

THE TRIGLAV NATIONAL PARK IN THE 1980S

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1. Physical Geography*

The Triglav National Park, as enlarged under legislation passed in 1981, covers 84,805 ha/209,550 acres of the Julian Alps.¹ The Julian Alps, which occupy the north-western corner of Slovenia, form a clearly defined physiographic region within the Alpine system of Central Europe, and the National Park, within its new borders, covers almost the whole of this region. The fault-guided trough of the valley of the Sava marks the northern boundary and separates the Julian Alps from the Karavanke/Karawanken; running from the Italian frontier near Rateče in the west to the industrial town of Jesenice in the east, it has the characteristic U-shape associated with glaciated Alps, and the influence of glaciation is strongly marked as far east as Radovljica. The Park's western boundary is, effectively, the Upper Soča valley, although similar structures extend across the Italian frontier. On the southern margins tectonic faults follow the line of the Soča and Bača valleys from Žaga, near the Italian border, to the valley of the Selščica. The eastern limits of the Park are marked, to the west of Bled, by the valley of the Sava Bohinjka, which separates the high, glaciated plateau of Pokljuka from the Jelovica range.

The geological composition of the Julian Alps belongs primarily to the middle and upper Triassic periods, although lower Jurassic formations occur between Lake Bohinj and Bohinjska Bistrica. The valley floors of the two branches of the Sava and of the Lake Bohinj basin are covered by more recent glacial and alluvial deposits. This basin, which is fault-guided and steeply glaciated, forms an intermediate dividing line between the main Triglav massif and the mountain chain running from Komna to Črna Prst (1844 m/6050 ft.); this chain, in turn, separates the Bohinj basin from the Soča valley. The main rock types are limestones, with Dachstein limestone strongly represented.

The trend lines of the Julian Alps follow the main west-east direction of the Alpine system of Northern Italy, Switzerland and Austria, whilst south of the Soča-Bača line and east of the Sava Bohinjka the trend lines of the Dinaric system (north-west to south-east) can be discerned. Although the Julian Alps are lower than the Alps of Austria or Italy, they include the highest peak in Yugoslavia, Triglav (2863 m/9393 ft.)² and six other peaks which reach elevations of 2500 m/8200 ft., or more.

The hydrography of the Julian Alps contains many of the features associated with areas in which limestones form the predominant surface rocks. There are few of the cave systems associated with the karst (*Kras*) areas of the Dinaric system further south, but intermittent drainage and other karstic features are common.³ There is also a spectacular sinkhole, 270 m/886 ft. deep, the entrance of which lies 2400 m/7874 ft. above sea level on the slopes of Triglav,⁴ and there are ice caves in the same area which are of interest to speleologists.

The Valley of the Seven Lakes (Dolina Triglavskih jezer) that drains south from the summit of Triglav is occupied by an intermittent surface stream, which flows underground for much of its course. For most of the year these seven lakes appear to have no stream either feeding or draining them. The lowest, Črno jezero, drains underground, to emerge half way up the sheer wall of the Komarča cliff as a *source vaclusienne* feeding the waterfall/slap Savica.

This waterfall is the source of the Sava Bohinjka, which flows into Bohinjsko jezero and then through Bohinj and Bled to join the Sava Dolinka near Radovljica. These streams form

the headwaters of the Sava which eventually joins the Danube. The Soča, one of whose sources is the spring known as Izvir Soče to the west of Triglav, flows south to enter the Adriatic near Tržič/Monfalcone in Italy. Thus the watershed between two major European hydrographic systems, the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, runs through the Julian Alps and through the Triglav National Park. The prewar Italo-Yugoslav frontier followed this watershed from Jalovec to the peak of Črna prst between Bohinjska Bistrica and Podbrdo.

2. Flora and fauna

Most of the area is occupied by bare rock plateau surfaces and gaunt limestone peaks which appear at first sight to be totally devoid of vegetation. The lower slopes are wooded, the tree cover consisting mainly of conifers planted for commercial purposes; this is especially the case where the topography and location afford easy access for foresters, as on the Pokljuka plateau and on the sides of the valleys with roads.

Between the wooded areas and the high peaks is found vegetation of a scrub-like character akin to the *maquis* of the Mediterranean. The sparseness of the vegetation over much of the area results from the underlying limestone rocks and the steepness of the slopes, both of which militate against the formation of soils. Rainfall is high, averaging 3000 mm/88.6 inches per year,⁵ compared with less than 1000 mm/29.5 inches in many Mediterranean areas. In the higher areas frost and ice action lead to the formation of screes. The constant wearing down of the surfaces by the action of water and ice inhibits the growth of plant communities in exposed places. However, in sheltered valleys, on the plateaus of Pokljuka and even in the small crevices within the limestone rocks a rich and varied flora is found, including several rare species. The famous Triglav rose (strictly, "Triglav flower"—ed.) (*potentilla nitida/triglavska roža*), the Bohinj iris (*iris cengialti* var. *vochiniensis/bohinjska perunika*) and the Zois campanula (*campanula zoysii/zoisova zvončnica*) are three examples of flowers unique to the Julian Alps. Fauna includes the rock ibex (*capra hircus ibex/alpski kozorog*), the chamois (*rupicapra rupicapra/gams*), the marmot (*marmota marmota/alpski svizec*), the mountain eagle (*aquila chrysaetos/planinski orel*) and several members of the crow family (e.g., *corvus corone/črna vrana*).

