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CONTENTS

<i>FEMALE GENITAL MUTILATION AND GIRL-CHILD DILEMMA: THE NIGERIA EXPERIENCE</i>	10
Joseph Adesoji OLUYEMI (University of Ilorin, Nigeria); Joseph Adijaat ADEJOKE (University of Medical Sciences, Ondo, Nigeria); Deborah ADEKEYE (University of Ilorin, Nigeria)	
<i>THE SOCIAL ECONOMY IN ROMANIA: OPPORTUNITIES, VULNERABILITIES AND ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS</i>	20
Dumitru OTOVESCU (University of Craiova, Romania); George CALOTĂ (University „Athenaeum”, Bucharest, Romania); Vlad Ovidiu CIOACĂ (University of Craiova, Romania)	
<i>SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL PATTERNS OF POLARIZATION AND POPULATION DECLINE IN ROMANIA’S DEMOGRAPHY: 1992-2018</i>	41
Giorgian GUȚOIU (“Lucian Blaga” University of Sibiu, Romania)	
<i>DIACRONY AND SYNCHRONY OF THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS (SEN)</i>	59
Maria CONSTANTINESCU (University of Craiova, Romania); Corina TONITA University of Craiova, Romania)	
<i>TIME WORK FOR ORGANIC WINE CONSUMERS IN ROMANIA. FROM CELEBRATORY TO CUSTOMARY</i>	70
Oana Maria STAN (University of Bucharest, Romania)	
<i>THE SINGLE PARENT FAMILY: FROM MARGINALIZATION TO NORMALCY AND ACCEPTANCE</i>	61
Oana Lavinia FILIP (University “Eftimie Murgu” of Reșița, Romania); Lavinia Elisabeta POPP (University “Eftimie Murgu” of Reșița, Romania); Felicia ANDRIONI (University of Petroșani, Romania)	
<i>LEGAL CONDITIONS NEEDED FOR ENGAGING THE DISCIPLINARY RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TEACHING STAFF</i>	92
Adrian NICOLESCU University of Craiova (Romania)	
<i>SELF-ESTEEM AND DEPRESSIVE TENDENCIES AS RISK FACTORS IN SUBSTANCE CONSUMPTION IN YOUTH</i>	101
Claudia SĂLCEANU (Ovidius University of Constanța, Romania)	
<i>AGING AND QUALITY OF LIFE IN ELDERLY PEOPLE</i>	110
Maria CONSTANTINESCU (University of Craiova, Romania); Alexandru Liviu CERCEL (University of Craiova, Romania)	

SHORT CONSIDERATIONS ON MANIFESTATIONS OF AUTONOMY OF WILL: CONTRACTUAL NEGOTIATION AND IMPREVISION	122
Andreea Mariana SIMA (Institute of Legal Research "Acad. Andrei Rădulescu", Bucharest, Romania)	
ADVANCED UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT - DETERMINANT FACTOR IN QUALITY ASSURANCE IN EDUCATION	129
Roxana PLEȘA (University of Petroșani, Romania)	
NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL IN THE VALORIZATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES: DILEMMAS AND PERSPECTIVES	140
Liliana Gabriela ILIE ("Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University, Iași, Romania)	
THE EFFECTS OF THE "REFUGEE CRISIS" IN THE EUROPEAN UNION AND IN ROMANIA	148
Cristina ILIE GOGA (University of Craiova, Romania)	
DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: A DETERMINING FACTOR IN THE SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN	161
Oana Lavinia FILIP (University "Eftimie Murgu" of Reșița, Romania); Lavinia Elisabeta POPP (University "Eftimie Murgu" of Reșița, Romania); Felicia ANDRIONI (University of Petroșani, Romania)	
FAMILY AND RELIGION: TWO FORMS OF ROMANIAN SOCIAL CAPITAL	168
Cristian NICULA (University of Craiova, Romania)	
LAND: A DETERMINING FACTOR FOR THE VILLAGE AS A HUMAN SETTLEMENT	186
Maria CRĂCIUN (University of Craiova, Romania)	
THE ROLE OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	194
Adriana JIDOVU (University of Craiova, Romania)	
DEMOGRAPHIC CRISIS AND DEPOPULATION IN RURAL AREAS	204
Vasile GOGONEA (University of Craiova, Romania)	
BOOK REVIEW: Laurent Tessier. <i>Éduquer au numérique? Un changement de paradigme, Paris: Éditions Mkf, 2019, 180p.</i>	211
Gabriela MOTOI (University of Craiova, Romania)	
BOOK REVIEW: Schiop, Adrian. 2018 [2017]. <i>Șmecherie și lume rea: Universul social al manelelor [Trickery and Perverted World. The Social Universe Of Manele]. Kishinev: Cartier Anthropologic</i>	215
Andreea-Cătălina PANAIT (University of Montreal, Canada)	

FEMALE GENITAL MUTILATION AND GIRL-CHILD DILEMMA: THE NIGERIA EXPERIENCE

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Abstract: *Female genital mutilation may have been outlawed in Nigeria; it is still widely practiced in several Nigerian societies and cultures. The focus of this paper is to explore the practice of female genital mutilation in Nigeria on the girl-child. In order to achieve this, the paper was broadly classified as the good, bad, and ugly. The study revealed that, Nigeria has one of the highest numbers of female genital mutilation in the world and that the practice is more prevalent in the southern part of the country than what is obtainable in the northern parts of the country although to an extreme in certain areas in the north. It was also discovered in the study that, female genital mutilation is more prevalent in societies with high rates of illiteracy, ignorance, poverty and low status of women. The study concludes that, the place of culture in any society cannot be over-emphasized; therefore the significance of female genital mutilation as a cultural practice to societies and culture in Nigeria cannot be undermined. It also concludes that since female genital mutilation is deeply rooted and entrenched in many Nigerian societies, total abolition of female genital mutilation may not be feasible because of its cultural significance which is imperative for the survival of the society. Therefore, despite the health implications of female genital mutilation on girls and women, there is cultural justification for the practice and as such, the study recommends clinical procedure for female genital mutilation in Nigeria.*

Key words: *female genital mutilation; girl-child; patriarchal; culture; male dominance.*

Introduction

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is the partial or total removal of the exterior female genital and/or any form damage done to the female genital organs as a result of cultural or other non-therapeutic intentions (World Health Organization, 1998). Although FGM has been outlawed in Nigeria by the Nigerian government, Toppin (2015) and Richards (2015) FGM is still widely practiced among many societies and cultures in the country (Goldberg, 2015 & Nkwopara, 2015).

Despite decades of campaign against the practice of FGM and its attendant implications on the health of the girl-child in Nigeria by concerned authorities, this traditional practice is still legendary and deep rooted in many cultures in and around the country (Onuh, Igbarese, Umeora, Okogbeni, Ofoide & Agariki, 2006; World Health Organization, 2008; and United Nations Children Fund, 2011).

The reason being that, FGM is deeply entrenched and justified on social and cultural grounds among many cultures in the country (Nnorom, 2000). Often times, the origin of FGM and its significance to people is clouded in mystery, ambiguity, misunderstanding and usually distracted with justification such as, introduction of the girl child into womanhood, a way of securing their virginity, controlling girl-child promiscuity and protecting female modesty (Asaab, 1980 & Odoi, 2005). In some other quarters, when the girl-child is circumcised, it is believed that it is a sign that she is pure Erlich (1986) while those that are not circumcised are professed as soiled for marriage and as a result may not be able to control their sexual urge later in life which may in turn make them vulnerable to promiscuity or infidelity in marriage

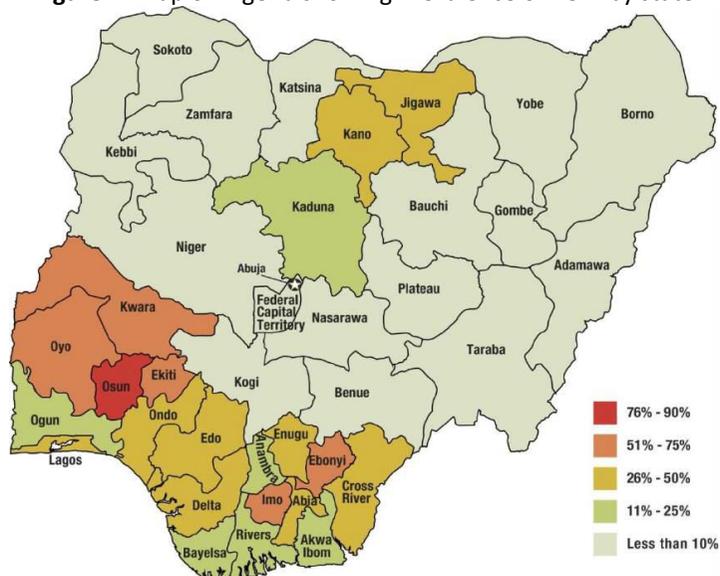
In Nigeria, FGM is broadly categorized into four major types (WHO, 1997). These include: Type I "clitoridectomy", which involves the removal of the prepuce or the hood of the clitoris and all or part of the clitoris. Type II "Sunna" involving the removal of the clitoris along with partial or total excision of the labia minora. Type III is the most severe and is called "infibulations" involving the removal of the clitoris, the labia minora and adjacent medial part of the labia majora, stitching of the vaginal orifice, leaving an opening of the size of a pin head to allow for menstrual flow or urine while Type IV is unclassified, involving introcision and gishiri cuts, pricking, piercing, or incision of the clitoris and/or labia, scraping and/or cutting of the vagina (angry cuts), stretching the clitoris and/or labia, cauterization, the introduction of corrosive substances and herbs in the vagina, and other forms.

Nigeria is said to have one of the highest incidences of FGM in the world representing about one-quarter of the estimated 115-130 million circumcised women all over the world (Okeke, Anyaehie & Ezeanyaku, 2012). With over 250 ethnic groups found in Nigeria, Ayatse (2013), comprising of six major ethnic groups namely: Yoruba, Hausa, Fulani, Ibo, Ijaw, and Kanuri, only the Fulani do not practice any form of FGM. (Senior Coordinator for International women's Issues, 2005). The rate of practice varies from one geopolitical zone, state and ethnic group to another with the highest prevalence reported from the Southern geopolitical zones of the country, among the Yoruba and Igbo ethnic groups. The Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (2003) report has it that, FGM is mostly prevalent in the South-western part of the country with 56.9% followed by South-east with 40.8% South-south with 34.7%, north-central with 9.6%, north-east 1.3% and north-west 0.4%. It has also been revealed that FGM is more predominant in societies with high level of illiteracy, ignorance, poverty and places with low status of women in Nigeria (Otu, Ukwai & Ushie, 2012).

But, ever since FGM was outlawed in by the Nigerian government in 2015, Ogbona (2016) there has been numerous agitations for the enforcement of the ban from various quarters (Ifijeh, 2015 & Joseph, 2015). However while a school of thought oppose the legalization of FGM claiming that it will complicate the elimination of the phenomenon in the Nigerian society, other school of thought supports clinical treatment because it is a practical strategy to approach health problems and aiding the goal in the recovery of whole community. Therefore, there seem to be a dilemma between the choice of legalizing clinical treatment of FGM or the criminalization of FGM as a whole (Obiora, 1997).

It is against this backdrop that this study is being conducted; the study therefore explores the good, the bad and the ugly aspects of FGM in Nigerian societies and cultures. The study intends to juxtapose the cultural significance of FGM *vis a vis* the health implication on the girl-child and the possible way forward.

Figure 1: Map of Nigeria showing Prevalence of FGM by state



Source: 28 too many 2016

1. Theoretical Foundation

In trying to explain FGM within the context of girl-child dilemma in Nigeria. This study employed the Social Dominance Theory (SDT). SDT is an intergroup theory that was first formulated in 1999 by Sidanius and Pratto (1999) which focused on the maintenance and stability of group-based social hierarchies in societies. The theory holds that human social groups are organized according to group-based social hierarchies such as age, sex and are culturally defined. These group-based inequalities are further sustained through specific institutional discrimination, aggregated individual discrimination, and behavioral asymmetry.

According to SDT, extensively shared cultural ideologies such as legitimizing myths offer the moral and intellectual rationalization for these intergroup behaviors. Males for example are more dominant than females, and possess more political power with most high-status positions held by males. In patriarchal societies where males tend to be more dominant than their female counterpart; SDT postulates that males will tend to have a higher social dominance orientation (SDO) and as such males will tend to function as hierarchy enforcers using discriminating acts that places them far above the female.

Resting on the aforementioned assumptions of SDT, this study postulates that girl-child in Nigeria faces FGM dilemma as a result of the patriarchal nature of the Nigerian society in which intergroup relationship between male and female is determined and male dominance is culturally entrenched. The right of the girl-child is hypothesized to be subjugated with FGM which is justified within cultural and legitimizing myths in order to favor the male-folk at the expense of the girl-child. It is therefore presumed that with FGM, the girl-child is marginalized, discriminated upon and reduced to an inferior commodity in order for the society to conserve and sustain the long existing and traditional patriarchal status quo between men and women in Nigeria.

SDT was criticized for arguing against the evolutionary origin of the social dominance, questioning the origins of social conflict, the significance and role of the Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) paradigm, falsifying behavioral asymmetry, impressing a substitute to understanding attitudes to power, shared self-interest and a reductionism as well as philosophical idealism of SDT (Wilson & Liu, 2010).

2. The Good: Socio-Cultural Justification

In many Nigerian societies and cultures, FGM is practiced for a number of cultural reasons and these reasons transcends several generations. One of the factors that inspire families to circumcise their daughters in Nigeria is the family's concern about the girl-child inability to marry if she is not circumcised. This is because, many cultures in the country hold the believe that when the girl-child is circumcised, it is a sign that the girl-child is pure (Erlich, 1986). Therefore, girls that are not circumcised are perceived as filthy for marriage as such it is alleged that such may not have control over their sexual cravings after maturity and may be susceptible to promiscuity or being unfaithful in marriage (La Barbera, 2010).

Also, Verzin (1975) has equally argued further that, FGM is practiced in many cultures in Nigeria in order to safeguard family honor by sustaining virginity in girls until they get married thereby curbing infidelity in the society and averting the shame that will come to such family where the girl come from. This is because; virginity is highly respected in many societies and cultures in Nigeria as a vital requisite for marriage and vastly associated to female honor. Therefore it becomes a taboo in some cultures if this requisite is not met at marriage as such girl-child may be seen as an outcast and sometimes ostracized from such communities if found

guilty. In addition to this, Ahmadi (2013) has also contended that, uncircumcised women have lower fertility powers when equaled to circumcised women and are not able to control their sexual urge. Therefore, FGM particularly infibulations is presumed to reduce a woman's sexual craving and reduce enticements to have extramarital sex thereby helping to preserve a girl's virginity (AID, 2013).

Consequently, in some other societies and cultures in Nigeria, FGM is often widely believed to be necessary before a girl-child can be considered being a complete woman thereby welcoming them to their future roles in life and marriage. According to Amnesty International Documents (2013), FGM is a sign of initiation into adulthood in many societies and also defines who fit in to a community. The report further states that, a girl cannot be considered an adult in some societies where FGM is widely practiced unless she has undertaken FGM. In some societies the female genital are usually regarded as unattractive and dirty; therefore, un-mutilated women are usually regarded as impure and are not allowed to handle food and water and that the removal of the clitoris and labia is thought to enhance the girl's femininity synonymous with docility and obedience (AID, 2013). Thus, FGM in such societies are perceived as a sign of maturity that is often marked with ceremonies initiating the girl-child into womanhood and intimate them with their duties as future women in the society (Joseph, 2003). In many cases, these ceremonies are highly valued and are usually accompanied with dancing, singing and cooking special dishes as a part of their culture.

3. The Bad: Health Implications

FGM has a number of health implications on the girl-child with attendant effects on their health and future. In some cases when a girl's clitoris and labia are cut away, they are usually done with crude unsterile instrument in unsafe environments without any form of anesthetics by traditional practitioners who do not have broad knowledge of human anatomy (UNICEF, 2013). Health complications such as excessive bleeding from genitals, urine retention, genital tissue swelling, severe pain and problems with healing of wounds are usually evident in such situation (El Dareer, 1983; Institute National de la Stastique, 2005). In addition to the immediate health complications aforementioned, findings from previous study have also suggested that a significant relationship exist between FGM and reproductive health problems in women in many cases (Otu, Ukwai and Ushie (2012). Furthermore, FGM can be considered medically harmful to the girl-child by causing complications such as infertility in marriage, sexually transmitted infections and a further avenue invasion of other diseases into the body such HIV/AIDs (Gruenbaum 1982, Gordon 1991, Inhorn and Buss 1991 and Larson 2002).

Subsequently, further study conducted by Okonofua et al. (2012) has also shown that, abdominal pain, discharge and genital ulcers were more frequent associated to circumcised women. According to Klouman et al. (2005) bacterial vaginosis and herpes virus (HSV2) were also more frequent among circumcised

women while studies on labour and delivery problems have also found significant relationships between circumcised women and perineal tears (Larsen and Okonofua 2002), foetal distress (Vangen 2002) and general difficulties (Jones et al 1999). This therefore means that the health implication of FGM on the health of the girl-child cannot be overemphasized. Many of which will not only affect the girl-child well-being and wellness but may also lead to morbidity of the girl-child's body and even death if not properly and timely handled.

4. The Ugly: Psycho-Social Implications

The psycho-social implications of FGM on the girl-child cannot be undermined. FGM has been viewed as a form of violence against women and is widely recognized as violation of human right (Adebimpe, 1986 & Okeke, Anyaehie and Ezenyeaku, 2012). In addition, it has been discovered that FGM affect the mental and emotional well-being of the girl-child as a result of the fact that, in most cases, when FGM is being carried out on the girl-child, it usually result to long-term consequences such as pelvic infection leading to sterility with difficulty in urinating and a high risk of obstructed labor which affects them psychologically (Otu, Ukwai & Ushie, 2012). Furthermore, it has also been discovered that circumcised girls are usually more likely to suffer adverse consequences for sexual enjoyment thereby leading to psychological problems for them later in life (El Defrawi et al 2001). In addition, according to a UNICEF (2005) report, FGM is usually painful for the girl-child also is usually carried out at a very tender age when without the girl's consent, thus allowing the girl-child to experience excruciating pains that they do not have the capacity to handle because of their age an time. FGM is therefore dehumanizing to the girl-child constituting an extreme form of violation, intimidation and discrimination thereby severely deteriorating girls' current and future quality of life by lowering their self-dignity and self-esteem (Oduro et al, 2006; Larsen, 2002; and Ibekwe et al (2012).

Conclusion

This study has been able to explore the good, the bad and the ugly aspects of FGM in the Nigerian society and cultures. The study found that Nigeria account for one of the highest number of FGM incidences in the world as a result of Nigeria's large population in which women almost equate men in number. The study also discovered that the practice of FGM is more prevalent in the Southern part of the country with greater practice in societies with high rates of illiteracy, ignorance, poverty and low status of women. The study noted that the place of culture in any society cannot be over-emphasized; therefore the significance of FGM as a cultural practice to the societies that practice them should not be undermined. Despite the health implications and psychological impacts of FGM on the girl-child and, there is cultural justification for FGM especially if the societies that practice them must

maintain order. This can be viewed from socialization perspective, where an individual is internalized with values, norms and customs necessary for the individual to interact within his/her own society. Therefore if the value of the society is that the girl-child should maintain virginity and purity until marriage, FGM can be used to enforce this value.

This study therefore concludes that since FGM is deeply rooted and entrenched in the Nigerian societies and cultures because of its cultural significance which of imperative for the survival of the society, total eradication of FGM may not be in view as an agent of order in the society.

Recommendations

In the light of the above and in order to guide against health complications that may arise as a result of this, this study recommends mass enlightenment programmes on adequate information on FGM especially in the rural areas where FGM is mostly practiced educating local practitioners of FGM on safer means of carrying out FGM. This will help to avoid inflicting unnecessary pain on the girl-child and also to save the girl-child from psychological trauma that may arise as well as other health implications that may affect the future of the girl-child. Above all, the study recommends the choice of legalization of clinical treatment for FGM in Nigeria.

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THE SOCIAL ECONOMY IN ROMANIA: OPPORTUNITIES, VULNERABILITIES AND ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS

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Abstract: *This article presents the results of the research activity carried out within the Project entitled “Alternative policies in the social economy”, implemented between 27.04.2018 - 26.11.2019 by Uniunea Generală a Industriașilor din România (UGIR 1903), filiala Dolj / The General Union of Industrialists of Romania (UGIR 1903), Dolj Branch. The project was financed from the Operational Program Administrative Capacity 2014-2020 and had as purpose the elaboration of an alternative public policy proposal in the field of social economy in Romania. We will discuss, for a start, the methodological benchmarks and theoretical premises that guided the investigative approach. We will delimit the sphere of the concept of “social economy”, as it is understood in the scientific literature and in the European and national documents of public policy, after which we will review the most important trends that have characterized the evolution of the third sector at international level in the last ones decades. During the research, study visits were undertaken to the social enterprises in Trieste, Italy, considered a successful model and, at the same time, a concrete example of the functionality and sustainability of the social economy systems. After presenting the Triestian system as a model of good practice, we will operate a retrospective on the emergence and implementation of the social economy in Romania, both under institutional and legal report, in order to be able to make a correct diagnosis on the current state of affairs. Finally, starting with the public policy proposal, we will propose a series of concrete solutions for the consolidation and development of the social economy in Romania.*

Key words: *social economy; structure of social economy; social enterprise; third sector; Trieste; Romania;*

Introduction

Between 27.04.2018 - 26.11.2019, Uniunea Generală a Industriașilor din România (UGIR 1903), filiala Dolj / The General Union of Industrialists of Romania (UGIR 1903), Dolj Branch, as beneficiary, implemented the project entitled *Alternative policies in the social economy*, financed from the Operational Program Administrative Capacity 2014-2020. The project has achieved two results, respectively:

- increasing the capacity of UGIR 1903, Dolj branch, to get involved in the formulation and promotion of alternative proposals to the public policies formulated by the Government;
- elaborating and accepting an alternative public policy proposal in the field of social economy.

Both results, achieved in the implementation phase of the project, were materialized in the alternative public policy proposal in the field of social economy, elaborated in accordance with the provisions of the *Regulation on procedures, at the Government level, for the elaboration, approval and presentation of the draft policy documents. public, of the draft normative acts, as well as of other documents, for the adoption / approval*, approved by GD no. 561 of 10.05.2009, and which is based on a research activity.

Subsequent to the elaboration of the alternative public policy proposal in the field of social economy, the document was sent to the relevant ministry for the purpose of valorization, an entity that communicated to UGIR 1903, Dolj Branch that "the public policy proposal and its foundation will be forwarded to the attribution department. on the elaboration, promotion and implementation of public employment policies".

Currently, the project entitled *Alternative policies in the social economy* is in the sustainability stage. Thus, through this article we aim to disseminate the results of the research activity, carried out within the project entitled *Alternative policies in the social economy*, which had as purpose the elaboration of an alternative public policy proposal in the field of social economy.

1. Research methodology

The first stage of the research involved a sustained documentation effort, which consisted of studying the scientific literature relevant to the field of social economy, analyzing the systems of social economy performing at European level, studying the international and national legislation, the registers and the available statistical databases. The purpose of the documentation phase was to identify and correctly define the problem and the causal chain that supports it. In the synthesis, the problem tree method was used to identify and analyze the problem, systematic statistical analysis, document analysis, secondary analysis.

Also, in order to obtain adequate documentation, the trends in the field at European and international level were identified. This activity was carried out by participating in the Annual European Conference on Social Economy Structures (CEFEC), organized in Trieste on June 18-20, 2019. Participation in this event included working visits to social economy enterprises in the city of Trieste, Italy.

Starting from the theoretical premises, the available empirical data and the information acquired during the working visit, the results of the research activity were materialized in the elaboration of the public policy document, which, in the form of a "project", was submitted to the public debate by promoting this in the online environment, as well as through a number of 5 public debates organized in 5 Development regions of the country, respectively South-West Oltenia Region, Bucharest-Ilfov Region, West Region, North-East Region and South-East Region .

Thus, the public policy document was finalized by involving a number of 190 persons, representing 228 entities from all 8 development regions of the country, out of which 146 entities representing civil society and 82 public institutions.

At the same time, the SWOT analysis was used to finalize the research, in order to formulate conclusions regarding the proposal formulated to increase the degree of development of the social economy.

2. The defining landmarks of the social economy

From the multitude of acceptances of the social economy, we have kept, as a starting point for carrying out the research, the following working definitions:

- "The social economy is the set of activities organized independently by the public sector, whose purpose is to serve the general interest, the interests of a community and / or the non-patrimonial personal interests, by increasing the employment rate of the persons belonging to the vulnerable group and / or the production and supply of goods, the provision of services and / or the execution of works. The social economy is based on the private, voluntary and solidarity initiative, with a high degree of autonomy and responsibility, as well as the limited distribution of the profit to the associates." (Legea nr. 219/2015 privind economia socială);
- "Private enterprises, formally organized, with decision-making autonomy and freedom of association, created to meet the needs of members through the market, through the production of goods and the provision of services, insurance and financing, in which the decision-making process and any distribution of profits or surpluses between members is not directly related to the capital contribution or the contributions paid by the members, each of them having one vote." (Avila, Campos, 2012).

The structures of social economy are characterized by commitment and perseverance in achieving the social purpose; through a formal, bureaucratic way of organization and functioning, without the social purpose excluding the obtaining of the profit, which occupies a secondary position in the priorities of the organization.

The legal forms of the social economy structures vary from state to state. However, regardless of the legal status, the social economy structures, in order to be included in this category, must operate according to seven principles, set out in the *Charter of the Principles of Social Economy* (Social Economy Europe - CEP-CMAF, 2001):

- not maximizing the profit, but the social purpose guides the activity of the organization;
- solidarity and collective responsibility;
- to complement the interests of the members associated with the social purpose;
- democratic mechanisms of management and control at the organizational level;
- the association is free and voluntary;
- the organization is autonomous and independent of the state authority;
- the profit is oriented, for the most part, in the direction of the social purpose.

By its *sui generis* character, the social economy sector is included by the specialized literature and European documents in the *third sector* sphere, which includes activities of public interest and enjoys the support of the state, but takes private forms of association and functioning (Salamon, Helmut, 1992: 267-309). In many countries of the European Union (since 2015 also in Romania), the social economy structures have a distinct legal status and can benefit from a series of fiscal or non-fiscal privileges (e.g. tax exemptions, seat insurance from the authorities, counseling legal, services for staff with disabilities etc.). The nature and forms of these facilities vary according to the legislation of each state, which makes it difficult to analyze the degree of development of the sector at international level or at the level of the European Union and to carry out comparative public policy studies.

