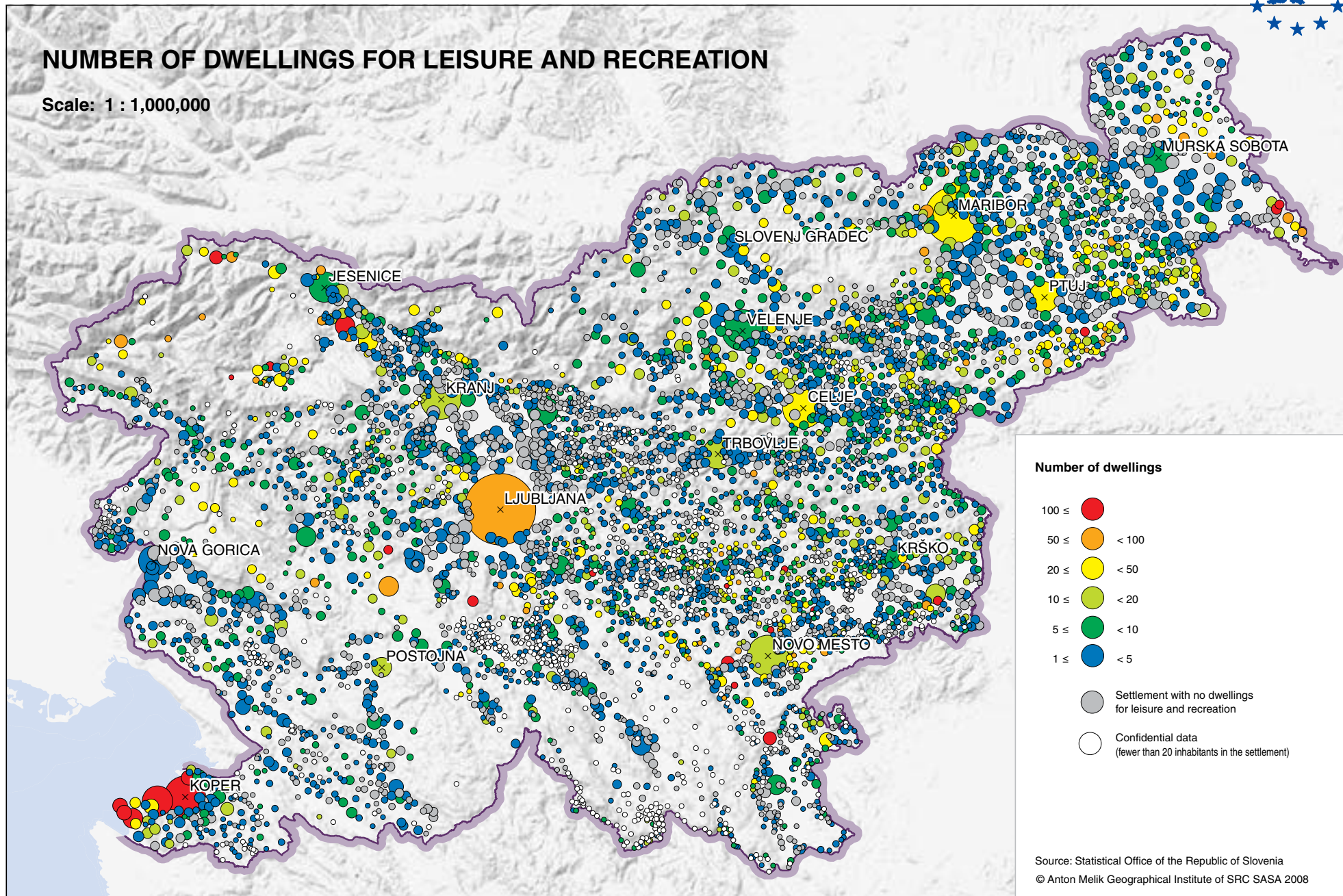
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NUMBER OF DWELLINGS FOR LEISURE AND RECREATION

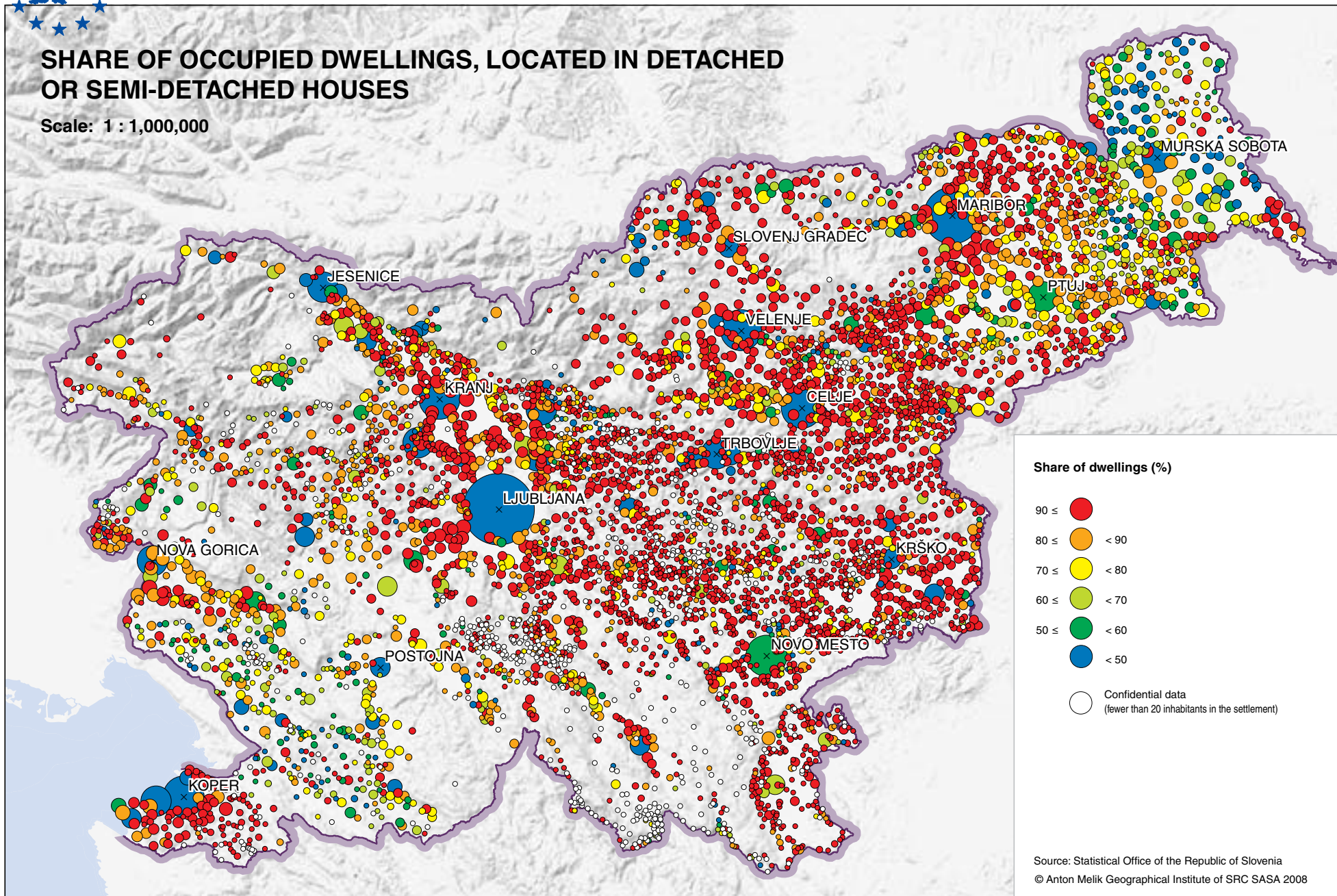
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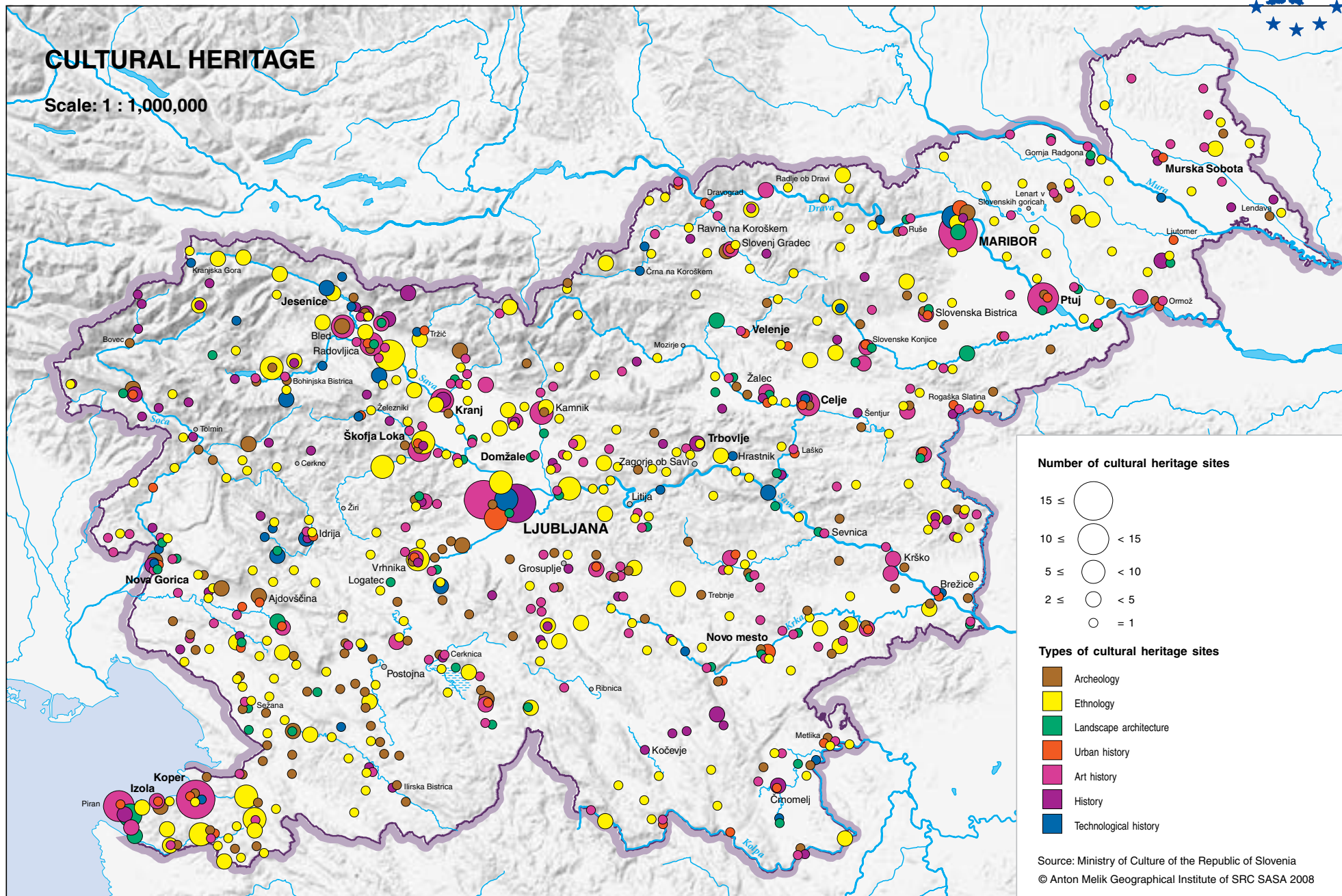