3. History

3.1. Before World War One

The appeal of the Julian Alps as an area of recreation and of scientific research has been widely recognized for well over a century. Within easy reach of some of Slovenia's industrial centres (Ljubljana, Kranj, Jesenice), it has been an area where town dwellers can escape to the invigorating air of the mountains in search of health and relaxation. Until recent times the numbers able to avail themselves of these opportunities were limited by economic and transportation factors. The professional middle classes in the towns were able to build holiday homes in places such as Stara Fužina and Ukanc in the Bohinj, or at Kranjska Gora in the Sava Dolinka; it was common for the more affluent to spend the summer on the edge of the mountains. In Austro-Hungarian days hotels in the mountain resorts like Bled were filled with holidaymakers from Vienna, Graz, Budapest and Trst/Trieste.

The building of railways in the nineteenth century made it possible for even relatively poor people to spend holidays from work in the Julian Alps. One leg of the so-called 'Assling triangle' surrounding the Triglav massif linked Jesenice/Assling with Trbiž/Tarvis/Tarvisio along the Sava Dolinka; a second leg led south from Trbiž through

Videm/Udine to Trieste; and the triangle was completed in 1906 by the line through the Podbrdo tunnel, connecting Jesenice via the Soča valley with Gorica/Gorizia and Trieste. The Jesenice-Ljubljana line, which had been opened in 1870, linked the 'Triangle' with the main ('Südbahn') line that ran from Vienna to Trieste. Even before the first World War a traveller from Ljubljana could reach the mountains at Kranjska Gora or Bohinjska Bistrica, journeys of little more than 100 km/65 miles, in about two hours, so that it was possible to spend weekends in the mountains. The Jesenice-Trbiž line no longer exists, and has been replaced by express bus transport; and of course many visitors now have their own cars.

The first recorded ascent of Triglav was on August 26, 1778, when "four brave men" from Bohinj, three hunters and the local doctor from Stara Fužina, Lovrenc Willowitzer, reached the summit. Subsequently the trail that they had blazed was followed by scores of others, including the poet Valentin Vodnik (whose ascent is recorded by a plaque set on a rock near the summit) and the French naturalist Balthazar Hacquet (who had been forced to turn back on his first attempt in 1777).⁶ The great Slovene patriot Baron Karl Zois, whose estates at Stara Fužina included the iron mines and foundry that gave the village its name, was also a pioneer in the scientific exploration of the Julian Alps. In 1785 he built a hut on the shores of the fifth Triglav lake and there entertained botanical researchers. In 1883 the great Triestine Alpinist Dr. Julius Kugy made his first ascent; towards the end of his life, in 1934, he claimed to have made over 40 climbs to the summit.⁷

The formation of the Slovene Alpine Club (*Slovensko planinsko društvo*, henceforward SPD, renamed after World War II as *Planinska zveza Slovenije*, henceforward PZS) in the early years of this century was an indication of the growing interest in climbing amongst young Slovenes. The main focus of activity was the Julian Alps, but climbing in the Kamnik Alps and the Karavanke also came within the scope of the club's activities. The recent rapid growth in membership in the PZS, which had over 90,000 members by 1977,⁸ and the growth of foreign tourism (the numbers visiting the Slovene mountain resorts increased from 180,000 in 1959 to more than 600,000 in 1979⁹) have increased the pressure on the National Park area, and have given rise to problems of conservation that were unknown in the leisurely days before the First World War. Before treating these problems, however, further historical developments must be sketched.