Therefore, the social economy sector brings together those economic entities oriented in their activity towards the innovative, pragmatic and sustainable solution of the social problems of a certain community (companies with therapeutic purpose) or which seek the transformation of a community or of the global society in a desirable sense, without responding in a specific way to specific problems (companies that follow the social progress). Any enterprise that programmatically assumes one of these goals, operationalizing it into objectives and subsuming it a set of related and lasting activities, bears the name of *social economy structure (S.E.S.)* or, more specifically, of *social enterprise*.

Of scientific interest is the distinction between social economy and social entrepreneurship, the latter concept referring to "the process by which resources are used in various combinations in order to capitalize on existing opportunities, to create value by meeting social needs, to stimulate change. social organizations or to set up new organizations with social mission" (Mair, Marti, 2006: 36-44).

The social entrepreneur proposes the accomplishment of the social reform through the economic activity, starting from the following principles (Conferința Națională pentru Antreprenoriat Social, 2009: 11):

- assuming a mission by which not the individual advantage, but the creation and the support of a social value guides the economic activity;
- the mission, based axiologically on the social value, is systematically pursued through the recognition and capitalization of all the opportunities that have appeared;
- identifying innovative solutions to social problems, promoting lifelong learning and adapting to the alert pace of social change;
- the scarcity of resources does not limit the action, but encourages new opportunities for development and innovation and conversion of existing capital;
- the activity is guided by the principle of responsibility towards the beneficiaries and the devotion to the social value.

Social and economic life offers a wide range of fields that can be subject to social economy structures. These include, but are not limited to, services provided to persons with disabilities, children with parents abroad, renovation of housing in disadvantaged areas, environmental protection, community security, handicrafts, etc. (Ziomas et al., coord., 2012) An inventory of activities that fall within the sphere of functioning of the social economy, as they are understood at international level and which is not exhaustive is presented in *table 1*.

Table 1. Activities that can be the object of social economy structures

Sector of economic activity	New occupational specializations and services
1. <i>Domestic services: - old people - persons with disabilities - families with working parents</i>	Domestic help for the elderly Domestic help for people with disabilities Domestic workers People for the maintenance of domestic equipment Financial advisors for families
2. <i>Child care</i>	Preschool care Creative work for preschoolers Therapeutic teaching for children with learning problems Operation of mobile units for early education Entertainers of cultural activities and sports for children
3. <i>New information and communication technologies</i>	Telematics (for remote areas) Internet operators Organization and operation of infocampus and multimedia operators Operation of regional networks and databases for local governance Advisers using multimedia simulation
4. <i>Supporting disadvantaged young people (with poor qualifications,</i>	Entertainers for disadvantaged young people Consultants before training, literacy Guidance counselors Consultation for social integration Consultants for teaching instruction and remediation

Sector of economic activity	New occupational specializations and services
<i>social reintegration)</i>	
5. <i>Maintenance, renovation, improvement of buildings</i>	Maintenance operators for residential buildings Maintenance operators for industrial buildings Renovations of buildings Interior design designer Restoration and rehabilitation of traditional buildings
6. <i>Security services</i>	Technicians in electrical protection technology Protection and guard for domestic, commercial or industrial complexes Provision of financial protection in high risk activities Car transport for children Organization of school meetings
7. <i>Local transport service</i>	Dispatch operators Organization of public transport service by local government Officials of the transport agencies Local multifunctional public transport operators Maintenance of vehicles
8. <i>Adjustment of the urban environment</i>	Configuration and maintenance of sidewalks, public markets etc. Renovation and maintenance of common areas Recreational places Community room arrangements The arrangement and maintenance of recreational spaces
9. <i>Management and operation of shops and businesses locally</i>	Promotion and marketing of local products Community operating rooms Packaging and labeling of local products Crafts and rural tourism development Entertainment
10. <i>Local tourism services</i>	Director of tourism Director of cultural tourism Director of sports tourism Director of health tourism Entertainment
11. <i>Audio-visual and technical</i>	Sound technicians for local radio stations Advertising agencies Radio producers Media producers in audio-visual Producers of television or video information shows
12. <i>Cultural heritage protection and conservation services</i>	Traditional craftsmen of wood Traditional pottery - pottery Traditional knitting materials - textiles Traditional painters Traditional musicians
13. <i>Development of local culture</i>	Promotion and marketing of local folk art products. Organization and operation of local dance clubs Organization and functioning of the local music school Organization and operation of themed local museums
14. <i>Waste management</i>	Management and recycling Management and recycling of waste and wastewater Promotion and marketing of recycled products and materials Manufacture of products from recycled materials
15. <i>Water management</i>	Maintenance of urban water supply networks Development and maintenance of water supply in rural areas Measurement and monitoring of water consumption

Sector of economic activity	New occupational specializations and services
	Maintenance, cleaning and construction of wells and tanks Computer programs for water resources management
16. <i>Protection and preservation of green spaces</i>	Public parks and green spaces Forestry - exploitation of forest products Tourist routes - construction of forest roads and paths Protection of forests against fire Use of aromatic plants
17. <i>Environmental quality control regulations</i>	Controllers for vehicles with emissions Greenhouse gas emission controllers Directors of wastewater quality and sewerage quality control Managers of vehicles and other vehicles with atmospheric emission Administrators for burners (boilers)

Source: Ziomas, Dimitris et al.. coord., 2012.

Some authors (The Danish Commerce and Companies Agency, 2009) point out that the *objective goals* of the enterprise (solving the social problem, improving the target group's condition, increasing the quality of life in the target community etc.) prevail before the *formal goals* of the enterprise (obtaining the profit, covering the costs). As not covering the expenses or obtaining the profit are the priority goals pursued by the company in its activity, the intervention of the competent public authorities, central and local, is imperative for the good functioning of the organization and for increasing the competitiveness in the medium and long term.

The relationship of support should not be subordinated to a relationship of dependency: social enterprises cannot operate exclusively on the basis of subsidies. These having only the role of increasing the competitiveness and the capacity to obtain the profit at certain specific moments in the life cycle of the company (The Danish Commerce and Companies Agency, 2009). In international practice, financial support is given as a priority during the establishment of the enterprise, in times of crisis or when the management of the company assumes an extension of the objectives (social mission) aimed at the economic activity.

3. International trends in the field of social economy

Despite the support given to the social economy sector by the governments of the developed states, the economic crisis of a decade ago has revealed the difficulties that these structures face in achieving the social goals and obtaining decent incomes for the employees' lives. The economic and legal status under which they operate make these economic structures less attractive for large private sector investors, motivated by profit maximization.

The German model encouraged, through specific legislative measures, the transformation of large investors into "venture capital providers" for social enterprises since 2003 (the so-called *Social Venturing*), obtaining excellent results

for ensuring a relative financial stability of social enterprises (Die Stiftung, 2014). Also specific to the German system is the allocation of subsidies from the state budget, in order to set up social economy structures in disadvantaged communities.

Another example is **the French system** of social economy, where the law "Law Barloo", adopted in 2005, has radically modified the system of social assistance in general and that of social economy in particular (Ziomas et al., coord. 2012: 46-47). The aforementioned law resorted to a tax exemption, certain legal obligations and a VAT reduction of 5% for the participating companies (enterprise sharing). Fiscal and legal facilities, coupled with extensive campaigns to increase the attractiveness of the sector, have resulted in the spectacular development of these enterprises, which have become particularly competitive in markets such as: preparing meals, making purchases on order, supervising children, caring for the elderly, traveling. company, meditations for children, fruit picking, lawn mowing, help in agricultural activities and gardening, etc. (Ziomas et al., coord., 2012).

In the areas in which they operate, these companies have actively contributed to community development, understood both in economic acceptance, by creating employment and social opportunities, by supporting vulnerable groups (European Commission, 2012). Therefore, the French model of social economy is based on participatory philosophy, fiscal and legal facilities, campaigns to promote the sector and cover some gaps in the market, which mainly focus on domestic needs. Some of these were also considered in the elaboration of the law of social economy in Romania.

Greece is also a state of social innovation. Klimax Plus, a renowned social enterprise in Greece, is offered as a good practice model by Eurostat, the European Mobility Portal for Employment (EURES, 2018) and most of the social economy research reports. Established in 2005, the organization aims to meet two objectives of general interest: an ecological objective, to protect the environment, and a social objective, for social and professional integration of people with mental problems and vulnerable groups in general.

Klimax Plus "generates revenue by providing paper collection and recycling services to private sector companies (for example, healthcare companies, hospitals, banking groups) and public bodies. It also offers catering services and manages a restaurant" (EURES, 2018). The Organizing Center, Porfyra, offers employees and all those who wish to participate in debates on social issues, including providing specialized advice for people in difficulty. The center is also placed at the disposal of other civil society organizations, who wish to carry out activities for vulnerable groups. For the same groups, the organization also launched a radio station, where information of interest to them, cultural shows, entertainment, educational programs, general culture competitions etc. are constantly presented (Klimax Plus - <https://kospes.wordpress.com>).

4. Case study on the city of Trieste: a center of social economy

The most promoted social enterprises operating in the Italian city are the following:

- **San Giovanni Cultural Park** (formerly mental hospital): it is the result of the transformation of a total institution, with maximum safety regime (a hospital destined for psychiatric pathologies) in a cultural park, which subsumes structures of social economy that function independently, but correlated, with a view to social integration of persons with psychiatric disabilities and not only. The basis of the project has been laid by Franco Basaglia since 1978.
- **Il Roselo**: garden with over 5000 varieties of roses brought from Europe, America and Japan. Dozens of people with disabilities were involved in the planting and care of flowers. Currently, the rose garden is one of the most important tourist attractions of the city. The main element of social innovation is the tourist development of the area, starting from a social economy activity.
- **Lister Sartoria Sociale**: structure of social economy having as object of activity the tailoring and the manual work. The company presents itself as a space of social innovation. For example, with the help of people with disabilities, old broken objects (umbrellas, ties, newspapers, etc.) are reconditioned into functional products for everyday use (shopping nets, feathers, gift nets, wallets, backpacks, etc.), the company being, from this point of view, an example of good practice for how the positive social impact can be combined with the positive impact on the environment, by practicing recycling. The discussion with the representative of the social economy structure turned into a real study meeting. He related, among other things, the support he enjoys from the local public administration, materialized by the exemption from the payment of the rent, but also by the help received for paying the utilities.
- **Trieste la Bora**: set up on the basis of a public-private partnership, the social enterprise, located in the old center of the city, collects and sells handicraft products to support people belonging to vulnerable groups in the city. The company operates under the aegis and with the financing of the Social Service of the Municipality of Trieste and includes, besides the store, an exhibition of completely new handmade objects, some being auctioned. In the workshops (belonging to several private companies) people with and without disabilities work. All the products are collected and transported to the showroom in the old center and most of the income is redistributed to employees with disabilities and reinvested in order to extend the project and to consolidate a wider network of partner workshops.
- **Caffè Teatro Verdi**: structure of the social economy that operates in the field of public food and the organization of socio-cultural events. The revenues collected from the provision of services are redistributed for the

remuneration of the disadvantaged and for the current financing of the activity.

- **Consorzio Ausonia:** the region represented, historically, the main beach of the city. After a history of great popularity between 1940-1990, the area was in a state of complete abandonment in the early 2000s. Local authorities pleaded lack of funds for the rehabilitation of the area and the economic effects were not delayed - the local budget receipts, the quotation of the city to the travel agencies, with the collapse of the most important beach, also fell. In 2005, a civic action group started rehabilitating the area and set up the AUSONIA consortium, which today has 9 social economy structures, capable of fulfilling all the functions necessary for the coast to function as it once did. Also in this case the relationship of complementarity between the development of tourism and the encouragement of the social economy is highlighted.

5. The social economy in Romania: retrospective and current situation

Referring to the situation of Romania, we must take into account the following data, which justify the need for a social economy system in our country:

- Bulgaria (38.9%) and Romania (35.7%) are in the first places in the European Union in terms of the percentage of the population exposed to the risk of poverty and social exclusion. On the opposite side are Norway (16%), Finland (15.6%) and Czech Republic (12.2%), recognized for the systems developed by the social economy (Eurostat, 2017).
- As of March 31, 2019, the total number of persons with disabilities communicated to the National Authority for Persons with Disabilities within the Ministry of Labor and Social Protection, through the general directions of social assistance and the protection of the county child, respectively local of the sectors of the municipality of Bucharest, was 826.197 persons, triple compared to the number of registered unemployed (254.631 in May 2019, according to the National Agency for Employment (Ministerul Muncii și Protecției Sociale, 2019).

By Law no. 219/2015 regarding the social economy, important steps have been taken in organizing the social economy sector in Romania at institutional¹, legal and fiscal level. Continuing and consolidating these steps would have a direct positive impact on vulnerable groups, as defined in the Law on social assistance (Law no. 292/2011, updated, in two ways:

¹ We mention as an example the establishment of the Social Economy Department within the National Agency for Employment.

- by setting up social enterprises that have as object of activity the provision of services intended to cover the needs of vulnerable groups;
- by creating working opportunities adapted to the specific needs of vulnerable people, which would lead to:
 - developing the skills and knowledge, self-esteem, social adaptability and experience of the poor in the labor market. of people from disadvantaged backgrounds, of people with disabilities;
 - increasing the employment rate of people belonging to vulnerable groups.

According to the law of the social economy, the status of social enterprise is recognized by obtaining a certificate of social enterprise. Legal persons under private law, in accordance with the provisions of Law no. 219/2015 regarding the social economy, can request a certificate of social enterprise, if the establishment and functioning documents contain provisions that demonstrate that the activity carried out has a social purpose, respects the principles of the social economy and meets the following criteria:

- a) "acts for social purpose and / or in the general interest of the community;
- b) allocates at least 90% of the profit realized to the social purpose and to the statutory reserve;
- c) it commits itself to transmit the goods left after the liquidation to one or more social enterprises;
- d) apply the principle of social equity to employees, ensuring equitable pay levels, between which there can be no differences that exceed the ratio of 1 to 8."

According to the law, social enterprises can be the first degree cooperative societies, the credit cooperatives, the associations and the foundations, the mutual aid houses of the employees, the mutual aid houses of the pensioners, the agricultural societies, the federations, the unions of the legal persons and any legal category that respects the principles of social economy.

It should be noted that the legal entities listed above, although they can perform social functions, are not recognized as social enterprises and therefore social economy structures if they do not meet the requirements stipulated by law and have not been accredited.

The recognition of the status of social enterprise is achieved by virtue of a certificate, at the request of the legal entities, based on the acts of establishment and functioning. The certificate of social enterprise is issued by the territorial structures of the National Agency for the Employment (A.N.O.F.M.) of. It has a validity of five years, with the possibility of extension, if it is proved that the conditions that were the basis for granting it are met. The social enterprises of insertion are certified by the social mark, with a validity of three years, and by a specific element of visual identity.

In addition to the above criteria, the social enterprises of insertion fulfill the following conditions, regulated by Law no. 219/2015 on the social economy:

- "permanently has at least 30% of the personnel employed belonging to the vulnerable group, so that the cumulative working time of these employees represents at least 30% of the total working time of all employees;
- aims to fight against exclusion, discrimination and unemployment through the socio-professional insertion of disadvantaged persons;
- provides accompanying measures in order to integrate the employees belonging to vulnerable groups (eg counseling, information, working conditions adapted to the needs);
- collaborates with public and private organizations offering social assistance services at local and county level and with the county employment agency in order to integrate the employees belonging to vulnerable groups."

Law no. 219/2015 on the social economy recognizes the following means of financing the social enterprises of insertion:

- "the attribution of spaces and / or lands in the public domain of the administrative-territorial units / subdivisions, in compliance with the provisions of the Law on local public administration no. 215/2001, republished, with the subsequent modifications and completions, in order to carry out the activities for which the social mark was granted to them;
- support in promoting the products made and / or supplied, the services provided or the works performed in the community, as well as in identifying markets for their sale;
- support in promoting tourism and its related activities, by capitalizing on the local historical and cultural heritage;
- other facilities and exemptions of taxes and taxes granted by the local public administration authorities, according to the law."

Also, the social enterprises of insertion can benefit from advantages in the public procurement of goods, services, in accordance with Law 98/2016.²

An important stage in the implementation and development of the social economy in Romania brings to the fore the financing granted to the structures of social economy in the period 2007-2013 through the POSDRU program - Development of the social economy, Priority axis 6 - Promotion of social inclusion, DMI 6.1 Development of the social economy. During 2014-2020, social enterprises

² The advantages are widely exposed in *Avantaje pentru întreprinderile sociale de inserție în derularea achizițiilor publice de bunuri, servicii și lucrări în condiții de eficiență economică și socială/Advantages for the social enterprises of insertion in the public procurement of goods, services and works under conditions of economic and social efficiency*, 2016, document elaborated by the Ministry of Labor, Family, Social Protection and Old People (MMFPSPV) with the support of the National Agency for Public Procurement, available at <http://www.mmuncii.ro/j33/images/Documents/Munca/2016/2016-10-21-Achizitii-vantaje-pentru-public-intreprise-sociale.pdf>, accessed on 14.06.2019.

are funded through the Human Capital Operational Program (POCU), Priority Axis 4 - Social inclusion and poverty alleviation.

According to the *Registrul Unic de Evidență al Întreprinderilor Sociale/ Register of Social Enterprise Records*³, updated in October 2018, the situation at national level was as follows:

- 120 certificates were issued of social enterprises, of which 30 were suspended and 19 were withdrawn;
- 12 certificates of social enterprises of insertion were issued, of which 3 were suspended.

Therefore, at the end of 2018, the Romanian social economy sector comprised 80 active social economy structures (S.E.S.), recognized according to the law as social enterprises and social insertion enterprises. By comparison, in Spain there are about 43,000 social enterprises that have created 2.2 million direct and indirect jobs and a turnover of the social economy sector, which reaches 10% of the national GDP, according to a study commissioned by the European Commission (EURES, 2018). In Luxembourg, almost 10% of all employees work in this sector, according to Eurostat. The following positions rank the Netherlands, France and Belgium, where the percentage exceeds 9%. In the last places, with a percentage below 2%, Romania, Malta, Slovenia, Croatia and Lithuania are registered.

Based on the research conducted, the following **causes** were identified that could explain the very small number of social economy structures in Romania, despite the existing legislative framework and the mentioned funding opportunities:

a) deficient knowledge regarding the social economy at the level of the general population

Following a quantitative research conducted on a sample of 965 respondents, who were asked to define the phrase social economy, the following findings were highlighted (Nicolae, 2017: 170):

- “the social economy and its representative organizations are little known in Romania;
- there is a gap in addressing the problem of social economy enterprises;
- there is a big gap in terms of approaches to economic collaboration at the level of Romanian local communities.”

³ The procedure for organizing, updating and using the *Register of Social Enterprises* is regulated by Order no. 2034/2016 of the Minister of Labor, Family, Social Protection and the Elderly, published in the Official Gazette no. 895/2016. The regulation of the register was made following the provisions provided by Law no. 219/2015 regarding the social economy. The register, established in order to provide the necessary information regarding the situation and the evolution of the field of social economy at national level, is administered by the National Agency for Employment through the *Department of social economy*. It is accessible at

<http://193.169.6.21/files/EXTRAS%20Registru%20octombrie%202018.pdf>, accessed on 12.05.2019.

b) reduced self-organization capacity at the level of local communities

The basis of any system of social economy is - according to prof. Dr. Ludger Kolhoff from the University of Ostfalia, Germany, and one of the founders of the German social economy system - two cardinal values: *trust* and *solidarity*.⁴ Social enterprises must grow from the bottom up, not from top to bottom, so from the base of the social structure and not from the level of the state apparatus. According to him, the biggest challenge is the reduced social capital in Romania and, in general, in the former communist countries. The policies in this field must lead to an increase in the capacity of spontaneous association of individuals, knowing that, at European level, the most performing social enterprises appeared at the initiative of the citizens, who joined in order to solve some community problems. He also points to the social economy gaps between the western and eastern parts of Germany: citizens are much more difficult to form associative structures in the former communist areas.

At the base of the low capacity of self-organization are:

- the reluctance of the target groups, caused by the perpetuation of outdated cultural models, by the distrust of authorities and, in general, in any form of association;
- low influence of civil society structures in small local communities;
- developing dependency relationships through the guaranteed minimum income.⁵

c) difficult administrative procedures that potential entrepreneurs hit in obtaining the attestation / social mark or financing social economy activities through structural funds (Fundăția Centrul Național pentru Dezvoltare Durabilă, 2015: 17).

d) lack of knowledge among potential entrepreneurs: the lack of training and counseling programs makes it difficult for leaders in communities to have the skills and knowledge necessary to establish social economy structures.

e) low competitiveness of social economy structures, which resides in:

- *few financing opportunities*, in the context of unfair competition (for example, social enterprises are forced to compete with companies having the same object of activity, but which do not employ disadvantaged people). *The National Report on Social Entrepreneurship* (ASHOKA Romania, 2018), carried out by Ashoka Romania, presents the results of a survey based on a

⁴ Information recorded as a result of the study visit in the city of Trieste, Italy.

⁵ According to ANPIS, in October 2018, 50.12 million RON were spent for social assistance (minimum guaranteed income), the average value being 267.66 RON. Also, according to the *Report on social assistance (minimum guaranteed income)*, presented by the Ministry of Labor and Social Justice in March 2017, in Romania there were a total number of 248.477 social workers (1.12% of the total population). The social economy presents itself as a viable alternative for the beneficiaries of minimum guaranteed income, in order to be included in the labor market, social integration and the development of the communities of which they are part.

questionnaire, applied to 40 social entrepreneurs in the country. The results highlight the main challenges and barriers they faced in the effort to develop the social economy sector and, in general, the social innovation spheres. The main problem, which was discussed by more than half of the survey participants, is the lack of access to funding. This is followed by the lack of a legislative framework conducive to the development of the sector.

- *difficult access on national and international markets;*
- *the specificity of social economy activities* (for example, many are seasonal or exclusively local).

Performing an eloquent analysis, on the basis of which conclusions can be drawn, requires identifying the **effects** of perpetuating the current state of fact:

a) unmet social needs, which attract:

- high costs with social aid and social assistance services in general;
- encouraging the “culture of poverty” (Zamfir, Zamfir, coord., 1995), by transmitting to descendants of values and behavioral models contrary to the entrepreneurial spirit (lack of individual initiative, low resistance to frustration, avoidance of risk taking, collectivist-paternalistic mentalities, etc.);
- the perpetuation of the delinquent behaviors: school dropout, criminality, encouraging parallel economies (black work).

b) poorly developed local communities:

- the local potential remains unused;
- reduced employment opportunities;
- high rate of emigration.

6. Proposed solutions

Following the research, three variants of action were identified to increase the degree of implementation of the social economy in Romania, respectively:

6.1. Variant 1: Maintaining the *status quo* (the non-action variant), the variant that is based on the principle of non-intervention and intends to maintain the current state of affairs.

6.2. Variant 2: Correlation and harmonization of the legislative framework in order to increase the opportunities for financing, development and promotion of social enterprises and social enterprises of insertion at the level of local communities. This variant aims to facilitate access to finance and to encourage the establishment and development of social enterprises and social insertion companies within local communities by correlating and harmonizing the legislative framework in the field of social economy.

6.3. Variant 3: Implementation of a package of measures to increase the degree of information and education of the population on the social economy, keeping the current legislative framework in the field of social economy. Through this variant, it is proposed to implement a package of measures to increase the

degree of information and education of the population on the social economy, without interfering with the current legislative framework in the field of social economy. We discussed three dimensions of the "education-information" dyad: the formal dimension, the non-formal dimension and the informal dimension. The option also includes the creation of a collaborative social economy network.

To select the most appropriate variant, we used SWOT analysis for each of the identified variants. Following the SWOT analysis and the public consultation, we concluded that **Variant 2** satisfies the needs of the beneficiaries and provides reliable premises for solving the problem, as it was identified and defined. In the following, we present, in a synthetic form, the conclusions of the SWOT analysis of the recommended variant, which contains aspects regarding the correlation with the objectives of the proposal, the benefits and risks of the implementation, costs, recommended sources of financing assurance and estimated impact.

A. Strengths and opportunities:

- According to the *National Report on Social Entrepreneurship in Romania*, made by ASHOKA Romania (2018), the biggest problem faced by the social entrepreneurs in Romania is the lack of access to financing. This option focuses primarily on solving this problem, felt as the most pressing.
- In line with good European practices, the state has the obligation to support the social economy sector, including through adequate financing opportunities. The Expert Group of the Commission on Social Entrepreneurship (European Commission, 2016) recommends increasing the opportunities for financing social enterprises: "Public funding should continue to be directed to social enterprises and should also be used to mobilize private capital, through investments in the financing of social enterprises and by reducing the risks associated with this financing, as well as by introducing appropriate governance structures. [...] The European Commission and the Member States should allocate increased resources to training programs, incubators and intermediaries that provide tailored support to strengthen the capacities of social enterprises, necessary to develop their managerial skills and to encourage their financial viability."
- **Variant 2** offers an alternative financing to structural funds, which is currently the only real source of financing for these activities, but which most entrepreneurs are discouraged due to difficult bureaucratic mechanisms. For example, within the financing of POSDRU, "most of the efforts to operate the social economy structures focused on the implementation efforts of the project and not on the managerial efforts to launch and develop a social economy initiative." (Fundatia Centrul Național pentru Dezvoltare Durabilă, 2015)
- **Variant 2** proposes solving the problem on the grass, encouraging the collaboration between local public authorities and citizens in order to solve the specific problems of each community and for the social integration of disadvantaged people.

B. Weaknesses and risks:

- **Option 2** cannot guarantee the sustainability of the social enterprises established on the basis of the financial support granted. To improve this problem, rigorous prior analysis of opportunity and sustainability is required for each business, the financing of sound business plans and the establishment of a set of indicators to monitor the company after setting up and strengthening its functioning in a self-sustaining manner.
- **Variante 2** does not solve all the problems that social enterprises face (e.g. difficult access to retail markets). However, being only a solution, this is limited to a single dimension of the general problem identified - the lack of access to financing - and does not propose to solve all the dysfunctions of the social economy sector. A comprehensive approach would require the transition from public policy to national strategy.
- In the short term, **Variante 2** involves increased financial costs in order to finance the new social economy structures. The total cost estimation is not possible at the moment, given the lack of financial data on the existing S.E.S., as well as the multiple variables to be taken into consideration. It is certain that at the level of each local public administration a budget should be allocated to finance the social economy activities, which vary according to the number of inhabitants, the specific problems, the degree of development of the social economy sector in the respective locality, the number of potential entrepreneurs etc. For a realistic estimate of the costs of implementation, a point-by-point analysis is required at the level of each local community, in order to subsequently anticipate the total cost.