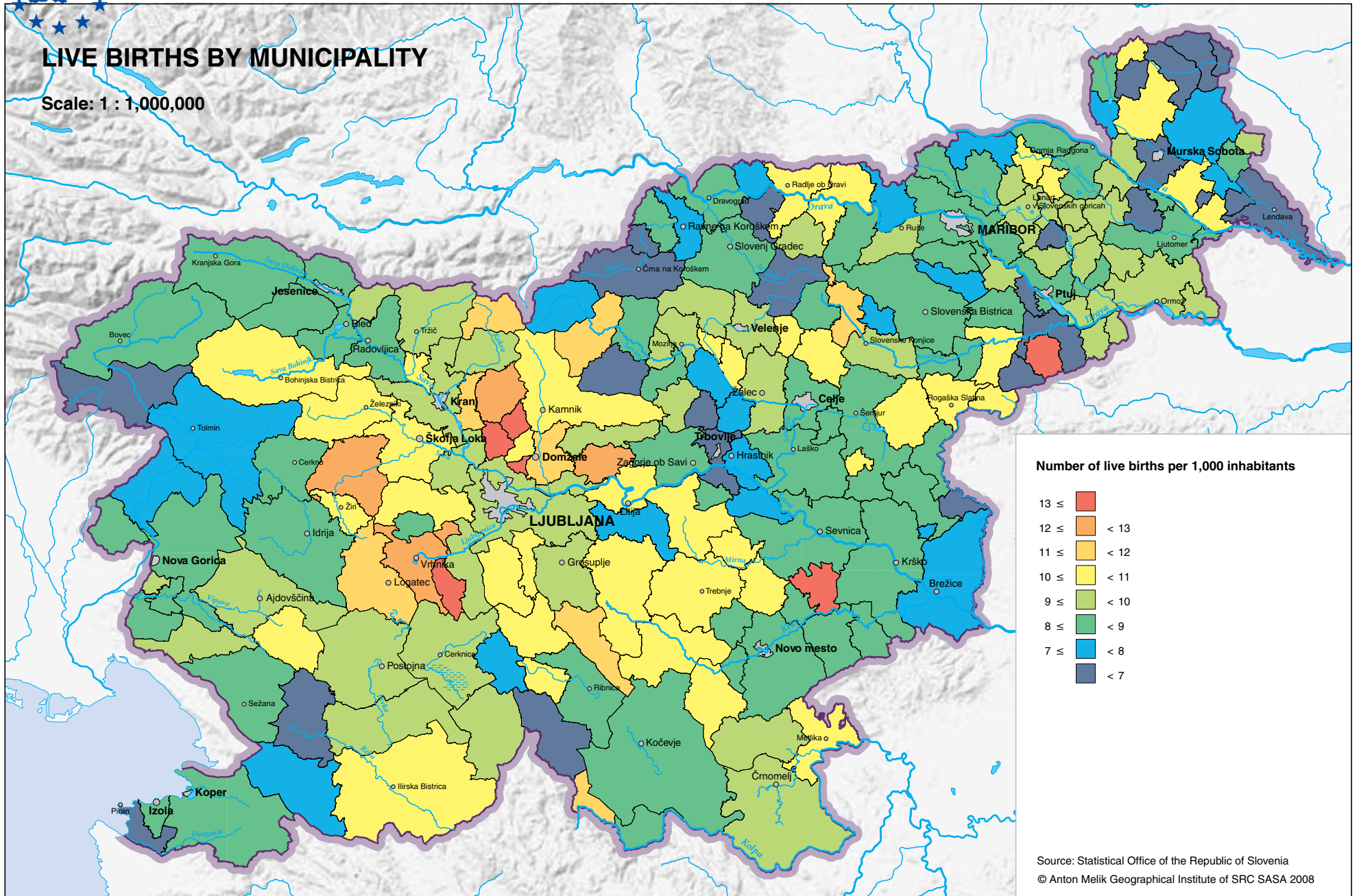


SHARE OF OCCUPIED DWELLINGS, LOCATED IN DETACHED OR SEMI-DETACHED HOUSES

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



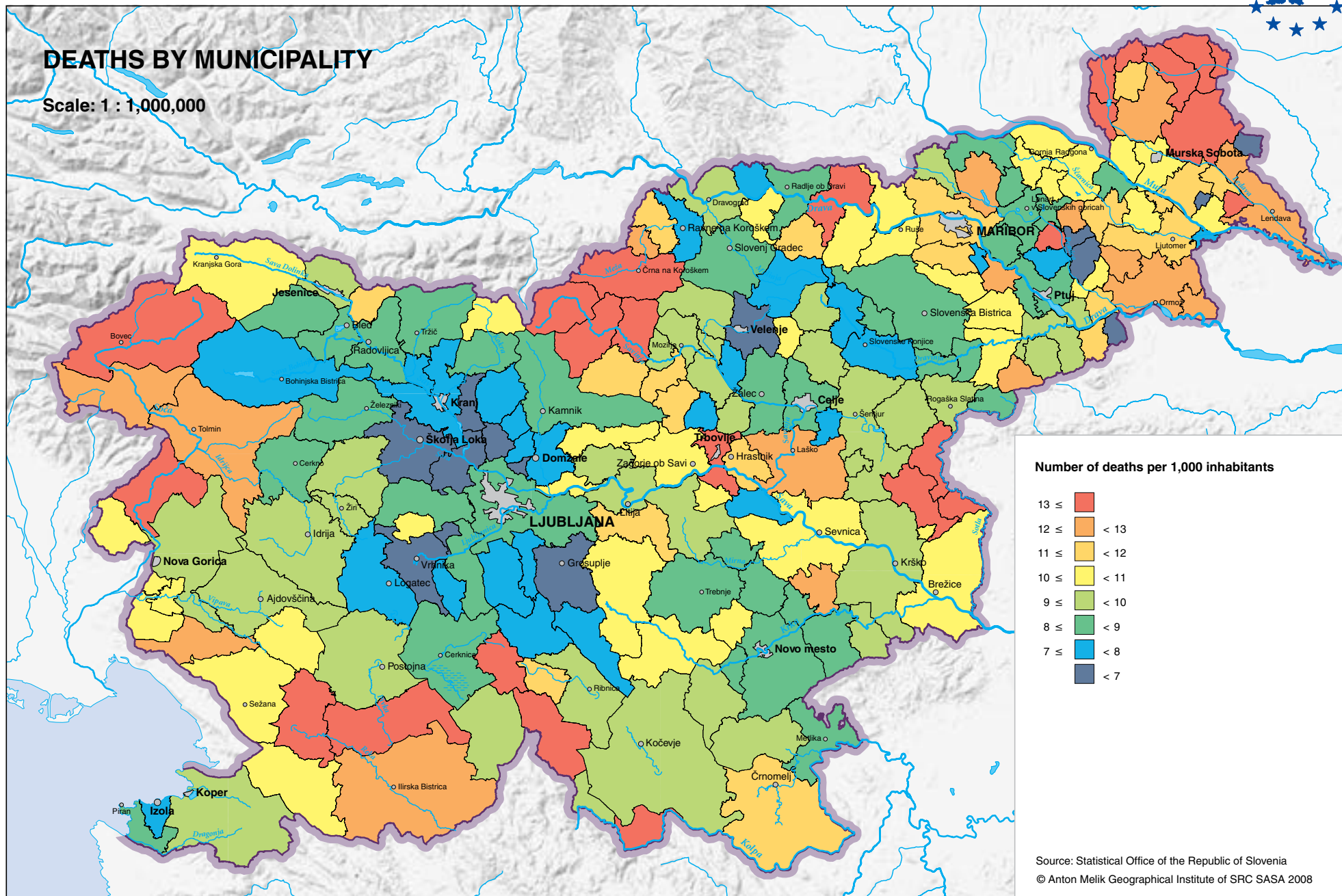


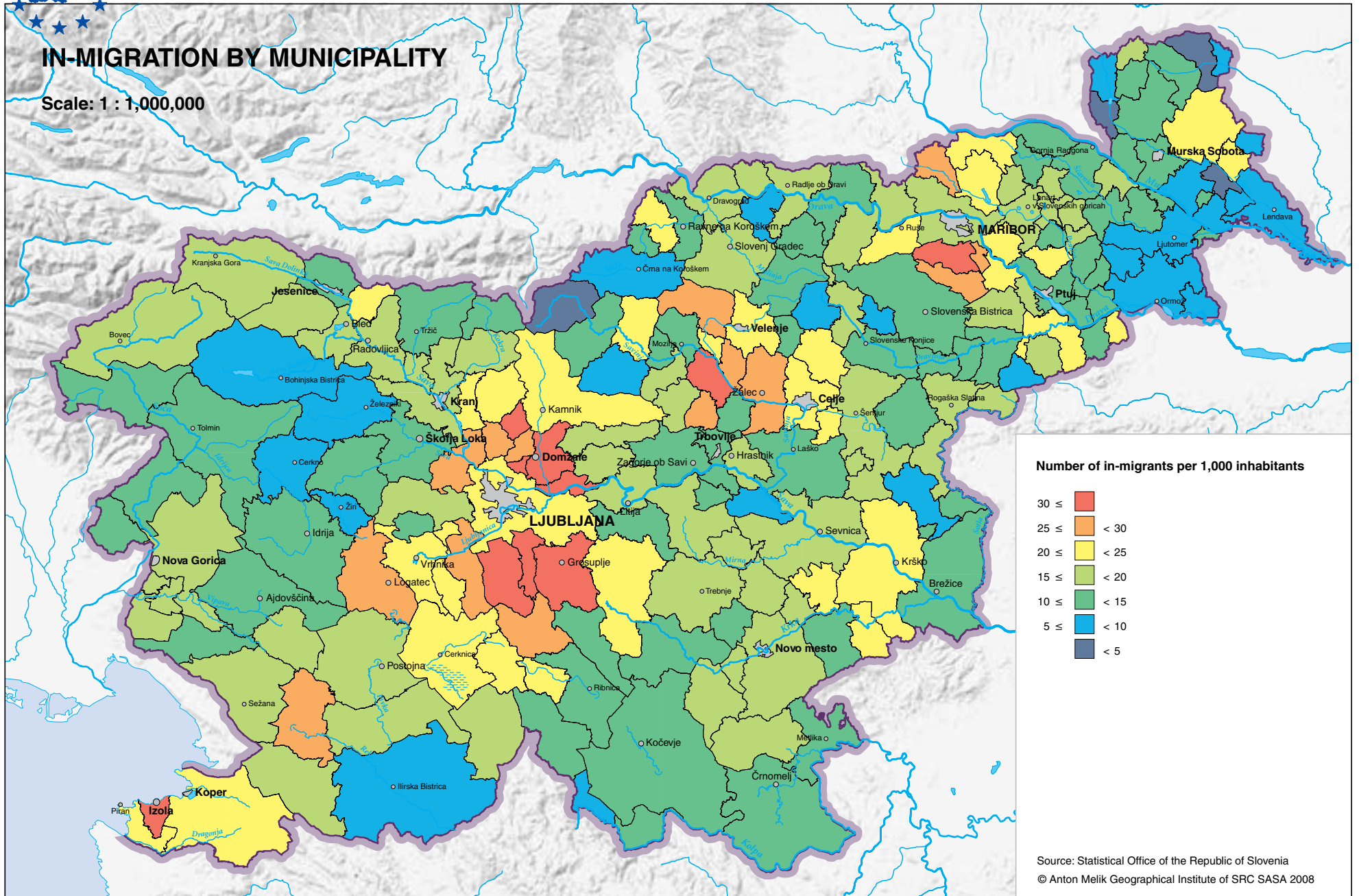




DEATHS BY MUNICIPALITY

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000

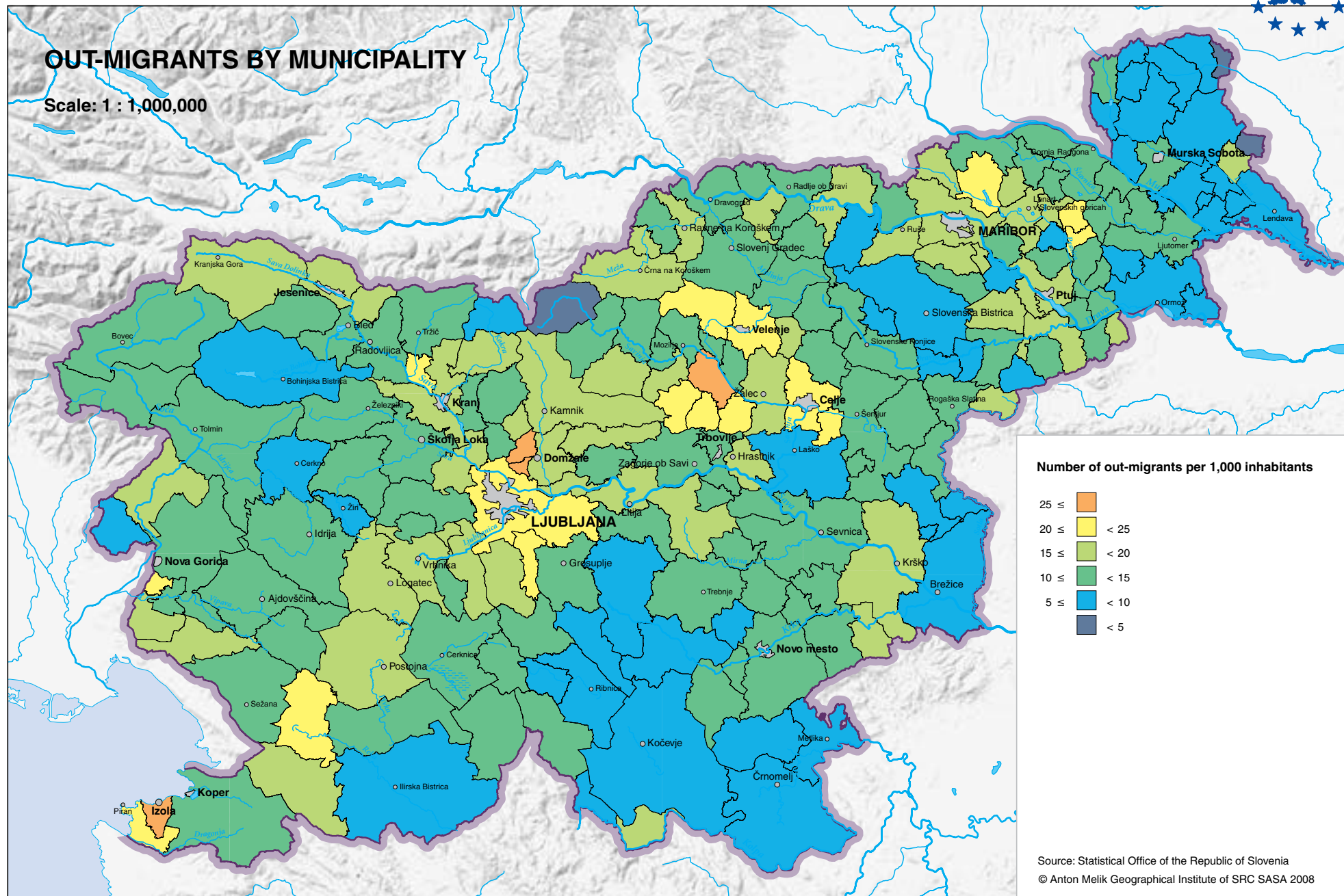






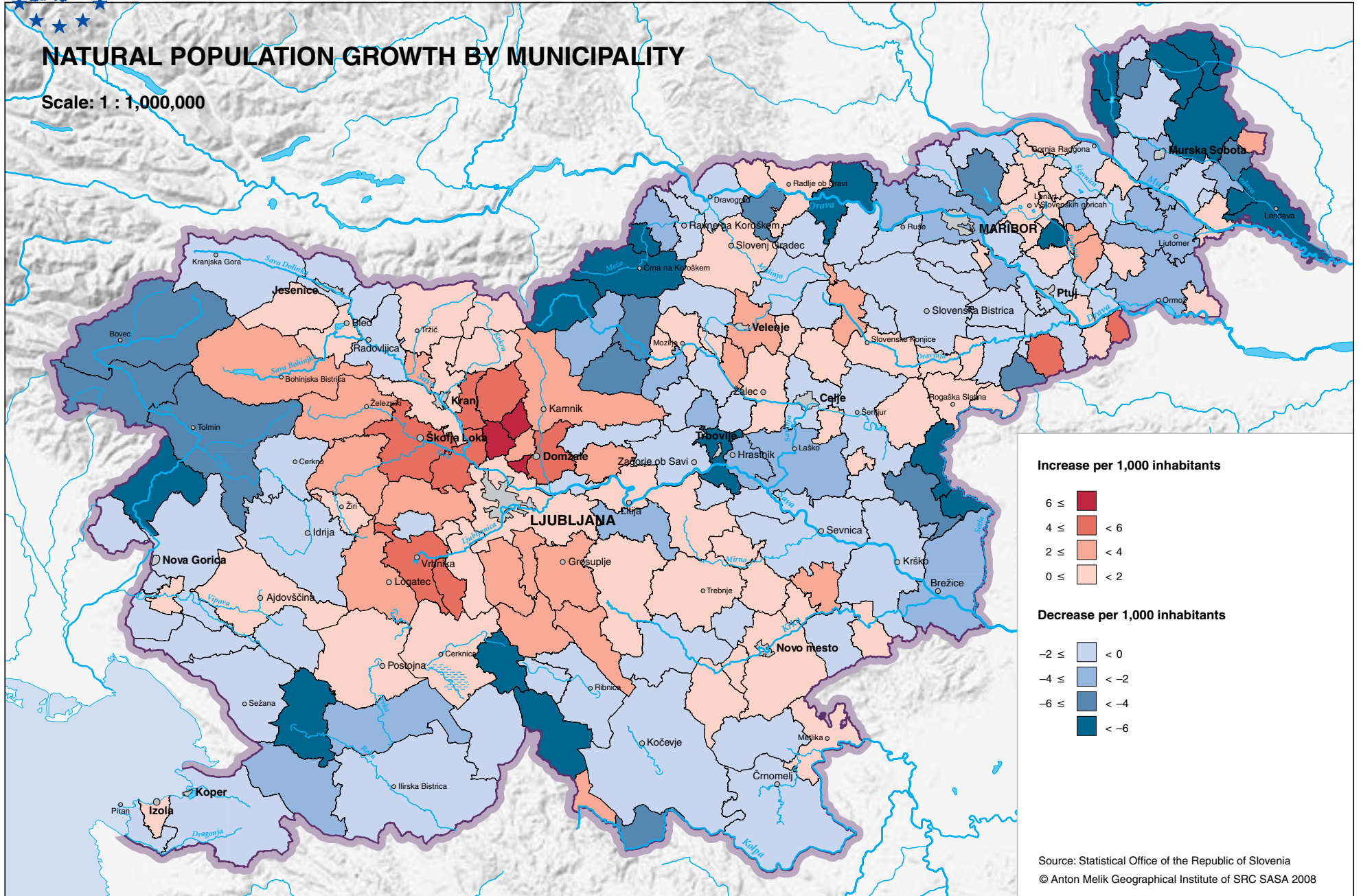
OUT-MIGRANTS BY MUNICIPALITY

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



NATURAL POPULATION GROWTH BY MUNICIPALITY

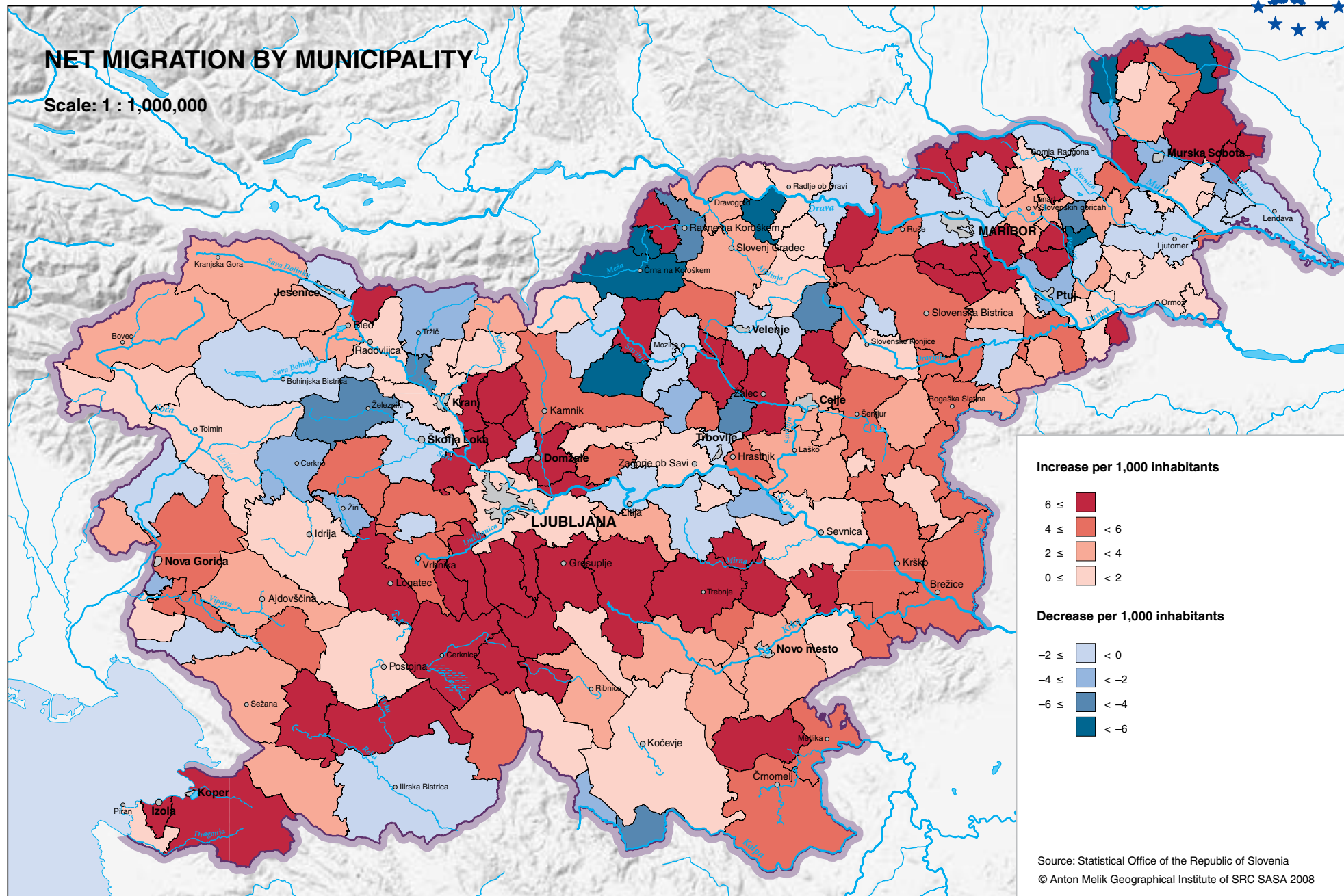
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NET MIGRATION BY MUNICIPALITY

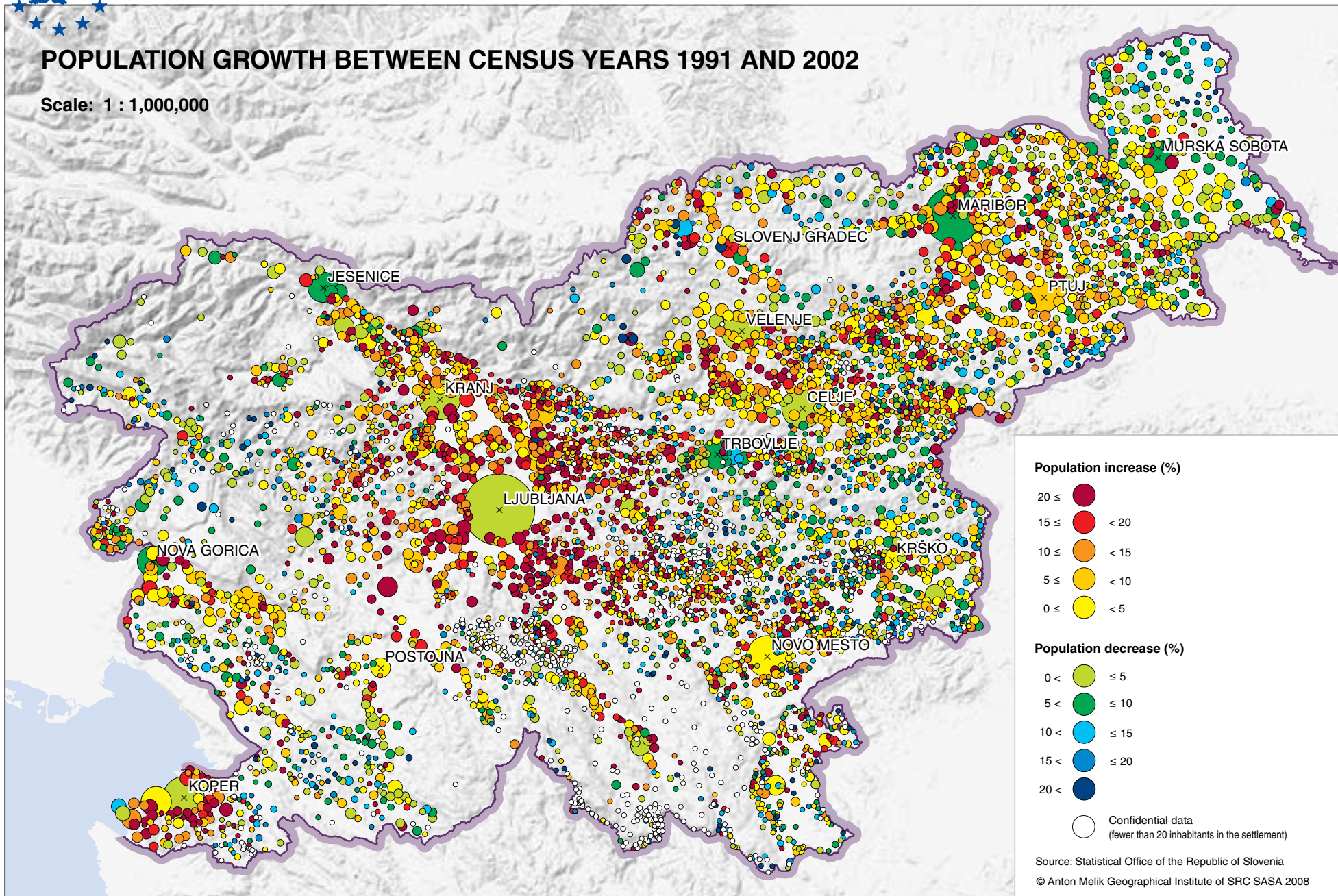
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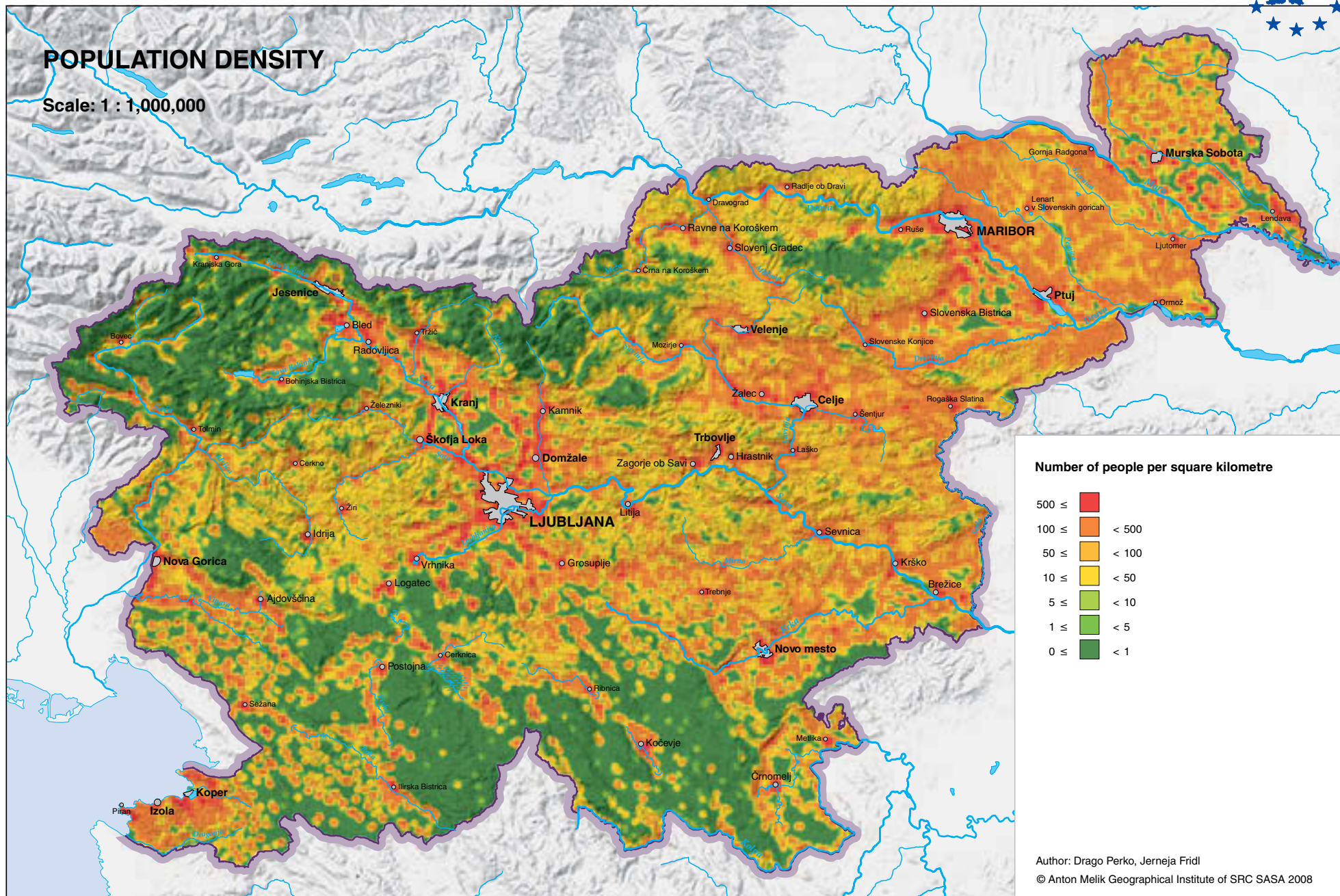