3.2. The Interwar Years

The first organized attempt to protect the natural environment and also the cultural monuments found in the Triglav area were made in the early 1920s. (This is not to disparage the efforts of Zois in the late eighteenth century, or of men like Albin Belar in the early years of the twentieth.)¹⁰ In 1920 the Museum Society of Slovenia (*Muzejsko društvo Slovenije*, henceforward MDS) produced a memorandum with the title "Odsek za varstvo prirode in prirodnih spomenikov [Subsection on the protection of nature and natural monuments]," in which the pioneering work of Albin Belar is mentioned.¹¹ The moving spirit behind this memorandum was Ferdinand Seidl (1856-1942), a natural scientist with wide-ranging interests in geology, meteorology, seismology and botany.¹² One of the first results of the MDS's efforts, which were supported also by the leading members of the SPD, was the passing of legislation to protect endangered species of plants and animals. Regulations were also introduced to protect the limestone caves in the karst regions of Slovenia: there had been legislation in Austrian times for the protection of the famous Postojna caves, when the Slovene nobleman Josip Jeršinovič had been given special rights over the cave systems, but the new Yugoslav laws of the 1920s were more systematic and

less idiosyncratic than the earlier ones. In 1924 protection was extended to the Valley of the Seven Lakes, covering an area of 1400 ha/3459 acres.¹³ This protection was to last for a twenty-year period; it therefore expired in 1944 when the area was within the German zone of occupation; questions of conservation were of course subordinated to the struggle for survival.¹⁴

It is interesting to speculate whether the support enjoyed by the proposals of the MDS and the SPD owed anything to the friendship that was struck in Paris in 1918 between Fanny Copeland, the redoubtable British champion of the South Slav cause, and Dr. Drago Marušič, who became Ban (civil governor) of the Dravska banovina (i.e., in effect, Slovenia) in 1930. Fanny Copeland was an active Alpinist and a supporter of the idea of creating protected zones within the Julian Alps. She wrote about these matters in the journal of the PZS, and in 1932 assisted the members of the Le Play Society in a field tour which led to the publication of a symposium, "Slovene Studies," edited by the well-known British geographer L. Dudley Stamp.¹⁵