To cover the expenses:

(1) a certain percentage (e.g. 0.1%) of the income tax could be redirected to the social economy sector or

(2) a national budget could be drawn up to support the social economy by directly allocating a sum of GDP.

In the medium and long term, the costs will be amortized by reducing the expenses necessary for the social assistance system. According to the National Agency for Payments and Social Inspection, in March 2018 they benefited from a minimum guaranteed income of just over 216.000 people. 275 RON was, on average, the value of the aid granted by the state. The expansion of the social economy structures from 80 to 8000, with an average number of only 2 employees who previously benefited from the minimum guaranteed income / enterprise, would be equivalent to the insertion in the labor market of 16.000 of them and the reduction of the expenses related to social aid by about 4.400.000 RON.

Concluding remarks

- Adopted after more than four years of debates, the law 219/2015 laid the foundations of the normative framework for the functioning of the social economy sector in Romania. Through the law 219/2015, important steps were taken in organizing the social economy sector in Romania at institutional, legal and fiscal level.
- Law 219/2015 takes over the principles of social economy from the *Charter of the principles of social economy*, being compatible, from this point of view, with the European practices in the field.
- The financing lines granted through POSDRU and POCU facilitated the development of the social economy sector in Romania as well.⁶
- The national legislative framework for regulating social economy activities is relatively recent: the methodological norms for implementing the law 219/2015 were approved in 2016 by DECISION no. 285/2016. It can be argued that the horizon of two years is too narrow for the current policy in the field of social economy to have produced its beneficial effects. Thus, at the end of 2018, only 80 social economy structures were operating in Romania.
- Although it recognizes the possibility for local authorities to financially support social enterprises, the current legislation does not clarify the institutional and normative mechanisms necessary for the allocation of resources. Taking into account the weak legislative correlation, social enterprises are classified in the more general category of small and medium-sized enterprises, without recognizing their social functions by which they are individualized and which confer a distinct status. We consider it necessary to correlate and harmonize the legislative framework in order to increase the opportunities for financing, development and promotion of social enterprises at the level of local communities, which we proposed by **Variant 2** of the public policy proposal, representing the recommended variant. Also, the financing opportunities apply, at present, only to the social enterprises of insertion, losing sight of the social enterprises themselves.

⁶ Following the development of the POSDRU program, the objective of 1,392 social economy structures set up was reached, according to the *Annual Report for the implementation of the Sectoral Operational Program Human Resources Development 2007-2013*, available at <http://www.fonduri-ue.ro/images/files/programs/OLD/POSDRU/rai.posdru.30.06.2015.pdf>, accessed on 14.06.2019. A year ago, AM POCU launched the call for projects "Support for setting up social enterprises" AP 4 / PI 9.v / OS 4.16, with a budget of 323,666,000 RON, for which 307 projects were submitted (<http://www.fonduri-ue.ro/apeluri/details/2/148/apeluri-pocu-ap-4-pi-9-v-os-4-16-consolidarea-capacitatii-entreprinderilor-social-economy-of-function-9Biona-83-AEntr-a-manner-83-self-sustainable-83-sprijin-for-efin%80-83-Bar-de-Social-Enterprises>, accessed on 14.06.2019).

- Although it has really contributed to the development of the social economy sector in Romania, the financing received through the Structural Funds has been and continues to be discontinuous and cannot be a sustainable medium and long-term means of financing. Moreover, in a study conducted as a result of the implementation of the POSDRU financing program, it was concluded that “the difficulties in meeting the bureaucratic requirements of project implementation and reporting were felt with an increased intensity, being the most important challenge. A challenge appreciated as being much more complex and more difficult than setting up and operating a social economy structure. [...] This tendency is justified by the fact that most of the efforts of operating the social economy structures have focused on the efforts of project implementation and not on the managerial efforts of launching and developing a social economy initiative.” (Fundația Centrul Național pentru Dezvoltare Durabilă, 2015: 12) Another problem was the short life span of the social economy structures set up through the Structural Funds, which did not impose the obligation to continue the activity after the project has been carried out. (Nicolae, 2017: 39)

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SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL PATTERNS OF POLARIZATION AND POPULATION DECLINE IN ROMANIA'S DEMOGRAPHY: 1992-2018

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Abstract: *After 1990, Romania experienced an important demographic decline. This transformation developed within the economic context of global capitalism. The present paper argues that this economic context causes significant spatial demographic disparities as the demographic decline does not occur uniformly across the country because of the economic polarization through which some areas concentrate more wealth than others. The spatial demographic differences are explored from a longitudinal perspective for the 1992-2018 period at the geographic level of 41 counties and the capital of Bucharest. Three important demographic phenomena are discussed: depopulation, internal migration and aging. The spatio-temporal evolution of these three is analyzed in correlation with the spatial economic polarization. Results indicate that the spatial economic polarization influences across time the spatial inequalities developed in the evolution of depopulation, internal migration and aging in Romania. Bucharest and other richer counties such as Cluj, Iași and Timiș show lower rates of depopulation or even display some growth, higher numbers of internal migrants and lower rates of aging.*

Key words: *Romania; spatial demography polarization; population decline; global capitalism.*

Introduction

After the fall of the communist regime, Romania embarked on a trajectory of economic development under the neoliberal and global capitalism political project. This development has been stronger since the 2000s, as Romania has followed a more moderate economic transition during the 1990s. Within this current economic context, the circulation of global capital has a creative destruction impact by generating important social inequalities and differences at many geographic scales (global, national, regional, local) (Brenner & Theodore, 2002; Harvey, 2006; Stiglitz, 2012).

The present paper analyses the spatio-temporal demographic inequalities inflicted by this economic context on Romania's counties (județe) – the main administrative territorial units within the country. We expect important spatio-temporal demographic inequalities, as more developed counties should attract more workforce and younger populations at the expense of the poorer areas, which, in turn, would experience demographic shrinkage (Gregory & Patuelli, 2015). Our hypothesis states a clear influence of the economic context on the spatio-temporal

demographic phenomena. The few studies dealing with the spatial demography of Romania and its relation with the economic context explore the changes only for the first two decades, up to the last national census in 2011 (Benedek & Torok, 2014; Nancu, Guran-Nica & Persu, 2010; Istrate, Muntele & Bănică, 2015). The present paper uses more recent data (2017 and 2018).

The spatial economic polarization at regional or county level was researched in previous studies and constitutes an important matter of interest within Romania's economic geography (Goschin, 2017; Oțil, Miculescu & Cismaș, 2015; Török, 2019). In the present paper we also include a section regarding the economic context. In this regard, we provide data on the inequality between each county's share from national GDP. The aim here is to provide the reader with a detailed account on the economic context and the spatial economic inequalities between counties.

Romania's post-socialist demography is marked mostly by a deep drop in population number, influenced by declining birth rates and outward economic migration (Rotariu, Dumănescu & Hărăguș, 2017: 125-152). The total number of population has dropped about two million between 1992 and 2011, from 22.810.035 to 20.121.641. By 2017, about one fifth of Romania's citizens of 20-64 age were living in other EU countries. Within this context, Romania's population became increasingly older (Rotariu, 2015). In 1992, in Romania, 23% were below or aged 14 years old and 11% were above or aged 65 years old. By 2018, the ratio was inverted. The younger group was 16% while the older group was 18%.

In order to account for the spatio-temporal changes within Romania's demography, we analyze the total number of population, the number of domicile acquirings and the aging structure of population in each of Romania's 41 counties and the capital city of Bucharest. We analyze these changes for the 1992-2018 period. We expect the spatio-temporal changes in this three demographic dimensions to be influenced by the development of an economic context that enhances spatial polarization between places.

1. Spatial economic polarization in Romania

The former totalitarian regime had an official policy for uniformization. However, in real practice, state-lead planning favored particular urban centers thus leading to significant spatial inequalities. There were also the existing pre-World War II regional inequalities, which the socialist regime only partially resolved. The country entered its post-socialist transition towards a market economy with profound spatial inequality patterns. After 1989, this uneven development was increased. Table 1 reveals how the economic disparities between counties increased in the last two decades. The standard deviation computed from the GDP share of each county within the national GDP almost doubled from 1995 to 2016. Regional inequalities have grown under the development of a neoliberal and globalized economy.

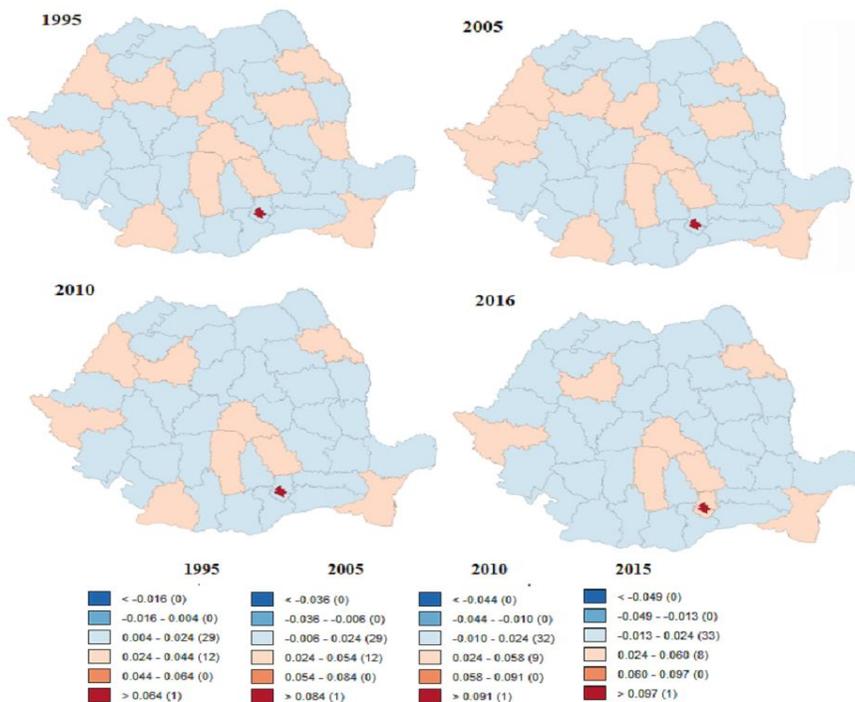
Table 1. National standard deviation for GDP - computed from counties and Bucharest

	1995	2005	2010	2016
Regional economic inequalities	1,96%	2,97%	3,34%	3,62%

Source: <http://statistici.inssse.ro>

However, above explanation only account for a national perspective on the disparities between counties. Further, a local analysis is needed in order to grasp the actual spatial patterns of economic inequality. In this regard, Figure 1 shows standard deviation maps for the GDP reported by each county and Bucharest in 1995, 2005, 2010 and 2016. The shares for each county and Bucharest are displayed in Table 2, which also shows the differences between the values from 2016 and those from 1995. Figure 1 and Table 2 can be used as tools for a spatio-temporal understanding of Romanian local economic disparities.

Figure 1. Standard deviation maps for GDP - counties and Bucharest



Source: <http://statistici.inssse.ro>

Table 2. Share's from the national GDP for counties and Bucharest

<i>County</i>	<i>1995</i>	<i>2005</i>	<i>2010</i>	<i>2016</i>	<i>Differences 2016-1995</i>	<i>Ratio 2016:1995</i>
Alba	1,7%	1,6%	1,8%	1,7%	-0,1%	0,96
Arad	2,2%	2,4%	2,2%	2,2%	0,0%	0,99
Argeș	3,2%	3,3%	3,1%	2,7%	-0,5%	0,84
Bacău	3,0%	2,6%	2,3%	1,9%	-1,1%	0,63
Bihor	2,8%	2,8%	2,5%	2,3%	-0,5%	0,82
Bistrița-Năsăud	1,2%	1,2%	1,1%	1,1%	-0,1%	0,89
Botoșani	1,4%	1,1%	1,1%	1,0%	-0,4%	0,71
Brașov	3,4%	3,2%	3,3%	3,4%	0,0%	1,01
Brăila	1,5%	1,3%	1,2%	1,1%	-0,4%	0,73
Bucharest	13,6%	20,4%	22,8%	24,5%	10,8%	1,80
Buzău	1,8%	1,6%	1,5%	1,4%	-0,4%	0,76
Caraș-Severin	1,3%	1,3%	1,2%	1,1%	-0,1%	0,90
Călărași	1,3%	0,8%	1,1%	0,9%	-0,4%	0,70
Cluj	3,5%	4,0%	4,0%	4,7%	1,2%	1,35
Constanța	4,1%	4,3%	4,0%	4,5%	0,4%	1,09
Covasna	1,1%	0,9%	0,8%	0,7%	-0,4%	0,67
Dâmbovița	2,2%	1,9%	2,0%	1,7%	-0,4%	0,80
Dolj	2,6%	2,5%	2,7%	2,4%	-0,3%	0,90
Galați	3,1%	2,2%	2,1%	1,7%	-1,4%	0,55
Giurgiu	0,9%	0,7%	1,0%	0,9%	0,0%	1,01
Gorj	1,8%	1,8%	1,8%	1,6%	-0,2%	0,90
Harghita	1,5%	1,2%	1,1%	1,1%	-0,4%	0,72
Hunedoara	2,3%	2,0%	1,8%	1,6%	-0,7%	0,69
Ialomița	1,6%	1,0%	0,9%	0,9%	-0,7%	0,56
Iași	3,3%	3,0%	3,1%	3,1%	-0,2%	0,94
Ifov	1,5%	2,3%	2,4%	2,7%	1,2%	1,77
Maramureș	1,9%	1,7%	1,7%	1,6%	-0,2%	0,88
Mehedinți	1,1%	0,9%	0,8%	0,7%	-0,4%	0,66
Mureș	2,7%	2,4%	2,1%	2,1%	-0,5%	0,80
Neamț	2,2%	1,7%	1,4%	1,4%	-0,9%	0,62
Olt	1,8%	1,4%	1,3%	1,2%	-0,5%	0,69
Prahova	4,3%	3,9%	3,4%	4,1%	-0,1%	0,97
Satu Mare	1,5%	1,4%	1,2%	1,2%	-0,3%	0,79
Sălaj	1,0%	0,9%	0,8%	0,8%	-0,2%	0,83
Sibiu	2,0%	2,1%	2,3%	2,3%	0,3%	1,18
Suceava	2,4%	2,2%	1,9%	1,8%	-0,5%	0,77
Teleorman	1,7%	1,2%	1,1%	0,9%	-0,8%	0,54
Timiș	3,5%	4,3%	4,9%	4,8%	1,3%	1,35
Tulcea	1,0%	0,9%	0,8%	0,8%	-0,2%	0,82
Vaslui	1,3%	1,0%	0,9%	0,9%	-0,4%	0,70
Vâlcea	1,9%	1,7%	1,4%	1,3%	-0,6%	0,70
Vrancea	1,8%	1,1%	1,1%	1,0%	-0,8%	0,56

Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

Over time, the GDP tends to clusterize within less and less number of counties. The economic poles in 2016 are Cluj (4,7%), Constanța (4,5%), Prahova (4,1%), Brașov (3,4%), Iași (3,1%), Argeș (2,7%) and Ilfov (2,7%) and Bucharest with by far the highest share (24,5%). The 2016 map shows visible less economic poles than in 1995. Many counties had lost their former economic status. In time, some significant poles from 1995 witnessed a shrinkage in their economic powers: Galați (-1,4%), Bacău (-1,1%), Bihor (-0,5%), Mureș (-0,5%), Dolj (-0,3%). From all 41 counties, Galați, which was former major industrial center, has the largest decrease. During the 90s and up until the mid 2000s, most of these counties experienced major deindustrialisation, unemployment and social insecurity. Nevertheless, the decreasing share is a fixture for most of the counties. The share from the national GDP increases only in a few counties, namely in Timiș (1,3%), Cluj (1,2%), Ilfov (1,2%), Constanța (0,4%), Sibiu (0,3%) and Bucharest (10,8%). The most spectacular developments are by far in Bucharest and Ilfov. Here the share from the national GDP almost doubled itself during the time of analysis. Most of these counties that act as regional growth poles, namely Timiș, Cluj, Iași, Constanța, Prahova, Brașov and Sibiu have county capitals that are important urban agglomerations and have adapted well to the service based economy, overcoming the urban shrinkage caused by the closing down of socialist large industrial sites (Benedek & Cristea, 2014). Bucharest is the largest Romanian city and a global urban agglomeration with a high diversified economy. The striking rise of Ilfov is due entirely to the spillover effect coming from its enclave - Bucharest.

Throughout the entire period of study, Bucharest-Ilfov represents a major national growth and economic pole. Other counties act as regional and local poles. Also there is a strong tendency of deepening spatial polarization, as Bucharest-Ilfov together with the local growth poles gradually increase their share from the national GDP at the expense of other underprivileged counties.

2. Spatio-temporal analysis of Romania's demographic patterns

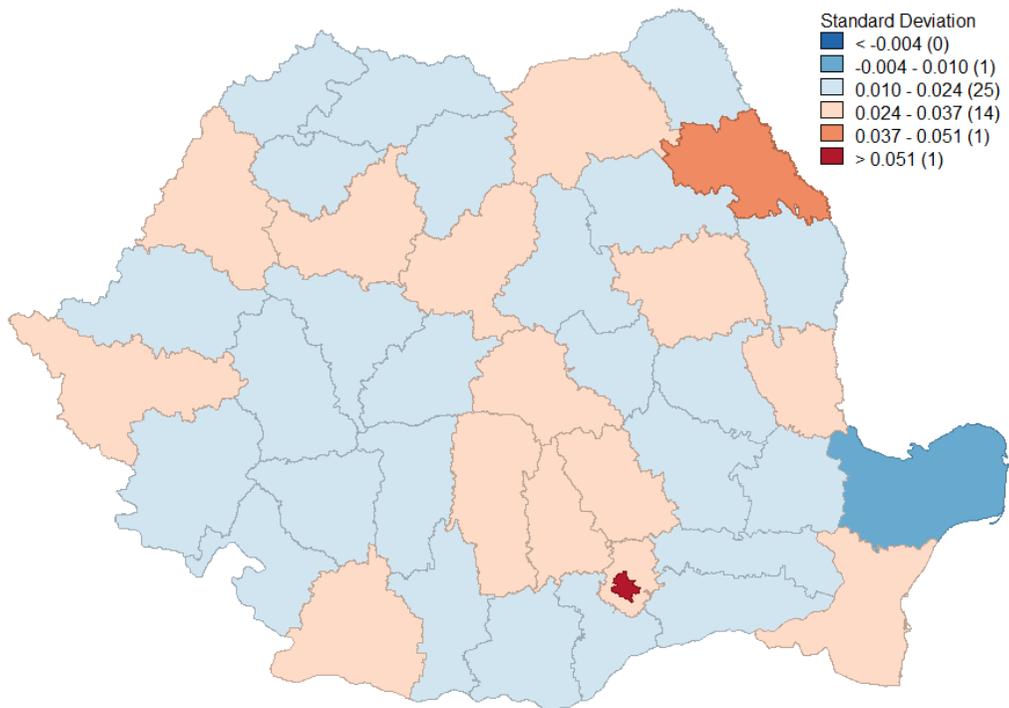
a. Population decline

We start by exploring the spatio-temporal demographic differences between counties. Firstly, we analyze the total number of inhabitants for each territorial unit. In this regard, we employ data on the population of Romanian nationality, foreign or stateless who have their usual residence in the respective county or in Bucharest. The usual residency is considered the place where the person spends its resting time. People who emigrated from Romania are excluded from these statistics.

Figure 2 shows a standard deviation map computed from the share of each county and Bucharest from the total resident population in Romania at 2018. The shares are displayed in Table 3. Bucharest has by far the highest share (9,4%). Its population is well above those of the 41 counties and is by far the most inhabited city. There is an important group of counties with shares above the average, namely

Iași (4,1%), Prahova (3,7%), Cluj (3,6%), Timiș (3,6%) and Constanța (3,5%). These units have cities as county capital that act as growth poles. The population of Iași (capital of Iași), Ploiești (Prahova), Cluj-Napoca (Cluj) or Timișoara (Timiș) exceeds those of the least populated counties. Lower shares we find in the following counties: Călărași (1,5%), Bistrița-Năsăud (1,4%), Caraș-Severin (1,4%), Giurgiu (1,4%), Ialomița (1,3%), Mehedinți (1,3%), Sălaj (1,1%), Covasna (1%), Tulcea (1%).

Figure 2. Standard deviation map for shares from the national population - counties and Bucharest, 2018



Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

Table 3. Population and shares of population from the national population

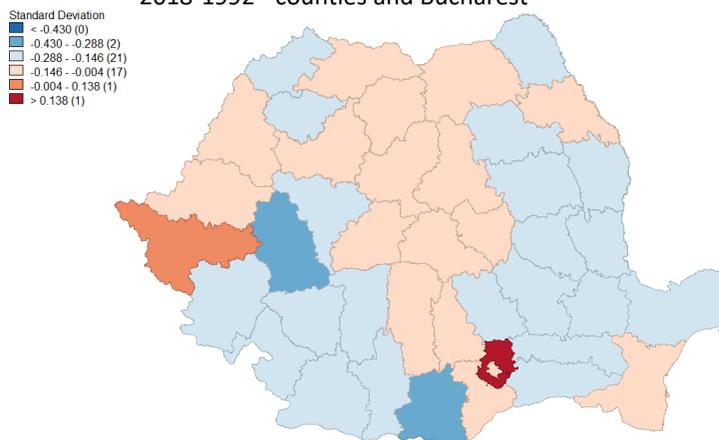
County	2018		Difference 2002-1992	Difference 2011-2002	Difference 2018-2011	Difference 2018-1992
	Pop. Number	Pop. share from the national				
Alba	328311	1,7%	-7,5%	-10,5%	-4,1%	-20,7%
Arad	419360	2,1%	-5,3%	-6,7%	-2,6%	-14,0%
Argeş	585730	3,0%	-4,2%	-6,2%	-4,4%	-14,0%
Bacău	591035	3,0%	-4,2%	-12,8%	-4,1%	-19,9%
Bihor	564109	2,9%	-6,0%	-4,1%	-2,0%	-11,7%
Bistriţa-Năsăud	280106	1,4%	-4,6%	-8,2%	-2,1%	-14,3%
Botoşani	385046	2,0%	-1,8%	-8,9%	-6,7%	-16,5%
Braşov	551183	2,8%	-8,4%	-6,8%	0,4%	-14,3%
Brăila	294143	1,5%	-4,8%	-13,9%	-8,4%	-25,0%
Bucharest	1827810	9,4%	-6,8%	-2,2%	-3,0%	-11,6%
Buzău	419829	2,1%	-4,0%	-9,1%	-6,9%	-18,8%
Caraş-Severin	275063	1,4%	-11,5%	-11,3%	-6,9%	-26,9%
Călăraşi	288043	1,5%	-4,2%	-5,5%	-6,1%	-15,0%
Cluj	704759	3,6%	-4,6%	-1,7%	2,0%	-4,3%
Constanţa	676215	3,5%	-4,5%	-4,3%	-1,2%	-9,7%
Covasna	203534	1,0%	-4,6%	-5,5%	-3,2%	-12,7%
Dâmboviţa	496173	2,5%	-3,6%	-4,2%	-4,4%	-11,7%
Dolj	630911	3,2%	-3,7%	-10,0%	-4,5%	-17,2%
Galaţi	509471	2,6%	-3,3%	-13,5%	-5,0%	-20,5%
Giurgiu	269279	1,4%	-4,9%	-5,5%	-4,3%	-14,1%
Gorj	319919	1,6%	-3,4%	-11,8%	-6,3%	-20,2%
Harghita	304280	1,6%	-6,3%	-4,7%	-2,1%	-12,6%
Hunedoara	388600	2,0%	-11,4%	-13,8%	-7,2%	-29,1%
Ialomiţa	258931	1,3%	-3,1%	-7,6%	-5,6%	-15,4%
Iaşi	791210	4,1%	0,7%	-5,5%	2,4%	-2,5%
Ifov	473445	2,4%	4,6%	29,5%	21,8%	65,0%
Maramureş	463354	2,4%	-5,6%	-6,2%	-3,2%	-14,2%
Mehedinţi	245120	1,3%	-7,8%	-13,5%	-7,6%	-26,3%
Mureş	538329	2,8%	-4,8%	-5,2%	-2,3%	-11,8%
Neamţ	447102	2,3%	-4,1%	-15,1%	-5,0%	-22,7%
Olt	400802	2,1%	-6,5%	-10,8%	-8,2%	-23,4%
Prahova	725609	3,7%	-5,1%	-8,1%	-4,9%	-17,0%
Satu Mare	334678	1,7%	-8,4%	-6,2%	-2,8%	-16,5%
Sălaj	213816	1,1%	-7,0%	-9,5%	-4,7%	-19,9%
Sibiu	400110	2,0%	-6,9%	-5,8%	0,7%	-11,7%
Suceava	626789	3,2%	-1,9%	-7,8%	-1,3%	-10,7%
Teleorman	341440	1,7%	-9,9%	-12,8%	-10,2%	-29,4%
Timiş	701499	3,6%	-3,2%	0,8%	2,6%	0,2%
Tulcea	197754	1,0%	-5,4%	-16,9%	-7,2%	-27,0%
Vaslui	380001	1,9%	-1,4%	-13,1%	-3,9%	-17,6%
Vâlcea	353188	1,8%	-5,7%	-10,1%	-5,0%	-19,4%
Vrancea	324545	1,7%	-1,5%	-12,2%	-4,6%	-17,5%

Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

As seen from the above analyses, the most inhabited counties are largely also the richest. Sparsely populated counties have lower GDP mainly because economic activities are clustered within the larger urban agglomerations mentioned above. Meanwhile, as we have observed in terms of economic performance, the spatio-temporal patterns have revealed an increase in polarization, since the main clusters have grown in economic strength while the poorer counties have continued to decrease their share from the national GDP. In this regard, further, we employ a deeper spatio-temporal perspective to understand how regional patterns and differences in county population have developed during the 1992-2018 period.