POPULATION GROWTH BETWEEN CENSUS YEARS 1991 AND 2002

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000

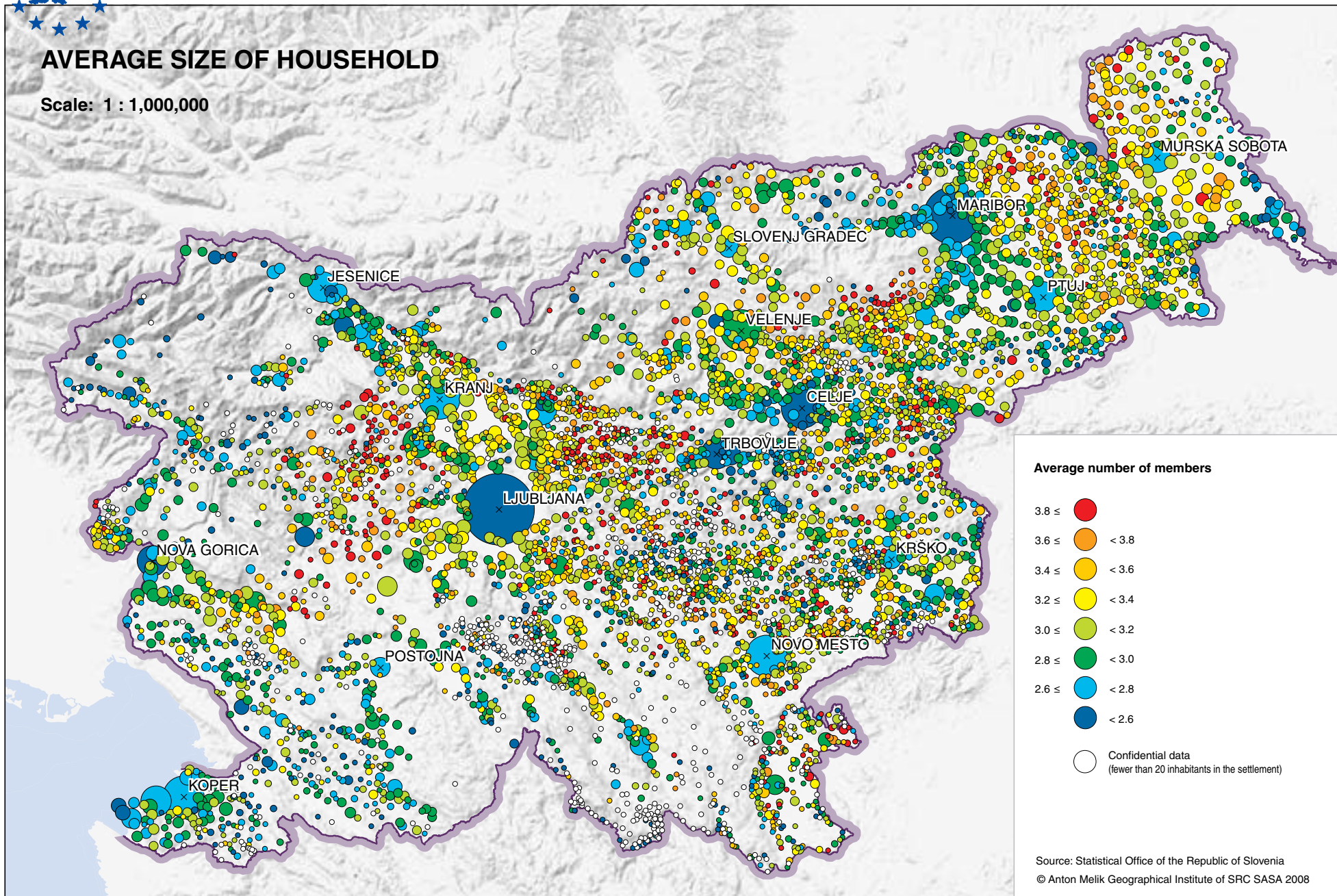






AVERAGE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD

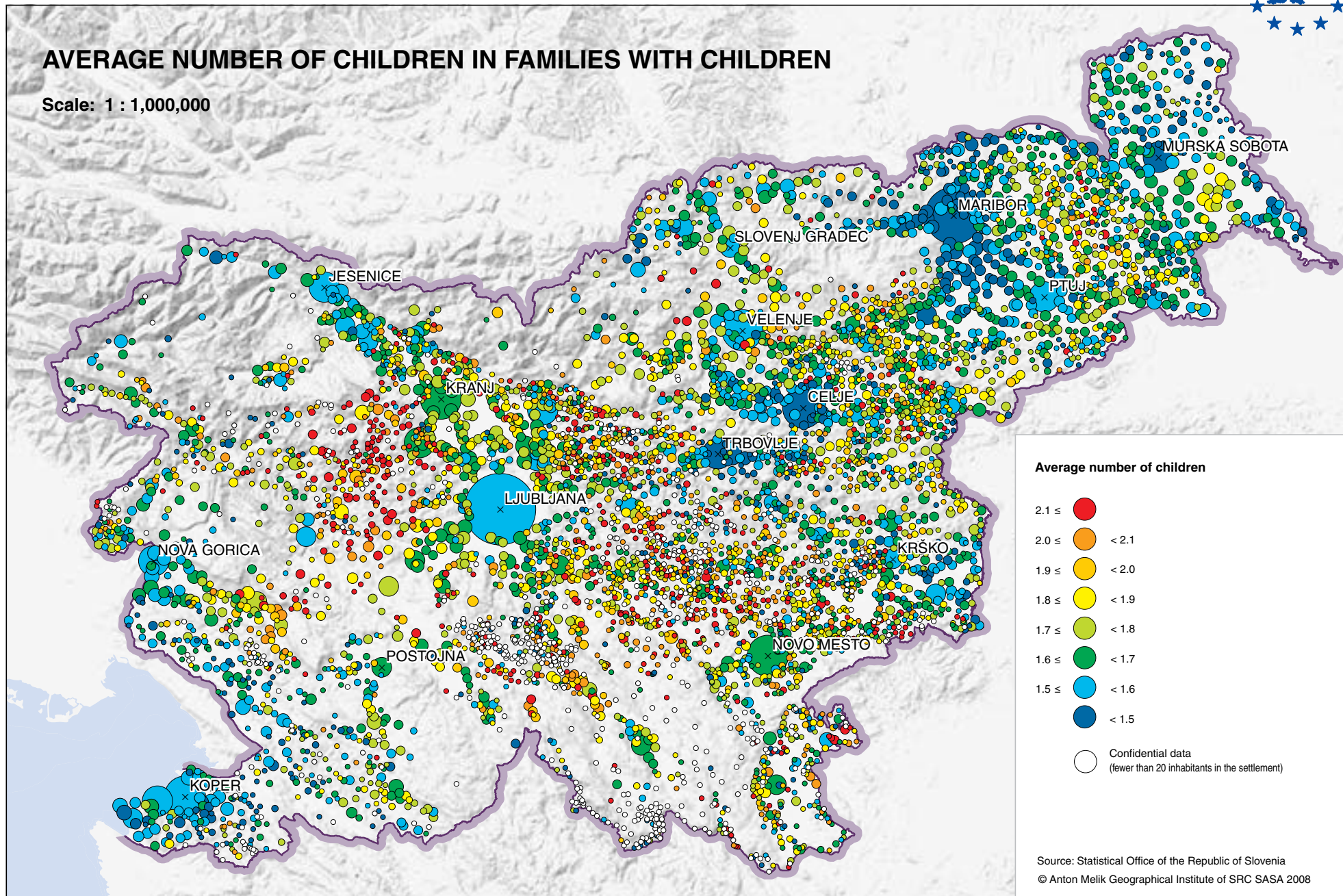
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000





AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN

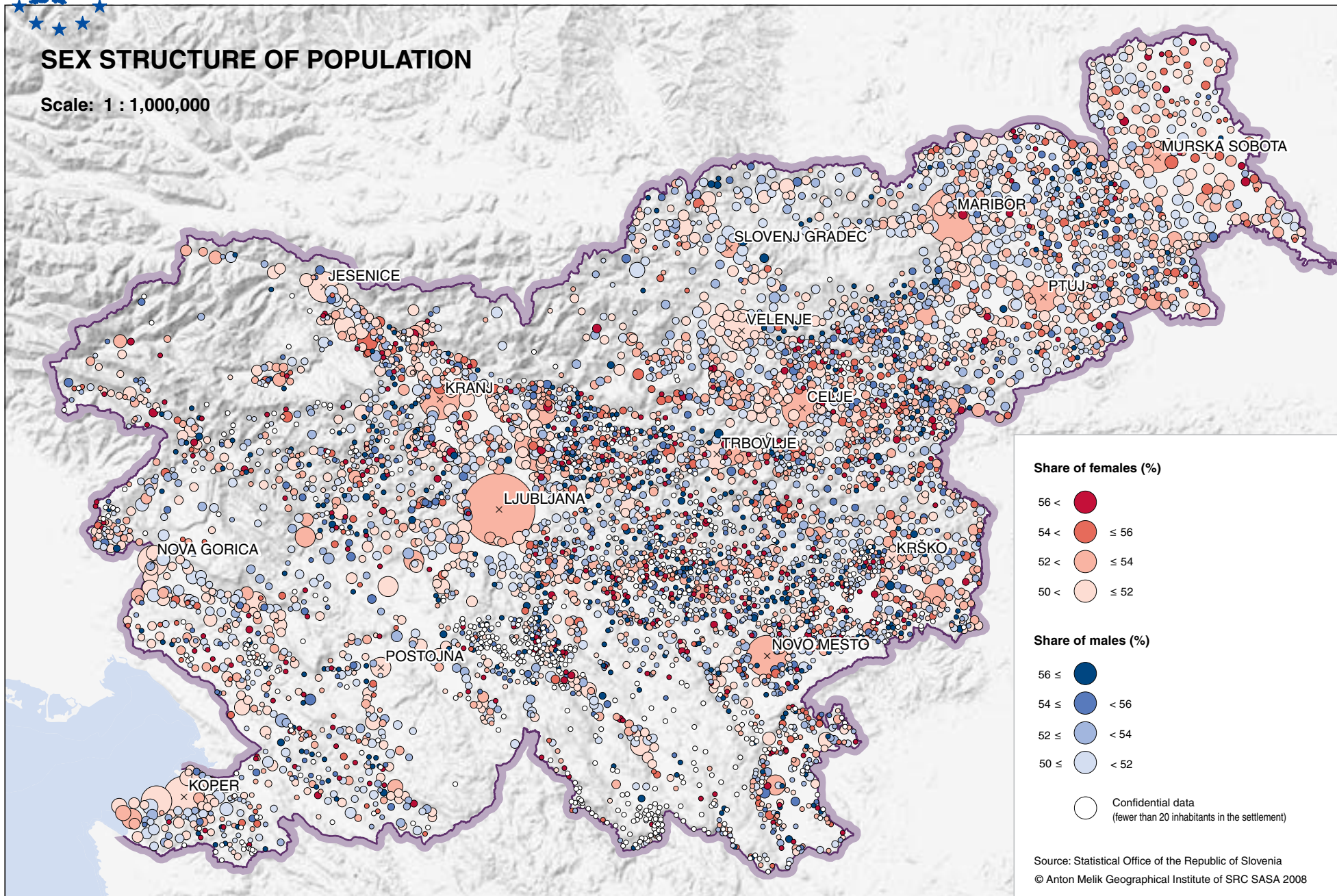
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SEX STRUCTURE OF POPULATION

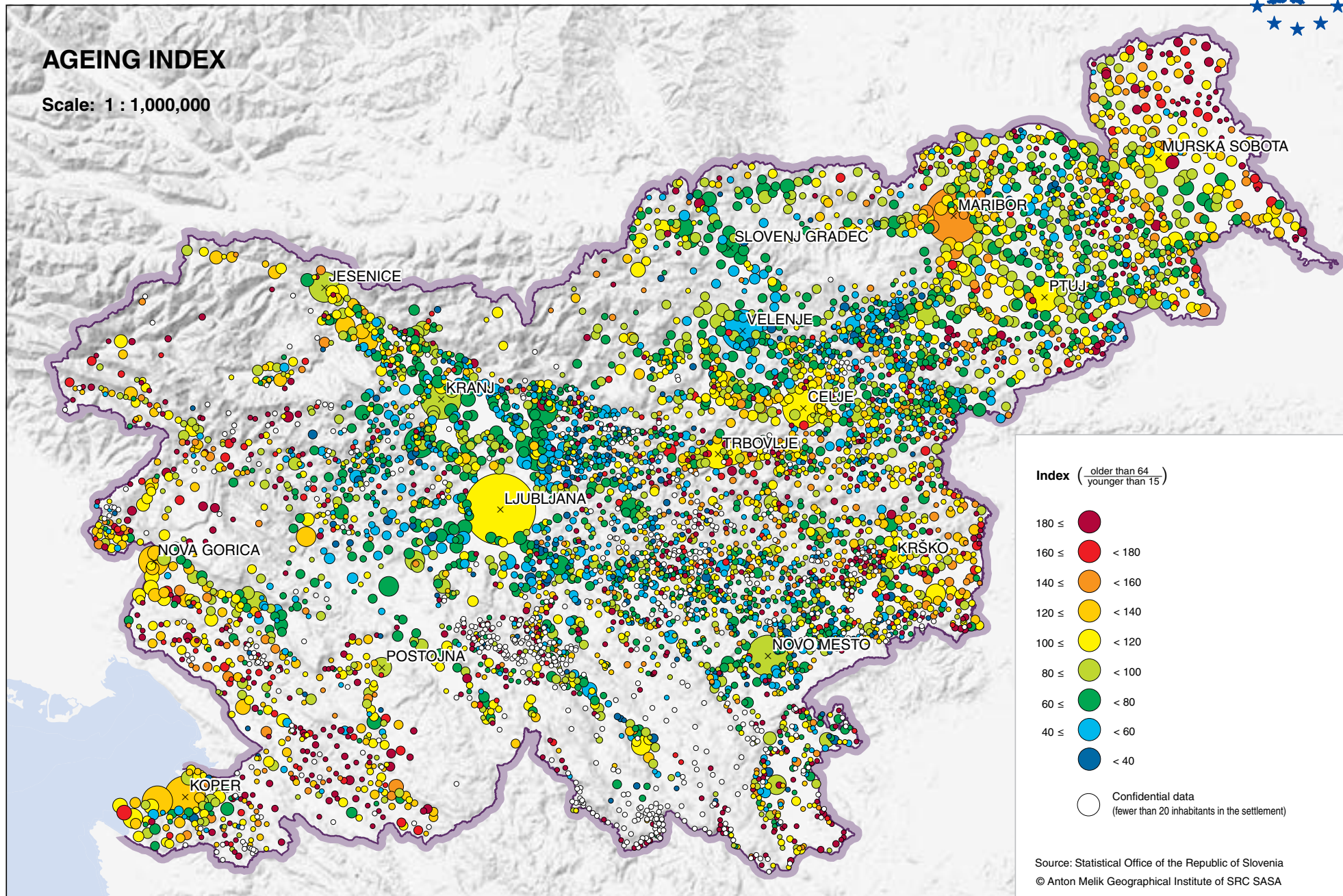
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AGEING INDEX