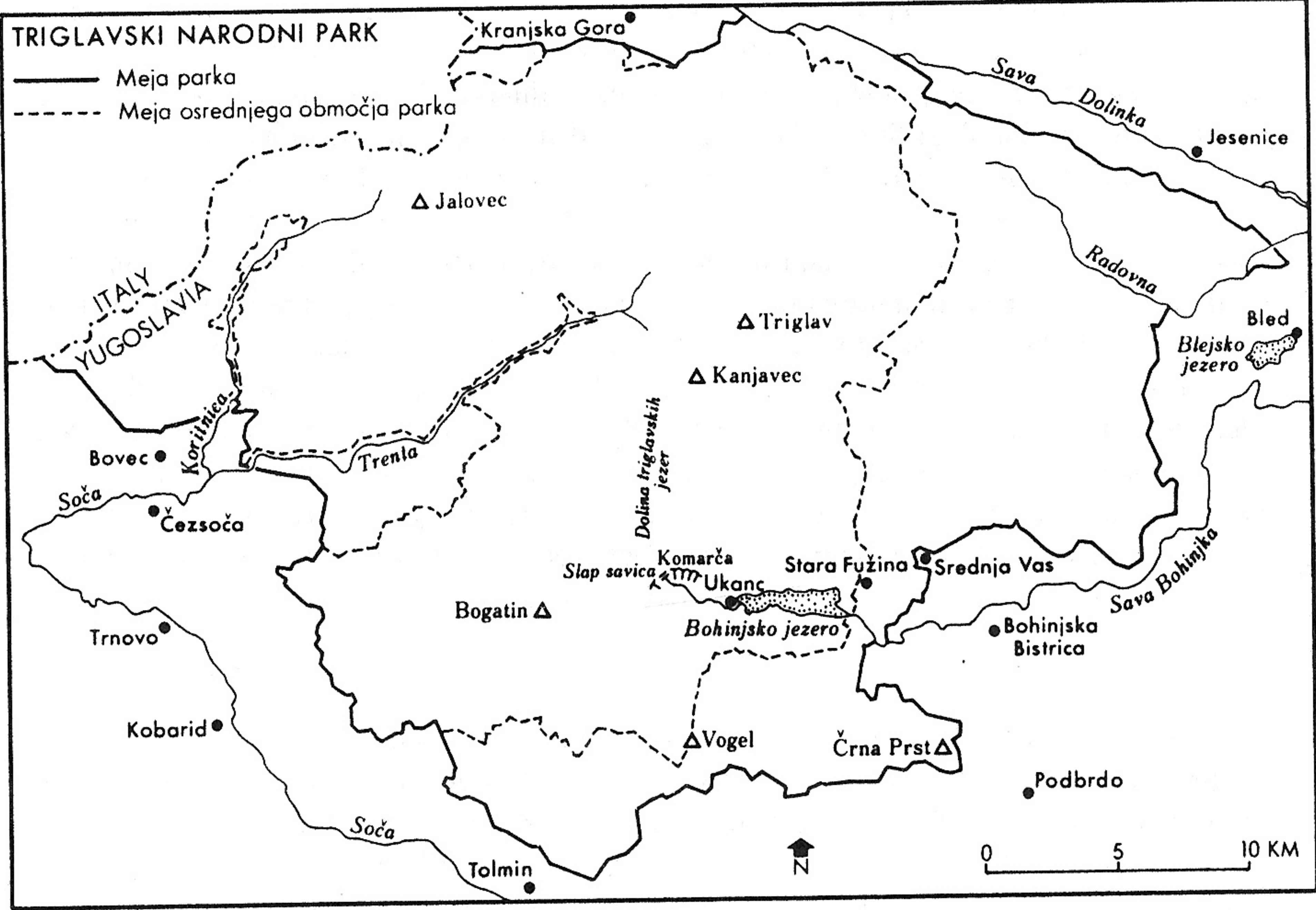
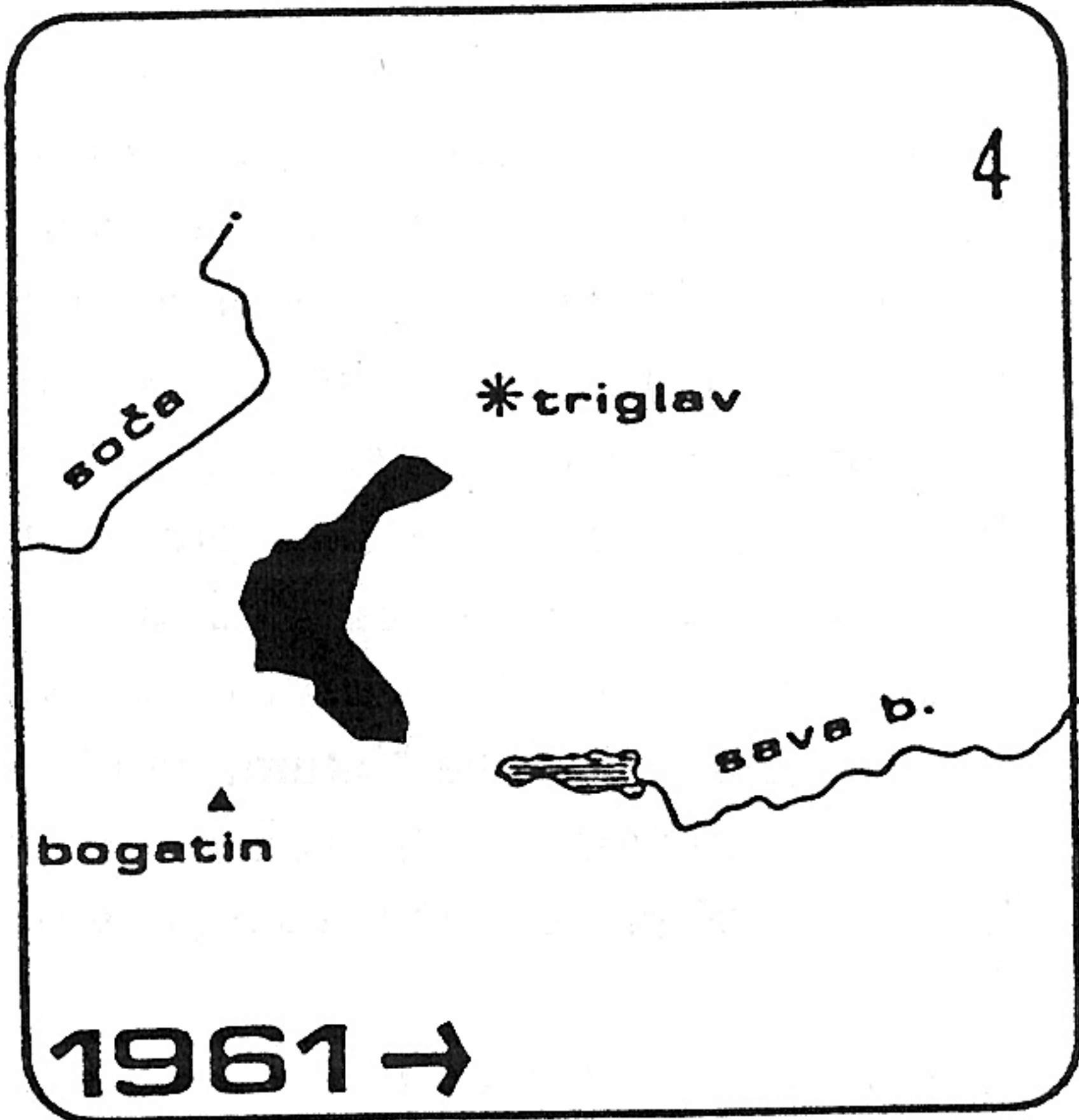
Mrs Copeland's arrival in Ljubljana, as a lecturer in English at the University, arose directly from a discussion with Dr. Marušič about mountaineering in Slovenia. Upon her arrival she soon became involved in the affairs of the SPD and was a familiar figure, with her rucksack and boots, on the paths of her "beautiful mountains."¹⁶ She maintained her contacts with leading Slovene politicians like Marušič and campaigned vigorously for the preservation of the unspoiled beauty of the Julian Alps.