The map in Figure 3 shows the geographic distribution for the differences between the number of residents in 2018 and those of 1992. These information are also displayed in Table 3, together with the differences between 2002 versus 1992, 2011 versus 2002 and 2002 versus 1992. These data help us understand the spatio-temporal patterns of growth, depopulation and stagnation. We shall frame these spatio-temporal changes in relation with the economic polarization of the era. Throughout the 1992-2018 period we see an increase in the resident population only in Timiș (0,2%) and Ilfov (65%). For all the other 39 counties and Bucharest, the resident population decreases between 1992 and 2018. This can be explained by the general pattern of depopulation within post-socialist and present day Romania. However, among these 40 units there are major disparities. There are smaller decreases for Iași (-2,5%) and Cluj (-4,3%). Most of decreases are placed within the range of -10% and -20% (Bucharest included). 11 counties decreased with values ranging from -20% to -29,4% (the lowest – Teleorman). Further, we shall explore these patterns.

Figure 3. Differences across time for shares of population from the national population, 2018-1992 - counties and Bucharest



Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

Trends of clusterization with growth or weak decline in economic poles are stronger after the first decade of transition. The percentage of population decrease during the 2002-2011 is larger than during the 1992-2002 period, mostly due to emigration. Regarding our spatio-temporal analysis, the 2002-2011 shows a much higher degree of variation within the changes each county has experienced, than the first decade. The standard deviation of changes for 2002-2011 is 0.071. The value increased heavily from 0.029 during the 1992-2002. This pattern reveals an increase in polarization as the growth poles during 2002-2011 show a smaller decrease or even increasing population (Timiș, Ilfov), while for the economic disadvantages counties the population decline is sharpened. The standard deviation for 2011-2018 is 0.049. This shows that polarization continues to be powerful into the 2010s.

We firstly discuss the changes in the growth poles. Ilfov has grown in population throughout the entire period of study, but the rise is highly prominent during the 2000s. For the 2011-2018 the increase is smaller than the previous decade. Bucharest decreases throughout the entire period. For the capital city, the evolution is similar to that of Ilfov. This is due to the spillover effect that determines the growth in Ilfov. Therefore, the 2000s mark for Bucharest the lowest decrease, namely 2.2%. Afterwards, the negative value increases slightly, yet without reaching the level of the 90s. For the regional poles, the increase and polarization is also stronger starting with the 2000s (Timiș, Cluj). In some counties, this pattern is delayed for the 2010s (Iași, Sibiu, Brașov).

However, the vast majority of Romanian counties have undergone some massive depopulation after 1989. For these counties, in most cases, the largest decrease in the total number of population happened during the 2000s. Within this larger group of counties, a spatial difference can be observed in terms of the period with the second major decrease. For most of the counties in the Western part of Romania, the depopulation is slightly stronger during the 1992-2002 than 2011-2018. This trend is reversed for most of the counties located in the Eastern and Southern areas. A major argument for this difference are the migration patterns. Starting with the mid-2000s (most notable in 2007, the date of Romania's accession into EU), when the economic migrancy towards Western Europe increased dramatically, patterns of emigration were stronger in the Eastern and Southern Romania. During the 90s, significant numbers of German and Hungarian minorities located in the Western counties migrated from Romania. Also, overall, during the 90s, the general emigration was much stronger in the Western parts of the country.

After 1989, Romania's phenomenon of depopulation developed following clear spatio-temporal patterns that were heavily influenced by the existing and growing economic polarization. Some key spatial disparities developed over the years. Overall, the main economic and growth poles had lower rates of shrinkage. At some times, these poles even increased their population - mostly in the recent decade. In the same time, the rather poorer counties that failed short in their transition to the new economic conditions experience continuously depopulation.

b. Internal migration (Domicile acquiring)

Further, in our spatio-temporal analysis of demographic polarization, we examine internal migration patterns between counties. In this regard, we analyze the number of persons who acquired a new domicile by settling in the respective county, migrating thus from their county of origin. The percentages of acquired domiciles in each county and Bucharest by internal migration (computed from the total number of population with domiciles in that territorial unit) in 1992, 2002, 2011 and 2017 are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Shares of domicile acquirings from the national total

County	1992	2002	2011	2017	Difference 2017-1992	Difference 2017-2002
Alba	1,5%	1,6%	1,5%	1,4%	-0,1%	-0,2%
Arad	2,7%	2,2%	2,0%	2,1%	-0,6%	-0,1%
Argeş	3,0%	3,2%	3,1%	2,6%	-0,4%	-0,5%
Bacău	3,0%	3,1%	3,0%	2,9%	-0,1%	-0,3%
Bihor	2,2%	2,5%	2,5%	2,6%	0,4%	0,1%
Bistriţa-Năsăud	1,4%	1,3%	1,2%	1,1%	-0,3%	-0,2%
Botoşani	1,8%	2,3%	1,6%	1,5%	-0,3%	-0,8%
Braşov	3,1%	2,8%	2,6%	2,8%	-0,3%	0,1%
Brăila	1,3%	1,4%	1,1%	1,0%	-0,3%	-0,3%
Bucharest	14,1%	13,8%	14,2%	13,6%	-0,4%	-0,1%
Buzău	1,9%	2,7%	2,0%	1,8%	-0,1%	-0,9%
Caraş-Severin	1,8%	1,9%	1,2%	1,2%	-0,6%	-0,7%
Călăraşi	1,5%	1,5%	1,2%	1,2%	-0,3%	-0,4%
Cluj	3,0%	2,4%	3,5%	4,2%	1,2%	1,8%
Constanţa	4,7%	4,0%	3,6%	3,5%	-1,2%	-0,5%
Covasna	0,9%	1,0%	0,6%	0,6%	-0,3%	-0,3%
Dâmboviţa	1,8%	2,1%	2,6%	2,1%	0,3%	0,0%
Dolj	2,4%	3,3%	2,9%	2,6%	0,2%	-0,7%
Galaţi	2,0%	2,1%	2,2%	2,1%	0,1%	-0,1%
Giurgiu	0,6%	1,2%	1,2%	1,1%	0,5%	-0,1%
Gorj	1,7%	2,3%	1,9%	1,6%	-0,1%	-0,7%
Harghita	1,0%	1,3%	1,0%	0,9%	-0,2%	-0,4%
Hunedoara	3,1%	2,0%	1,7%	1,7%	-1,4%	-0,3%
Ialomiţa	1,3%	1,5%	1,2%	1,1%	-0,2%	-0,4%
Iaşi	3,0%	3,6%	4,2%	5,1%	2,2%	1,6%
Ifov	1,8%	0,8%	4,1%	5,8%	4,0%	5,0%
Maramureş	1,5%	1,6%	1,7%	1,6%	0,1%	0,1%
Mehedinţi	1,4%	1,6%	1,4%	1,2%	-0,2%	-0,4%
Mureş	2,6%	2,9%	2,3%	2,4%	-0,2%	-0,5%
Neamţ	2,6%	2,6%	2,4%	2,1%	-0,5%	-0,6%
Olt	2,4%	1,9%	2,0%	1,7%	-0,7%	-0,2%
Prahova	2,7%	3,2%	3,0%	2,9%	0,2%	-0,2%
Satu Mare	1,2%	1,7%	1,5%	1,3%	0,1%	-0,3%
Sălaj	1,1%	1,0%	0,8%	0,9%	-0,2%	-0,2%
Sibiu	2,5%	1,7%	1,9%	2,3%	-0,2%	0,6%
Suceava	2,3%	2,6%	2,7%	2,6%	0,3%	0,0%
Teleorman	1,8%	1,8%	1,6%	1,4%	-0,4%	-0,4%
Timiş	5,6%	2,9%	4,5%	5,3%	-0,4%	2,4%
Tulcea	0,9%	1,2%	0,9%	1,0%	0,1%	-0,1%
Vaslui	2,0%	1,7%	1,8%	1,9%	-0,1%	0,2%
Vâlcea	1,6%	2,3%	1,9%	1,7%	0,1%	-0,6%
Vrancea	1,3%	2,0%	1,7%	1,6%	0,4%	-0,3%
<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>0,0209</i>	<i>0,0195</i>	<i>0,0210</i>	<i>0,0214</i>		

Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

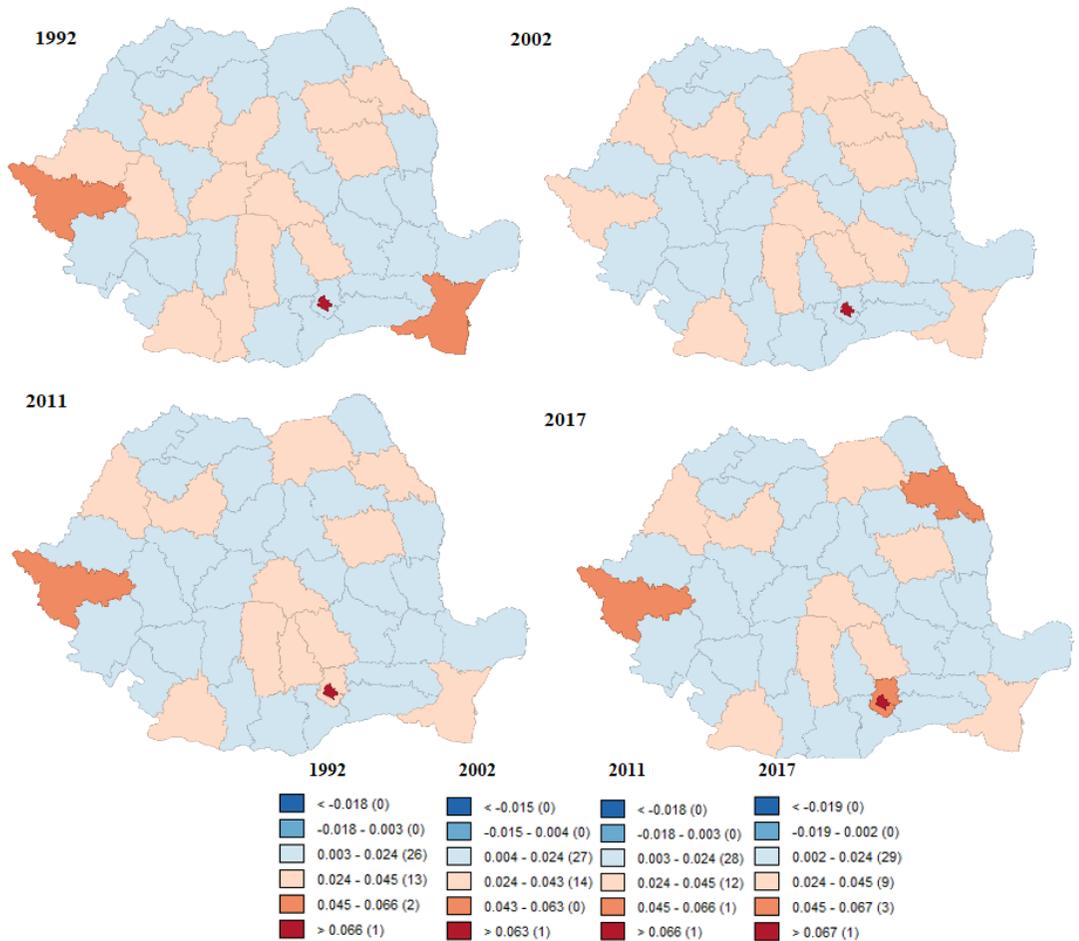
The data displayed in Table 4 show important patterns pointing to an increasing polarization starting with the 2000s. This is observable from the longitudinal analysis of standard deviation. The value in 1992 was 0,0209. It decreases in 2002 to 0,0195, yet afterwards the polarization increases in 2011 to 0,021 and in 2017 to 0,0214. The spatial polarization of internal migration patterns is strong at the beginning of the 90s due to removal after 1989 of former restrictions on free movement of population and labour force (Suditu, Prelepcean, Vîrdol & Stângaciu, 2013).

The internal migration in 1992 was directed towards the economic poles existing at that time. However, as we have seen above in the discussion regarding the economic context, some of the important urban centers and counties of the former communist regime had problems adapting to the transition. These counties have a high share of domicile acquirings in 1992 and 2002 but they display a decrease mostly in the last decade. The most striking case is that of Hunedoara (1,4% decrease between 1992 and 2017), a densely industrialized and urbanized county under the communist regime. Other counties that fit into this pattern are Neamț, Olt, Argeș or Caraș-Severin.

The shares of domicile acquirings are by far the largest in Bucharest. However, the capital city display some temporal variations. These trends confirm the hypothesis of spatio-temporal demographic polarization caused by the economic context of neoliberal development. The peak values are in the early 90s (14,1%), in the midst of the democratic free movement of population and labour force, and in 2011 (14,2%) at a time when the capital city polarized much stronger than in previous two decades. For Ilfov, the difference between the share in 2002 and the one in 2017 is 5%. In counties like Timiș (2,4%), Cluj (1,8%), Iași (1,6%) or Sibiu (0,6%) the increase is also strong. Starting with the mid2000s, Bucharest-Ilfov and the other regional growth poles display a consistent pattern of clusterization in terms of attracting internal migration.

The continuous polarization of internal migration around the most important pole, namely Bucharest-Ilfov, and the other regional poles can be observed also by quantifying the total number of counties that decrease in their share of domicile acquiring. For the 1992-2017 period, 64% of counties (N includes also Bucharest) decrease their share. During the 2002-2017, the percentage of counties displaying a reduction is even greater, namely 74%. This is the result of clusterization within fewer and fewer counties. A graphic representation of this polarization is also depicted in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Standard deviation maps for shares of domicile acquirings from the national number of domicile acquirings - counties and Bucharest



Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

The figure contains standard deviation maps for the share of domicile acquirings for the four years of interest. The maps show how during the 2002-2017 period the number of outliers is reducing. This increase in polarization is consistent with the hypothesis of spatial polarization caused by the growing economic disparities starting with the mid2000s.

c. Age structure

Declining birth rates and outward economic migration have greatly contributed to the aging process of the Romanian population. The country has one of the most elderly population in Europe. However, this process is not evenly distributed across the country. We explore the spatio-temporal patterns of aging in Romania's counties in order to identify the link between the demographic process of aging and the economic context. We expect these spatio-temporal patterns to be influenced by economic migration. The aging process should be stronger in poorer counties and should display low intensity in more developed counties.

We measure the demographic aging using an indicator from Ernst Billeter's work (1954). The formula for Billeter's indicator is:

$$I = \frac{P_{0-14} - P_{65+}}{P_{15-64}};$$

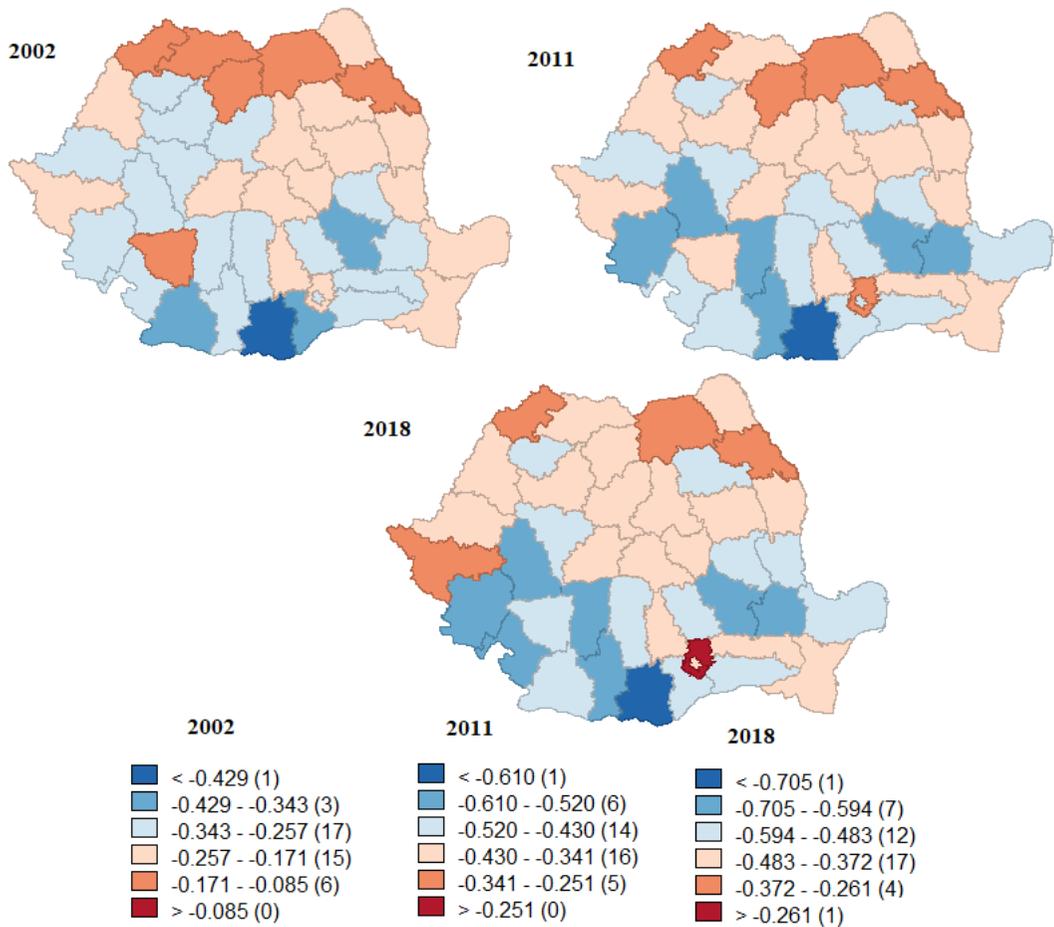
where P_{0-14} is the pre-productive group comprised of population aged between 0 and 14 years old, P_{65+} is the post-productive group comprised of population aged 65 years old or above, and P_{15-64} is the productive group comprised of population aged between 15 and 64 years old. A high negative value characterizes a very aging population. The nominator is negative when the older generation (65+ y.o.) exceeds the youngest generation (0-14 .y.o.). The Billeter's indicator for each county and Bucharest at 2002, 2011 and 2018 is displayed in Table 5. Standard deviation maps for the above mentioned years are depicted in Figure 5.

Table 5. Billeter's indicator - counties and Bucharest

County	2002	2011	2018	County	2002	2011	2018
Alba	-27%	-50%	-57%	Harghita	-22%	-35%	-40%
Arad	-31%	-45%	-47%	Hunedoara	-26%	-52%	-63%
Argeş	-26%	-44%	-53%	Ialomiţa	-28%	-42%	-46%
Bacău	-17%	-41%	-45%	Iaşi	-12%	-26%	-26%
Bihor	-25%	-38%	-41%	Ilfov	-23%	-26%	-23%
Bistriţa-Năsăud	-15%	-33%	-40%	Maramureş	-16%	-34%	-42%
Botoşani	-23%	-36%	-42%	Mehedinţi	-33%	-51%	-60%
Braşov	-20%	-44%	-45%	Mureş	-27%	-40%	-43%
Brăila	-32%	-57%	-64%	Neamţ	-23%	-50%	-54%
Bucharest	-31%	-43%	-42%	Olt	-34%	-52%	-62%
Buzău	-37%	-55%	-61%	Prahova	-30%	-48%	-55%
Caraş-Severin	-29%	-52%	-61%	Satu Mare	-17%	-31%	-37%
Călăraşi	-32%	-43%	-49%	Sălaj	-29%	-43%	-50%
Cluj	-30%	-43%	-42%	Sibiu	-18%	-36%	-38%
Constanţa	-18%	-38%	-42%	Suceava	-15%	-32%	-35%
Covasna	-20%	-34%	-39%	Teleorman	-58%	-72%	-79%
Dâmboviţa	-23%	-38%	-46%	Timiş	-23%	-37%	-37%
Dolj	-35%	-50%	-52%	Tulcea	-21%	-48%	-56%
Galaţi	-18%	-43%	-49%	Vaslui	-18%	-36%	-39%
Giurgiu	-42%	-48%	-52%	Vâlcea	-32%	-53%	-68%
Gorj	-16%	-37%	-50%	Vrâncea	-27%	-48%	-52%
				<i>National</i>	-25%	-42%	-46%

Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

Figure 5. Standard deviation maps for Billeter indicator - counties and Bucharest



Source: <http://statistici.insse.ro>

The maps in Figure 5 illustrate some clear spatio-temporal patterns within the aging process. The number of counties with a higher aging population has increased throughout the years. The spatio-temporal patterns are coherent over time, as some counties have a constant high aging process while others display lower aging for the entire period.

The age structure of a population is influenced also by other demographic process, not only by economic factors. This explains the lower aging for counties in the north, where although there are no major growth poles (with the exception of Iași), the population has a lower degree of aging because of demographic

conservative behaviors and higher shares of rural population. In this regard, the correlation between spatial economic polarization and demographic aging is best observed in a spatio-temporal perspective. Nevertheless, spatio-temporal patterns of aging are present also in the north (Maramureș, Bistrița-Năsăud, Bacău).

Table 5 helps us understand the spatio-temporal changes within the overall pattern of national aging. The Billeter indicator computed for the national level decreases dramatically between 2002-2011 from -25% to -42%. The evolution is slower afterwards, but is nevertheless continuous, as Romania's population follows its steady aging process. All counties have more or less decreasing values throughout the 2002-2018 period. There are also some exceptions to this situation. Some of the growth poles have slightly higher or similar values in 2018 in comparison with 2011. The difference for Bucharest is 1%, Cluj 1%, Ilfov 2%, Iași 0%, Timiș 0%. Although, it is true that the 2018-2011 period is shorter than the previous one and the aging process also has a shorter time span to develop, the spatio-temporal changes that developed during the 2010s also reveal strong disparities between the growth poles and the other counties. The more developed counties attract productive and pre-productive groups and thus display lower longitudinal values of aging than the other poorer counties. In 2018, Ilfov has the higher value (23%) among all counties. In 2002, Ilfov had a rather average value (the 20th largest – 23%). Bucharest, Timiș or Cluj are other relevant similar cases (B: 32th in 2002 and 14th in 2018, T: 16th in 2002 and 5th in 2018, C: 31th in 2002 and 16th in 2018).

Stronger aging patterns we identify at two main groups of counties. Firstly, there are the counties that had a high share of older population already in 2002. In the following years, they maintained an elderly population more numerous than other counties. We can mention here Brăila, Vâlcea, Mehedinți, Olt, Buzău, Teleorman. These counties did not attract significant productive or pre-productive groups and were also affected by outward economic migration. In the second group, we place the counties highly affected by economic transformations. These were mostly the former industrialised counties that were relatively well under the socialist regime but had major troubles in adapting to the new economy. These counties had some of the strongest patterns of aging during the 2000s and 2010s, although as seen from the Table 5 they were not among the oldest counties in 2002. Here we include Hunedoara, Galați, Gorj, Bacău, Argeș, Neamț or Caraș-Severin.

Through the spatio-temporal analysis we have seen how spatial economic polarization enhances aging patterns more strongly in poorer counties, as productive and pre-productive groups tend to be concentrated within counties that adapted better to the new economy.

Conclusions

Our analysis focused on the relation between the economic development and the demographics of Romania's territorial units. In this regard, we have analyzed the spatio-temporal changes for three important demographic dimensions: total population, internal migration (domicile acquirings) and population aging. The hypothesis stated that under the current neoliberal and global capitalism development, Romania would experience significant patterns of spatial polarization in its demography. These patterns were researched longitudinally for the 1992-2018 period. The results have revealed important spatial polarization patterns for all three demographic dimensions. These patterns were more salient starting with the 2000s, when the economic development under the neoliberal and global capitalism political project enabled deep spatial economic polarization.

We have seen how the spatial economic polarization interacts with the demographic process mostly through patterns of economic migration. The Bucharest-Ifov area, a major national growth pole, and other regional growth poles like Cluj, Iași, Timiș or Sibiu attract productive groups of population. Simultaneously, the poorer counties experienced a significant demographic contraction in population loss and comparatively higher rates of aging. These findings contribute to an understanding of Romania's social and geographic transformation under current political economic development.

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DIACRONY AND SYNCHRONY OF THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS (SEN)

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Abstract: *This study analyzes the very complex issues of people, especially children, with disabilities and their education. Children with disabilities make up about one third of the children outside school, generally in the world. The diachrony and the synchrony of the education of people with disabilities represent a challenge for society and school. The vision about these people (expressed in terminology and definitions), the way of identification, assessment and orientation, the institutions and mechanisms that intervene here, the general, political, economic and cultural aspects and priorities of a certain society, the dominant values in the education system, etc. – are a few of the elements that differentiate the access and school participation of these people – from one country to another. The educational inclusion and integration of children and the special educational needs (SEN) are one of the important objectives of Romanian education. The school institution as a whole must extend its educational aims in order to orientate towards the great diversity of children. It is necessary that education, in its capacity as a service provider, should adapt to the needs of the children, and not vice versa. The ultimate goal is to ensure that all children have access to education within the community, education that is appropriate, relevant and effective.*

Key words: *school integration; educational inclusion; special educational needs; specific learning disorders; disability.*

Introduction

In any society there are certain people who, due to deficiencies, disabilities cannot be “integrated” into the community by their own strengths. The problem of people with disabilities is both emotional and social. Therefore, society, through various mechanisms and levers, must also pursue the satisfaction of the real needs/necessities of the people, especially of the children with disabilities, with special educational needs, to ensure the full respect of their interests, their dignity and their rights in any circumstance and in relation to any system.

The attitude of the society towards the people with disabilities, as well as towards other people in difficulty (disadvantage) has been throughout history mainly one of devaluation, rejection, isolation and segregation. Since antiquity we have witnessed radical segregation practices for children with disabilities (physical extermination in Sparta and optional – as a decision of the head of household – in ancient Rome) as well as differentiated attitudes, in certain countries or towards certain people with disabilities (the case of the attitude in Egyptian temples towards deaf people – less negative than towards other people with disabilities). The Middle Ages knew a number of specific attitudes, nuanced towards the same people, such as those of suspicion of witchcraft, curse or guilt of the parents. The empirical beginnings of social assistance – which gradually became associated with educational endeavours – have now included, but especially in the Enlightenment philanthropic period, among the target groups of people in difficulty also those with disabilities, through forms of ‘protection’ such as asylum and hospitals. A first opening to the possibility that children who learn with more difficulty deserve educational attention can be found in Comenius, in *Didactica Magna* (chapter IX): “The more someone is less intelligent and less gifted from nature, the more he needs help, to get rid of his marginalization and stupidity”.