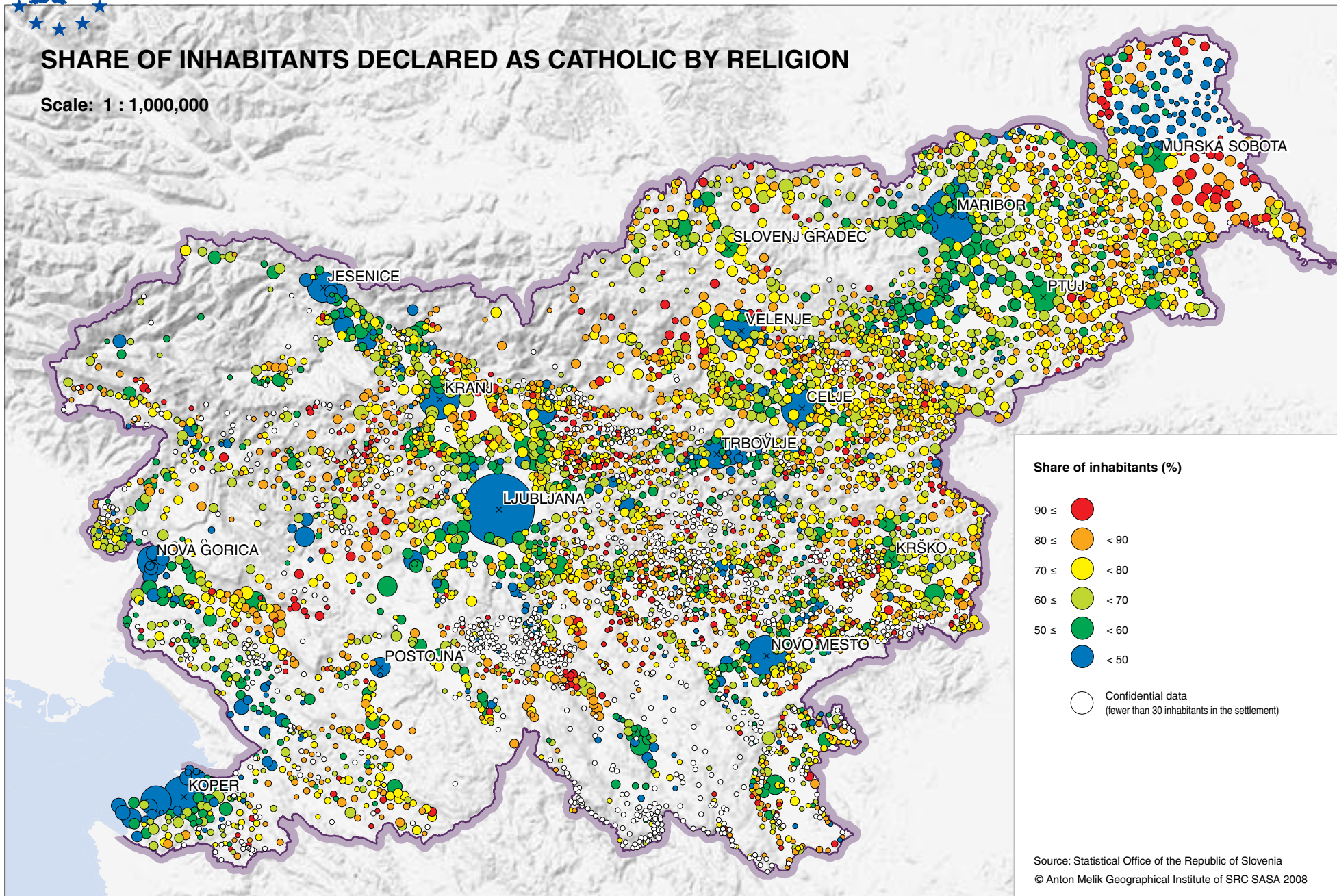
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SHARE OF INHABITANTS DECLARED AS CATHOLIC BY RELIGION

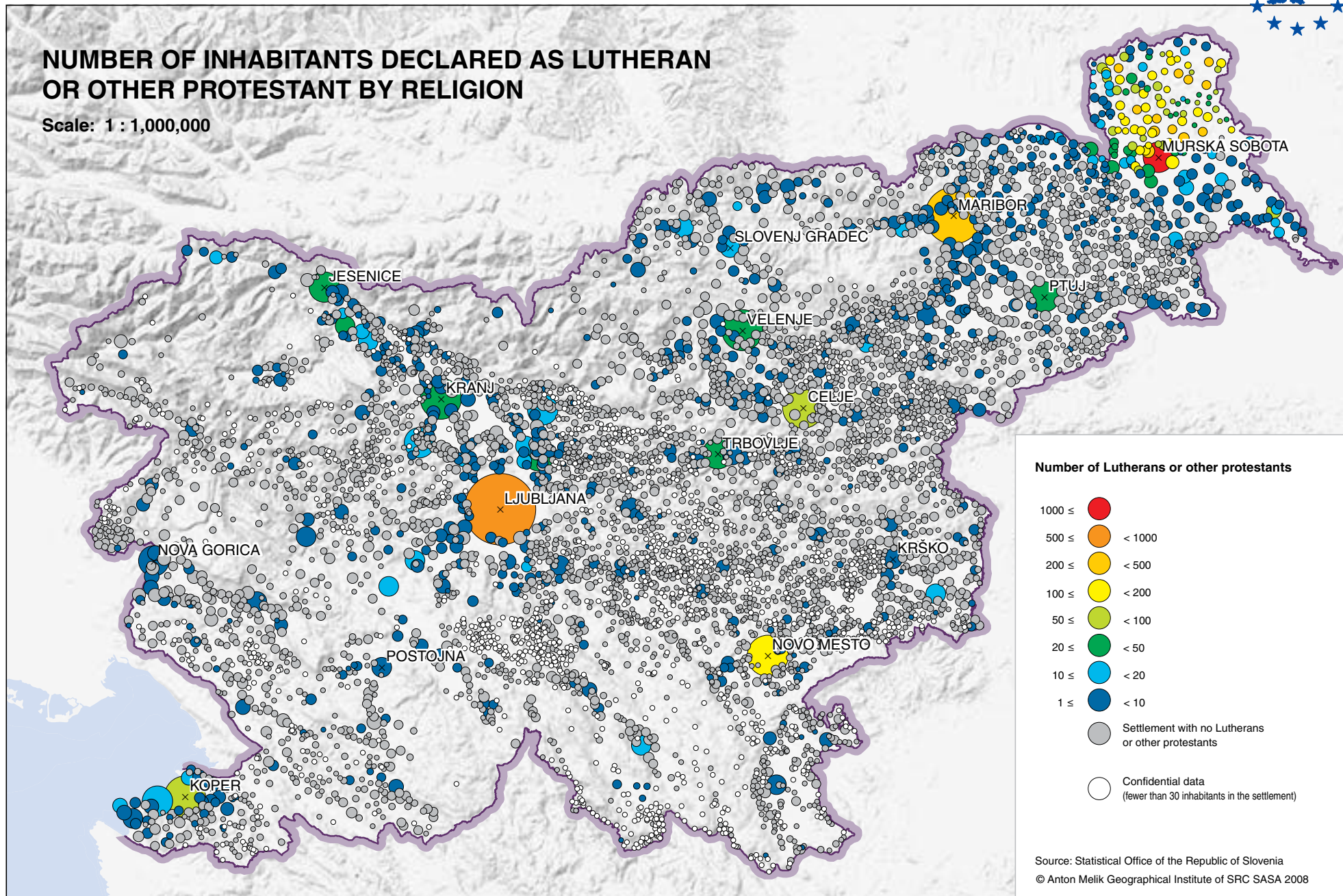
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NUMBER OF INHABITANTS DECLARED AS LUTHERAN OR OTHER PROTESTANT BY RELIGION

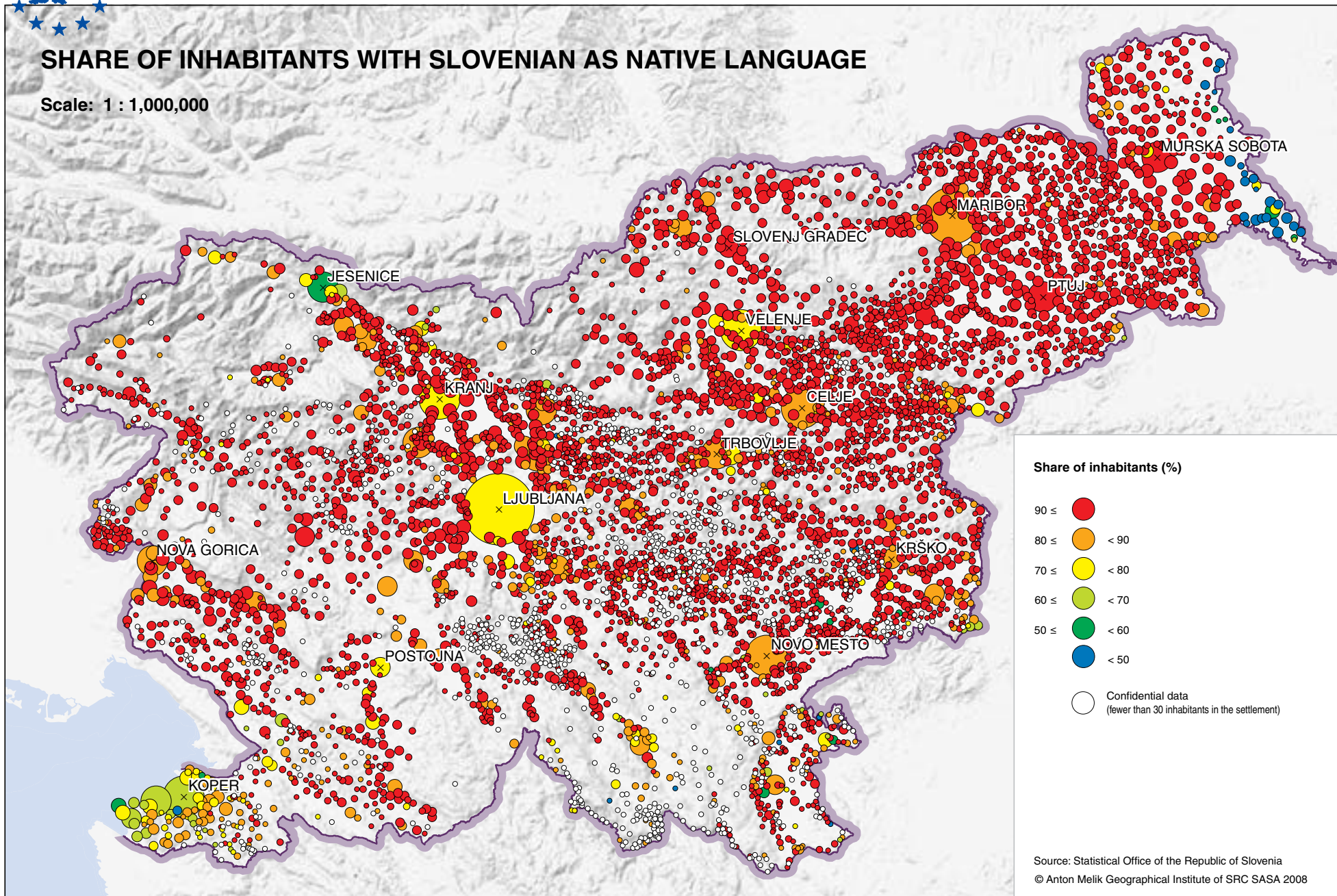
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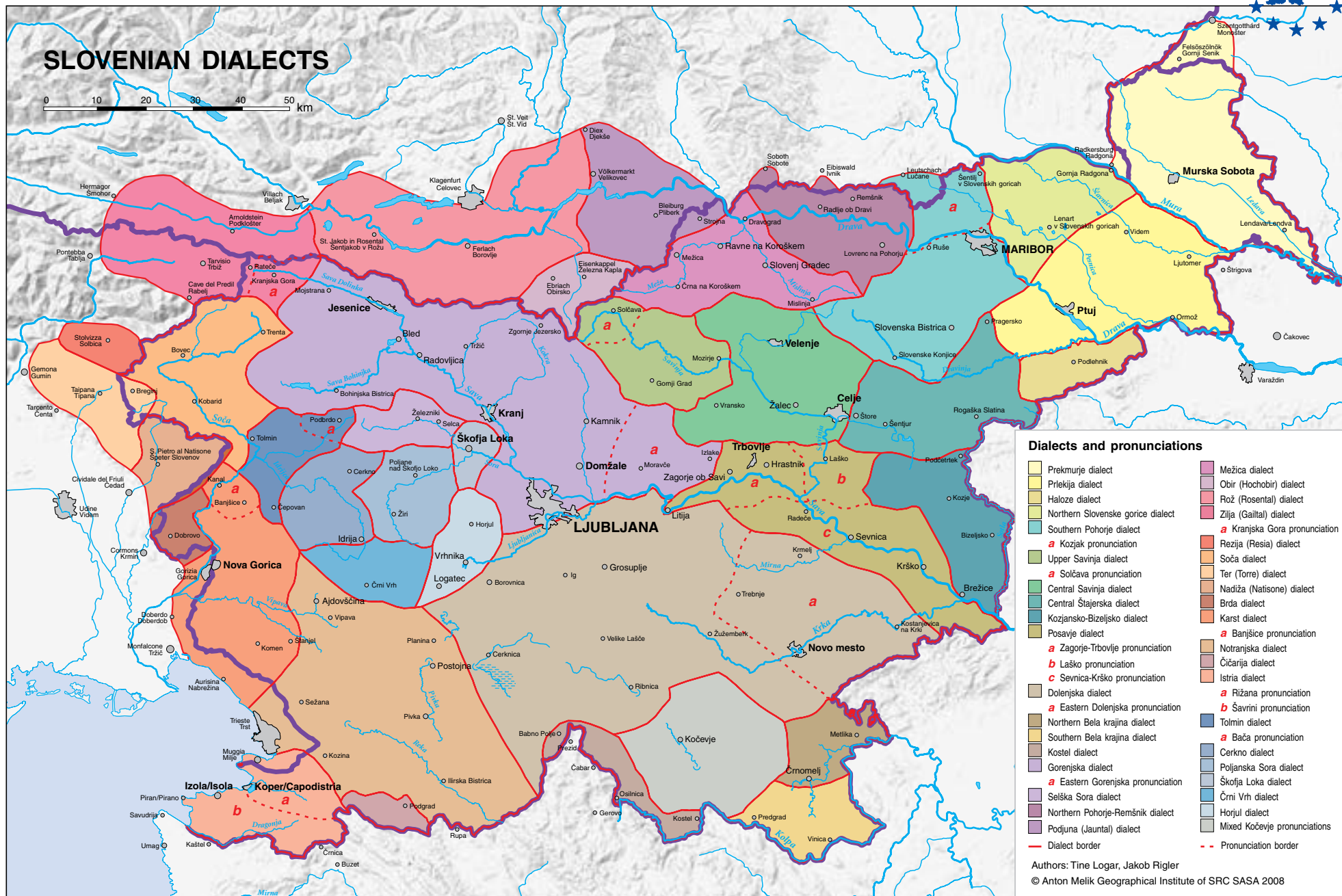




SHARE OF INHABITANTS WITH SLOVENIAN AS NATIVE LANGUAGE

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000

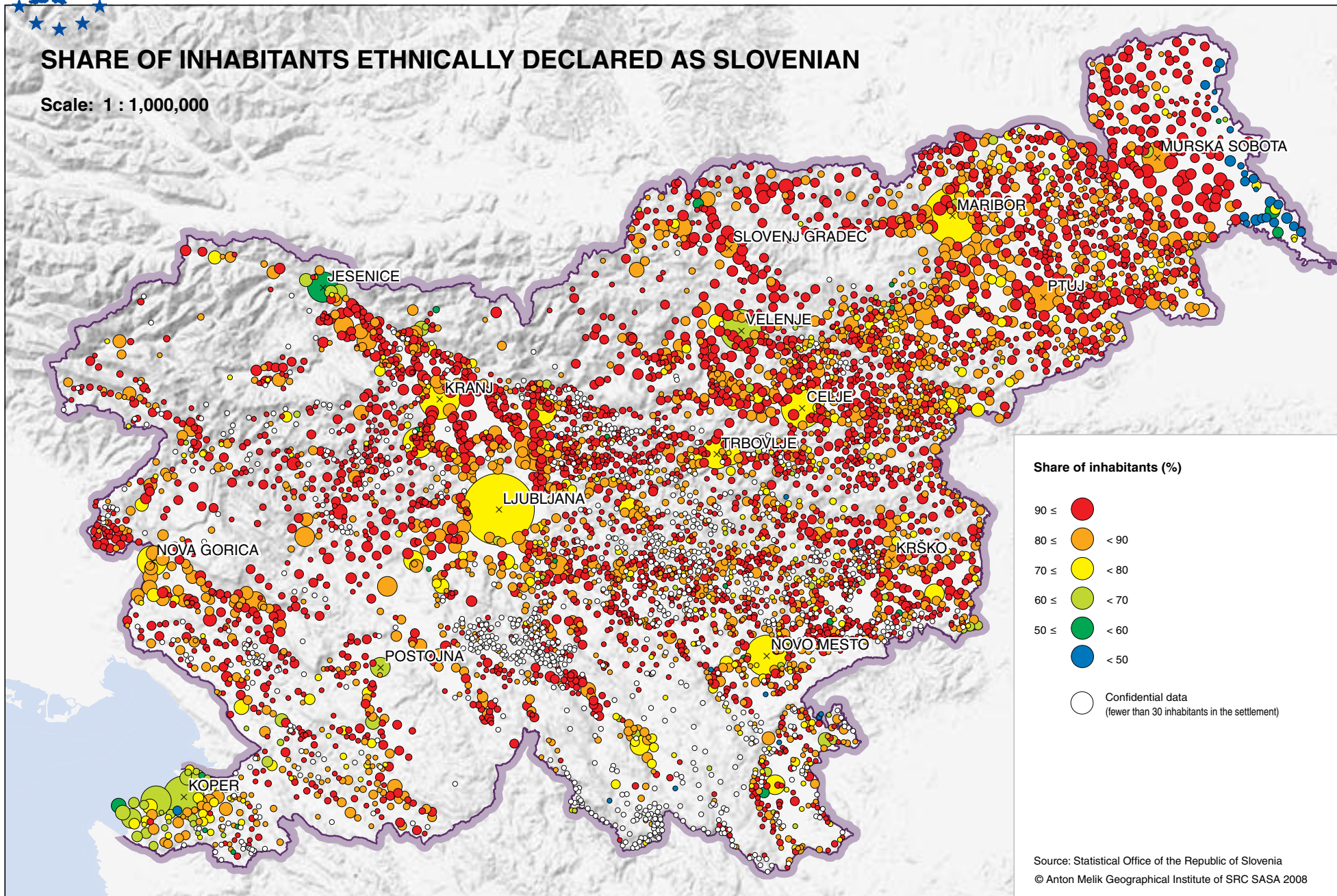






SHARE OF INHABITANTS ETHNICALLY DECLARED AS SLOVENIAN

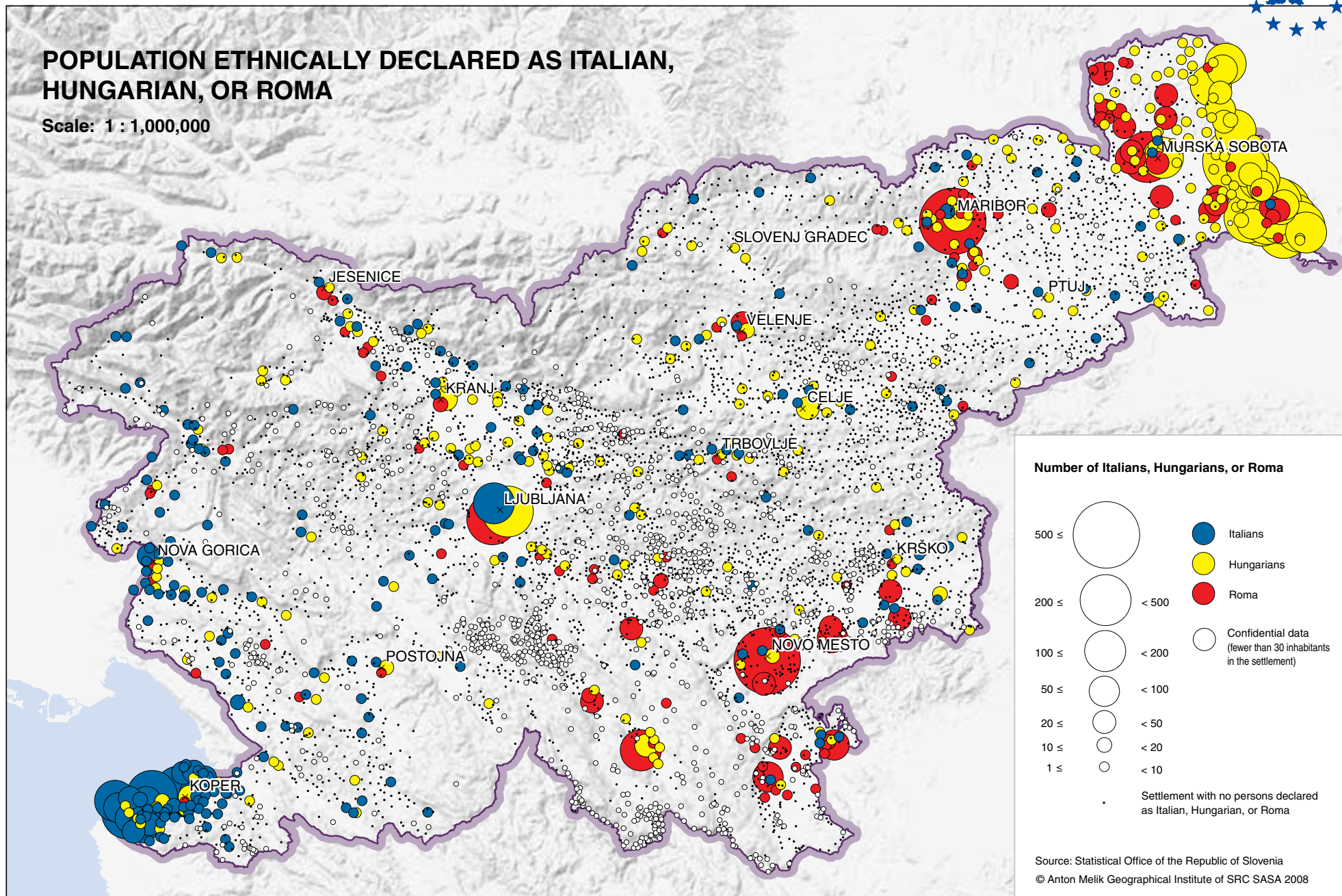
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POPULATION ETHNICALLY DECLARED AS ITALIAN, HUNGARIAN, OR ROMA