Another keen supporter of establishing a protected zone within the Valley of the Seven Lakes was Dr. Anton Šivic (1879-1963), who drew up the first list of protected flowers, published under the 1924 legislation. This list included two species of primula, the *murka* (*nigittella augustifolia*), a gentian, and several other rare plants.

In 1934 the *Prirodoslovno društvo* (Natural Science Society, henceforward PSD) was founded in Ljubljana. Its first leader was Dr. Stanko Beuk, who in 1920 had been the president of the section of the MDS which was concerned with the protection of nature.¹⁷ During the 1930s the idea of forming a national park was growing amongst concerned people in Slovenia. The term *national park* had first been used officially in the U.S.A in 1872, in the Yellowstone National Park Act; but the idea of designating certain areas of outstanding natural beauty as requiring special protection was older than that, on both sides of the Atlantic.¹⁸ In Slovenia the term *Alpski varstveni park* (Alpine protected park) was used in 1924 to describe the Seven Lakes area; and in the 1930s pressure began to develop for the creation of other, similar parks in the Logarska dolina, the Kamnik Alps and other areas, including the Julian Alps. The term *narodni park* was also used. Before progress could be made, however, the onset of the Second World War prevented the implementation of legislation.

3.3. The Postwar Period

Fortunately many of the leading figures in the movement, such as Šivic, Beuk and Dr. Angela Piskernik (1886-1967) survived the war. They found that the new Slovene government was sympathetic to the idea of nature conservation; legislation was passed to extend legal protection to more species of flora and fauna than had been previously covered. Meanwhile, the situation in the Triglav area had been affected by the postwar frontier changes, which brought the whole of the Upper Soča valley under Yugoslav jurisdiction. The idea of creating a Triglav National Park received legislative form in 1961, with a law passed by the Slovene Assembly. The area concerned covered 2,000 ha/4942 acres (nearly 50% larger than the interwar area) and extended south from the summit of Triglav to take



in Kanjavec (2568 m/8425 ft.), the Valley of the Seven Lakes, Komarča, and Slap Savica.¹⁹

By the 1960s the national park concept had become well established in Yugoslavia. The Plitvice Lakes area in Croatia had been declared a national park, and similar proposals were being made in the other republics, with support from federal and republican authorities. In all the republics and autonomous provinces institutes were set up to engage in research into the problems of preserving both the cultural and the natural heritage of Yugoslavia. In some republics the work of preserving cultural monuments and the natural environment was separated into two organizations, but in Slovenia the two functions were united in one establishment, the *Zavod za varstvo naravne in kulturne dediščine* (ZVNKD: Institute for the Preservation of the Natural and Cultural Heritage), based in Ljubljana. This merging of the two functions in Slovenia may be traced to the origins of the movement, as initiated by the MDS in the 1920s (see above).

4. Conflicts of Interest

4.1. Introduction

The new national park administration, with its headquarters in Bled, was soon involved in problems concerning the resolution of conflicts of interest between various groups that wanted to use the parks. There were pressures from the tourist industry to build hotels, cafes, ski-lifts and other facilities which would enable visitors to make full use of the natural resources. Fishing and hunting, both by individuals and by organized societies, also posed a threat to the wild life of the mountains. If developments such as these were not to be controlled, damage would be done to the environment, which was after all supposed to be protected. In addition, there were commercial interests wanting to exploit the forest resources, the mineral wealth, and the hydro-electric potential of the Alps. During the 1960s and 1970s it became obvious to the park authorities that for them to fulfill their functions properly they had to have greater powers and over a larger area than those originally designated. Several fiercely-contested battles took place, with local farming interests, with the local *občine* and with national tourist organizations. Eventually, in 1981, a comprehensive new law was passed by the Slovene Assembly. This appears to have given the park authorities most of what they were asking for;²⁰ the Park Director, Ivan Fabjan, is reported as saying "The Triglav National Park Act of 1981 has made good provision in law and it can be made to work; we will have to wait and see if it can be sustained."²¹