The pioneer the experiences of specialized education is considered Gabriel Itard, the one who tried to humanize the wild child, discovered in Aveyron, in France (1799). The teaching-learning techniques developed by Itard were taken over and subsequently developed by Seguin, whose professional activity substantially influenced the progress of the “treatment” for the mentally disabled, in special institutions (asylums, hospitals). The onset of institutional concerns for the education of children with disabilities represents an important step in the evolution of the social attitude towards this human category – the stage of “granting reduced citizenship”. Children, especially young people with disabilities, were allowed access to schools – even if they were special – and then to (protected) workshops, which at that time represented a significant impulse in the gradual change of the attitude and the overall conception of society. If these people can learn, then they also represent a certain value in society, even if they learn or work partially and incompletely – compared to their peers. This conception has been maintained to this day.

Regarding the perception, identification, classification and definition of the needs/necessities of people with disabilities L. Manea, (2000: 16), quoting J. Bradshshaw, shows that “in the concrete situations it often happens that the meaning of this concept is not clear enough. Four definitions of the term can usually be identified. “A first significance is that of ‘normative need’, corresponding to the perspective of the specialist, who, as an expert, operates with the reporting of concrete situations to certain standards. A second way of defining the concept is to regard it as a ‘felt need’, which appears as a reflection of what people in a certain situation want. The third acceptance of the term is ‘expressed need’, which is in fact ‘the demand’, the request for a service, meaning the felt need transformed into action. The fourth definition of the term is ‘comparative need’, as a measure

resulting from the study of the characteristics of the beneficiaries of a service. When other people, having similar characteristics, do not benefit from the same service, they are considered to be in the situation of need.”

Children with disabilities make up about one third of the children outside school, generally in the world. The diachrony and synchrony of the education of people with disabilities is a very complex issue and a challenge for society and school. The vision about these people (expressed in terminology and definitions), the way of identification, assessment and orientation, the institutions and mechanisms that intervene here, the general, political, economic and cultural aspects and priorities of a certain society, the dominant values in the education system, etc. are a few of the elements that differentiate the access and school participation of these people – from one country to another.

They belong to the categories of population in need, “they are vulnerable with the risk of marginalization and require socio-educational intervention” (Constantinescu, 2018: 108). Regardless of the way we define “need”, in The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, a convention unanimously adopted by the General Assembly on 20th November 1989, in article 23 it is shown “that for children with physical and mental disabilities, a full and decent life must be ensured, under conditions that guarantee their autonomy and facilitate their active participation in the life of the community, they will effectively have access to education, training, health care, re-education, preparation for re-employment, recreational activities, benefiting from these services in an appropriate manner, to ensure as complete a social integration as possible and an individual development, including his/her cultural and spiritual development.

International organizations (UN, WHO), as well as EDF (European Disability Forum) – consultation partner of the *European Commission*) attest that 10% of the population has disabilities. In many countries it is recognized that out of the entire school population, about 15-20% have difficulties in school learning – special educational needs (SEN). SEN have been and are increasingly associated with the significant group of students who face various forms and levels of school failure.

1. Terminology of special education, wider field of disability

In order to use a terminology that is as neutral as possible, that does not have a pejorative hint, in the last decades, the terms of disability, person with disability have been replaced and nuanced through terms such as: deficiency, incapacity, disability, person with deficiencies, person with disabilities, people/children with special educational needs (SEN). The terms of disability and person with disabilities currently coexist with the terms mentioned above, being mainly used in legislative contexts and to designate a social disadvantage.

In the field of education, “children with special educational needs” are referred to as children whose special educational needs/necessities (SEN) derive mainly from physical, mental, sensory, language, socio-affective and behavioral

disabilities or associates, depending on their severity. They may be included in the category “special needs” and some children protected in residential institutions, as well as certain children/students in the regular education, who present special educational needs manifested by learning disorders/ difficulties and/or school adaptation. Special education envisages a mode/type of education, adapted and intended for people who are not (or are unlikely to be) able to reach in the regular education (temporarily or throughout schooling) the educational and social levels corresponding to their age. A special education is wanted for all, following:

- to be extended to all children who have certain learning difficulties or problems (see children with special needs);
- to prepare the school and society as a whole to receive and satisfy the participation of people with disabilities in the usual school and social environments, as natural components of human diversity, with its specific differences.

In this broad category of the field of disabilities we present briefly some learning disorders that are common among students and which fall into what we call children with *special educational needs*.

1.1 Specific learning disorders or specific learning difficulties (SLD)

There is a specific type of learning difficulty that requires a diagnosis and lasts a lifetime.

SLDs are inherently intrinsic learning difficulties of the individual. They are permanent and have negative effects on the learning process, as well as serious consequences on the knowledge acquisition process. From SLD, we will focus more on those designated as part of the *Dys* spectrum.

Dis comes from Greek and refers to a difficulty or disorder. The prefix “Dys” is present in many Indo-European languages and forms words such as *dyslexia*, *dysphagia*, *dysortography*, *dyscalculia*, *dysgraphia*, *dyspraxia*, etc.

SLDs have a neurobiological cause related to how the brain processes information, that is, the way it receives, integrates, retains and expresses information. The phases of information processing by the brain are in an inseparable connection. When a problem arises in any of these phases, the entire process is constrained, with repercussions on basic or primary skills. These skills are essential and can be found in all areas of school learning, and any disruption of one of them causes significant delays in the other fields.

The symptoms of SLD can be confused with those of other learning difficulties that have intrinsic causes to the person but of different origin, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and autism spectrum disorder (ASD). ADHD and ASD can co-exist with SLD and have negative consequences on the learning process. Unfortunately, they can affect other aspects of daily life. ADHD and ASD are classified as diseases by the World Health Organization.

From the SLD category, the “Dys” constellation, we present the following disorders:

- *Dyslexia* – reading and spelling disorder;
- *Dysgraphia* – writing disorder and difficulties in fine motor skills;
- *Dyscalculia* – calculation and arithmetic disorder;
- *Dyspraxia* – disorder in coarse and fine motor coordination (*Dyspraxia is classified as Developmental Coordination Disorder and not as a specific learning disorder*)

In some countries, dyspraxia is classified as a Developmental Coordination Disorder and not as a specific learning disorder. Dys-s are not considered pathologies, but rather developmental disorders, the effects of which can be mitigated with specialized corrective interventions.

Specific learning disorders are (according to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, 5th Edition, DSM-V, published by the *American Psychiatric Association*) types of neurodevelopmental disorders that affect the ability to learn or use certain academic skills (for example reading, writing or arithmetic calculation). Specific learning disorders affect two or three children in a class on average. They are called specific learning disorders because one or more of the skills-tools used in learning are disrupted. Reading, writing, speaking, arithmetic calculation are the tools used by children in academic learning. Learning is supported by these skills and their acquisition is the basis for further learning and development. So, even if the child has no mental delays or intellectual disabilities, he/she may develop inappropriate/inadequate/unfriendly tools for learning. If one does not use the right ingredients for a cake, the result will not be as expected.

SLDs are not all the same. There is a varied combination of strengths or weaknesses of these skills-instruments. Obviously, then, when we learn, we first process information (the brain receives information through the senses) and, if the brain perceives and/or processes information differently, the approach will be obviously different. Recent studies show that genetic, epigenetic and environmental factors can affect the brain’s ability to perceive and process verbal and nonverbal information correctly and effectively when one or more of these skills are impaired, the learning process is in danger.

1.2. Special educational needs (SEN)

It is a phrase that has appeared and developed in the last 2-3 decades, mainly because of the desire to replace, as the case may be, educational abnormality or school maladjustment, which no longer corresponded to the new vision on the right to education. The concept was launched in 1978 in the UK. The expression was subsequently taken over by other countries, some even from the family of countries of Latin origin (Spain, Portugal), as well as by UNESCO (since 1995) and by Romania (through the *Law of National Education*). The notion of SEN designates the educational needs complementary to the general objectives of the school education, necessities that require a schooling adapted to the individual particularities and/or

characteristic of a deficiency (or learning disorders), as well as a specific intervention, through rehabilitation/recovery and proper compensation. Interestingly, this acceptance, although older, is presented in a slightly adapted form – also in the legislation of 2005 and 2006 in Romania. The notion of SEN seems similar to that of special education – in the last part of the definition above, but within SEN special education is seen in a wider context, complementary to the general education, accessible to every child/student.

SEN expresses an obvious need to give some children additional attention and educational assistance (affirmative, positive measures, due to the need to compensate for one/some disadvantages), without which one cannot effectively talk about equalizing the chances, access and school and social participation. The SEN sintagm is more relevant in psycho-pedagogical plan than that of deficiency, incapacity/disability or handicap. At the same time, the notion suggests a relativization of the traditional conception and practice of dividing into categories of deficiencies or disabilities as well as a new, non-categorical vision, which allows a more individualized (personalized) approach. SEN designates a continuum of special problems in education, from serious and profound deficiencies to light learning difficulties/disorders. Their register, in the acceptance of UNESCO includes:

- mental delay/deficiency;
- severe learning difficulties/disabilities/intellectual disabilities;
- physical/motor impairments;
- visual impairments;
- hearing impairments;
- emotional (affective) and behavioral disorders;
- language disorders;
- learning difficulties/disabilities (UNESCO, 1995).

Regardless of the field (registry), this is a group of children who need additional support, which in turn depends on the extent to which schools have to adapt their curricula, teaching and organizing and/or providing additional human or material resources to stimulate efficient and effective learning for these children (UNESCO, ISCED, 1997). From a statistical point of view, it was found that children with disabilities (intellectual, physical, visual and auditory) represent between 2-5% of a school population, children with S.E.N. there are many more, varying in some countries (USA, England, Denmark) between 10 and 20% of the school population.

2. Educational inclusion and integration

2.1. School inclusion and integration of children with S.E.N.

In the last 15-20 years, innovations in the field of education have brought to the attention of specialists (be they teachers or researchers), but also of students and parents, new and unique educational situations, which have subjected the school environment to real tests. Ideological theories such as those related to *school inclusion and integration*, those related to the normalization of the learning

environment or the social one, still raise serious problems related to the practical implementation of this educational current ideology. The education system, the school institution in its assembly, must extend its educational purposes in order to orientate towards the great diversity of children. "It is necessary that education, in its capacity as a service provider, adapts to the needs of children, and not vice versa" (Tutunaru, 2018: 133). The ultimate goal is for all children to have access to education within the community, education should be adequate, relevant and efficient.

The international event that launched and enshrined this vision was the Salamanca Conference (1994), named – *Action framework in the field of education (learning) of special needs*. The definition now given to inclusive education and its principles have subsequently gained wide international recognition. Inclusive education is recorded in the document, incorporating the universally valid principles of a healthy, child-centered pedagogy. All children from a school community benefit from applying these principles. It starts from the premise that the differences between people are normal, that the education has to adapt to these differences and to the specific educational needs that derive from them, rather than to force the child to adapt to prefabricated assertions regarding the purpose and nature of education. Regular schools, with inclusive orientation, represent "the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, a means that creates welcoming communities and builds an inclusive society that offers education for all. *Inclusive education seeks to meet the learning needs of all children, young people and adults, with a special focus on the vulnerable ones from the point of marginalization and social exclusion.*" (National Authority for Persons with Disabilities - A.N.P.H, 2009)

In Romania, "*Inclusive education* involves a permanent process of improving the school institution, aimed at exploiting the existing resources, especially human resources, in order to support the participation in the education process of all students within the communities" (HGR no. 1251/2005). School inclusion can be defined as "a set of measures taken to expand the purpose and role of the regular school, to cope with a great diversity of children" (Mara, 2004: 89). Inclusion implies change, so it is a process that contributes to increasing the degree of participation and learning for all students. Inclusion in education implies: equal valorization of all students and staff, increase of the participation of all students in education and, at the same time, reducing of the number of excluded students, the recognition of the right of students to education in the community of which they belong, etc.

Therefore, inclusive education is based on changes, transformations of the school (from the point of view of organization, goals, improvement of school instruction, etc.) in order to support the participation in the education process of all students within a community. It involves a process of continuous adaptation of the educational institution, so as to permanently ensure the exploitation of the existing material and human resources, in order to support and ensure the necessary support to all participants in education.

Integrated education refers to the “set of measures applied to the categories of population that seeks to eliminate segregation in all forms” (Hudițeanu, apud Cuomo, 2002: 11) and constitutes a dominant trend in approaching people with disabilities, at the level of social and educational policies, reflecting a process of transition from studying, finding and explaining to institutionalization and normativization (through laws, declarations and regulations), becoming a common practice both in the world and in our country. Integrated education represents an “institutionalized way of schooling children with disabilities (as well as other children with special needs) in regular schools and classes or in school structures as close to the regular ones.” (Vrăsmaș; Nicolae; Oprea; Vrăsmaș, 2005). The adoption, by the mass school, of the ideologies of the integrated education requires adaptations at the level of the teaching-learning-assessment process – by drawing up special documents materialized in the personalized intervention programs (PIP) and personalized educational programs (PEP).

Therefore, the integrated education aims more at the person with SEN and the measures of equalization of the chances at the individual level, the inclusive education places the emphasis on the social perspective – on the school environments and on the necessity of adapting them to an increasing diversity in the number of children, with a priority of those who are at higher risk of marginalization and exclusion. Marginalization, “social isolation, social maladaptation is painful at any stage of life, but especially during childhood, when the child tries to be accepted into a play group” (Constantinescu, 2004: 74).

2.2. Levels of educational integration and aspiration for inclusion

School integration is a complex and long-term process that refers to the inclusion of children (in our case children with special needs) in regular school institutions, or in ways of organization as close to them. It is desirable to regard school integration as a continuous process of adaptation to the conditions of the school and social environment characterized by a constant change, the environment changing according to the needs of the individual’s integration. Moreover, the process of school integration of children with special educational needs must be conceived as a complex social action, the essence of which is not the mechanical, passive compliance of the student with the conditions of the school and social environment, but the correlation of both factors, the creation of those optimal, objective and subjective, because integration means not only adaptation, but also commitment. As processuality Patrick Daunt distinguishes within the school integration the following stages/levels/modes of integration:

- *physical integration*, which refers to the inclusion of children with special educational needs in a regular and/or special school institution. At this level, the presence of children with disabilities with the others is monitored, the reduction of the physical distance between children, the use together of physical spaces, materials and equipment, the facilitation of mutual knowledge and familiarization,

the creation of optimal conditions for the effective participation of the child/student in the activity of the group as well as the communication within it;

- *functional integration*, means participating in a common learning process, when the disabled child also assimilates certain knowledge, forms skills, along with regular children or children from the group of children in which he is included. There is talk about the functional integration of the child with special needs when he reaches a relatively equal level of participation in the school learning act with peers from the group/class, during the respective interaction period and on similar fields of pedagogical content. Functional integration may initially be limited as a sphere of action (for example physical education, musical education, practical activities, etc.) and over time may extend to other educational subjects;

- *social integration* involves establishing and developing relationships and inter-relationships within the work group, in which the child with special needs actively participates. Thus, the child with special needs is included in all the common activities of the school life, both to the actual learning and to the common activities of breaks, play, and other daily activities of the school life. There are established reciprocal, more or less spontaneous, relations of acceptance and social integration when the child integrated into the group of students acquires the feeling of belonging and full participation in the community, with the taking of roles.

- *social integration* supposes, "the full acceptance of the child with special needs by the other members of the school community, supposes the existence of the feeling of self-confidence and the others, supposes that the child with special needs assumes some social responsibilities in his particular contexts of life, concurrently with the exercise of influences on the partners in his/her life contexts (Daunt, 1996: 17) relatively equal participation in the life of the school group."

The social integration of children with special needs in the community refers to the coexistence and consistency of interpersonal contacts and relationships within social groups, to the concordance between norms and behaviors, to the functional interdependence of the elements of a social system/subsystem, etc. The content of the notion of "social integration" is dependent on the aspects of stability, consensus, social control that must characterize any society. Smaranda Mezei (1993) shows that social integration can be viewed as:

- a social process through which a permanent renewal of a social unit is realized, under the conditions of the postulation of the relative, structural and functional balance of this unit, necessarily involving the strengthening of its elements. During this process, through the interaction between the individual/group and the specific/integral social environment, modifications/adaptations take place both at the level of the individual/group that is integrated and at the level of the social system/subsystem that integrates. Depending on the individual's active character and the responsiveness of the integrating environment, several phases of the process are distinguished: accommodation, adaptation, participation and actual integration, which can often be a different synthesis compared to the initial components;

- a state of social balance, defined by the absence of marginality and by the convergence of two terms, initially, in a relation of tension, subsequently converted, in a relation of harmony and cooperative action;

- belonging and non-imposed participation of the individual to a set of norms, values and attitudes, common to the group, which once internalized and externalized by the individual in explicit behaviours, facilitates the strengthening of the functional solidarity of the group;

- the result of a series of adaptations and normative adjustments of the individual to a field defined by group relationships, a result that has as desired consequence that of eliminating conflicts and establishing cohesive and participatory relationships. Thus, the aim is to “conform the individual to the social needs and demands of the reference organizational environment (peer group, school, profession, etc.) as well as the characteristics of the process by which the individual/group gains the ability to live in a certain environment, acquiring knowledge, assimilating values, internalizing norms, etc. (Mezei 1993: 304).

Between these aspects/levels of integration there are interdependence relationships. They form a continuous integrator, each representing a basis for the achievement of the others. The principle of continuity is a stage one, from simple to complex, with the integration of the acquisitions of the previous stage.

Conclusions

The issue of school integration is a favourite field of the school institutions, and the problem of the difficulties of social integration and segregation is the favourite area of action of the social assistance activities, as well as a major concern of the education system. Beyond this specificity, of each process of integration or inclusion, the physical and social reality requires the opting for a certain system for the benefit of the individual, to, why not, to correlate the steps in order to achieve the purpose. Thus, whether the efforts come from the child (in the case of integration) or from the school (in the case of inclusion), or, perhaps correlated, one in the other’s welcoming, the final result for the purpose of social inclusion must be aimed.

The fundamental principle of inclusive education – education for all, together with all – represents a desire, which can become reality by gaining more and more followers and by materializing in experiences and good practices, of integration/inclusion. Of great value in this regard for all teachers are national and European projects that address working methods and techniques for a variety of children’s learning disorders. (for example: *MoocDys Project*).

The integration/inclusion, in order to be achieved, implies the presence of an optimal legislative framework, the active presence of competent teachers, who promote dialogue, involvement, support from parents, and the whole community. Also, the relationships that are formed at the level of the class, without any

discrimination, based on empathy, tolerance and respect towards the child with special educational needs, represent the basis of social inclusion.

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TIME WORK FOR ORGANIC WINE CONSUMERS IN ROMANIA. FROM CELEBRATORY TO CUSTOMARY

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Abstract: *This study tracks the social construction of time narratives in social media posts of marketers of organic and biodynamic wine. It attempts to elucidate how time cues and storytelling offer motives that can convince the emerging clientele of discerning customers. The study hence aims to discover time-related narrative affordances that underlie organic wine purchasing decisions. A total of 42 marketers' texts, 211 hashtags and 26 blog posts belonging to a total of 14 organic and biodynamic wine makers were selected using netnography and grounded theory, following criteria of visibility and attractiveness. The thematic analysis yielded 7 categories of time narratives. The findings section reveals their dimension as sense-making rhetoric devices and drivers of buying decisions. These temporal cues capture a forlorn time infused when winery was a craft, not an industry and portray wine as nostalgic forget-me-not, mental postcard and moment-catcher in the temporal scaffolding of holidays, as well as everyday occurrences. Posts construct organic wine as savoir-vivre and wine lovers as bon viveurs, in relationship to the application of time-proof routines and know-how. With organic wines associated to slow living and foodie activism, time narratives as projects of moral authentication are presented. The empirical investigation offers input to organic wine marketers who select the style and wording of their promotional rhetoric to persuade consumers to pass from celebratory, occasional buying to steady commitment. It discusses time narratives that singularize authenticity as drivers of brand distinctiveness and differentiation.*

Key words: *organic wine marketing; time agency; regionality; storytelling; authentication.*

Introduction

This empirical inquiry reveals narrative time cues that marketers of Romanian organic wines employ on Facebook, and their echo on consumers. Romania has one of the oldest traditions of wine production in Europe, dating back 2700 years, when historians documented Sabazios, the local god of wine of the proto-Thracian population (Zamfir, 2013). According to the Association for Wine Producers and Exporters, in a country where natural household wine from rural areas still threatens the sale of commercial bottled assortments, there are currently more than 1000 winery operators in Romania, which is the twelfth producer worldwide and the sixth in Europe, in terms of volume (Agro Business, 2019).

Romania has yet to fulfil its untapped potential in the niche segment of organic wine production and distribution, even if the surface covered with organic grapevines grew 12 times from 2009 to 2017, to over 2000 hectares at present, according to the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural development report (2018). A recent quantitative study on a nationally representative Romanian sample (Nielsen, 2018) found premium wine consumers, including organic and biodynamic brands, are predominantly aged over 35, male and with above-average incomes. The trouble with Romanian wine consumers is that they tend to use organic wines and premium wines in general only during celebrations or as gifts. Hence, for business development strategies, beyond the extension of customer portfolio, organic wine-makers need innovative marketing techniques to increase frequency of consumption within a larger effort aimed to strengthen existing customer loyalty. Embracing a time perspective framework can provide such a solution, as the below specified argumentative line unfolds.

Most frequently mentioned decision-making criteria for wine purchasing, either premium or regular, where: the producer, the grape varieties, the wine colour and the consumption timing (Nielsen, 2018). However, if the analysis is narrowed down to Romanian Millennials (currently aged 25-35), the four main factors for wine purchasing were: the price, social network recommendations, the product design (including labelling) and the awarded prizes (Șișcanu, 2019). The same factors of image, display and social recommendations count as most relevant for Generation Y in the US market, whose members are much less involved, experienced or subjectively knowledgeable compared to their predecessors (Chrysochou et al., 2012). The importance of personalized work-of-mouth highlights the role of social media as collaborative, crowdsourced web 2.0 venue for sharing and exchanging recommendations (Kolb & Thach, 2016).

Consumers' increasing preference for attending events dedicated to wine-tasting, wine tours, concerts, festivals, exhibitions and even trail running and cycling races revolving around vineyards (Ro.aliment, 2018; Nielsen, 2018) suggest this emerging market gradually shapes its consolidation phase focused on shared experiences that display a dialectics of resistance to conventional business models and value chain processes thereof. These highly specific, somewhat atypical patterns of evolution require closer scrutiny. Because wine is an "experience good" (Storchmann, 2011; Higgins et al, 2015), the interactive exchange of impressions weighs heavily across purchasing decisions of new and returning customers. Shared experiential depictions are especially impactful in the phase of initial acquaintance with a new product, such as organic wine in the Romanian market. A study that explores hedonic learning by master sommeliers' discursive and narrative practices (Latour and Deighton, 2019) reveals the importance of combining narrative, synesthetic and imagery-driven elements to create a holistic mindset or wine IQ.

In this context, the current study aims to investigate novel approaches to cultivating customer loyalty for organic wine consumers in a nascent market. As tastes and preferences are transient, it also aims to bridge the gap between

consumers' discerning mechanisms and marketers' actions in the case of small-scale individual wine-makers. To do so, it needs to understand the underlying vocabularies of motives of social media consumers who are gradually growing fond of organic wine and make the transition from casual to regular buyers.

Considering the above-mentioned objectives, the research questions are the following:

- How is the dialogue between marketers and consumers of organic wine shaped across social media concerning the lived experiences of wine tasting across time?
- How do consumers associate organic wine with time use styles? What does this association communicate about their worldview and tribalisation trends?
- What do marketers' posts coupled with readers' reactions thereto say about the drivers behind the purchasing behaviour in the case of organic wine consumers?

1. Theories

1.1. Organic wine, regional terroir and habitus

The biodynamic production principles regard the vineyard as a wholesome, self-sustained system, attuned to natural and cosmic rhythms by ancient agrarian practices that follow a calendar of moon phases. Organic wine-making excludes any artificial chemical products such as herbicides, fertilizers, fungicides or pesticides. In exchange, organic farming includes natural fertilizers (e.g. manure, horns, bones, macerated animal hair, minerals etc.) and pesticides. Local vine varieties are preferred they adapt more readily and do not require protective intervention (Mann et al., 2012). Biodynamic wines include those that only use wild (non-selected) yeasts, thought to best render the particularities of the terroir. Some biodynamic wines are left unfiltered and all vineyard works are done manually (Wiedmann et al., 2014). Organic wines started to be produced and marketed in

Romania under commercial labels 12 years ago, and all 14 wine manufacturers currently active on the organic and biodynamic niches have foreign capital. These operators obey the standards including in EU regulations (EC 834/2007 and EC 889/2008) (Palasca, 2019) regarding the entire wine-making process.

Emerging wine-producing regions use alternative means for "origin branding" that emphasize heritage and landscape characteristics centring on the wider "rural idyll" (Alonso and Northcote, 2009, Howland, 2008). These associations serve to forge a "vintage" identity for their industry, which essentially masks its youth for their region. In what manner this strategy is consonant with consumers' expectations remains to be elucidated.

Terroir expresses the varietal character of wine, defined as tributary to the region's cultural heritage (Cappeliez, 2017). This concept invokes images of organic relations between people and a specific land with a unique character, a symbolic territory that enacts habitus (Bourdieu, 1990) as persistent way of being in the world,

culturally embedded social practices and taken-for-granted assumptions and judgment of taste about what is legitimate and what is undesirable that structure cognition, action and praxis.

Wine making is an area in which the distinction Old - New World is still vivid in academia and practice (Wongprawmas and Spadoni, 2018). Regionality is the New World conceptual alternative to Old World (notably French) terroir (Nallaperuma et al., 2017). Both contingent realities illustrate specific cultural identities that resist globalization as local governance ideologies founded on values of solidarity and rootedness (Demossier, 2011; Cappeliez, 2017). The terroir revendicates its legitimacy from the historic past of communities that promote the prestige of their vineyards to tourists and consumers: "The historical terroir concept viewed wine production as a complex dance with nature with the goal of interpreting or translating the local ecology, displaying its qualities to best advantage" (Barham, 2003: 131). The concept is seeded in a discourse of enduring quality and boasts the distinctiveness of agrarian techniques and artisanship. In so doing, it is relevant for this study as it intertwines time and space in a multifaceted approach that reunites persuasive and hermeneutic dimensions.