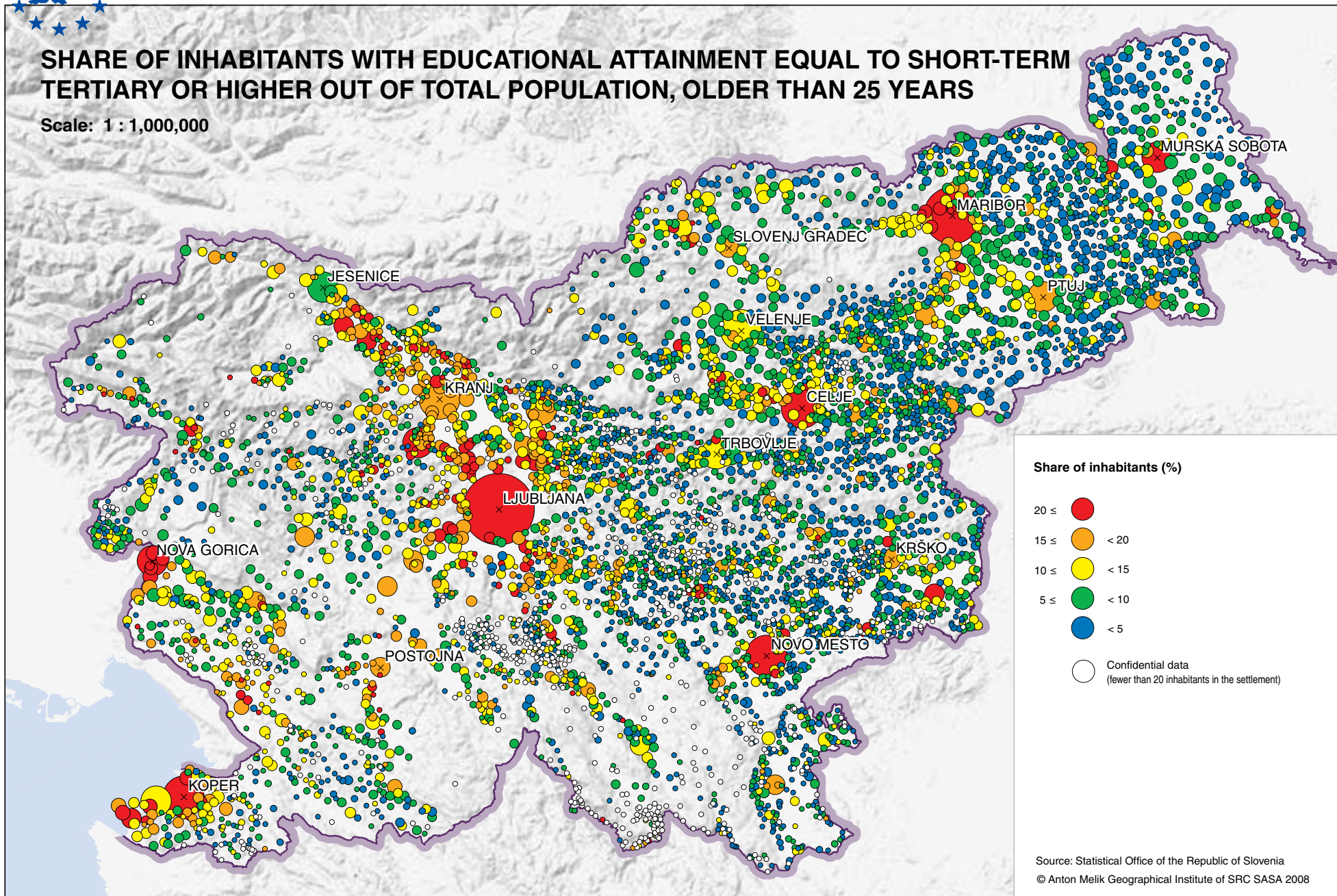
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000





SHARE OF INHABITANTS WITH EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT EQUAL TO SHORT-TERM TERTIARY OR HIGHER OUT OF TOTAL POPULATION, OLDER THAN 25 YEARS

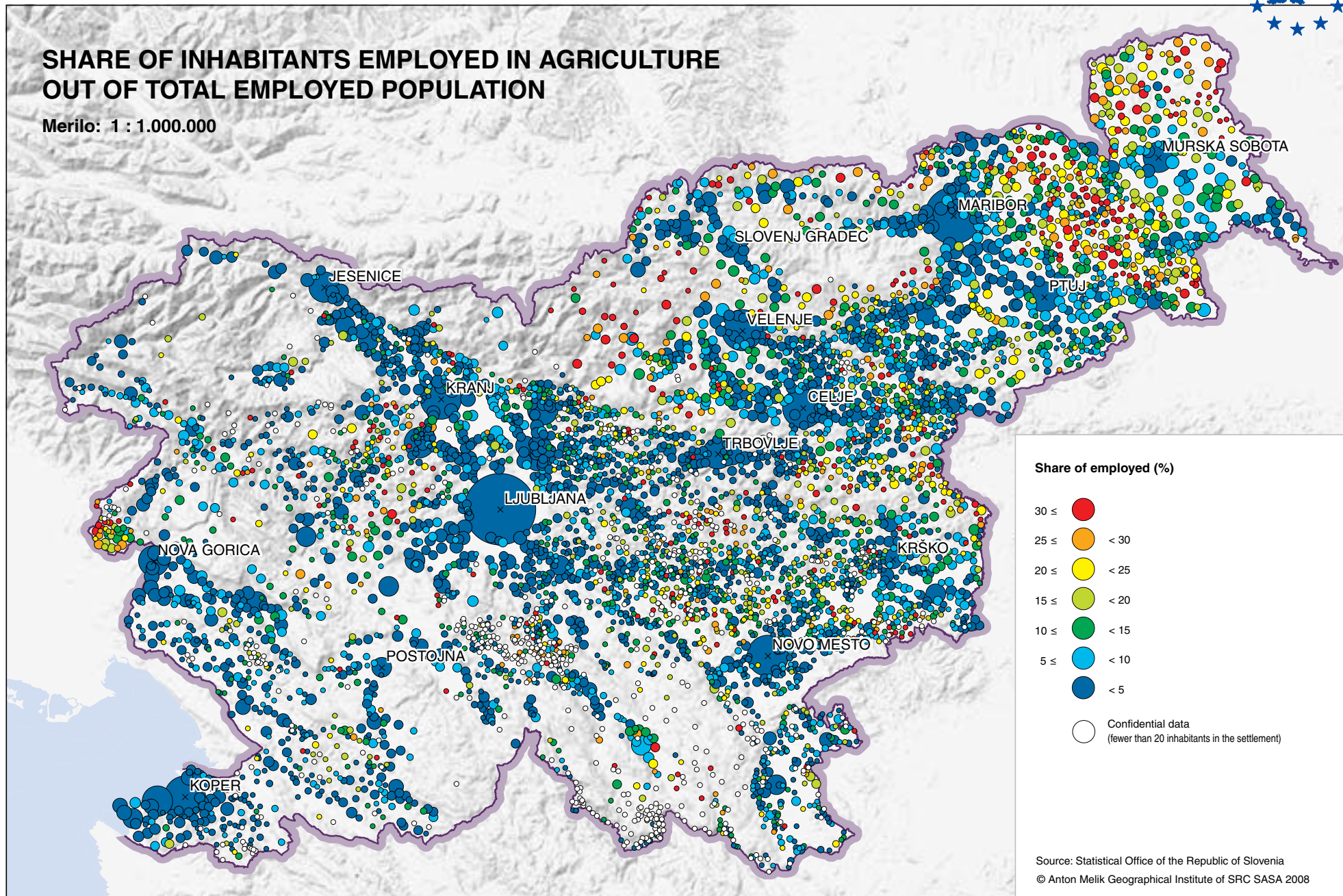
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SHARE OF INHABITANTS EMPLOYED IN AGRICULTURE OUT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION

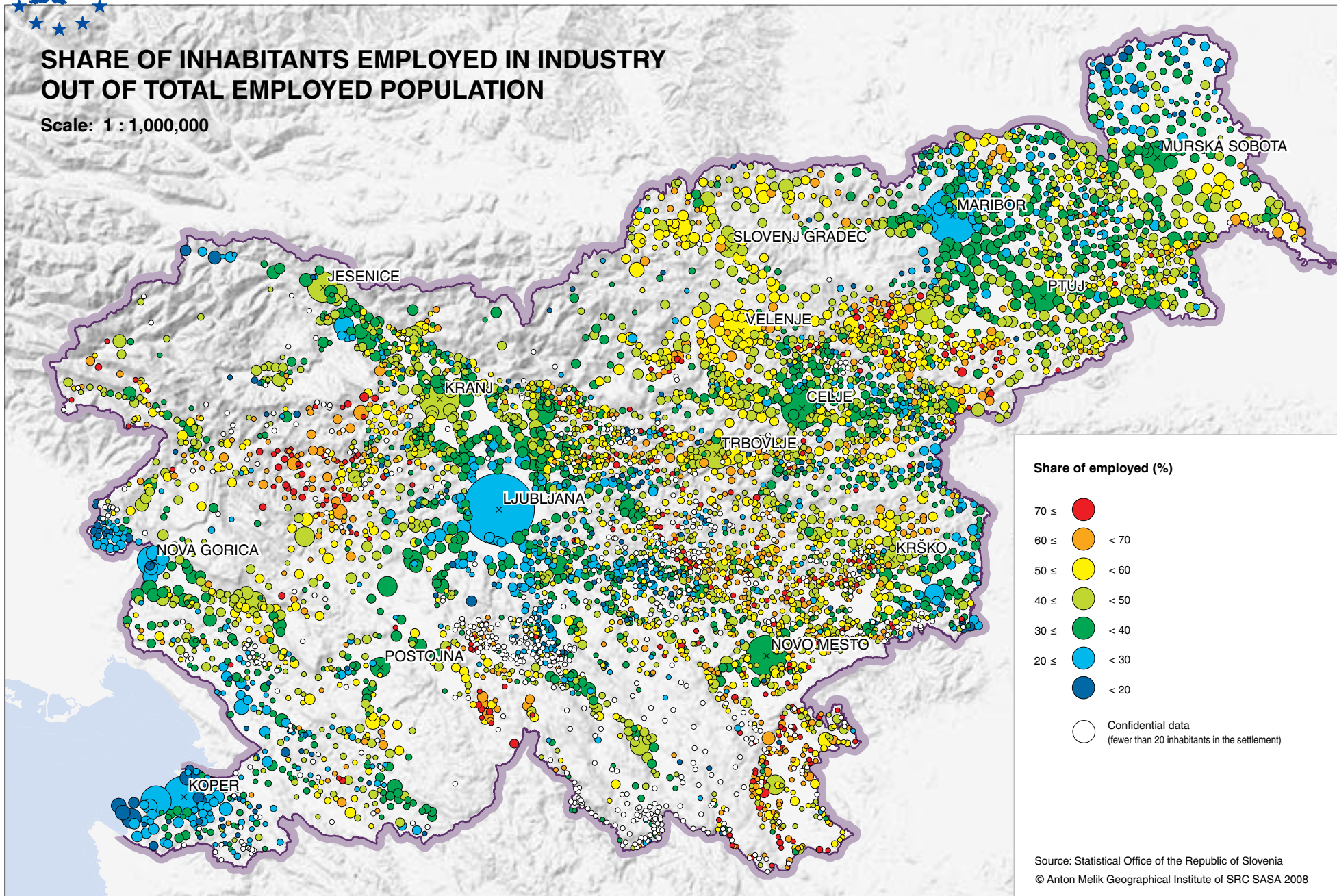
Merilo: 1 : 1.000.000





SHARE OF INHABITANTS EMPLOYED IN INDUSTRY OUT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION

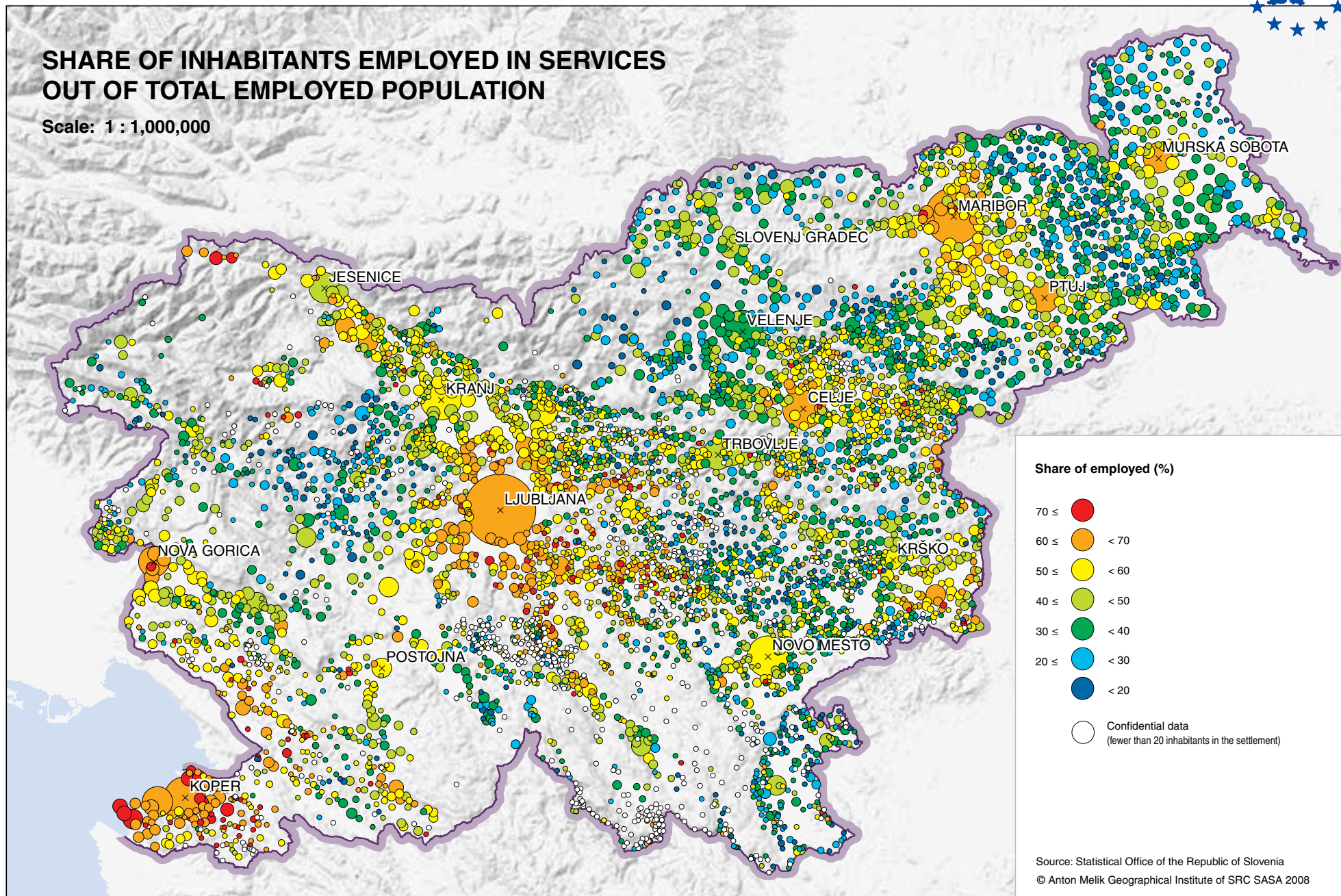
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SHARE OF INHABITANTS EMPLOYED IN SERVICES OUT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION

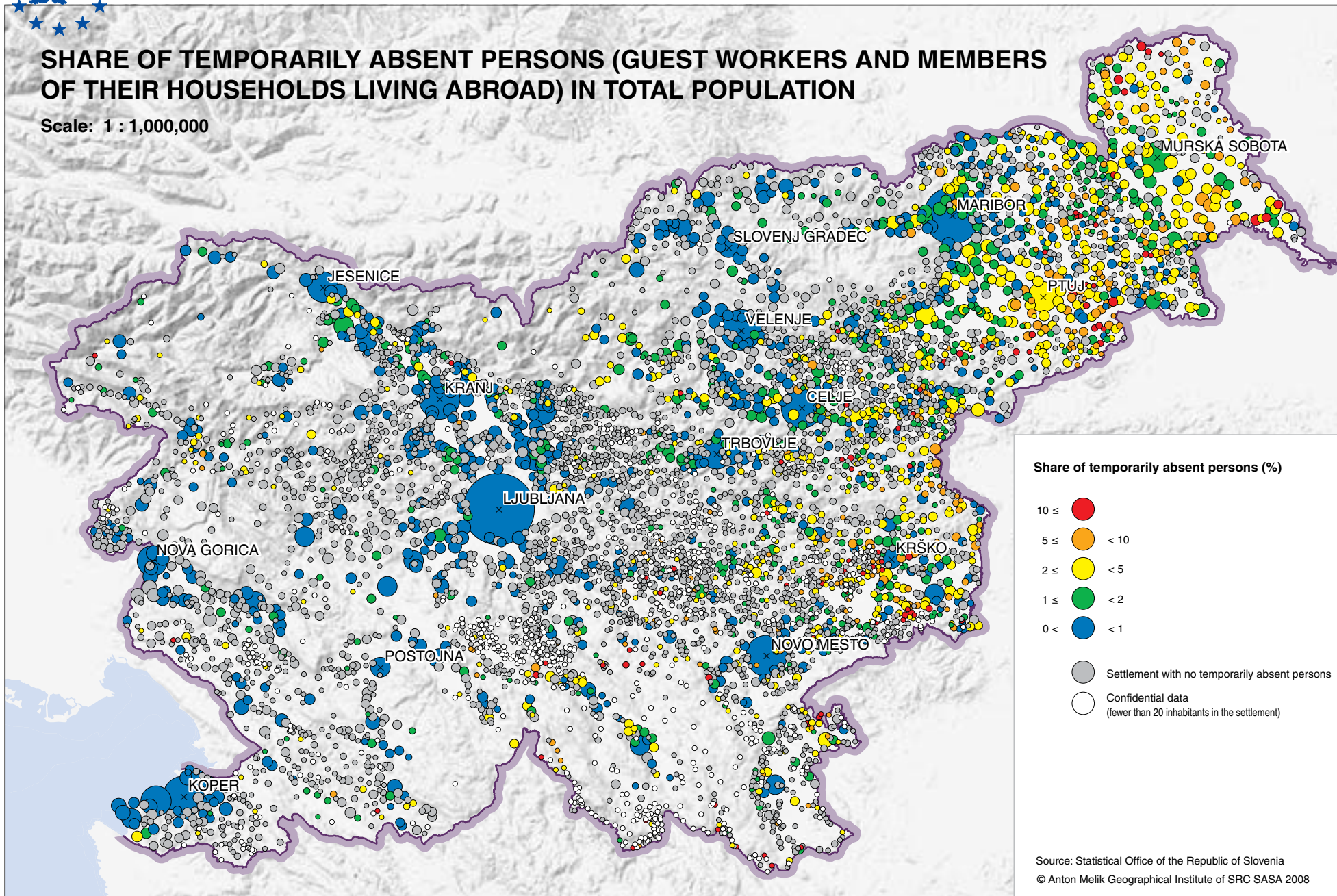
Scale: 1 : 1,000,000





SHARE OF TEMPORARILY ABSENT PERSONS (GUEST WORKERS AND MEMBERS OF THEIR HOUSEHOLDS LIVING ABROAD) IN TOTAL POPULATION

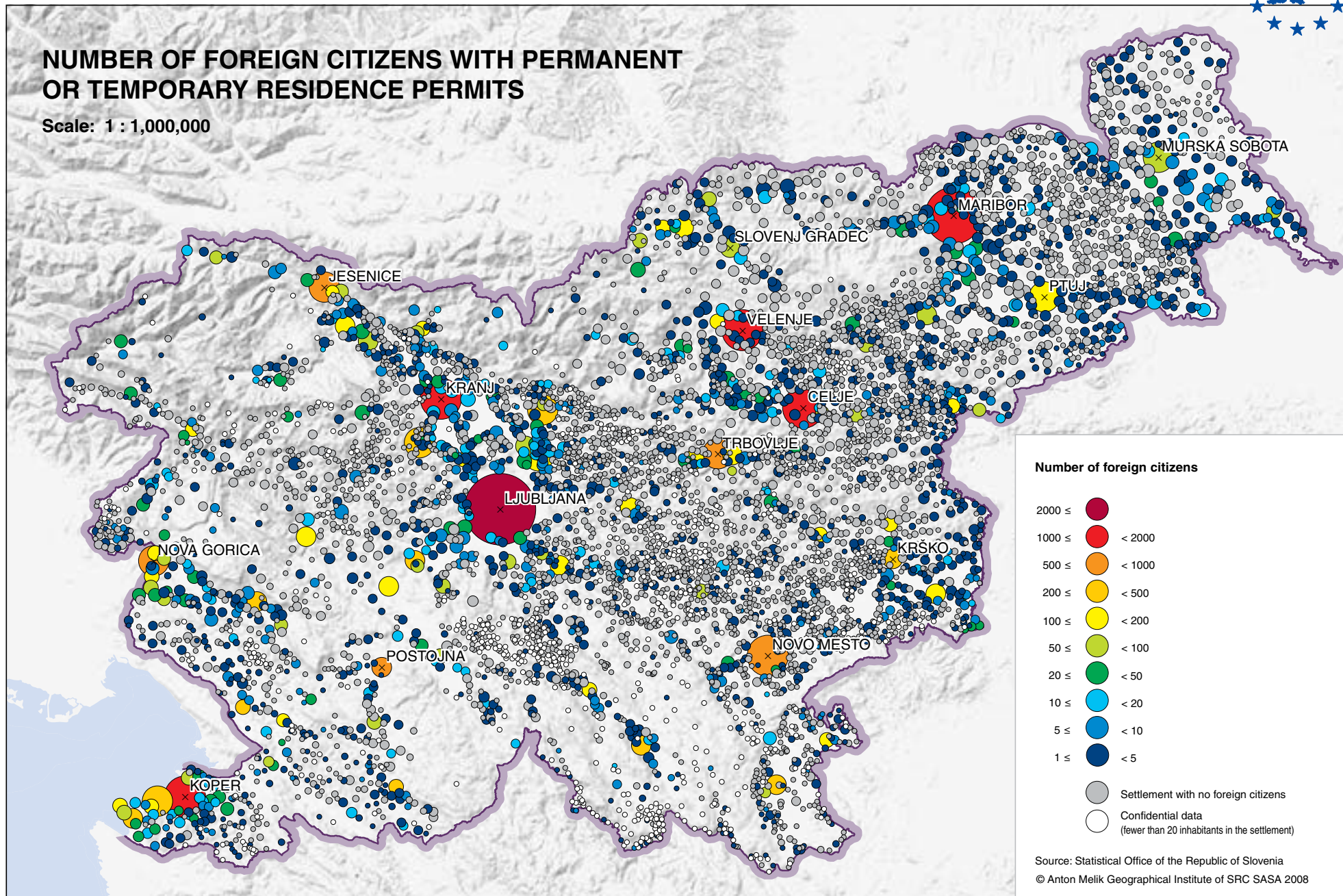
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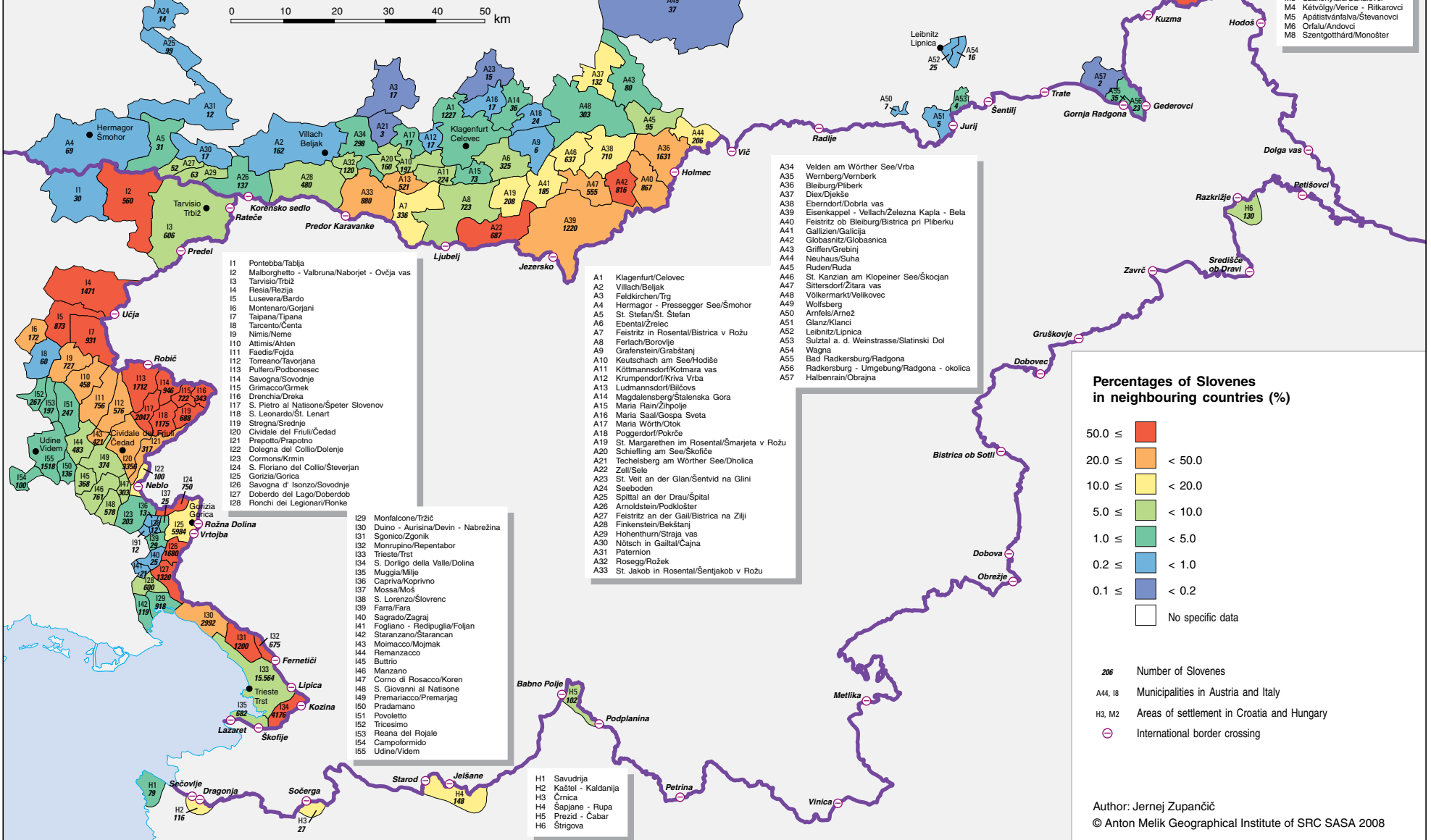


NUMBER OF FOREIGN CITIZENS WITH PERMANENT OR TEMPORARY RESIDENCE PERMITS

Scale: 1 : 1,000,000



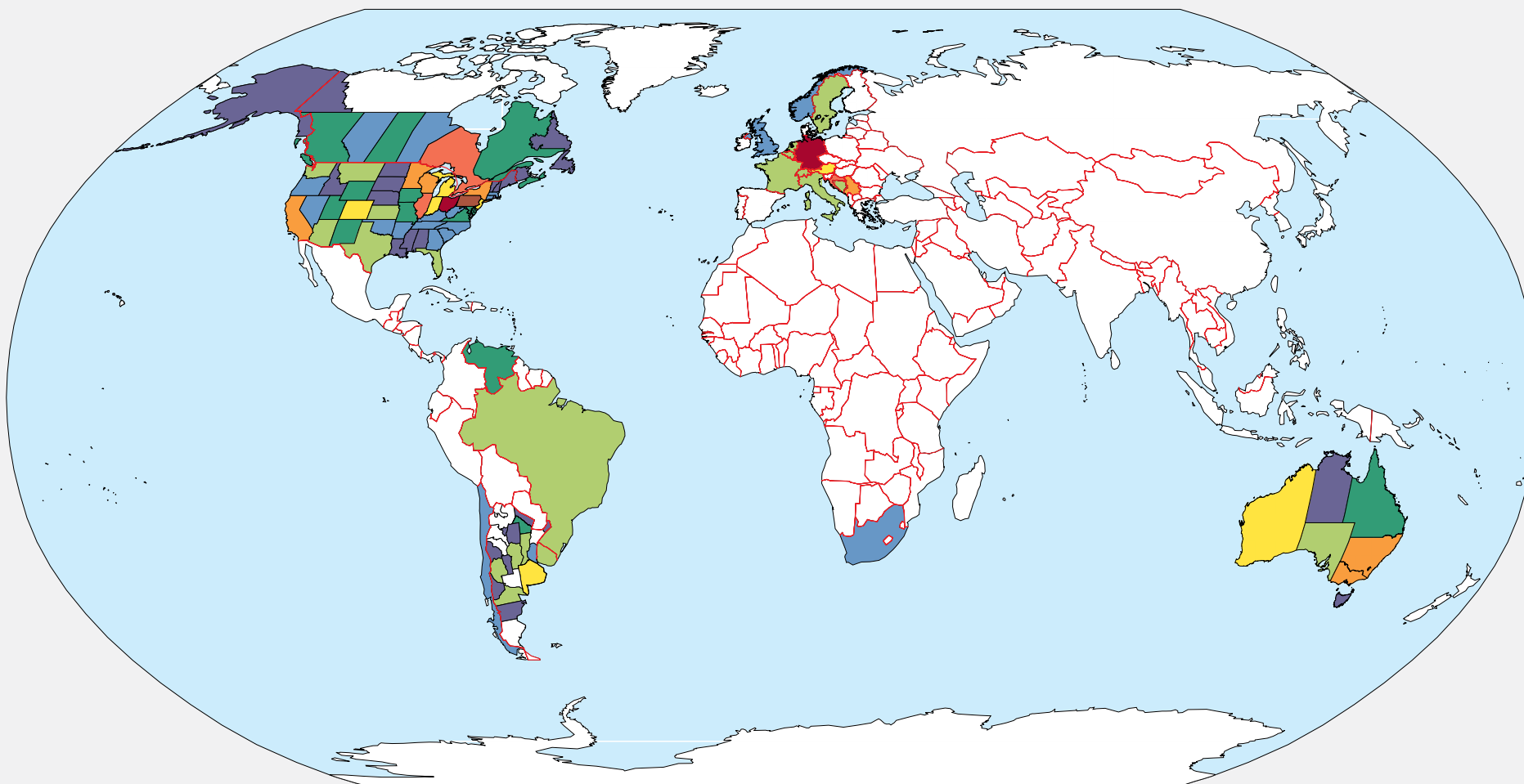
INDIGENOUS SLOVENIAN MINORITIES IN NEIGHBOURING COUNTRIES





SLOVENIAN EMIGRANTS ABROAD

0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 km



Number of Slovenes

50,000 ≤		2,000 ≤		< 5,000		International border
20,000 ≤		1,000 ≤		< 2,000		Border of federal state, province, or district
10,000 ≤		500 ≤		< 1,000		
5,000 ≤				< 500		

Author: Jernej Zupančič
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I N D E X

Name index for map on page 31

Glossary of Abbreviations

- p.* – place, settlement
s. – stream, river
l. – lake
t. – top, peak
r. – region
 AT – Austria
 HR – Croatia
 HU – Hungary
 IT – Italy
 SI – Slovenia
 → see

A

- E3 Adlešiči *p.* SI
 A2 Ahten → Áttimis
 A3 Aiello del Friuli *p.* IT
 B3 Ajdovščina *p.* SI
 A2 Alpi Giulie *r.* IT
 C2 Altemaver *t.* SI
 C1 Althofen *p.* AT
 D3 Ambrus *p.* SI
 B2 Anhovo *p.* SI
 B3 Ankarán *p.* SI
 F1 Apače *p.* SI
 A3 Aquiléia *p.* IT
 B1 Arnoldstein *p.* AT
 A2 Áttimis *p.* IT
 B3 Aurisina *p.* IT

B

- C2 Babji zob *t.* SI
 D3 Babno Polje *p.* SI
 B2 Bača *s.* SI
 B2 Bača pri Modreju *p.* SI
 F1 Bad Gleichenberg *p.* AT
 B1 Bad Kleinkirchheim *p.* AT
 F1 Bad Radkersburg *p.* AT
 D1 Bad Weißbach *p.* AT

- G1 Bájansenye *p.* HU
 G1 Banovci *p.* SI
 F4 Barilović *p.* HR
 E1 Bárofen *t.* AT
 B2 Bavški Grintavec *t.* SI
 G2 Bednja *s.* HR
 B1 Bekštanj → Finkenstein
 E3 Bela krajina *r.* SI
 F3 Beli Grič *t.* HR
 H2 Belica *p.* HR
 B1 Beljak → Villach
 A1 Belo jezero → Weißensee
 G1 Beltinci *p.* SI
 F1 Benedikt v Slovenskih
 goricah *p.* SI
 G2 Beretince *p.* HR
 C1 Bilčovs → Ludmannsdorf
 F2 Bistrica ob Sotli *p.* SI
 C1 Bistrica v Rožu → Feistritz
 im Rosental
 F2 Bizeljško *p.* SI
 D2 Blagovica *p.* SI
 C2 Bled *p.* SI
 C2 Blegoš *t.* SI
 B1 Bleiberg-Kreuth *p.* AT
 D1 Bleiburg *p.* AT
 C2 Blejsko jezero *l.* SI
 C3 Bloška Polica *p.* SI
 F2 Boč *t.* SI
 D2 Bočna *p.* SI
 B1 Bodensdorf *p.* AT
 C2 Bohinjska Bela *p.* SI
 B2 Bohinjska Bistrica *p.* SI
 B2 Bohinjsko jezero *l.* SI
 A1 Borlje → Förolach
 C1 Borovlje → Ferlach
 C3 Borovnica *p.* SI
 E4 Bosiljevo *p.* HR
 D2 Boskovec *t.* SI
 B2 Bovec *p.* SI
 B3 Branik *p.* SI
 F3 Bratina *p.* HR
 F3 Bregana *p.* HR

- A2 Breginj *p.* SI
 E3 Brestanica *p.* SI
 C2 Brezovica pri Ljubljani *p.* SI
 F3 Brežice *p.* SI
 C3 Brkini *r.* SI
 D4 Brod na Kolpi → Brod na Kupi
 D4 Brod na Kupi *p.* HR
 B4 Brtonigla *p.* HR
 D1 Brückl *p.* AT
 E1 Brunn *p.* AT
 B3 Budanje *p.* SI
 B4 Buje *p.* HR
 D3 Bukova Gora *t.* HR
 B4 Buzet *p.* HR

C

- B1 Campososso in Valcanale *p.* IT
 G1 Cankova *p.* SI
 E2 Celje *p.* SI
 C1 Celovec → Klagenfurt
 C2 Cerklje na Gorenjskem *p.* SI
 C3 Cerknica *p.* SI
 C3 Cerkniško jezero *l.* SI
 B2 Cerkno *p.* SI
 A3 Cervignano del Friuli *p.* IT
 A2 Chiusaforte *p.* IT
 A2 Cividale del Friuli *p.* IT
 F1 Cmurek → Mureck
 C3 Col *p.* SI
 A3 Cormons *p.* IT
 D4 Crni Lug *p.* HR
 H1 Csesztreg *p.* HU
 F2 Cvetlin *p.* HR

Č

- D3 Čabar *p.* HR
 G2 Čakovec *p.* HR
 F3 Čatež ob Savi *p.* SI
 A2 Čedad → Cividale del Friuli
 B2 Čepovan *p.* SI
 B4 Čičarija *r.* SI
 G1 Črenšovci *p.* SI

- E3 Črmošnjice *p.* SI
 D2 Črna na Koroškem *p.* SI
 B2 Črna prst *t.* SI
 C3 Črni Vrh *p.* SI
 E2 Črni vrh *t.* SI
 E3 Črnomelj *p.* SI