4.2. The Upper Soča

The battle over the extension of the park boundary, which ended in a compromise solution in the 1981 Act, centered on the valley of the Upper Soča. A proposal in the early 1970s that the districts of Bovec, Kobarid and Tolmin be included in the enlarged park was hotly contested by the local authorities. There was a strong feeling that the economic future of the area depended on the development of its hydro-electric potential; there were various plans for the construction of dams which would have flooded most of the valley between the confluence of the Bača and the Soča near Tolmin and upstream as far as Bovec. The largest of the proposed dams, at Trnovo, was similar to an Italian scheme dating from 1930.²² It should be noted that the economy of the Soča valley had suffered greatly from the effects of twentieth-century international boundary changes. Before 1918 the area was within the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and its mainly rural economy was able to supply produce (wine, fruit, meat, etc.) by train to Gorizia, Udine, Trieste, Tarvisio and towns

in Carinthia and Carniola. In 1918 the Soča valley was incorporated into Italy; although it was able to maintain its contacts with Trieste, its links with the former Austrian markets were cut off. At the same time, the economy of the port of Trieste suffered by its severance from its natural hinterland in the former Austrian lands; and the decline in the economy of Trieste had repercussions on the Soča valley. After 1945 the new Italo-Yugoslav frontier separated Gorizia from the Upper Soča, with further disastrous consequences for people in the area. The once prosperous agricultural region of Goriška Brda, for example, saw a population decline that reflected a decline in the economy: from 11,046 in 1910 to 9,161 in 1931 and then to 3,520 in 1948.²³

The same situation prevailed further up the valley, where early developments of mineral working had stagnated, partly as a result of the disruption caused by war, partly by the border changes that followed the wars. Many residents of the Soča saw hydro-electric power as the instrument that would enable them to re-invigorate the economy and bring prosperity to a declining area. They therefore resented the efforts of conservationists to prevent the development; they saw these efforts as condemning them to a future of picturesque rural poverty within a scenically beautiful but half empty folk museum, of interest only to tourists. The process of consultation that began in the 1970s produced several angry confrontations between the representatives of the Triglav National Park, the Republican Secretariat for Urban Planning, and the ZVNKD, on the one side, and the local communes in the Soča valley on the other. One of the conservationists told me that, on some occasions, tempers were so roused that he feared physical violence at the hands of the angry protestors. Eventually, with the intervention of the Slovene government, a compromise was reached, involving a division of the park into two zones (cf. below), with less stringent controls in the Trenta and Koritnica (i.e., the Upper Soča) valleys, and with the park boundary stopping at the foothills above Bovec, Kobarid and Tolmin.

In return for this concession it was agreed that there would be no hydro-electric developments for at least 20 years. The economy of the valley was to be revitalized by the investment of republican and international funds in a tourism-related project. Within the framework of the North Adriatic Regional Plan, conceived originally by the Planning Institutes of Slovenia and Croatia and partly supported by U.N. funds, it was proposed that Bovec be developed as an Alpine tourist center.²⁴ Later, co-operation with Italy resulted in the construction of ski facilities, to be shared between Bovec and the neighbouring Italian resort of Sella Nevea. One consequence of the decision to abandon the hydro-electricity proposals was the lifting of the 'planning blight' which had afflicted communities such as Čezsoča, near Bovec, which would have been flooded if the Trnovo dam had been built. Buildings which had been neglected were modernized with the help of republican funds, and tourist facilities were expanded. Between 1970 and 1983 the tourist accommodation in the Bovec area was increased from 500 to 2,000 beds;²⁵ and improvements were made to the roads along the valleys.

4.3. Jesenice

There was also opposition to the expansion of the park from the local authorities in Jesenice. Here again hydro-electric schemes were the center of the controversy. The conflict of interest was between the conservationists and the industrial town of Jesenice itself, with its growing demand for electric power. It was proposed to erect a large dam at the entrance to the Radovna valley, which runs parallel to the Sava Dolinka, between the Pokljuka plateau and the Mežakla range. This area lies within the *robno območje* (see below) and already comprised some industrial activity, including forestry on the valley

slopes and the extraction of calcareous mud from the valley floor. The original proposal for one large dam in the Radovna valley was, in 1985, replaced with a suggestion that less environmental damage would be caused by the construction of several smaller dams. However, neither the hydroelectric project nor an extension of the mineral workings has been approved. In distinction to the situation in the Soča valley, the local people have been opposed to the scheme whereas the republican authorities have supported it.

5. Administration

The 1981 Act gave legislative force to the proposed division into two zones. One zone, known as the *robno območje Triglavskega nacionalnega parka* (Peripheral Zone of the Triglav National Park), with an area of 30,585 ha/75,575 acres, covered the Trenta and Koritnica valleys, the winter sports centers of Vogel and Zatrnik, the Pokljuka plateau, and the Radovna valley. The larger zone, known as the *osrednje območje* (or *Jedro*) *Triglavskega nacionalnega parka* (Central Zone, or Kernel, . . .), embraced 54,220 ha/133,978 acres of the wildest terrain, the area of the greatest interest to conservationists. Here there are more stringent controls:²⁶ no permanent residences may be built; hunting, the collecting wild flowers and the use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides are strictly forbidden; and wardens have the power to fine offenders.²⁷ In the Peripheral Zone, on the other hand, lighter controls are in operation: agriculture, building construction, limited economic activities including tourism and forestry, are permitted, albeit subject to planning restrictions.²⁸