The place-fixing discursive tactics construct terroir at the meeting point of geology, vineyard habitat and cultural assets of regional identity (Charters, 2006). The controlled toponymical origin protects this reputation by a patrimonial process of localism opposed to globalization and commodification trends. The regional wine appellations in Western Europe are less regulated in Eastern Europe (Overton & Murray, 2013) but obey the same pre-Fordist logic of tradition, locality and non-standardization: "Even though the reality of industrial scale production may exist, the illusion of small-scale, intensive and traditional winemaking pervades the imagery of wine marketing worldwide" (Overton & Murray, 2013: 705). Hence the need to study consumers' preferences from a cultural capital point of view, since regional organic wines are at the forefront of branding practices for the wine world. Marketers take advantage of the evocative value of region of origin by displaying this location in a prominent place on the wine bottle label (Chamorro et al, 2015). The regional wine branding is a strategy adopted from the Old World to the New World producers (e.g. U.S., Australia, South Africa, New Zealand) that proves helpful for small vineyards wanting to promote their wine style heritage and distinctiveness (Nallaperuma et al., 2017; Famularo et al, 2010).

Authors such as Peace (2011) criticize the narrative of the wine culture and regional terroir as discursive pastiche that fetishizes the symbolically meaningful relations between people, places and products by turning them into a marketing strategy. In the same critical vein, this author argues that persuasive terms like "*traditional*", "*authentic*", "*genuine*", "*real*", "*historic*" and "*original*" are rhetorically overworked into clichés belonging to a language of claims that targets a population of well-off middle-class consumers with healthy lifestyle aspirations and declaratively (if not yet practically) ecological mindsets. Other studies (Schäufele et

al., 2018; Mann et al., 2012) by and large support this customer profile for organic wines.

As Trubek (2008: 94) writes: “the taste of place has become a transnational mode of discernment. Increasingly, the taste of place is an intervention into the vast array of placeless and faceless foods”. Marketers of organic wine and slow food advocates propose the locavore myth of individual, self-reliant landownership inter-generationally inherited and endowed with the idealisation of the past. Vulnerable as it were, this counter-cultural movement features as antidote to “frankendrinks” (Kniazeva, 2005) and the tasteless globalized no-land value chains of international, heavily technologized wine-making.

1.2. Marketing tools, social media and consumer portrayal

Innovative communication tools and place marketing are effective in reaching new consumer niches and thus adding value to the wine market worldwide (Wongprawmas and Spadoni, 2018; Vrontis et al., 2016; Richardson and Dennis, 2003). The impact of word-of-mouth marketing and crowdsourced advertising in relationship to drinks promotion was studied for brands from the nineteenth century, with the example of Mariani Wine (Emery, 2017).

Several cross-country findings point to the impactful uptake of multi-channel marketing practices to stimulate online and offline wine purchasing behaviour (Pucci et al. 2019). Also, customer segmentation (e.g. according to the level of objective and subjective knowledge) and a differential strategy applied to distinct target groups (or clans and tribes, in the netnographic terminology) appear as essential for newcomers and established wine-makers (Hristov and Kuhar, 2015; Brunner and Siegrist, 2011). New consumer typologies require further sociological elucidation and methodological input for the (re)design and assessment of marketing toolkits.

Potential consumers display information seeking behaviours to assist their wine purchasing decisions with the role of risk absorbers or uncertainty reducers. The hedonistic and informative components of online communities surface saliently especially in emerging economies wherein the tradition of wine consumption is scarce and reserved for the upper social strata, hence the marquee purchased as gift or for own consumption can be a proxy for affluence and self-validation in a logic of ostentatious or conspicuous consumption (Overton & Murray, 2013).

1.3. Time agency, storytelling and authenticity

The choices that social actors make about how to spend their time reflect their way of being in the world. Individuals manifest their autonomy and sense of purpose by time agency: that is, they decide how to best dispose of the time capital at hand. By customizing their pastimes, individuals enjoy self-determination, uncoerced to a certain degree (Beck, 1992). Time agency (Flaherty, 2003) becomes a fertile ground for studying organic wine consumers’ preferences because the ritual of drinking wine is generally associated to a specific timing, or a collection of moments and various temporal experiences which the person can intentionally

modify in terms of frequency, duration, and sequence or allocation practices. This disposable time capital also known as free or discretionary time is performative in nature because it can be constructed and filled according to consumers' priorities.

Narrative techniques act as strategic communication tool for brand differentiation and competitiveness (Bassano et al, 2019; Cassar et al, 2018). Original provenance and authenticity represent core themes of consumer culture for wine lovers' digital communities (O'Neill et al, 2014; Maguire et al, 2013; Peace, 2011). These discursive motives install a language of claims as part of a regime of truth (Foucault, 1991) that legitimises a social version of knowledge that influencers such as marketers, producers' representatives, sommeliers, bloggers hold to count as true. As in the case of the authenticity claims, such regimes of truth institutionalise narratives as myths that serve to protect consumers against cognitive dissonance, by allowing them to savour and indulge in their choice without after-thought of appearing naïve, misinformed or hoaxed (Carroll & Wheaton, 2009; Gilmore & Pine, 2007).

An under-represented direction of study involves tracking wine consumers' preferences using narrative analysis of digital traces: comments, posts, tweets, visual content (photos, cartoons, videos). One such study (Matheson et al, 2019) classified wine consumers' feelings and attitudes towards organic wine across environment: home, restaurant, informal and formal social gatherings, festivals, aiming to synthesize the public perception trends regarding **wine** in terms of social status associations, emotional responses and consumption-specific concerns. Indeed, the relationship between interactive digital storytelling (e.g. through micro-blogging, forum posts and social media comments) and decision-making has not been explored so much from a customer management or commercial marketing perspective, but more so from a public health, situated ethics and educational outline. As such, "participant-produced digital stories constitute a rich and relatively unexplored source of qualitative data" (Rossiter & Garcia, 2010: 49).

2. Method

Considering the research objectives, the netnography lends well to the issue at hand because it is a non-invasive, immersive approach to consumer behaviour via online interactions (Kozinets, 2002). The researcher adapts ethnographic research techniques to the study of wine consumers' communities who interact via asynchronous, informal, cyber mediated communication (Kozinets, 2002). It is advantageous because it is applicable also for comparative translocal sites of the social (Rokka, 2010) and longitudinal studies, considering data traceability.

In order to inquire whether including time and narratives return results for marketing strategies, the online Web 2.0 environment provides easily quantifiable online presence metrics (Xun and Reynolds, 2010). The study considers the top ten most attractive posts featuring on the Facebook pages of the 14 organic and biodynamic wine producers in Romania. All 825 posts date back to the latest 12

months and are rated according to the three conventional evaluative indicators of likes, shares and comments. The assumption is that the most commented posts are the best purchasing predictors and have the highest weight in facilitating the transition between prospective, new and loyal customer behaviour. A recent netnographic study on fashion brands (Loureiro et al, 2019) validates this assertion, as it discovers that consumers react to hashtags, updated photos and videos by an intensification, acceleration and densification of direct interaction via comments, blogs, vlogs, following a cumulative logic that leads to sales.

The resulting 42 texts were checked for time references in connection to claims of authenticity and historicity by means of narrative techniques. Also included in the thematic analysis were 26 blog posts dating to the same period and belonging to the 6 of the 14 producers of organic and biodynamic wine who host a blog on their website (i.e. Petro Vaselo, Alira, Nachbil, Domeniile Franco-Române, Adamclisi and Crama Frâncu). These blog posts fulfilled the cumulative inclusion criteria of receiving a minimum of 10 comments, 40 likes and three shares each. The 68 texts range from 20 to 130 words and include 211 hashtags that are analysed using the same conceptualisation and categorisation across storytelling and time agency dimensions. For confidentiality reasons, the data set excluded personal identifiers apart from vineyard name.

Data mining and ensuing descriptive coding are performed on textual social media and blog posts as research units. The sense-making processes that surfaced during thematic analysis revealed the following seven thematic categories: (1) weekend, (2) weekdays and casual moments, (3) seasonality, (4) historicity, (5) events and celebrations, (6) the temporal dimension of technology, artistry and craftsmanship, (7) quality time and memorability.

3. Findings

The data-driven thematic analysis portrays the role and scope of social media communication in its narrative and time-bound component regarding organic wine. It scrutinizes the realm of inter-subjectivity and traded meanings by which digital storytelling reveals shared understandings of cultural identity to a wine community. The findings are grouped according to the respective time category.

3.1. Events and celebrations

A miscellaneous pattern of omnivorous consumption emerges, as producers invite consumers to a broad range of indoor and outdoor wine-tasting events, ranging from popular pizza diners, steak houses and premium restaurants, to retro parties, poetry recitals, astronomy lectures concerts, sports festivals or theatre shows. Representative posts thereof ensue: "Fun, trail run, 12h cycling, wine and live music!" (Catleya, E5), "Fun, nature, relax and great people!" (Terra Natura, E2); "In the wedding season, meal arrangements can incorporate so beautifully the

memories of a good wine” (Nachbil, E2). The use of events boosts experiential attributes: ex: poetry recital and astronomy lecture under the clear night sky

Another time promotion strategy targets holidays and international days: “For the international Picnic Day, why not fetch a blanket and picnic basket, a bottle of Sauvignon Blanc and go out to the nearest park. Closing your phone would be a good idea too” (Domeniile Adamclisi, E6); “For the International Laughter Day, post your best joke here and win an exquisite wine gift” (Domeniul Bogdan, E5); “Celebrate the International Family Day! Reignite the love flame and invite your partner to a romantic dinner” (Agape, E3).

3.2. Weekend

References to the weekend abound in the organic wine marketers’ posts. Some examples follow: “How do you pair rucola? Simple! Pour a glass of ruby-red, velvety Merlot and set dinner to start the weekend!” (Lechburg, E2); “Uncork the weekend!” (Domeniile Franco-Române, E7); “Our way to express our love for the weekend” (Crama Frâncu, E5); “Let’s make this weekend about Pinot Noir” (Nachbil, E4).

3.3. Weekdays and casual moments

Marketers’ discourse attempts to institutionalize wine drinking for a wide array of everyday situations, as the following excerpts attest: “Every Monday is a chance to start a sparkling week! #TimetoParty” (Nachbil, E3); “Enjoy being healthy every day!” (Lechburg, E2); “After a full day, it can be easier than you think to create a moment of relaxation. A glass of red wine while you immerse yourself in a good book and detach yourself from the everyday hustle” (Domeniile Adamclisi, E3); “Every day we can find reasons to celebrate, with our nearest and dearest” (Vitis Metamorfosis, E4); “A day without wine is like a day without sun” (Louis Pasteur, in: Catleya, E5); “The perfect way to start the week” (Petro Vaselo, E2); “For an inspired make-up session you can try a classical tutorial or, better still, open a bottle of Eleganza and let yourself be fabulous” (Alira, E5)

3.4. Seasonal references

This category highlights the escapist trope of reconnecting to natural seasonal flows, coupled with gregarious values: “A refreshing Rosé and dear friends. A true #summer story!” (Domeniile Franco-Române, E3); “What are you doing next holiday? We await your visit at the cellar!” (Domeniile Franco-Române, E1); “Warm May evenings @Lechburg wines” (Lechburg, E1); “There is nothing quite like having a springtime picnic under the shade of the trees at Emiliana Organic Vineyards!” (Terra Natura, E1); “I was amazed at this return to the simple things, to traditions that matter, as antidote to our world of immediacy and inconsequential speed” (Petro Vaselo, blog, E2); “A dream-like place, where you can find refuge and time to unwind, away from the maddening crowd!” (Alira, E3).

3.5. History

Historical references to provenance are strategies of authentication that sometimes incorporate patriotic national considerations and serve to construct narrative memorability, legitimacy and credibility. Here are some social media excerpts: "Have a taste of history visiting the archaeological sites of ancient necropolis, Roman aqueducts and Byzantine fortresses. Our vineyard is in the vicinity, a blessed space where history unites with wine cultures" (Crama Frîncu, E3); "Wine is one of the most vivid expressions of culture and civilization. Wherever there is wine, you will find respect for nature. Romania has safeguarded this tradition for 2500 years and continues to do so (Domeniile Adamclisi, E1); "We believe wine is the expression of its own terroir: the sun, the wind, the rain, the earth, people, history, culture and each people's story. This bottle of Primordial Chardonnay encapsulates a fascinating world, with a thousand-year tradition, from the renowned Dobrogea historical region" (Domeniul Bogdan, E3); "Take tradition forward! Choose your tribe and belong!" (Alira, E1); "During the Belle Époque, prince Anton Bibescu, Marcel Proust and their friends savoured Corcova wines at Paris. In 2007, the Bordeaux oenologist Laurent Pfeffer founded Catleya, whose name stands for an orchid symbolising love and pleasure from Proust's books. Share our #JoiedeVivre!" (Alira, E7).

3.6. The temporal dimension of technology, artistry and craftsmanship

The discursive construction of temporality follows a sequence of moments from the onset of production to the consumption, with a narrative underpinning structure. The temporal site of wine-making contains embedded cues: "Crama Frîncu is a classical among moderns: made in accordance to tradition, with the help of latest technologies" (Crama Frîncu, E2); "The quality depends on the ratio of the leaf area to the quality of the grapes. We control the grape yield by careful pruning, rigorous shoot thinning and reduction in the number of bunches in the early summer (Agape, E1); "We strictly monitor the ripening of the grapes is strictly monitored and focus our attention on several parameters: chemical, physical, sensorial. Based on all these factors we decide the right moment for harvest" (Catleya, E1); "In biodynamic viticulture, choosing the perfect timing for each activity is an art" (Nachbil, E1).

This temporal logic displays an anti-Fordist outlook on viticulture and wine production that proposes alternatives to the mechanical standards of uniformization, efficiency-driven, high volume and low cost. The premodern slow time turns to artisanal methods of production to respond to consumers of natural, home-produced wine who long for homemade wine. The nostalgia of city dwellers with rustic, rural origins infuses the promotional rhetoric. The techne discursive trope thus features long-standing wine making technologies that provide a guarantee for authenticity

3.7. Quality time & memorability

The marketers' references to memorable experiences of wine drinking rely on downshifting and reflexion, standing back and letting time flow by. There is a contrasting tension between the controlled production process illustrated above and abandoning control for consumption: "We gloss over so many experiences, all piled up, engulfed, compressed; it's important to have some sort of an anchor, that stands out. You don't only buy a wine, but a memory, a keep-safe against forgetting" (Nachbil, blog, E5); "Breathe the scented air, feel the flavours and savour a wholesome treat, hear the leaves quiver – feast on the unique sense of eternity" (Terra Natura, E4); "Take your time and discuss good movies with a glass of wine" (Alira, E2); "It's time to indulge! Call your friends for a girls' night in with a delightful Rosé" (Alira, E3); "Stories flow differently with good friends, good food and matching wine!" (Domeniul Bogdan, E2); "Enjoy classical music with a glass of Flamma Baricat, full of character! (Alira, E4)

Wine functions in this context as memento of a beautiful experience, a postcard memory shared with loved ones and rekindled by the wine artisan's imprint. The temporary respite from the urban hectic rhythm invokes slow living, togetherness and conviviality. Slow living is manifest in unitasking and the capacity to control sequence by avoiding overlapping, interspersed or fused activities.

3.8. Time agency

Time agency proposes a reverence for the past that binds together producers and consumers within a traditionalist outlook with an innovative twist. Analysed social media content speaks about attempts to seek in-group resemblance by means of time capital. Winemakers act as taste makers, community leaders, entrepreneurs who safeguard the spirit of place. Time attributes are value statements and cultural contrivances that act as unique selling propositions for boutique organic and biodynamic wines.

Conclusions

Wine narratives expressed via social media are important because they reflect the customer-centric orientation required of wine marketers to gain insight into consumers' decision-making processes. These reflective, argumentative and deliberative practices are often sprout with doubt, hesitation, cognitive dissonance and rumination. The participatory, many-to-many mode of dissemination acts as credibility catalyst.

A particularity of the emerging showcased market is the lack of specialisation: organic and biodynamic vine growers are also wine makers and rarely have any connection to retailers or large distribution chains. Their digital communication hence targets the direct relationship to end-consumers. There is a nuanced balance to negotiate between the traditional heritage of localism and the need for agile adaptation to changing consumer groups and the accommodation to

expansion ambitions. Boutique producers plan to permeate a larger commodity chain in retail or HoReCa instead of selling only to locals at cellar door or on premise. They achieve this by events as networking opportunities and by their promotional rhetoric.

More grounded theory is needed to explore inductively, bottom-up approaches to tribalization, particularly in the context of urban dwellers' fantasy migration to rural idyll and pursuits of digital self. Statements such as: "Nature is not enslaved by technology, nor are we enslaved by time" (Alira blog, E6) point to slow living and post-consumerist creeds wherein storytelling and underlying worldviews become essential arguments. In the explored rhetoric stances, time functions as binding factor that morphs synesthetic experiences of the five senses: "time to see the picturesque hillside vineyards, to hear the shiver of the nearby forest and its soothing breeze, to be transposed and reimmersed in a distant idyllic reality of savour and flavour, delightful smell of vines and robust scent of moist earth" (Petro Vaselo blog, E7).

The audience appreciates time narratives, as the visibility and attractiveness indicators reveal. Consequently, such digital storytelling tactics function as predictors of the likelihood to convert wine appreciation into purchase. They also act as means to stabilize changing consumer preferences, by creating a tradition that enacts forlorn values of solidarity and simplicity divergent from the corporate urban social world that buyers are generally accustomed to.

The explored excerpts point to drinking wine as a postcard memory, a moment suspended in time that testifies to a form of resistance to hectic life rhythm. Infused in this nostalgic rhetoric are social imageries and prescriptive contents regarding wholesome lifestyles and a slow living philosophy. The current study concludes that the marketers' approach needs to be not only statistically oriented, but taking a stylistic and aesthetic, even philosophical stance: because wine is an experiential product. Hence, an enlarged framework is necessary to incorporate time agency and storytelling across innovative methodological approaches, which acknowledge that rhetoric and discourse breed emotions which convert to purchasing decisions. As per the well-known Italian aphorism "Si non e vero, e ben trovato", people want to buy the story, even if it's fantasy, plausibly out of an escapist drive that complements their hedonic pursuit.

In a country whose wine branding was built with very inexpensive wine, usually sold bulk, organic producers strive to communicate impressions of conviviality and warmth to convert exceptional consumption and celebratory regimes of time use into frequent or everyday practice.

Organic wine lovers form a post-modern tribe (Rokka, 2010) whose online co-presence unfolds as a virtual community of taste. It materializes in a hub for the dissemination of insight and sharing of time cues that help customer acquisition and retention. These spaces of fragmented little mass conceptualize consumers from a more empowering stance, as traders of intelligibility and amateur "judges of experience" whose wine decisions reflect lifestyle choices. As Matthews and

Sunderland (2013) argue, stories are listenable, appealing and endearing if they tell something about us. This research design runs the challenge of recontextualizing in a marketing-oriented paradigm aimed at wine purchasing behaviour stories as a repertoire of discursive artefacts. A second challenge is to safeguard the in-depth approach to rhetoric modes and tone of voice whilst expanding the scale of analysis to bring scalability for more practical usability. Beginning from this exploratory stage, aggregate data of larger samples can trace typologies and patterns in a comprehensive, mixed methodology.

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THE SINGLE PARENT FAMILY: FROM MARGINALIZATION TO NORMALCY AND ACCEPTANCE

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Abstract: *The single-parent family is a major problem of contemporary society. In the last decades the number of single parent families has increased considerably, this is generated by the large number of divorces, the migration of parents, but also death. The emotional development of children who come from single parent families has to suffer, because they fail to learn their behavior patterns, norms and beliefs, which will help them in forming their own personality. The article includes a comprehensive analysis based on extensive qualitative research; the specific techniques were: the documentation, case study, individual counselling, semi-structured interview, applied to 20 monoparental families in Caraș-Severin County, resulting from distinct situations: divorce, death and abroad migration of one of the parents. The results of the research demonstrate the difficulties faced by children from single-parent families and underline their emotional needs. The lack of a parent causes problems of communication of adaptation and of social integration. Children from single parent families should enjoy the same protection and understanding, the same love, even if they do not have both parents.*

Key words: *single parent families; emotional development; disorganized family; marginalization.*

Introduction

Over time, human existence has undergone many changes, and this is evident as change becomes, along the evolution of society over time, a phenomenon socially accepted and recognized. Change is felt in all aspects of human life, and this makes it easy for contemporary humans to adapt to changes that have become ubiquitous in everyday life.

Family is the basic element of any society. The emergence of alternative family models (single mothers, single parent family), causes the idea of traditional family to undergo significant changes both in terms of structure and from the point of view of the role exercised. In recent decades, single parent families have undergone a real social process from blaming and discriminating to normalcy and acceptance.

1. Theoretical considerations regarding the single parent family

"Family is a group of people connected by marriage or kinship. It consists of the spouses and their children, the parents of the spouses, as well as other persons with whom they are related." (Filipescu, 1996: 1). Family „constitutes a distinct social reality. Family's specific characteristics come from its numerous functions". (Georgevici, 2014: 3).

From a moral-Christian point of view, family is an institution of divine origin established by creation. It was formed by the conclusion of the marriage; whose main characteristics were unity and indissolubility. Being a God's institution, family has a sacred character, this nature being highlighted by the following characteristics: perfect love, union and equality of its members (Albu., Family Law: 7; Filipescu: 2,4; Stăniloae, 1978: 180). The single parent family is a family in which children are raised and educated by a single parent. Out of the desire to conceive a clearer definition of the single-parent family, the authors Mitrofan and Ciuperca carefully analysed this phenomenon which has become extremely widespread in contemporary society. The two authors made a typology of this type of family starting from the causes that can generate single parenthood: death of the other parent, separation / divorce, abandonment of the family by one of the parents, adoption made by a single person, or "unexpected" birth of a child in a free, consensual relationship outside of marriage, especially when parents are teenagers.

The single-parent family is regarded as a whole which, although "missing an element, does not cease to function as a system, in which the whole is much more than the sum of the parts" (Scutaru, 2006: 19). This new conception comes after transformations and modifications, and thus the family with a single parent has become a normal family, as it becomes a familiar behaviour for the members of the contemporary society and as records an increase in frequency (<https://laws.uaic.ro/>)

2. The factors generating the single parent family

Death. The death of one parent represents a tragedy for any child, regardless of age. The moment of loss of a loved one is experienced with the same intensity both by children and adults. In the case of the death of a parent, the pain experienced by other family members manifests itself on different levels:

- on the physical level: fatigue, lack of energy, tension in the stomach, muscle weakness, strong predisposition to diseases;

- on the mental level: confusion, reduced ability to concentrate, denial, difficulties in the decision-making process, sensation of the presence of the deceased; emotionally; sadness, despair, longing, anger, guilt;
- on the spiritual level, analysing one's own beliefs and principles about life (Constantin in Mitrofan, 2003: 352)

Divorce. Divorce is defined as a legal way to break up a marriage. In Mitrofan and Ciupercă (1998), Parkinson proposes two explanations of the spread of this phenomenon, "the high hopes for marital happiness turn much faster into reproaches and disappointments because reality does not meet expectations". Unemployment, illness or infirmity can also be causes that leading to divorce.

The experience of a divorce is difficult for both parties and can generate feelings of personal failure, hopelessness, insecurity and sadness (especially in the parent who has the custody of the child). Problems related to raising, caring and educating children complicate many divorces, before '89 divorce was considered a shame, a failure especially in the case of couples who had children. Current research has shown that the most beneficial for children is the scenario when the parents get a divorce if they are unhappy, instead of choosing to stay together in an atmosphere of stress, discontent, anger, violence and hatred.

Divorce effects. "The effects are generally most obvious in the immediate post-divorce period" (Hetherington, 1989). Usually, the first year after the divorce is marked by a higher level of anxiety, depression, parent-child conflicts. Most of the time both the parent and the child make efforts to adapt to the new situation, and the negative reactions of each can affect the other in a cyclical way, getting more and more numerous. The effects of divorce vary depending on the child's age and gender. Pre-schoolers are more sensitive, more vulnerable, because they lack the cognitive resources needed to understand the reasons for the divorce and may assume that it was also their fault one way or another (Zill, Moirison and Coiro, 1993). Each segment of the development process has its own vulnerabilities and possible negative consequences; adolescence is a very difficult period, because it involves important changes from the physical, mental, emotional point of view, teenagers are prone to depressive episodes, behavioural disorders, anxious states, which is why the manner in which the divorced parent communicates and behaves with their child is paramount.

Usually, boys are more affected by divorce than girls, exhibiting for example rebellious behaviour or defiant attitude. Girls may be more vulnerable to internalising effects, for instance, sadness or self-blame (Stanley-Hagan, 2002). However, the negative consequences of divorce seem more pronounced in boys than in girls (Harwood., Miller, 2010: 762).

Applied research design. The qualitative survey was conducted in Reșița Municipality, Caraș-Severin County, between October and December 2018, the methods used were: autobiographical reflection and sociological investigation, the technique being the semi-structured interview, applied to a number of 20 single-

parent families resulted from death, divorce and migration of one of the parents abroad. The investigative tool is the list of questions per se.

The objectives of the applied research are the following:

- social perception regarding the increase in the number of single parent families;
- factors generating the spread of the single parent family in the contemporary society;
- observing the disadvantages for the children coming from single parent families.

3. Case study. Single parent family resulting from the death of one of the parents

A.P is 18 years old, she is a high school student attending a theoretic high school in the Reșița Municipality, Caraș-Severin County; she comes from a single-parent family, her mother died 11 years ago due to a fatal illness at the age of 32. From then until now the teenager lives with her father in a two-room apartment located in Reșița Municipality. After the mother's death, things changed radically for both A. and her father, as the father had to fulfil also the role of the mother, and A., a 7-year-old, had to get used to the mother's absence and grow up too early. The fulfilment of the maternal role meant a great challenge for Mr. V., father of A., because until the unfortunate event he was not familiar with the household tasks and with the specific needs of a girl preparing for school, doing homework, her hygiene and feeding. The loss of his wife caused Mr V. to see life differently, now he puts more value on health, peace and faith.

From a financial point of view, things have changed considerably, the only income of the family being the father's salary, which does not exceed 2000 RON and the girl's 84 lei allowance. With this money, the father tries to cover all the expenses of the house: the mortgage instalments, the payment of the utilities, the purchase of food and also he takes care of the girl's education, he pays tutoring for her at different subjects, encourages her to participate in different school contests in order to develop her intellectual capacities and also supports the daughter's inclination for volunteering, as well as her involvement in such activities.