D

- C4 Dane *p.* HR
 B2 Debela peč *t.* SI
 B3 Dekani *p.* SI
 D4 Delnice *p.* HR
 F2 Desinič *p.* HR
 B2 Deskle *p.* SI
 F2 Destrnik *p.* SI
 E1 Deutschlandsberg *p.* AT
 B3 Divača *p.* SI
 D2 Dob *p.* SI
 E4 Dobra *s.* HR
 B1 Dobrač → Dobratsch
 B1 Dobratsch *t.* AT
 B1 Döbriach *p.* AT
 D1 Dobrla vas → Eberndorf

- E2 Dobrna *p.* SI
 D3 Dobrnič *p.* SI
 G1 Dobrovnik *p.* SI
 B3 Dobrovo *p.* SI
 E2 Dol pri Hrastniku *p.* SI
 B2 Dolenja Trebuša *p.* SI
 C2 Dolenja vas *p.* SI
 D3 Dolenja vas *p.* SI
 E2 Dolenji Boštanj *p.* SI
 E3 Dolenjske Toplice *p.* SI
 F2 Dolga Gora *p.* SI
 G2 Dolnja Voča *p.* HR
 F2 Dolnje Jesenje *p.* HR
 G2 Dolnje Ladanje *p.* HR
 H2 Domašinec *p.* HR
 D2 Domžale *p.* SI
 F3 Donji Desinac *p.* HR
 F2 Dornava *p.* SI
 B3 Dornberk *p.* SI
 D3 Draga *p.* SI

- B4 Dragonja *s.* SI
 E2 Dramlje *p.* SI
 A1 Drau *s.* AT
 E1 Drava *s.* SI
 F2 Dravinja *s.* SI
 E1 Dravograd *p.* SI
 C2 Dražgoše *p.* SI
 C4 Dražice *p.* HR
 E4 Dubravci *p.* HR
 F4 Duga Resa *p.* HR
 H2 Duga Rijeka *p.* HR
 B3 Dutovlje *p.* SI
 D3 Dvor *p.* SI

E

- B1 Ebene Reichenau *p.* AT
 D1 Eberndorf *p.* AT
 D2 Ebriach *p.* AT
 E1 Eibiswald *p.* AT
 D2 Eisenkappel *p.* AT

F

- A2 Faédis *p.* IT
 D4 Fara *p.* SI
 B1 Feistritz an der Drau *p.* AT
 C1 Feistritz im Rosental *p.* AT
 C1 Feldkirchen *p.* AT
 G1 Felsőszölnök *p.* HU
 C1 Ferlach *p.* AT
 B1 Finkenstein *p.* AT
 A2 Fojda → Faédis
 A1 Förolach *p.* AT
 F2 Fram *p.* SI
 E1 Freidorf an der Laßnitz *p.* AT

G

- D2 Gabrovka *p.* SI
 A1 Gail *s.* AT
 D1 Galicija → Gallizien
 D1 Gallizien *p.* AT

- F1 Gamlitz *p.* AT
 E1 Gams ob Frauental *p.* AT
 D3 Gerovo *p.* HR
 C1 Glan *s.* AT
 E1 Gleinstätten *p.* AT
 C1 Glina → Glan
 D1 Globasnica → Globasnitz
 D1 Globasnitz *p.* AT
 F3 Globoko *p.* SI
 C1 Glödnitz *p.* AT
 B1 Gmünd *p.* AT
 F1 Gnas *p.* AT
 B1 Gnesau *p.* AT
 C3 Godovič *p.* SI
 D1 Golica → Koralpe
 C2 Golica *t.* SI
 D1 Golica → Großer Speikkogel
 C2 Golnik *p.* SI
 F1 Gomila *t.* SI
 F1 Gomilica → Gamlitz
 B2 Gorenja Trebuša *p.* SI
 C2 Gorenja vas *p.* SI
 B3 Gorica → Gorizia
 E2 Gorica pri Slivnici *p.* SI
 G1 Goričko *r.* SI
 B3 Gorizia *p.* IT
 E3 Gorjanci *r.* SI
 F1 Gornja Radgona *p.* SI
 E3 Gornja Vas *p.* HR
 E3 Gornje Stative *p.* HR
 G2 Gornje Vratno *p.* HR
 E2 Gornji Dolič *p.* SI
 D2 Gornji Grad *p.* SI
 G1 Gornji Petrovci *p.* SI
 G1 Gornji Senik → Felsőszölnök
 D4 Gorski Kotar *r.* HR
 D1 Görtschitz *s.* AT
 C1 Gospa Sveta → Maria Saal
 D3 Gotenica *p.* SI
 D3 Goteniška gora *r.* SI
 D3 Goteniški Snežnik *t.* SI
 E2 Gotovlje *p.* SI
 A3 Gradež → Grado
 B3 Gradisca d'Isonzo *p.* IT



- B3 Gradišče → Gradisca d'Isonzo
A3 Grado *p.* IT
F1 Gralla *p.* AT
D1 Grebinj → Griffen
D1 Griffen *p.* AT
D2 Grintovec *t.* SI
E2 Grobelno *p.* SI
B1 Großer Rosenock *t.* AT
D1 Großer Speikkogel *t.* AT
D3 Grosuplje *p.* SI
B4 Grožnjan *p.* HR
C1 Gurk *p.* AT
C1 Gurk *s.* AT
B1 Gurktaler Alpen *r.* AT
- H
- F2 Haloze *r.* SI
C3 Harije *p.* SI
A1 Hermagor *p.* AT
G1 Hodoš *p.* SI
C2 Horjul *p.* SI
F3 Horvati *p.* HR
C3 Hotedršica *p.* SI
E2 Hrastnik *p.* SI
B3 Hrastovlje *p.* SI
D3 Hrib – Loški potok *p.* SI
F3 Hruševac *p.* HR
C2 Hrušica *p.* SI
H2 Hrženica *p.* HR
F2 Hum na Sutli *p.* HR
- I
- C2 Idrija *p.* SI
A2 Idrija → Iudrio
B2 Idrija *s.* SI
D3 Ig *p.* SI
C3 Ilirska Bistrica *p.* SI
A2 Íóf di Montásio *t.* IT
A3 Isonzo *s.* IT
B4 Istarske Toplice *p.* HR
C3 Iška *s.* SI
A2 Iudrio *s.* IT
D3 Ivančna Gorica *p.* SI
G2 Ivanec *p.* HR
E1 Ivnik → Eibiswald
D2 Izlake *p.* SI
B3 Izola *p.* SI
- J
- B3 Jagodje *p.* SI
D1 Jakling *p.* AT
B2 Jalovec *t.* SI
- F3 Jastrebarsko *p.* HR
C3 Javorniki *r.* SI
C3 Jelšane *p.* SI
C2 Jesenice *p.* SI
B2 Julijske Alpe *r.* SI
E2 Jurklošter *p.* SI
E3 Jurovski Brod *p.* HR
- K
- C2 Kahlkogel *t.* AT
F1 Kaindorf *p.* AT
B2 Kal nad Kanalom *p.* SI
C3 Kalce *p.* SI
B2 Kal - Koritnica *p.* SI
F1 Kamnica *p.* SI
D2 Kamnik *p.* SI
C2 Kamniško-Savinjske Alpe *r.* SI
B2 Kanal *p.* SI
F3 Kanal Kupa–Kupa *s.* HR
E3 Kanizarica *p.* SI
G1 Kapelski Vrh *p.* SI
C2 Karavanke *r.* SI
F4 Karlovac *p.* HR
F4 Karlovec → Karlovac
B1 Kepa *t.* SI
G1 Kerka *s.* HU
F2 Kidričevo *p.* SI
D2 Kisovec *p.* SI
C1 Klagenfurt *p.* AT
C4 Klana *p.* HR
F2 Klanjec *p.* HR
D1 Klein Sankt Paul *p.* AT
F1 Klek → Klöch
G2 Klenovnik *p.* HR
F1 Klöch *p.* AT
A2 Kluže → Chiusaforte
C3 Knežak *p.* SI
B2 Kobarid *p.* SI
G1 Kobilje *p.* SI
D3 Kočevje *p.* SI
D3 Kočevska Reka *p.* SI
D3 Kočevski rog *r.* SI
G2 Kog *p.* SI
C2 Kokra *s.* SI
D3 Kolpa *s.* SI
B3 Komen *p.* SI
D2 Komenda *p.* SI
B3 Koper *p.* SI
D2 Koprivna *p.* SI
B2 Korada *t.* SI
D1 Koralpe *r.* AT
D1 Kordeževa glava *t.* SI
B2 Koritnica *p.* SI
E3 Kostanjevac *p.* HR
E3 Kostanjevica na Krki *p.* SI
- L
- D1 Ladinger Spitze *t.* AT
F4 Ladvenjaki *p.* HR
E3 Lahinja *s.* SI
G2 Lahonci *p.* SI
E1 Lašnitz *s.* AT
E2 Laško *p.* SI
A1 Latschur *t.* AT
C1 Launsdorf *p.* AT
D1 Lavant *s.* AT
D2 Laze *p.* SI
F3 Lazina *p.* HR
G1 Ledava *s.* SI
F1 Leibnitz *p.* AT
F1 Lenart v Slovenskih
goricah *p.* SI
G1 Lendava *p.* SI
H1 Lenti *p.* HU
G2 Lepoglava *p.* HR
D2 Lesce *p.* SI
F2 Lesično *p.* SI
E3 Leskovec pri Krškem *p.* SI
E1 Leutschach *p.* AT
B1 Lieser *s.* AT
- D3 Kostel *p.* SI
E1 Košenjak *t.* SI
C2 Košutnikov turn *t.* SI
C2 Kovor *p.* SI
B3 Kozina *p.* SI
F2 Kozje *p.* SI
C2 Kranj *p.* SI
B2 Kranjska Gora *p.* SI
B3 Kras *r.* SI
F3 Krašič *p.* HR
D2 Kresnice *p.* SI
C3 Krim *t.* SI
G1 Krizevci *p.* SI
D3 Krka *p.* SI
D3 Krka *s.* SI
G1 Krka *s.* SI
C1 Krka → Gurk
G1 Krka → Kerka
E3 Krmelj *p.* SI
A3 Krmin → Cormons
B2 Krn *t.* SI
C2 Kropa *p.* SI
F3 Krška vas *p.* SI
F3 Krško *p.* SI
D1 Kühnsdorf *p.* AT
E2 Kum *t.* SI
F2 Kumrovec *p.* HR
E3 Kupa *s.* HR
C3 Kuteževo *p.* SI
G1 Kuzma *p.* SI
- M
- G2 Mačkovec *p.* HR
C1 Magdalensberg *t.* AT
B2 Mahavšček *t.* SI
F3 Mahično *p.* HR
F2 Majšperk *p.* SI
H2 Mala Subotica *p.* HR
B3 Mali Golak *t.* SI
A3 Manzano *p.* IT
C1 Maria Saal *p.* AT
F1 Maribor *p.* SI
B2 Matajur *t.* SI
C2 Medvode *p.* SI
D2 Mekinje *p.* SI
D2 Mengeš *p.* SI
E3 Metlika *p.* SI
D2 Meža *s.* SI
D1 Mežica *p.* SI
F1 Miklavž na Dravskem
polju *p.* SI
B3 Milje → Múggia
B1 Millstatt *p.* AT
B1 Millstätter See *l.* AT
B1 Milštatsko jezero → Millstätter
See
B3 Miren *p.* SI
E3 Mirna *p.* SI
E3 Mirna *s.* SI
E3 Mirna gora *t.* SI
E3 Mirna Peč *p.* SI
- A1 Lieserhofen *p.* AT
F1 Lipnica → Leibnitz
C4 Lisac *p.* HR
E2 Lisca *t.* SI
D2 Litija *p.* SI
B2 Livek *p.* SI
D3 Livold *p.* SI
D2 Ljubljana *p.* SI
C3 Ljubljana *s.* SI
D2 Ljubno ob Savinji *p.* SI
G1 Ljutomer *p.* SI
B2 Log pod Mangartom *p.* SI
D2 Logarska Dolina *p.* SI
C3 Logatec *p.* SI
F2 Loka pri Žusmu *p.* SI
B2 Lokve *p.* SI
H1 Lovázi *p.* HU
E1 Lovrenc na Pohorju *p.* SI
C3 Lož *p.* SI
B3 Lucija *p.* SI
E1 Lučane → Leutschach
D2 Luče *p.* SI
H2 Ludbreg *p.* HR
C1 Ludmannsdorf *p.* AT
- E2 Mislinja *p.* SI
E2 Mislinja *s.* SI
E2 Mislinjska Dobrava *p.* SI
B1 Mittagkogel *t.* AT
B2 Mojstrana *p.* SI
E3 Mokronog *p.* SI
A1 Möllbrücke *p.* AT
B4 Momjan *p.* HR
B3 Monfalcone *p.* IT
A2 Montaž → Íóf di Montásio
A2 Monte Canin *t.* IT
B2 Monte Mangart *t.* IT
A2 Monte Musi *t.* IT
B1 Monte Oisternig *t.* IT
C1 Moosburg *p.* AT
D2 Moravče *p.* SI
E4 Moravice *p.* HR
G1 Moravske Toplice *p.* SI
B2 Most na Soči *p.* SI
D1 Mostič → Brückl
D2 Mozirje *p.* SI
C1 Možberk → Moosburg
E2 Mrzlica *t.* SI
B3 Múggia *p.* IT
A1 Mühldorf *p.* AT
G1 Mura *s.* SI
F1 Mureck *p.* AT
G1 Murska Sobota *p.* SI
G1 Mursko Središče *p.* HR
E1 Muta *p.* SI
A2 Mužci → Monte Musi
- N
- B3 Nabrežina → Aurisina
A2 Nadiža → Natisone
C2 Naklo *p.* SI
A2 Natisone *s.* IT
D2 Nazarje *p.* SI
G2 Nedelišče *p.* HR
E3 Netretič *p.* HR
C3 Notranje Gorice *p.* SI
B3 Nova Gorica *p.* SI
D3 Nova vas *p.* SI
E3 Novo mesto *p.* SI
- O
- C1 Oberboden *p.* AT
F1 Obervogau *p.* AT
D2 Obirsko → Ebriach
C3 Obrov *p.* SI
G1 Odranci *p.* SI
A3 Oglej → Aquiléia
B1 Oisternig *t.* AT
D2 Ojstrica *t.* SI
- B3 Opčine → Villa Opicina
E2 Oplotnica *p.* SI
H2 Orehovica *p.* HR
G1 Órszentpéter *p.* HU
G2 Ormož *p.* SI
A2 Orsária *p.* IT
A2 Orzano *p.* IT
D3 Osilnica *p.* SI
B1 Osojsko jezero → Ossiacher
See
B1 Ossiacher See *l.* AT
C2 Otalež *p.* SI
E1 Otiški Vrh *p.* SI
B3 Otlica *p.* SI
E3 Otočec *p.* SI
E3 Ozalj *p.* HR
- P
- E2 Paka *s.* SI
A3 Palmanova *p.* IT
E1 Pameče *p.* SI
B1 Paternion *p.* AT
G1 Peklenica *p.* HR
G1 Pertocča *p.* SI
F1 Pesnica *s.* SI
F1 Pesnica pri Mariboru *p.* SI
H2 Petrijanec *p.* HR
G1 Pince *p.* SI
B3 Piran *p.* SI
C3 Pivka *p.* SI
C3 Pivka *s.* SI
C3 Planina *p.* SI
E2 Planina pri Sevnici *p.* SI
B2 Plave *p.* SI
C3 Pleša *t.* SI
D1 Pliberk → Bleiburg
B2 Podbonesec → Púlfero
B2 Podbrdo *p.* SI
F2 Podčetrtek *p.* SI
C3 Podgrad *p.* SI
B1 Podklošter → Arnoldstein
C3 Podkraj *p.* SI
E2 Podkum *p.* SI
F2 Podlehnik *p.* SI
C2 Podljubelj *p.* SI
B3 Podnanos *p.* SI
C3 Podpeč *p.* SI
F2 Podsreda *p.* SI
H2 Podturen *p.* HR
E3 Podturn pri Dolenjskih
Toplicah *p.* SI
E1 Podvelka *p.* SI
E2 Pohorje *r.* SI
C2 Polhov Gradec *p.* SI
C2 Poljanska Sora *s.* SI