With the opposition to expansion of the park area neutralized, the way became clear for the park authorities to obtain their other objectives, although prolonged negotiations have been required within the complicated system of decision-making that is entailed by the self-management structure. The main responsibility for the Triglav National Park lies within the Central Zone. 75% of the funds are derived from the Republic of Slovenia, and the remainder is raised from the *občine* of Radovljica and Tolmin, and from the local *Samoupravne interesne skupnosti* (Self-managing Communities of Interest) concerned with tourism, forestry and cultural activities. There are 24 full-time workers, including administrators and research personnel; and there are 18 wardens, who are paid for by the park authorities. In addition, the PZS provides volunteer wardens and staffs the mountain huts.

6. Problems and Prospects

The park authorities are aware of the need to proceed cautiously and with tact in dealing with the problems now facing them in the extended area under their control. There is little argument about policies within the inner core area of the Central Zone, i.e., Triglav itself, the Valley of the Seven Lakes, Velo polje, and the upper reaches of the valleys which radiate from Triglav northeastwards: Krma, Kot, and Vrata. Here a strict regime of conservation is enforced, and the only access is on foot. The PZS maintains the huts and marks the paths, and there is a long history of friendly co-operation between walkers and climbers and the authorities. The park administration owns 47 small huts and refuges, used by the research staff and the park wardens, and adequate control is maintained. The various attempts by Ljubljana-based tourist enterprises to build chair lifts—even one to the summit of Triglav!—have been held at bay. More recently, plans to build roads, involving the construction of tunnels under the Vršič pass and even from the Vrata valley to Bohinj, i.e. beneath Triglav, have been resisted.

There are bigger problems in the newly acquired areas of the Central Zone, especially in the Bohinj area. Here there is a well established tourist industry with hotels, camp sites and private *vikendice*. There is also a skiing center at Vogel with a cable car lift to the hotel and chair lifts to the upper slopes. In addition, the mountain slopes that are afforested are attractive to lumber operations. In future the construction of hotels will be severely limited, if not completely banned, and new developments will have to be limited to the Peripheral Zone and to places outside the park boundary such as Bohinjska Bistrica.

There has already been some friction between the *vikendica*-owners and the park authorities. In 1985 a group of villagers in Stara Fužina co-operated with a forestry enterprise in bulldozing an access road, to enable them to fell and transport lumber along the northern shore of Lake Bohinj. This was curtailed after legal proceedings were instituted.

At Jesenice, there is very little that can be done to limit the appalling smoke pollution and the discharge of effluent into the Sava. Both originate in large part from the steel works, which is the main employer not only within the town but in a wide area along the fringes of the Park, from Kranjska Gora to Radovljica and to Bohinjska Bistrica. The steel is processed outside the park boundary, but the effects of the pollution penetrate far inside.

Park authorities are interested in the revitalization of the Alpine economy. The main instrument for this must be a properly controlled and regulated tourist industry. The old industries of Alpine agriculture, dairying, cheese making and forestry have a role to play; there is, for example, a cheese factory at Srednja vas. Many people who live in the area around Bohinj find employment in light manufacturing industries at Bohinjska Bistrica. The main thrust of the new development, however, will be in tourism and related industries. Centers like Bled and Kranjska Gora, on the fringes of the Park, attract large numbers of foreign tourists, and in winter the ski slopes of Kranjska Gora and Vogel attract many visitors. It is interesting to note that the Bohinj area, with its small hotels and its many modernized farm-houses, is frequented by more Slovene visitors than foreign tourists, whereas at Bled, with its large hotels, the reverse is true.

7. Conclusion

The appeal of the area to discerning tourists lies in the unspoiled natural beauty which it offers. The problem is to preserve this incomparable asset while at the same time making reasonable facilities available for visitors.

The 1981 Act gives the Park administration the power to fulfil its primary aim, that of the conservation of the natural and of the cultural heritage, with the carrying out of scientific research. It also has the duty of regulating the economy of the Peripheral Zone, with its 25 settlements and 2,000 inhabitants. It has a delicate task in reconciling conflicting interests; it appears that the present administration, under Ivan Fabjan's leadership, is fulfilling this role with skill and sensitivity. As Dr. Fabjan and his staff know, however, constant vigilance is needed to preserve Triglav from those who, wittingly or otherwise, might despoil Slovenia's brightest jewel.