From a social point of view, after the loss of his wife, Mr. V. isolated himself from friends and family, because he could not accept the new status of single father. Almost 6 months after the tragic event, both A. and her father went to a psychologist in order to cope with the tragedy that had struck them. Many friendships have deteriorated, due to the father's refusal to communicate and to go out for different activities.

From an emotional point of view, the absence of the mother has left its mark on A.'s personality, as she is a mature person, but introvert, and she is extremely grateful to her father and grandparents who have raised her with lots of love and patience, have always tried to protect her, to be at her side in the most important moments of her life, so that she does not feel the grievance of losing her mother. The relationship between A. and her grandparents is special, and even though the years have passed and A. has become a true young lady, grandparents still treat her like a child and pamper her.

Currently, A. is preparing for the maturity exam and wants very much to become a student of Alexandru Ioan Cuza University in Iași, at the International Relations section, because she is passionate of foreign languages and literature, she wants to go to Iași, because her paternal grandparents live there.

Applied research conclusions:

Following the interview of the 20 single-parent families, the following conclusions could be drawn: the number of single-parent families is constantly increasing, due to the fact that in the last decades the divorce rate has increased considerably, and more and more parents, who have a poor financial situation, choose to go abroad in search of a better life.

In today's society most families are falling apart, because young people choose to end their marriage much too easily, do not meditate on the consequences, do not think what it means for a child to grow up without one of the parents. The mortality rate among young people has increased a lot, non-curable diseases leaving many orphaned children from very young ages. The disadvantages of children from single-parent families are multiple: they are deprived of the love, attention and protection of both parents, cannot acquire norms, values and principles of life from both parents.

Children who come from single parent families are more sensitive, more introverted, they think they are misunderstood, which is why it is very difficult for them to freely express their feelings and their desires. They tend to get (self) marginalised, feeling different from the other children, who grow up with both parents.

Children in single parent families need a lot of love, attention and understanding from family members, friends and colleagues. The family situation leaves its imprint on the development of the child's personality and later on his or her adult life, because all their existence they live with the fear of not going through a similar situation.

In lieu of general conclusions...

The single parent family is normality in the contemporary society. Most children come from families where the parents chose to move/divorce or go abroad in search of a better life, and this led to a gradual differentiation from the traditional family model in which children were raised and educated by both parents. Even if we live in a democratic society, single-parent families are viewed in a negative light, the education of children who come from single parent families has its deficiencies especially in the case of children who grow up in disorganised families from very early ages, because they cannot acquire their own behavioural patterns, norms and beliefs, which could help them to shape their own personality. The single-parent family faces a number of issues: financial difficulties, social exclusion, marginalisation, and all these aspects contributing to the increasing vulnerability of this social group. Within this type of family there is only one potential income earner, and this contributes to the increase of the degree of dependence on the free and easy help offered by the state through the Social Assistance programs.

The family situation influences the physical, mental and emotional development of children in a decisive way. Most of them become introverted; have a tendency to get (self) marginalised, exhibit adapting difficulties. Children from single parent families need a lot of love, communication, moral support, in order to develop harmoniously. All these emotional aspects can affect children's adult life, because they can look with scepticism at the idea of starting a family, and this can be due to their own family model.

It is essential for parents to understand how important it is to get involved and find the inner resources needed to deal with crisis situations. Children from single parent families should enjoy the same protection and understanding, the same love, even if they do not have both parents. For children it is not easy to accept that they are part of a single parent family and this can become a real issue for parents, who do not know how to manage the relationship with their own child.

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LEGAL CONDITIONS NEEDED FOR ENGAGING THE DISCIPLINARY RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TEACHING STAFF

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Abstract: *In the international context, the Romanian society evolves at an energetic rate determined by the amplification and diversification of social, economic and, finally, political relations. At the same time, it can be easily observed that the constantly changing and evolving legislation is being improved by new regulations and, to the same extent, by the transposition of European norms into the national legal system. The teaching staff, the auxiliary teaching staff, as well as the management, guidance and control staff in the pre-university education are disciplinary responsible for violating the obligations arising from the individual employment contract and by disregarding the behavioural rules that affect the interest of the education and the prestige of the institution according to laws. The disciplinary liability, as well as the criminal responsibility, fulfils the functions of sanctioning, prevention and education, but it is especially different from the patrimonial responsibility, which mainly fulfils a reparative function. Once a disciplinary offense has been committed, the teaching staff is likely to be applied a special disciplinary sanction regulated by the National Education Law no. 1/2011. The disciplinary sanction is carried out with the strict observance of the legal provisions, respectively of the principle of the legality of the sanction, and the application of the disciplinary sanctions is made gradually, from the mildest to the most severe. In conclusion, the disciplinary offence from the individual employment contract, from the internal regulations, from the decisions of the employer is the engine of engaging the disciplinary responsibility, in compliance with the legal conditions.*

Key words: *teaching staff; disciplinary responsibility; sanction; disciplinary offence.*

Introductory aspects

For a good performance of the employment relations, the teachers must respect the obligations established in the individual or collective labour contract and, at the same time, have a conduct adequate to the academic space, established according to the ethical principles and values. In principle, the activity of the employers, as far as the social relations developed at work is concerned, must be dominated by the discipline of the work, this can be defined as the “necessary order in carrying out the work process, which implies the fulfilment of the work duties and the observance of the norms of conduct by the participants in this process”. (Ticlea, 2016: 851)

In practice, the disciplinary liability can be combined with the other forms of legal responsibility; this interfering without altering its own particularities, and the event that involves the disciplinary responsibility, as a form of the legal responsibility, is represented by the unlawful act, respectively the disciplinary offence. The fact that generates the disciplinary responsibility is the disciplinary offence that represents the deed not allowed by law, with antisocial consequences and which injures a certain order. Therefore, without disciplinary offence, we cannot talk about training the disciplinary responsibility regarding the teaching staff.

1. The specificity and the conditions for engaging in disciplinary responsibility

In the legal literature, the disciplinary responsibility is defined as “the set of labour law norms that define the disciplinary offences, establish the disciplinary sanctions and regulate the substantive and procedural conditions for their application, constituting the specific legal responsibility of the labour law - the disciplinary responsibility”. (Stefanescu, 2014: 769)

A particularly important opinion emphasized that "the disciplinary liability can only be incurred if the socially dangerous act was committed by a person who is in working relations with an employer, based on an individual employment contract". (Ticlea, 2016: 853)

Certain contracts regulated by the civil legislation, such as the contracts of enterprise, of mandate and of services, having not as essential condition the subordination of a party to the other, does not present the characters of the employment contract and, therefore, their holders do not respond disciplinarily. At the same time, we would like to emphasize that the students who carry out the practical activity based on a contract concluded with the educational units cannot be subject to disciplinary responsibility under the Labour Code, but only according to the specific regulations of the education.

Also, the opinion that the disciplinary responsibility is involved in the situation in which an employee commits a disciplinary offence was accepted. Unlike the other forms of legal responsibility, disciplinary liability is contractual in nature and is independent of the other forms.

In accordance with the legal provisions, the main essential elements necessary to carry out the disciplinary responsibility that must be cumulatively fulfilled are: the quality of employee, the existence of an unlawful deed, the committing of the deed with guilt, a harmful result and the causal link between the deed and the result. Therefore, we could confirm that there is an approximation of the disciplinary liability to the criminal liability which for its training must meet a number of conditions cumulatively, such as the existence of an unlawful act that fulfils the obligatory features of an offense, the guilt of the offender manifested in the form and of intent or blame and the causal relationship between the illicit fact and the result.

In conclusion, the disciplinary responsibility can be defined as “that form of the legal responsibility, specific to the labour law, which consists in sanctioning the acts of infringement with guilt by any employee of the legal norms, the internal regulation, the individual and / or collective labour contract, orders and legal depositions of the hierarchical leaders qualified by law as disciplinary violations”. (Ticlea, 2016: 853)

As in the case of criminal liability, the disciplinary liability, having a strictly personal character, which results from the *intuitu* character of the individual employment contract, is not transmitted to the heirs. Therefore, the cumulation of disciplinary liability with other forms of legal, respectively patrimonial, contraventional, criminal liability, is possible, however, if other social relations, autonomous in relation to those regarding the state of disciplinary order, were violated. (Beligradeanu, 2006: 171-173)

As the offense is the only basis of the criminal liability, and the commission of the contravention the only ground of the contraventional liability, in the case of disciplinary liability the only base is the disciplinary offence. Synthesizing, by disciplinary offence we mean any violation of the rules of the discipline of work committed by the employee, and implicitly a violation of the job description. It should be emphasized that the labour law does not list and does not describe, in particular, the disciplinary violations, but according to the legal provisions, the internal regulation, drawn up by the employer with the consultation of the union or the employees' representatives, must necessarily contain the disciplinary offences.

In the judicial practice it was retained that, in the event that the deed committed by the employee is not provided as a disciplinary offence in the personnel status, the internal regulation, the individual or collective labour contract applicable, or does not meet the constituent elements of such a legal framework (so, it does not fit in the template provided in the personnel statute, the internal regulation, the individual labour contract or the collective labour contract applicable), it cannot be considered a disciplinary offence, with all the consequences arising from here”. (Revista romana de dreptul muncii, 2015: 141)

That said, in order to respond disciplinarily, it is necessary to meet the following constituent elements of the disciplinary offence:

- the object (social relations at work, order and discipline at work);
- the objective side (respectively the deed - the action or inaction of the employee);
- the subject (always a natural person in quality of qualified subject, respectively the employee);
- subjective side (guilt - direct and indirect intention, or fault in the form of employee's ease or negligence).

Regarding the first constituent element of the disciplinary offence, respectively the object, it constitutes the social relations of work, the order and the discipline of the work. As regards the legal employment relations, they are transposed into the employment obligations assumed by signing the employment

contract, synthesized, in their turn, in the generic obligation to strictly respect the internal order of the unit, the labour discipline.

(https://www.codulmuncii.ro/titulul_2/capitolul_2/art_39_1.html)

The second constitutive element of the disciplinary liability, namely offence, represents the objective side, respectively the deed, that is the action or inaction of the employee through which the good progress of the unit is affected.

"It is known that committing an unlawful act is of the essence of disciplinary liability, and the absence of such an act or the impossibility of proving it leads to the exemption of liability of that employee." (Revista Romana De Dreptul Muncii, 2015: 106-107)

Considering the diversity of situations, but also the specificity of the employment relations, the current legislation does not enumerate, in particular, the disciplinary offences, which is stemming from the fact that they may also result from violations of the internal regulations that are distinct from one entity to another.

In practice, illicit acts can be encountered, and they are commonly characterized by disciplinary offence such as non-compliance with the work program, failure to perform the employment tasks indicated in the job description, breach of the obligation registered in the internal regulations to inform the boss directly as soon as an employee has become aware of the existence of irregularities or offences committed in the unit, given that they are of nature to attract the disciplinary sanction of the guilty one. A very important aspect is that the labour law does not provide and does not regulate the situation in which the employee receives an order that he considers contrary to the rules of conduct or against the social norms. We believe that, in the future, the legislator should regulate such situations in which the employee practically does not know how to act.

The third constituent element of the disciplinary offence is the subject of the disciplinary offence, which is a qualified one, namely an employee employed by an employer.

Given the uniqueness of work discipline, the imperative obligation to respect it also lies with regard to the detached or delegated staff, as well as students, whether during internship and practical trainings or not. According to the particular features of the detachment, the management of the unit in which the detached persons carry out their activity is able to apply disciplinary sanctions to them, in compliance with the legal provisions, except for the dismissal and relegation in function which can be applied only with the agreement of the employer who detached them. Students that work during practical trainings or internship can be sanctioned according to the school and university regulations by the educational institution that sent them to the practice.

The last constitutive element of the disciplinary offence, respectively the subjective side or the guilt, consists in committing an unlawful act, contrary to the discipline of work, with intent or fault. Intention can manifest itself whether in the form of direct intention, when the subject foresees and wants the harmful effect of his deed to happen, and indirect intention, when he foresees the harmful effect,

without wishing it to happen, but accepting its production nevertheless. Guilt is also of two kinds - ease, when the subject foresees the effect, but he hopelessly hopes he can avoid it- and the carelessness, when the subject does not foresee the effect, although he could or should have foreseen it. "The possibility of predicting the harmful result of the deed must be evaluated in concrete, on a case-by-case basis, taking into account the author's training, capacity, experience and personal skills." (Ghimpu, 1970: 37)

The disciplinary liability cannot be incurred in the absence of guilt, and in the situation in which the employer orders the sanctioning of the employee, its measure is illegal, being contrary to the legislation in force.

With respect of the labour discipline and the normative acts in force, the employer, whether being a natural, a legal person or an institution, is the one who establishes the corresponding attributions of each employee, but also but also the dispositions of obligatory character. It should be emphasized that the work obligations established for the employees must be legal and possible. "By virtue of the subordination report, which characterizes social labour relations, the employee must comply not only with the general labour obligations provided by the normative acts, in the collective labour contract and in the individual labour contract, in the internal regulation and job description, but also with the measures (provisions) given by the employer through decisions, written or verbal orders, in the exercise of his duties of guidance and control". (Curtea de Apel Constanta, 2008)

As it has been shown in the specialized literature, "disciplinary sanctions are means of constraint provided by law, aimed at defending the disciplinary order, developing the spirit of responsibility for conscientious fulfilment of work duties and observing the behavioural norms, as well as preventing the occurrence of certain acts of indiscipline". (Ticlea, 2011: 272)

2. Exonerating causes of disciplinary liability

As we have shown above, disciplinary liability can be exercised only if all the constituent elements of the deviation are fulfilled, and the absence of any of them makes it impossible to exist. In fact, it has been shown that although the act meets the characteristics of the disciplinary offence, certain circumstances existing at the time of committing it lead to the idea that, in principle, the activity of the employee is not illicit, that he is not guilty and that the exemption of liability is required.

In the current labour regulation, the legislator did not foresee and did not indicate these causes of exoneration, but these were "borrowed" from the criminal law. Thus, the current penal code, by law no. 286/2009, regulates the justifying causes in art. 18-22 and the causes of non-imputability in art. 23-31, due to which an act provided by the criminal law does not constitute an offense. Some of these cases (legitimate defense, state of necessity, exercise of a right or fulfilment of an obligation, the consent of the injured person, physical or moral constraint, intoxication, error, forcible case) find applicability also in respect of disciplinary

misconduct. The cases taken from the criminal matter can determine that an unlawful act of an employee does not constitute a disciplinary offense, even if the required constitutive elements are met.

3. Disciplinary sanctions applicable to teaching staff

With regard to the application of the disciplinary sanction, this privilege was left to the employer, who may or may not sanction the employee who violated the labor discipline rules. There are also situations, for example the case of the ones guilty of sexual harassment, when the application of a disciplinary sanction is mandatory, not being requiring the opinion of the employer for the purpose of applying or not, of the sanction.

(<http://www.mmuncii.ro/j33/images/Documente/Legislatie/L202-2002-R.pdf>)

It should be emphasized that disciplinary sanctions are expressly provided by law, from the mildest to the most severe.

“As a consequence, the employer cannot apply another sanction, than one of the ones established by the law, and by the collective labour contract, no disciplinary sanctions can be provided other than those regulated by the labour law.” (Stefanescu, 1997: 106)

Given that the disciplinary sanctions are provided by the law in a gradual way, from the mildest to the most severe, it follows that when choosing between one of them, in order to correspond to the offences committed, the general criteria that the law provides for must be applied: the circumstances in which the deed was committed, the degree of guilt, the consequences of the disciplinary misconduct, the general behaviour in the working environment of the employee, the possible disciplinary sanctions applied before it.

The law of national education no. 1/2011 distinctly stipulates the sanctions applicable to the teaching staff from pre-university education (art. 280 paragraph 2), to the teaching staff from the higher education (art. 312 paragraph 2 and art. 318), as well as to the research and development staff (art. 324).

Thus, the main disciplinary sanctions applicable to the teaching staff in accordance with art. 312 of Law no. 1/2011 for the breach of the duties incumbent upon them according to the individual employment contract, as well as for the violation of the behavioural norms that harm the interest of the education and the prestige of the institution are the following:

- a) written warning;
- b) decrease of the basic salary, cumulative, if appropriate, with the compensation of management, guidance and control;
- c) suspension, for a determined period of time, of the right to enrol in a competition for the occupation of a higher educational function or of a management, guidance and control function, as a member in doctoral, master's or bachelor's committees;
- d) dismissal from the educational management position.

The rules of behaviour that dominate the academic environment are set out in the University Charter, without prejudice to the right to opinion, freedom of expression and academic freedom. The university charter is one of the most important documents that must be found at the level of each university. "The university charter cannot contain provisions contrary to the legislation in force", states the Law on national education no. 1/2011, and, "the non-observance of the laws in the content of the University Charter attracts the legal nullity of the respective act".

4. Cumulation of disciplinary liability with criminal liability

The cumulation of disciplinary liability with criminal liability can occur even if there are essential differences, as well as significant similarities between the two forms of legal responsibility. Thus, it is found that "between the two forms of legal liability there is an essential difference, determined by their different source, as the criminal liability finds its source in the law, being, as such, of a legal nature, while the disciplinary liability finds its source in the contract concluded between the parties, being, as such, of a contractual nature". (Ticlea, 2016: 864)

At the same time, it was pointed out that both the disciplinary and the criminal offence are the engines of employing the specific forms of responsibility, and these have clear similarities in that they are facts that are not allowed by law, with consequences that affect the various social relations and are committed with guilt.

If, under the umbrella of disciplinary responsibility, there is a determined social order, namely that of labour relations at the level of the employers, in the sphere of criminal responsibility enter relations and values, considered essential for the whole society such as sovereignty, independence and state unity, public property, person and its rights, as well as the entire rule of law.

Considering the cumulation of the criminal responsibility with the disciplinary responsibility, in practice the situation was encountered in cases where the same distinct act committed by an employee at his place of work could affect both the social order at the level of the major values protected by the criminal law, as well as the disciplinary order from the respective unit. If during the criminal trial, it is found that the act brings together the constituent elements of an offence in relation to work, which was committed with guilt by the respective employee, after the latter is being condemned by a definitive sentence, the employer is entitled to apply later, cumulatively, the disciplinary sanction of dismissal. The solution is obviously valid even if the conditional suspension of the execution of the prison sentence was ordered. (Revista Romana de Dreptul Muncii, 2014: 109-110) Consequently, considering the above, even if the two forms of legal responsibility have particularities, but also significant similarities, both in theory and in practice the cumulation of disciplinary liability with criminal liability can operate.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the disciplinary liability can be combined with the other forms of legal responsibility, respectively the contraventional liability, as well as the criminal liability, taking into account the autonomy of the spheres of social relations legally protected by various normative acts. At the same time, it should be emphasized that the legislator has also classified as a disciplinary offence the breach of work secrecy, but also breach of fidelity obligations, even if these offences are committed outside the unit's framework and after the working hours. Given that labour law does not regulate the situation in which an employee receives an illegal order or disposition from the employer, we consider that such regulation is necessary in the future in order to prevent such unpleasant situations in practice.

However, art. 45 paragraph 3 of Law no. 188/1999 expressly establishes the procedure by which the civil servant, in an identical situation must follow, namely, (...) to refuse, in writing and motivated, the fulfilment of the provisions received from the hierarchical superior", and in the situation in which the disposition is received is written, the civil servant is obliged to execute it, unless this is manifestly illegal, in which case he must "inform the hierarchical superior of the person who issued the disposition of such situation."

The disciplinary sanctions applicable to the teaching staff have the role of preventing the production of indiscipline acts within the educational unit, and these constitute means of constraint provided by the law, have as purpose the defence of the disciplinary order, the development of the spirit of responsibility for the conscientious fulfilment of the service duties and compliance with the rules of behaviour.

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SELF-ESTEEM AND DEPRESSIVE TENDENCIES AS RISK FACTORS IN SUBSTANCE CONSUMPTION IN YOUTH

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Abstract: *Self-esteem is the result of the assessment that a person makes about one's self, which makes that person feels more or less valuable. Depression is a disposition disorder, characterized by sadness, helplessness, loneliness and apathy. Substance consumption (like alcohol or nicotine) is sometimes used by people as self-medication, in order to achieve a certain mental balance, when they confront with life situations that they cannot manage. A sample of 115 young people, aged between 20 and 25 years old, has been assessed with Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale (1965), Dysfunctional Attitude Scale (Beck & Weisman, 1978) and a survey regarding substance consumption, made by the author, based on the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD 2015). The study aims: (1) To identify what types of substances are consumed by the subjects; (2) To identify gender differences in substance consumption; (3) To assess the level of self-esteem and depression for all the subjects involved; (4) To identify a correlation between self-esteem, depression and substance consumption. Our findings show: smoking and alcohol use are the main substances used by the subjects; there are no significant differences between male and female subjects regarding substance consumption; the majority of the respondents have low self-esteem levels and above average and high depressive tendencies; there is no significant correlation between self-esteem and substance consumption, but there is a significant correlation between depression and substance consumption. The importance of these results is discussed in the end.*

Key words: *self-esteem; depressive tendencies; substance consumption; youth.*

Introduction

Usually, self-esteem is used as a reference to self-worth or self-respect (Cherry, 2019), it represents the individual's sense of his value or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes himself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). It is a personality trait, which means that it tends to be stable during the life-span (Adler & Stewart, 2004). This construct is generally the evaluative component of the self-concept, which has different specific domains, like: self-image, self-worth, self-confidence, self-efficacy or self-compassion.

1. Self-esteem in youth

Various factors believed to influence self-esteem include (cf. <https://positivepsychology.com/self-esteem/>):

- genetics,
- personality,
- life experiences,
- age,
- health,
- thoughts,
- social circumstances,
- the reactions of others,
- comparing the self to others.

Low self-esteem is associated with depression and feelings of being defeated, and it leads people to make bad choices, to fall into destructive relationships, or to fail to live up to their full potential. Too much self-love, on the other hand, results in an off-putting sense of entitlement and an inability to learn from failures. It can also be a sign of clinical narcissism, of self-centeredness, arrogance and manipulative behavior (cf. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/basics/self-esteem>).

Self-esteem is important for adolescents and young people because it is a supporting factor of well-being. A study conducted by Dumont and Provost (1999) shows that well-adjusted adolescents have higher self-esteem than resilient and vulnerable adolescents. Furthermore, youth with consistently high, moderate and rising self-esteem reported developmentally healthier outcomes (Zimmerman, Copeland, Shope & Dielman, 1997). Outcomes included susceptibility to peer pressure, school grades and alcohol use. Furthermore, researchers found a link between victimization and low self-esteem (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010). Cyberbullying behaviors have been also linked to self-esteem, among other personality traits (Baldry, Farrington & Sorrentino, 2015; Kowalski, Limber & McCord, 2018).

Self-esteem seems to partially mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and adolescents' depressive symptoms (Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007), which means that various aspects of the self can protect and enhance the risks associated with discrimination.

So, we can conclude that self-esteem is a really important personality factor, with many implications in adolescent and young peoples' lives, with furthermore importance considering the fact that adolescence is a period of conflicts, of questions and answers, of development of a true identity, of putting together a puzzle of information and discoveries about one's self.

2. Dysfunctional attitudes and depressive tendencies in youth

Attempts to understand the nature of depression in adolescence have shown that:

- Stress is moderately correlated with psychological and physiological distress (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974; Gunderson & Rahe, 1974);
- Negative thinking is strongly associated with depression in adolescence (Garber, Weiss & Shanley, 1993);
- Past depression, current other mental disorders, past suicide attempts, internalizing behavior problems and physical symptoms act as risk factors for depression in adolescence (Lewinsohn, Roberts, Seeley, Rohde, Gotlib & Hops, 1994);
- High-depressive adolescents demonstrate a strong tendency to dramatize situations and seem to be less tolerant of frustration (Marcotte, 1996);
- Stressors interact with genetic, biological, cognitive, personality and interpersonal vulnerabilities as predictors of adolescent depression (Hankin, 2006).

Depression affects people in different ways and can cause a large variety of symptoms, like unhappiness, hopelessness, anxiety, losing interest in things that people enjoy, feeling tearful, etc. There also can be physical symptoms like feeling tired constantly, sleeping problems, lack of appetite, various aches and pains.

Statistics and studies show the following concerning aspects about depression in adolescence (Sonuga-Barke, Thompson, Stevenson & Viney, 1997; Muehlenkamp & Gutierrez, 2004; Lewinsohn, Rohde & Seeley, 1996; Arria, O'Grady, Caldeira, Vincent, Wilcox & Wish, 2010; Anderson & Smith, 2005; National Report of Romanian Children and Young People's Health, 2017):

- approximately 8% of adolescents between 12 and 17 years old have had a major depressive episode, girls being more exposed than boys;
- between 16 and 18 years of age, the risk for suicidal attempts is the highest;
- the more behavioral problems an adolescent has (violence, alcohol consumption, drugs, smoking, dangerous sexual behavior, etc.), the more the risk of suicidal attempts grows;
- suicide is the third leading cause of death among 15-to-24 year olds;
- between 15 and 18% of young people harm themselves without the conscious intention of committing suicide;
- approximately 8% of adolescents between 13 and 18 years old have an anxiety disorder, which mainly interferes with young people's social skills and education process;
- obsessive-compulsive disorder usually begins in adolescence and can be observed in approximately 1 out of 200 children and adolescents;
- approximately 2.7% of adolescents aged between 13 and 18 suffer from eating disorders;

- 2.59% Romanian children and adolescents have neurotic and behavioral disorders;
- approximately 70% of high-school students have already consumed alcohol, 50% have tried illegal drugs, 40% have already smoked and more than 20% have used prescription drugs for non-medical uses.

3. Substance consumption in youth

As the statistics above show, many adolescents are no strangers to substance consumption. There are several reasons for young people to use these substances, including the wish to try new experiences, attempts to face problems or to deal with school problems. Adolescents are biologically designed to seek new experiences and to take chances, to exert risky behaviors or to define their own identity. Experimenting with drugs and substances may help these normal developmental tasks unfold in an unhealthy manner, with severe long term consequences.

Most adolescents don't develop an addiction based on a one-time simple substance testing, but still these attempts are a problem. Drug consumption is part of a risky behavior model, including unprotected sexual contacts or driving while being drunk. If this pattern repeats itself, it may have serious consequences on young people's well-being, including (https://clinica-hope.ro/problemele-psihiice-ale-adolescentilor/):

- school failure,
- family problems,
- loss of interest for normal healthy activities,
- memory problems,
- high risk of infections (like HIV or hepatitis C),
- mental disorders,
- death caused by overdose.