- F2 Poljčane *p.* SI
 E2 Polzela *p.* SI
 A1 Pontebba *p.* IT
 C1 Poreče → Pörlschach am Wörther See
 B2 Porezen *t.* SI
 B3 Portorož *p.* SI
 C1 Pörlschach am Wörther See *p.* AT
 D2 Posavsko hribovje *r.* SI
 C3 Postojna *p.* SI
 F2 Pragersko *p.* SI
 E2 Prebold *p.* SI
 C2 Preddvor *p.* SI
 C3 Predjama *p.* SI
 B4 Pregara *p.* SI
 F2 Pregrada *p.* HR
 H2 Prelog *p.* HR
 C3 Prem *p.* SI
 C3 Prestranek *p.* SI
 D1 Prevalje *p.* SI
 G2 Pribislavec *p.* HR
 G1 Prosenjakovci *p.* SI
 B3 Prvačina *p.* SI
 F2 Ptuj *p.* SI
 F2 Ptujška Gora *p.* SI
 F2 Ptujško jezero *l.* SI
 B1 Puch *p.* AT
 G1 Puonci *p.* SI
 B2 Púlféro *p.* IT
 H1 Puszta Szatta *t.* HU
- R
- F2 Rače *p.* SI
 C4 Račja Vas *p.* HR
 E2 Radeče *p.* SI
 G1 Radenci *p.* SI
 B1 Radenthein *p.* AT
 F1 Radgona → Bad Radkersburg
 F2 Radizel *p.* SI
 E1 Radlje ob Dravi *p.* SI
 E3 Radovica *p.* SI
 C2 Radovljica *p.* SI
 D3 Rajndol *p.* SI
 C3 Rakek *p.* SI
 C3 Rakitna *p.* SI
 D3 Rašica *p.* SI
 E2 Ravne *p.* SI
 D1 Ravne na Koroškem *p.* SI
 C3 Razdrto *p.* SI
 G1 Razkrižje *p.* SI
 G1 Rédics *p.* HU
 E1 Reinischkogel *t.* AT
 C3 Reka *s.* SI
 G1 Resznek *p.* HU
- D3 Ribnica *p.* SI
 E1 Ribnica na Pohorju *p.* SI
 E3 Ribnik *p.* HR
 E2 Rimske Toplice *p.* SI
 D3 Rinža *s.* SI
 B2 Robič *p.* SI
 C4 Roč *p.* HR
 B2 Ročinj *p.* SI
 B2 Rodica *t.* SI
 F2 Rogaska Slatina *p.* SI
 F2 Rogatec *p.* SI
 B3 Ronchi *p.* IT
 B3 Ronke → Ronchi
 C3 Rovte *p.* SI
 F3 Rude *p.* HR
 C4 Rupa *p.* HR
 F1 Ruše *p.* SI
- S
- A1 Sachsenburg *p.* AT
 F3 Samobor *p.* HR
 D1 Sankt Andrä *p.* AT
 D1 Sankt Gertraud *p.* AT
 E1 Sankt Oswald ob Eibiswald *p.* AT
 D1 Sankt Paul im Lavanttal *p.* AT
 F1 Sankt Peter am Ottersbach *p.* AT
 C1 Sankt Veit an der Glan *p.* AT
 D1 Saualpe *r.* AT
 C2 Sava *s.* SI
 B2 Sava Bohinjka *s.* SI
 B2 Sava Dolinka *s.* SI
 D2 Savinja *s.* SI
 B4 Savudrija *p.* HR
 E1 Schwanberg *p.* AT
 B4 Sečovlje *p.* SI
 B1 Seeboden *p.* AT
 F1 Selnica ob Dravi *p.* SI
 C2 Selška Sora *s.* SI
 E3 Semič *p.* SI
 E2 Senovo *p.* SI
 C3 Senožec *p.* SI
 E4 Severin na Kupi *p.* HR
 E2 Sevnica *p.* SI
 B3 Sežana *p.* SI
 D1 Sinča vas → Kühnsdorf
 E4 Sinji Vrh *p.* SI
 C1 Sirnitz *p.* AT
 D4 Skrad *p.* HR
 F1 Sladki Vrh *p.* SI
 B3 Slavnik *t.* SI
 C3 Slivnica *t.* SI
 E1 Slovenj Gradec *p.* SI
 F2 Slovenska Bistrica *p.* SI
- F1 Slovenske gorice *r.* SI
 E2 Slovenske Konjice *p.* SI
 B2 Soča *s.* SI
 D3 Sodražica *p.* SI
 D2 Solčava *p.* SI
 B3 Solkan *p.* SI
 C2 Sora *s.* SI
 E3 Sošice *p.* HR
 F3 Sotla *s.* SI
 C2 Sovodenj *p.* SI
 A1 Spittal an der Drau *p.* AT
 F2 Spodnja Hajdina *p.* SI
 C2 Spodnja Idrija *p.* SI
 F1 Spodnja Ščavnica *p.* SI
 F1 Spodnje Hoče *p.* SI
 B3 Spodnje Škofije *p.* SI
 G2 Sračinec *p.* HR
 G1 Srebrni breg *t.* SI
 G2 Središče ob Dravi *p.* SI
 E1 Stainz *p.* AT
 B2 Stara Fužina *p.* SI
 E3 Stari trg ob Kolpi *p.* SI
 C3 Stari trg pri Ložu *p.* SI
 C3 Starod *p.* SI
 D3 Stična *p.* SI
 A2 Stol *t.* SI
 C2 Stol *t.* SI
 F2 Stoperce *p.* SI
 C2 Storžič *t.* SI
 F1 Straden *p.* AT
 F1 Straß *p.* AT
 C1 Straßburg *p.* AT
 E3 Straža *p.* SI
 D3 Suha krajina *r.* SI
 E1 Sulm *s.* AT
 D3 Sveta Ana *t.* SI
 B2 Sveta gora *t.* SI
 D1 Svinja → Saualpe
- Š
- F1 Ščavnica *s.* SI
 B3 Šempas *p.* SI
 B3 Šempeter pri Gorici *p.* SI
 E2 Šempeter v Savinjski dolini *p.* SI
 C2 Šenčur *p.* SI
 D1 Šentandraž → Sankt Andrä
 D1 Šentpavel v Labotski dolini → Sankt Paul im Lavanttal
 F1 Šentilj v Slovenskih goricah *p.* SI
 E3 Šentjernej *p.* SI
 C2 Šentjošt nad Horjulom *p.* SI
 E2 Šentjur *p.* SI
 E3 Šentrupert *p.* SI
- E3 Šentvid ob Glini → Sankt Veit an der Glan
 D3 Šentvid pri Stični *p.* SI
 F3 Šišljavič *p.* HR
 C4 Škalnica *p.* HR
 E3 Škocjan *p.* SI
 C2 Škofja Loka *p.* SI
 C3 Škoflje *p.* SI
 D3 Škofljica *p.* SI
 B2 Škrlatica *t.* SI
 F2 Šmarje pri Jelšah *p.* SI
 D3 Šmarje - Sap *p.* SI
 E3 Šmarješke Toplice *p.* SI
 E2 Šmartno ob Paki *p.* SI
 D2 Šmartno pri Litiji *p.* SI
 A1 Šmohor → Hermagor
 E2 Šoštanj *p.* SI
 C1 Štalenska gora → Magdalensberg
 B3 Štanjel *p.* SI
 E2 Štore *p.* SI
- T
- A1 Tablja → Pontebba
 B1 Tarvisio *p.* IT
 D3 Temenica *p.* SI
 E2 Tepanje *p.* SI
 A2 Ter → Torre
 G1 Tišina *p.* SI
 B2 Tolmin *p.* SI
 B3 Tomaj *p.* SI
 E2 Topolšica *p.* SI
 A3 Torre *s.* IT
 C2 Tošč *t.* SI
 F2 Trakošćan *p.* HR
 B1 Trbiž → Tarvisio
 E2 Trbovlje *p.* SI
 E3 Trdinov vrh *t.* SI
 E3 Trebelno *p.* SI
 E3 Trebnje *p.* SI
 B2 Trenta *p.* SI
 C1 Trg → Feldkirchen
 B3 Trieste *p.* IT
 B2 Triglav *t.* SI
 G2 Trnovec *p.* HR
 D2 Trojane *p.* SI
 B3 Trst → Trieste
 B3 Trstelj *t.* SI
 D2 Trzin *p.* SI
 C2 Tržič *p.* SI
 B3 Tržič → Monfalcone
 D3 Turjak *p.* SI
 G1 Turnišče *p.* SI
 G2 Tužno *p.* HR
- U
- B4 Umag *p.* HR
 A1 Unterkolbnitz *p.* AT
 D2 Uršlja gora *t.* SI
 E3 Uršna sela *p.* SI
- V
- G2 Varaždin *p.* HR
 G2 Varaždinske Toplice *p.* HR
 G2 Varaždinsko jezero *l.* HR
 C1 Velden am Wörther See *p.* AT
 C4 Vele Mune *p.* HR
 E2 Velenje *p.* SI
 D2 Velika Raduha *t.* SI
 D1 Velika Svinja → Ladinger Spitze
 D3 Velike Lašče *p.* SI
 C3 Veliki Javornik *t.* SI
 E2 Veliki Javornik *t.* SI
 B2 Veliki Mangart *t.* SI
 D4 Veliki Risnjak *t.* HR
 C3 Veliki Snežnik *t.* SI
 D1 Velikovec → Völkermarkt
 C3 Verd *p.* SI
 G1 Veržej *p.* SI
 D3 Videm *p.* SI
 F2 Videm pri Ptuj *p.* SI
 B3 Villa Opicina *p.* IT
 B1 Villach *p.* AT
 E4 Vinica *p.* SI
 G2 Vinica *p.* HR
 B3 Vipava *p.* SI
 B3 Vipava *s.* SI
 A2 Visoki Kanin *t.* SI
 C4 Viškovo *p.* HR
 D3 Višnja Gora *p.* SI
 E2 Vitanje *p.* SI
 C2 Vodice *p.* SI
 B2 Vogel *t.* SI
 E2 Vojnik *p.* SI
 B2 Vojsko *p.* SI
 D1 Völkermarkt *p.* AT
 D2 Vransko *p.* SI
 G2 Vratšinec *p.* HR
 C1 Vrba → Velden am Wörther See
 E4 Vrbovsko *p.* HR
 C1 Vrbsko jezero → Wörther See
 C3 Vremščica *t.* SI
 C3 Vrhnika *p.* SI
 B2 Vrsno *p.* SI
 B3 Vrtojba *p.* SI
 E4 Vukova Gorica *p.* HR
 E1 Vuzenica *p.* SI
- W
- A1 Weifensee *l.* AT
 B1 Weißenstein *p.* AT
 C1 Weitsfeld *p.* AT
 E1 Wies *p.* AT
 F1 Wildon *p.* AT
 D1 Wolfsberg *p.* AT
 F1 Wolfsberg im Schwarzautal *p.* AT
 B1 Wöllaner Nock *t.* AT
 C1 Wörther See *l.* AT
- Z
- D2 Zagorje ob Savi *p.* SI
 D3 Zagradec *p.* SI
 H1 Zala *s.* HU
 H1 Zalabaksa *p.* HU
 H1 Zalaháshágy *p.* HU
 H1 Zalaháshágy *p.* HU
 C2 Zasp *p.* SI
 G2 Zavrč *p.* SI
 E1 Zgornja Kapla *p.* SI
 F1 Zgornja Kungota *p.* SI
 C2 Zgornje Bitnje *p.* SI
 D2 Zgornje Jezersko *p.* SI
 C2 Zgornje Pirniče *p.* SI
 D2 Zgornji Tuhinj *p.* SI
 E2 Zidani Most *p.* SI
 A1 Zilja → Gail
 F1 Ziprein *p.* AT
 F2 Zlatoličje *p.* SI
 E2 Zreče *p.* SI
 A2 Zuc dal Bôr *t.* IT
 E1 Zwaring *p.* AT
- Ž
- B1 Žabnice → Camporosso in Valcanale
 A2 Žaga *p.* SI
 E2 Žalec *p.* SI
 G2 Žarovnica *p.* HR
 D2 Železna Kapla → Eisenkappel
 C2 Železniki *p.* SI
 D3 Želmlje *p.* SI
 F2 Žetale *p.* SI
 E2 Žiče *p.* SI
 C2 Žiri *p.* SI
 C2 Žirovnica *p.* SI
 D3 Žužemberk *p.* SI





G E O G R A P H I C A L T E R M S

SLOVENE	ENGLISH	DEUTSCH	FRANÇAIS	ESPAÑOL	SLOVENE	ENGLISH	DEUTSCH	FRANÇAIS	ESPAÑOL
barje	marsh	Sumpf	marais	pantano	gaj	grove, hurst	Hain	forêt	bosque
bel	white	weiss	blanc	blanco	globok	deep	tief	profond	profundo
bistrica	stream	Stromschnelle	cours d'eau	corriente de agua	gol	treeless	kahl	dénué	arido
boršt	forest	Wald	forêt	selva	gora	mountain, hill	Berg, Hügel	montagne, colline	montaña, colina
brda	hills	Hügelland	collines	colinas	gorenji	upper	ober, hoch	supérieur	superior
brdo	hill	Hügel	colline	colina	gorica	hill	Hügel	colline	colina
breg	bank, slope	Ufer, Hang	rive, pente	orilla, pendiente	gorice	hills	Hügelland	collines	colinas
brod	ford	Furt	gué	vado	gornji	upper	ober, hoch	supérieur	superior
cerkev	church	Kirche	église	iglesia	gorovje	mountain range	Gebirge	montagne	montaña
cesta	road	Strasse	route	calle	gozd	forest	Wald	forêt	bosque
čret	wet meadow	feuchte Wiese	pré humide	prado húmedo	grad	castle	Burg, Schloss	château	castillo
črn	black	schwarz	noir	negro	gradišče	fortified settlement	feste Siedlung	unité d'habitat fortifié	nucleo habitado fuerte
dežela	land	Land	terre	tierra	grič	hill	Hügel	colline	colina
dobrava	rolling lowland	gewellte Ebene	plaine vallonnée	llanura ondulada	gričevje	hills	Hügelland	collines	colinas
dol	valley	Tal	vallée	valle	grm	bush	Busch	buisson	arbusto
dolenji	lower	nieder, unter	inférieur	inferior	hiša	house	Haus	maison	casa
dolg	long	lang	long	largo	hom	hill	Hügel	colline	colina
dolič	small valley	kleines Tal	petit vallée	vallejo	hosta	forest	Wald	forêt	bosque
dolina	valley	Tal	vallée	valle	hrbet	mountain range	Gebirgskette	chaîne de montagnes	cordillera
dolnji	lower	nieder, unter	inférieur	inferior	hrib	hill, mountain	Hügel, Berg	colline, montagne	colina, montaña
domaćija	home	Haim	maison	casa	hribovje	highlands	Bergland	montagne bas	montaña baja
draga	small valley	kleines Tal	petit vallée	vallejo	hudournik	torrent	Wildbach	torrent	torrente
dvor	hall, court	Palast, Hof	palais, cour	palacio, corte	izvir	spring	Quelle	source	fuelle
fara	parish	Pfarre	paroisse	parroquia	jama	cave, grotto	Höhle, Grotte	caverne, grotte	caverna, gruta
fuzina	foundry	Eisenwerk	forge	herrería	jez	dam	Damm	barrage	presa



GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS

SLOVENE	ENGLISH	DEUTSCH	FRANÇAIS	ESPAÑOL	SLOVENE	ENGLISH	DEUTSCH	FRANÇAIS	ESPAÑOL
jezero	lake	See	lac	lago	most	bridge	Brücke	pont	puente
jug	south	Süd	sud	sur	mrzel	cold	kalt	froid	frio
južen	southern	südlich	méridional	meridional	na	on	an	sur	del
kal	pond	Teich	étang	estanque	nad	on, over, above	über, ober	sur	del
kamen	stone	Stein	pierre	piedra	nizek	low	nieder	bas	bajo
kanal	canal	Kanal	canal	canal	nižina, nižavje	lowland	Niederung	basse terre	tierra baja
klanec	ascent	Steigung	montée	pendiente	njiva	field	Acker	champ	campo
korito	river-bed	Flussbett	lit	lecho	nov	new	neu	nouveau	nuevo
kot	closed valley	geschlossenes Tal	vallée fermée	rincón	ob	at	an, bei	le long de, près	cerca
kotlina	basin	Becken	bassin	cuenca	obala	coast	Küste	côte	costa
kraj	settlement	Siedlung	habitat	colonia	občina	municipality	Gemeinde	commune	municipio
krajina	land	Land	pays	tierra, pais	obrh	karstic spring	Karstquelle	source karstique	fuelle cársico
kras	karst area	Karstlandschaft	paysage karstique	paisaje kársico	ocean	ocean	Ozean	océan	océano
križ	cross	Kreuz	croix	cruz	okraj	district	Bezirk	district	distrito
krnica	cirque	Kesseltal	cirque	valle cerrado	otocje	islands	Inseln	îles	islas
laz	clearing	Gereut	clarière	clara, calvero	otok	island	Insel	île	isla
ledenik	glacier	Gletscher	glacier	glaciar	park	park	Park	parc	parque
lep	beautiful	schön	beau	hermoso	pas	zone	Zone	zone	zona
letališče	airport	Flughafen	aéroport	aeropuerto	peč	rock	Fels	roc	roca
log	swamp meadow	Hain	bocage	prado floresta	planina	mountain, mountain pasture	Berg, Gebirge Alm	montagne, alpage	montaña, pastos alpinos
loka	wet meadow	feuchte Wiese	pré humide	prado húmedo	planota	plateau	Hochebene	plateau	meseta
lokev	pond	Teich	étang	estanque	pod	under, below	unter, unterhalb	déssous	debajo
luka	port	Hafen	port	puerto	pogorje	mountains	Gebirge	montagnes	montañas
mali, majhen	little	klein	petit	pequeño	pojezerje	lake area	Seenplate	zone lacustre	zona lacustre
meja	frontier	Grenze	frontière	frontera	poljana	clearence	Feld	champ	campo
mesto	city, town	Stadt	ville	ciudad	polje	field, karst hollow, plain	Feld, Karstbecken, Ebene	champ, champ karstique, plaine	campo, campo cársico
mlaka	pool, puddle	Pfütze	flaque	lodazal	polotok	peninsula	Halbinsel	péninsule	península
mlin	mill	Mühle	moulin	molino	ponikva	swallet	Sickergrube	rivière à perte	perdida da agua subterránea
močvirje	marsh	Sumpf	marais	pantano	potok	stream	Wildbach	torrent	terrente
moder	blue	blau	azur	azul	prag	rise	Schwelle	seuil	umbral
moker	wet, moist	feucht	mouillé, humide	húmedo	predor	tunnel	Tunnel	tunnel	túnel
morje	sea	Meer	mer	mar	prekop	canal	Kanal	canal	canal



SLOVENE	ENGLISH	DEUTSCH	FRANÇAIS	ESPAÑOL	SLOVENE	ENGLISH	DEUTSCH	FRANÇAIS	ESPAÑOL
prelaz	pass	Pass	col	passo	straža	guard	Wache	garde	guardia
preval	pass	Pass	col	passo	strm	steep	steil	abrupt	pendiente
pri	by	bei	près	cerca de, a	studenc	source	Quelle	source	fuelle
pristanišče	port	Hafen	port	puerto	suh	dry	trocken	sec	árido
pristava	farm-buiding	Meierhof	métairie	alqueria	sveti, sv.	saint	sankt, heilig	saint	san, santo
puščava	desert	Wüste	désert	desierto	špik	peak	Spitze	pic	pico
ravan	plain	Ebene	plaine	llanura	tabor	stronghold	Feldlager	camp bien fortifié	campo fortificado
ravnik	tableland	Taffelland	guyot	bancal	topel	warm	warm	chaud	caliente
ravnina	plain	Ebene	plaine	llanura	toplice	thermal springs, spa	Thermalquelle, Thermalbad	source thermique, thermes	fuelle thermal, termas
rdeč	red	rot	rouge	rojo	trata	meadow	Wiese	pré	prado
reka	river	Fluss	fleuve	rio	travnik	meadow	Wiese	pré	prado
retje	karstic spring	Karstquelle	source karstique	fuelle cársico	trg	market	Markt	marché	mercado
ribnik	pond	Teich	étang	estanque	tunel	tunnel	Tunnel	tunnel	túnel
rjav	brown	braun	brun	bruno	ustje	mouth	Mündung	embouchure	desembocadura
rt	cape	Kap	cap	cabo	v	in, at	in	dans, en	en, de
rudnik	mine	Bergwerk	mine	mina	vas	village	Dorf	village	pueblo, aldea
rumen	yellow	gelb	jaune	amarillo	velik	great, big	gross	grand	gran, grande
samostan	convent, monastery	Kloster	couvent, monastère	convento, monasterio	vir	spring	Quelle	source	fuelle
sedlo	pass	Sattel	col	paso	visok	high	hoch	haut	alto
selo	village	Dorf	village	pueblo, aldea	višavje	highlands	Hochland	plateau	meseta
sever	north	Nord	nord	norte	voda	water	Wasser	eau	agua
severen	northern	nördlich	septentrional	septentrional	vrata	pass, strait	Pass, Meeresstrasse	col, détroit	paso, estrecho
skala	rock	Fels	roc	roca	vrh	peak	Gipfel	cime	cima
slap	waterfall	Wasserfall	chute d'eau	cascada	vrtača	doline	Karstdoline	doline	dolina
slatina	mineral water	Mineralwasser	eau minérale	agua mineral	vzhod	east	Ost	est	este
snežnik	snowcaped mountain	schneebedecter Berg	mont enneigé	pico nevado	vzhoden	eastern	östlich	oriental	oriental
soteska	gorge	Schlucht	gorge	garganta	zahod	west	West	ouest	oeste
spodnji	lower	nieder	inférieur	inferior	zahoden	western	westlich	occidental	occidental
spomenik	memorial, monument	Denkmal	monument	monumento	zajezitveno jezero	reservoir	Stausse	réservoir	embalse
srednji	central, middle	mittel	central	central	zelen	green	grün	vert	verde
star	old	alt	vieux	viejo	zgornji	upper	ober	supérieur	superior
stena	wall	Wand	mur	muro	žaga	saw-mill	Sägewerk	scierie	aserradero



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Slovenian flag waving in the wind in front of the United Nations Headquarters in New York.