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AUTHOR'S NOTES

- * The author is indebted to J.A. Coley, Honorary Visiting Research Fellow, University of Bradford, for permission to see the typescript of *The Development of the Triglav National Park*, cf. note 21.
1. *Triglavski narodni park. Vodnik* (Bled: Triglavski narodni park, 1985), 9. For further reference, see Marjan Debeljak, Marta Karlovšek-Debelak, Angelca Rus, Marjan Belec, Lojze Peterle, et al., *Triglavski narodni park* (Ljubljana: Urbanistični inštitut SR Slovenije, 1984). A successful British field study is reported in A.E. Moodie, "The Upper Soča Valley," *Geographical Studies* 2.2 (1955) 653-710. For a more recent insight, cf. the interview with Janko Hercog, Secretary of the Komisija za varstvo okolja v republiški skupščini, published in *Delo*, 21 November 1987.
 2. See Anton Melik, *Slovenija. Prvi zvezek* (Ljubljana: Slovenska matica, 1935), chapter 1.
 3. Ivan Gams, "Speleological characteristics of the Slovene Karst," *Naše teme* (Ljubljana) 7 (1965) 41.
 4. Dušan Novak, "Kadaster kraških objektov v ožjem območju Triglavskega narodnega parka," *Varstvo narave* 8 (1975) 3 ff.
 5. Ivan Gams, "Some morphological characteristics of the Dinaric Karst," *Geographic Journal* 135/4 (1969) 567.
 6. Matjaž Kmecl, *The Treasures of Slovenia* (Ljubljana: Cankarjeva založba, 1981) 229.
 7. Julius Kugy, *Alpine Pilgrimage* (London: Murray, 1934) 46.
 8. Kmecl, *Treasures*, 226.
 9. Jacqueline V. Moorcroft, "Foreign tourists to Slovenia," *Tourism in North Western Yugoslavia* (unpub. M.A. thesis, Bradford University 1979) 66-74.
 10. In 1908 Belar proposed the establishment of a "nature protection park over Komarča," see Stane Peterlin, "Nekaj o zametkih in začetkih varstva narave v Sloveniji," *Proteus* 36/9-10 (1974) 3.
 11. Viz.: "Pred leti je predlagal prof. Albin Belar, podpiran po Nemškem Planinskem Društvu, to ozemlje za alpski park osrednji vladi na Dunaju." A facsimile of the memorandum is reproduced on pp. 74-85 as part of the Peterlin's article, "Nekaj o zametkih," reprinted in *Varstvo Spomenikov* 20 (1976) 75-92.
 12. Peterlin, "Nekaj o zametkih."
 13. *Triglavski narodni park*, 7.
 14. Jovan Marjanović, *Narodnooslobodilački rat, narodna revolucija u Jugoslaviji, 1941-1945: kratak pregled* (Belgrade: Kultura, 1956); see the maps facing pp. 24, 48.
 15. Alasdair MacKinnon, "Fanny Copeland," *Journal of the British Yugoslav Society* Winter 1970: 3; and personal interviews with the author between 1959 and 1970.
 16. Fanny Copeland, *Beautiful Mountains* (Chelmsford: Mercury Press/Split: Yugoslav Bureau, 1931); this is a collection of her writings about the Julian Alps.
 17. Peterlin, "Nekaj o zametkih."
 18. Fred Singleton, ed. *Environmental Problems in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe* (Boulder CO: Rienner, 1987) 188-89.
 19. *Triglavski narodni park*, 8.
 20. *Zakon o Triglavskem narodnem parku* (Ljubljana: Skupščina SRS, 1981).
 21. Quoted by J. Alan Coley in *The Development of the Triglav National Park* [= Bradford Studies on Yugoslavia, 8] (Bradford: Bradford UP, 1987).
 22. *Projekt H.E. Trnovo* (Ljubljana: Republiški sekretariat za urbanizem, 1966).
 23. Igor Vrišer, "Goriška Brda: gospodarska geografija," *Geografski zbornik* 2 (1954) 69-109.
 24. *Alpine Tourist Centre, Bovec* (United Nations/Government of Yugoslavia, O.T.A.M, 1973).
 25. Coley, *Development*.
 26. *Triglavski narodni park*, 11.
 27. *Zakon o Triglavskem narodnem parku*, article 12, paras 1-35.
 28. Singleton, *Environmental Problems*, 195.

EDITOR'S NOTE

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POVZETEK

TRIGLAVSKI NARODNI PARK V OSEMDESETIH LETIH

Po geografski predstavitvi Triglavskega narodnega parka in orisu njegove flore in faune, avtor poda kratek opis zgodovine parka v devetnajstem stoletju vse do osemdesetih let našega stoletja. V tem opisu se pobliže dotakne konfliktnih interesov med turizmom, lovom in ribolovom, gozdarstvom in rudarstvom, hidroelektričnimi potrebami in malimi krajevnimi industrijami, in — ekološko zaščito pokrajine. S posebno natančnostjo avtor razpravlja o položaju v Gornjesoški dolini in na področju Jesenic.