4. Objectives and hypotheses

The main objectives of the research are:

1. To identify what types of substances are consumed by the subjects in the sample;
2. To identify gender differences in substance consumption;
3. To assess the level of self-esteem and depression for all the subjects involved in this study;
4. To identify a correlation between self-esteem, depression and substance consumption.

The hypotheses are:

1. We presume there are significant differences between male and female young people regarding substance consumption.

2. We presume there is a significant correlation between self-esteem and substance consumption.
3. We presume there is a significant correlation between depressive tendencies and substance consumption.

5. Sample and methods

The sample comprised 115 young people, aged between 20 and 25 years old, of which 72 male (63%) and 43 female (37%), residents of the city of Constanta.

Research ethics have been considered, as all subjects gave their written consent in order to participate in this study, since all participants reported different substances use.

The instruments that we used were Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale (1965), the Dysfunctional Attitude Scale (Beck & Weisman, 1978) and a survey regarding substance consumption, made by the author, based on the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD 2015).

6. Results

Objective 1 - Identifying what types of substances are consumed by the subjects in the sample.

The subjects were invited to choose from a list of substances, the ones they preferred or they utilize on a regular basis. We discovered the following hierarchy of preferences for substances: 84.35% - alcohol, 70.44% - smoking, 13% - ethnobotanical drugs (synthetic drugs, created in labs, using toxic substances to replace natural ingredients), 7% - cannabis, 3.47% - cocaine, 2.60% - amphetamines, 1.74% - ecstasy.

We can see that tobacco and alcohol use are the leading factors in the hierarchy of substance consumption in adolescence and youth. Although legislation in vigor regarding the age restrictions on access to tobacco and alcohol exists, it is clear that there are still problems in terms of abiding the law. Furthermore, Romanian parents do not usually restrain alcohol and tobacco consumption when in presence of their children and this represents a negative model of behavior that children are exposed to from very early ages.

Furthermore, other factors involved are: the above average and good family income (66.1% of respondents come from middle and high social-status families); the educational level of their parents (57% of the respondents' parents only have high-school studies); the main interest for activities such as computer games and social activities in the virtual world (78% of respondents prefer to spend their time online, playing and chatting with their friends); peer pressure (65% of respondents' friends consume alcohol and tobacco, and 12% are part of a social group in which cannabis is consumed).

The subjects were asked to answer for how long they have consumed these substances. We discovered that: 23% of the respondents consumed substances for 16 years, 23% for 15 years, 8% for 14 years, 15% for 13 years, 15% for 12 years, 8% for 11 years and 8% for 10 years. This means that they started really early, at school-age.

Objective 2 - Identifying gender differences in substance consumption.

Hypothesis 1 - *We presume there are significant differences between male and female young people regarding substance consumption.*

We discovered there are no statistically significant differences between boys and girls regarding substance consumption.

Still, we identified that 76.74% of boys and 65.28% of girls have medium to high levels in substance consumption. These results are consistent with other studies suggest that high-volume drinking is consistently more prevalent among adult men than among adult women (Wilsnack, Wilsnack, Kristjanson, Vogeltanz-Holm & Gmel, 2009; Kloos, Weller, Chan & Weller, 2009). While female showed higher levels of substance use in early adolescence, male exhibited greater changes and higher levels of use in mid adolescence and early adulthood (Chen & Jacobson, 2012).

Due to the biological differences between men and women, it has been hypothesized that the same quantity of alcohol consumed over the same time period produces different blood alcohol levels (Graham, Wilsnack, Dawson & Vogeltanz, 1998), women showing a greater vulnerability to alcohol and other substances (Holmila & Raitasalo, 2005).

Objective 3 – Assessment of the level of self-esteem and depression for all the subjects involved in this study.

We identified that only 4% of respondents have high scores in self-esteem, 38% have medium scores and 58% have low scores. The feeling of personal failure and lack of value are the main coordinates that the subjects reported. As for depression tendencies and dysfunctional attitudes, 6.08% have low levels, 27.82% have medium levels, 46.08% have high levels and 20% have very high levels of dysfunctional attitudes. These results suggest the existence of maladaptive behavior patterns which can become the basis of a potential depressive disorder.

Objective 4 – Identifying a correlation between self-esteem, depression and substance consumption.

Hypothesis 2 - *We presume there is a significant correlation between self-esteem and substance consumption.*

We obtained a negative correlation between self-esteem and substance use, that is not statistically significant (Pearson Correlation $-.039$; Sig.2-tailed $.679$). Although low self-esteem has been proved to be a predictor of delinquent behaviors, including substance use, our results show a weak relationship between the two variables.

Hypothesis 3 - *We presume there is a significant correlation between depressive tendencies and substance consumption.*

We obtained a positive correlation between depressive tendencies and substance consumption (Pearson correlation .188; Sig.2-tailed .045). Since both depression and substance use have in common personality traits like vulnerability, lack of emotional control, low impulse control, lack of tolerance on frustration, negative thoughts, it becomes natural that these two variables correlate. In this case, we can sustain that depressive tendencies represent risk factors in substance use behavior in youth.

Conclusion

The study was based on a series of objectives and hypotheses that have shown the following aspects:

- The most used substances in adolescence are alcohol and tobacco;
- Peer pressure, family income, parents educational status, socio-economic status and family models become risk factors in substance use behaviors in adolescence;
- The substance use has reportedly begun in early school years and preadolescence;
- There are no significant differences between male and female regarding substance use, although female have reported higher levels of substance use in adolescence;
- The majority of participants shows low levels of self-esteem and high levels of dysfunctional attitudes;
- There is no significant correlation between self-esteem and substance use, but we discovered a significant correlation between dysfunctional attitudes and substance use.

The practical implications of this study can be summarized as follows:

- There is a strong need of counseling for adolescents, in order to develop realistic coping strategies for the life situations they cannot handle;
- There is also a strong need of seminars, conferences and school programs to inform adolescents about the risks of substance use;
- Parental control should be more carefully exerted;
- Both positive models and real life experiences with people dealing with substance abuse should be shown, so that adolescents would be more aware of their trajectory in life;
- The rates of tobacco and alcohol use have grown in adolescence in the last few years;
- There are many opportunities for Romanian adolescents to acquire and consume goods, including tobacco and alcohol that were previously unavailable or more difficult to obtain.

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AGING AND QUALITY OF LIFE IN ELDERLY PEOPLE

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Abstract: *In this study we present the characteristics of the third age, as the ontogenetic stage, the psychological state and we differentiate a series of concepts such as: aging, old age, old age. At the same time we approach the quality of life and its indicators for the population in general and in particular we analyze the quality of life of the elderly people, highlighting the specific needs of this category of persons, which can often be characterized as a vulnerable group. The quality of life of the elderly is a multidimensional concept, that encompasses both general aspects specific to the whole population (health, employment, housing, family, income, expenses, leisure, political and civic participation, etc.), but also some particularities concerning the various transformations that occurred in their life, related to health, income, social relations, social participation, social protection etc. Studies on the quality of life of the elderly had in view the objective aspects, but especially on the subjective ones, considering that the definition of the quality of life depends on the perception of each one. Older people and social problems of the third age period are increasingly topics of quality of life research. The areas of quality of life that are most important from the perspective of the elderly are: living standards, health, social protection, social participation, housing, social relationships, family life.*

Key words: *aging (demographic, individual); old person; old age; quality of life in elderly people (size, indicators).*

Introduction

The aging of the population is a reality of contemporary society. More and more countries are facing the aging population, with extremely strong economic and social consequences. One of the major challenges of today's society, both internationally and at European level, is the aging of the population (CEDEFOP, 2006).

The issue of older people, nowadays, is gradually beginning to occupy a priority place on the public policy agenda. For example, in France, at the end of 2015, the law on the adaptation of society to an increasingly aging population (JORF, 2015)

has already been passed, and in Canada steps are being taken to develop a national strategy in this regard (IRPP, 2015).

Many of the most current problems of the society affect either directly or indirectly the segment of the elderly population. In this sense, we enumerate: the decrease of the birth correlated with the accentuation of the geographic aging, the increase of the number of retirees, after granting certain facilities to retirement, the deepening of the inflation, which leads to the decrease of the incomes and the hardening of the life of the elderly persons, "the increase of the unemployment, which amplifies the difficulties. by persons past a certain age at employment, the migration of young people from the rural to the urban environment and from the country abroad, having the effect of reducing the support granted to the elderly, especially in the rural communities, increasing the number of abuses on the elderly (for example: housing sale, forced internment, abandonment, etc." (Nita, 2009: 68).

The economic impact implies a decrease of the public incomes, concomitant with the increase of the expenses with the social protection and the health, a reduction of the volume of the labor force, but also changes in the behavior of consumption of the population. On a social level, the effects are felt in changes of social relations, of social behaviors, but also in the increase of the state of dependency for those with corneal affections. "This significant economic-social effect has made it increasingly possible to discuss the quality of life of the elderly, as well as the active aging" (Petrescu, 2019: 325).

Life expectancy has increased worldwide, including in Romania. Only that "in the Romanian landscape, the aging of the population is associated with poverty, and sometimes with loneliness and isolation" (Rusitoru and Gal, 2016: 82). The demographic data of the last years, as well as the forecasts of the sociologists, demographers and economists (Otovescu, Otovescu, 2019), indicate an upward trend of the weight of the elderly in Romania, as a result of the increase of life expectancy, fact confirmed by statistical data from the last census of the population made in Romania in the year 2011, which shows that "the share of elderly people over 65 is 16.14% compared to 2006, when their share was 14.85%." (Bodi, CD, 2017: 21).

The aging of the population will have a great magnitude in the next three to four decades both in the western countries and in Romania. In 2016, the proportion of the population over 65 was in Romania of 17.4%, while in the EU it reached 19.2% of the total population. Over the course of a decade, Romania registered a significant population growth of over 65 years, with 2.7 percentage points in 2016 compared to 2006 (Eurostat 2016).

The dynamics of the demographic realities, as well as the economic situation, have led to the raising of concerns about the impossibility of financially supporting the elderly, but it has also determined the intensification of the political efforts, in the sense of identifying and correcting the problems related to the quality of life of this category. of age.

1. Quality of life in Romania

One of the most dynamic fields of Romanian social research, with a scientific heritage that developed continuously between the end of the 70s of the 20th century and today, has focused on the quality of life of the people of our country. The development of this field as a sphere of research has been accentuated, in the last almost 30 years, after the changes of December 1989.

Quality of life is a complex concept, of an evaluative nature, by which, "it defines the set of elements that refer to the conditions in which people live (physical, economic, social, cultural, political, health, etc.), the content and nature of the activities on which they live. they develop them, the characteristics of the social relations and processes in which they participate, the goods and services to which they have access, adopted consumption patterns, way and lifestyle, the evaluation of the circumstances and the results of their activities, the expectations they have, as well as the subjective states of satisfaction/ dissatisfaction, happiness, frustration, etc." (Marginean, 2002b / 2015: 43).

To this comprehensive definition, we also add that the actual measurements of quality of life contain both objective indicators of status, perception, evaluation and personal experience, and in turn, the evaluations are carried out by researchers, as well as by the population studied, as a self-assessment.

The concept *quality of life* refers to the more or less good or satisfactory character of people's lives, more concretely how good or bad is the life of the population. Although used in many fields, such as literature, philosophy, geography, environmental sciences, medicine, economics, advertising, psychology, sociology, as well as in everyday life, it does not meet a unanimous definition of specialists. The expression can be determined individually, but also for different human communities (family, neighborhood, locality, country, group of countries), were for different categories of population constituted using different criteria (age, gender, education level, occupations, ethnicity, status and social classes, etc.). The concept of *quality of life* refers both to the overall assessment of life (how good, satisfactory is the life that different people, social groups, communities lead) and to the evaluation of different conditions or spheres of life: the quality of the environment, quality of work life, quality of interpersonal relationships, quality of family life etc. (Zamfir, 1999).

Too much generality of the concept diminishes its analytical power, believes Veenhoven (2000). *Quality of life* is an evaluative concept, being the result of reporting the living conditions and activities that make up human life, to human needs, values, aspirations. If happiness refers to the subjective state resulting from living one's own life, the *quality of life* refers both to the objective conditions in which human life is constituted, and to the subjective way in which each evaluates his or her own life - a state of satisfaction, happiness, fulfillment. While happiness is associated with a predominantly ethical perspective, what strategies the individual must adopt in order to maximize his happiness, the quality of life is more associated

with a sociological-political perspective. The interest lies primarily in determining the objective factors that are responsible for the variation of the quality of life and the social-political strategies of action in order to increase it.

The quality of life, through its practical orientation, becomes a landmark of the social action of changing/improving the living conditions. It appears in a triple hypostasis:

- *as a theoretical concept*, open to clarifications and terminological delimitations;
- *as an objective achieved* through development programs, country strategies;
- *as a criterion for evaluating and measuring* social development performances at the personal, collective-community, societal and global levels;

Although quality of life is spoken at the macroeconomic level since the 1950s, the concept gained theoretical value in the 1970s, initially in the Scandinavian countries and the United States. In modern society, quality of life is not a simple research topic, being considered a central objective of the political programs as well as of the country development strategies and of the European social projects. Thus, after the 60s-70s, the topic of quality of life knows a rapid expansion in the area of practical concerns in the sciences, political programs, mass-media, Romania being one of the few European countries that has taken over the complex sociological research problem quality of life even since its appearance.

After the Revolution of 1989, in Romania the quality of life has gained importance in the context of the new expectations of the population regarding the improvement of the standard of living. This was further enhanced by the establishment, on January 2, 1990, of the *Institute for Quality of Life Research* (ICCV) within the Romanian Academy. The emergence of this institute, together with other organisms aimed at studying the quality of life, led to the development of a vast specialized literature, as well as a practice in the field, methodically approached, through specific techniques and indicators, in accordance with the standards from West.

In Romania, the research on quality of life has focused on two main methodologies:

- *the subjective approach*: it is based on subjective indicators of life satisfaction that measure the level/degree of personal fulfillment by reference to the real, objective state of the quality of life.
- *the objective approach*, through social, economic, health indicators, which have a measurable character, independent of the opinions, options and evaluations of the population.

Many of the areas of quality of life have been explored more deeply by sectoral research: employment, health, education, family, satisfaction with life and happiness, lifestyles, etc. In the last almost 30 years, other research programs have been completed, which have increased the stock of knowledge about the material and subjective well-being of people: social development, standard of living,

consumption, poverty, social innovation, values, social economy, disadvantaged groups, economic inequalities, social assistance system etc.

The quality of life can be investigated from various scientific perspectives. "The Romanian research strategy was built on the basis of sociology as a theoretical-methodological reference system" (Dumitru, 2015: 55). Also, a peculiarity of the Romanian school of quality of life research is the integration of the descriptive and explanatory approach of the trends in the evolution of living conditions and of the subjective well-being of the people with the construction of social policies and community programs.

2. The elderly population. Conceptual clarifications, particularities and vulnerabilities

The image of the elderly is not always a favorable one and neither active and dignified aging is an absolute reality. Old age is a stage in our lives, it is part of human nature, it is inevitable and impossible to deny by any of us. Even if it is difficult for us to accept the idea of aging and our condition as mortals, we can do nothing but acknowledge our limits and resign ourselves. "From this perspective, humiliating the elderly means humbling our own projection in the future" (Constantinescu, 2008: 303).

At the basis of the definition of old age, there are both *internal factors* (heredity, the increase of the number of neurons coming out, the weight of the brain decreases, the mobility of the excitation and inhibition processes decreases, the latency of the emission of responses to complex excitators increases, the sclerosis of the cells in the receptors, the reduction of the irrigation, the oxygen and brain supply) as well as *external factors* (ecological, social, cultural). A series of events in the social environment (profession, culture, relationship) cause psychological and social changes such as: withdrawal from activity, renunciation of some activities, decrease of biological potential, somatic illnesses, decrease of the number of family members, disappearance of old friends.

From the perspective of the psychological evolution, we notice:

- the attitude or system of attitudes that is elaborated in relation to the complex existential situation of the elder;
- thickening or accentuating personality traits, sometimes in a caricature manner, traits that up to this age have been more or less well mastered or controlled.

Depending on the first aspect, the elderly can be grouped closer to one of the following variants commonly encountered:

- a) the existential situation is perceived as disarming or overwhelming and develops an aging model with high pathogenic risk that favors egocentric traits, introversion, depression, anxiety, hypobulgence, hypochondriac tendencies;

- b) the situation is perceived constructively, sanogenously and develops optimal, sanogeneous aging models, with a balanced structured basic personality, which regroups their forces and reinvests them in an activity according to the new personal, family and social conditions;
- c) the situation is denied and develops a model with high pathogenic risk, that refuses the decreases or deficits of the age, remaining at activity levels that exceed their possibilities.

The regression period is also known as the third age in which fragility and involution dominate. Aging is not a phenomenon associated with certain stages of life, but it is an ongoing process that affects people in different ways throughout their lives. The effects of aging are most evident in cognitive skills, in activity, in social and affective relationships, in sexuality, in creative activity and sometimes in personality.

Old age is a state represented by a multitude of interactions, a swarm of generative and cumulative tendencies, a cross obtained with difficulty and conflict. For this reason, the elderly come to be a distressing topic for our society, to be one of the "vulnerable groups at risk of marginalization bringing to the fore the profile of their needs, as well as possible answers based on services and social support services" (Constantinescu, 2018: 108). This is a group with complex problems, which needs help, and the social policies in Romania thus face one of the most complex problems, after that of the children in difficulty.

The third age is characterized by a series of physical and psychological transformations that determine the emergence of new needs, at the same time being necessary to develop services that will satisfy them. At the international level, there is no established age from which people can be characterized as belonging to the third age, most studies considering that this could be 65 or even 60 years (UNDESA, 2009; UNDESA 2013). There is also a fourth age, which includes people over 80 years old and which involves other specific needs.

The definition of the elderly person is different, depending on the purpose of its use. From a geriatric point of view, "the elderly are those who are in the third or fourth period of existence, the period when the losses and the decline from the physiological, psychological, economic and social level are the most serious, these losses are not always due to a biological involution, being involved simultaneously social, economic and cultural factors" (Pequignot, 1992 apud Nita. 2009: 69).

From a political-legal point of view, the category of the elderly is defined according to the criterion of the chronological age. Age, defined as the time elapsed from the birth of a person to a certain time of observation, constitutes a significant demographic variable: "according to it, each state fixes the rights and obligations associated with the status of citizen (compulsory schooling, majoring, entry on labor market, retirement, etc.)" (Zamfir, Vlasceanu, 1993: 671).

There are several ways of classifying older people. Coreland category of the elderly with different stages of old age, we delimit:

- between 60 and 75 years old, the transition to old age or the age period;
- between 75 and 85 years old, average old age or old age;
- over 85 years old, old age or longevity period (fourth age).

Aging is a process of differentiation within an organism, as from one individual to another. It starts from the moment of birth and continues until the end of life. This process is a characteristic of all living organisms. Old age or senescence (age of senectons) as defined in gerontology is a state, denoting a conglomerate of characteristics that meet to human beings in the last period of life. In the consciousness of many people, aging is confused with old age, which is regarded as a stage of involution of the body, so in a kind, undesirable. The major features of the aging process are: asynchrony, atypism, the insidious aspect, frustrated at the level of the macrosist. (Constantinescu, 2008: 309).

Aging, as a natural process, must be separated by chronological age. Considering aging as a self-process in human development, the age criterion derives a simple ascertaining value. We all age as we get older. It is necessary to make a distinction between the concept of old age and that of senility. Most gerontologists specialize in senility as the final period of deterioration in old age, manifested by a decline in the functionality of the body, especially at the level of the central nervous system.

"Depending on the level at which aging occurs (micro or macro), the distinction is made between individual aging and population aging" (Nita, 2009: 71). The main causes of the population aging (demographic) are related to the decrease of the birth rate and the increase of life expectancy. In defining the process of individual aging, now we consider the complexity of the human being and the way in which aging affects differentially each being, on all planes of existence. Thus, depending on the level of human existence at which individual aging occurs, this can be: biological, psychological, social, spiritual aging. In general, the most obvious is biological aging, but in the mental representation of an elderly person, all levels of life manifestation must be considered.

The Report of the European Commission on Aging for 2012 shows that the population of 80 years and above will increase from 5% to 12%, by 2060 becoming as numerous as the young population. According to estimates, the number of the population aged 65 and over will double at the level of the European Union, and the population of 80 years and over will triple in 2060, compared to 2010 (European Commission, 2011). "The data on Romania, according to the European Commission Report on Aging, for 2012, indicates that the elderly population and life expectancy at 65 will increase in 2060, compared to 2010. The share of the population aged 80 and over 65 years and over will be 38.2% in 2060 compared to 21.2% in 2010 according to European Commission, 2011" (Nicoara, 2014: 114).

In this sense, in the specialized literature, the theory of activity is increasingly discussed, the maintenance of the person in activity at the third age, the more active the person, the more satisfied and more adapted to the social life.

3. Quality of life in elderly people: dimensions of well-being

The quality of life of the elderly is a multidimensional concept, that encompasses both general aspects specific to the whole population (health, employment, housing, family, income, expenses, leisure, political and civic participation, etc.), but also some particularities concerning the various transformations that occurred in their life, related to health, income, social relations, social participation, social protection etc. Studies on the quality of life of the elderly had in view the objective aspects, but especially the subjective ones, considering that the definition of the quality of life depends on the perception of each one (Bond and Corner 2011; Bowling 2005; Walker and Hennessy 2004; Mollenkopf and Walker 2007; Power and others 2005; Gabriel and Bowling 2004; Bowling and Gabriel 2007 apud Marginean, Precupetu, coord., 2019: 325).

According to social gerontology theories - that analyze the impact of socio-economic, political and cultural factors on the aging process (in particular regarding the status and well-being of older people) (Baltes and Baltes 1990; Cumming and Henry 1961; Havighurst 1961; Heckhausen and Schulz 1995) - the elderly face a series of specific problems, related to aging, such as deterioration of health status, changes of roles and retirement which in some cases implies the reduction of income and social interactions or the change of the social role, of the way and lifestyle (Hooyman and Kiyak 2014; Lamburu, 2016). Research based on this concept analyzes the satisfaction with life of the elderly and the positive and negative aspects of aging.

At the same time, the public debate on the aging of the population has led to a widespread awareness of the needs of the elderly, but also of their role in society. Thus, a series of policies to stimulate active aging have been developed, the elderly being considered as active social agents who have the capacity for decision and autonomy and can participate both in society in general, and in the labor market in particular.

The third age can be a qualitatively different experience for each person over 60, depending on the problems they face and how they manage to cope. The quality of life of the elderly is influenced by emotional, cognitive, physiological, economic and interpersonal factors (Hooyman and Kiyak 2008). The stressors (income reduction, loss of life partner, illness, etc.) along with the resources offered from the environment in which the person lives (economic resources, family support, social relations in the community, friends he has etc.) determine the quality of life of the elderly (Hooyman and Kiyak 2008).

At the same time, the quality of life of the elderly is an area of intense debate, both at European and national level. The gerontological studies, which analyze the aging process, are multidisciplinary (biological, psychological, social, medical,

economic, etc.), their purpose being to increase the quality of life of the elderly by analyzing the different aspects characteristic of the elderly. Studies on the quality of life of older people take into account the various changes that affect this category of population (retirement and leaving the labor market, deteriorating health status, reducing social relations, lowering the level of incomes, etc.), analyzing both objective and subjective indicators, in order to identify the importance given by the elderly to the different areas of quality of life and by extending the predominant approach aimed at the health status.

Analysis of the quality of life from the perspective of six areas of well-being - social (indicators: social relations, family relationships, social participation etc.), physics (indicators: medical status, hygiene, nutrition, chronic conditions, accessibility of support/care services etc.), psychological (indicators: emotional health, mental health, stress level, satisfaction, happiness etc.), cognitive (indicators: decision-making capacity, memory, concentration, problem solving etc.), spiritual (indicators: values, beliefs, belonging religious etc) and the environment (indicators: housing conditions, public safety, accessibility of public services etc.) comes to further clarify and deepen the issue of quality of life of older people.

The areas of quality of life are important for all categories of population, irrespective of their socio-demographic characteristics, but taking into account the physical, mental and social changes that have occurred at the level of individuals with the passing of the years and the studies performed on the elderly, which are considered to be main for them: satisfaction with life, environment (housing and public services), social environment, living standards, health, personality, autonomy (Hughes 1990; Corner 2011).

These dimensions are quite large and include many aspects of quality of life specific to this age category, such as family, social realities, access to services, housing, health status, income, etc. At the same time, there are certain socio-demographic characteristics that influence the quality of life of older people, such as ethnicity, religion, social class, gender and even age. Studies conducted by the World Health Organization for the Analysis of the Quality of Life of the Elderly (WHOQOL-OLD) have confirmed some of these dimensions. These aspects are included in various forms in the dimensions of the quality of life of the elder developed by Hughes (1990, apud Marginean, and Precupetu, 2019: 329).

- *Satisfaction with life* is a subjective indicator, being considered one of the most important dimensions of the quality of life of the elderly. It measures the perceived quality of life, being an indicator of global assessment of all dimensions of the quality of life of an individual's life (Marginean, 2005; Tiberius, 2014).
- *The environment in which elderly people live* has a significant influence on the quality of their life, as it includes both the gates of habitation and the accessibility of public or private services.
- *The social environment*, in the context of the role changes and status of the elderly, is another important dimension of their quality of life. We mention

some elements of the social environment: family ties, free time activities and socializing. All these have effects on the physical and mental health, helping the elderly to feel active and useful.

- *The standard of living* is one of the most important dimensions of quality of life in a consumer society. With retirement and other problems that can occur at the age of three (eg. poor health status, reduced mobility), income is essential to ensure the independence of the elderly and their access to quality services.
- *Health* is one of the dimensions of the quality of life of the most studied elderly people, especially since this age period is considered to be characterized by numerous physical and mental disorders.
- *The personality* of people includes elements such as happiness or satisfaction with life that helps to increase the quality of life of the elderly.
- *The autonomy* of the elderly, embodied in their ability to negotiate, make decisions and control the physical and social environment in which they live.

The problems of the third age in Romania affect its social, psychological and environmental well-being. Their range is very varied, but the most important ones concern the low level of living, the chronic diseases and access to health services, poor social protection, quality of housing, low social participation etc. The national study *The situation of the elderly in Romania*, realized in 2015 by the GFK at the request of the Pricipesa Margareta Foundation, shows that the main problems that affect the quality of life of the elderly are:

- financial situation;
- health problems;
- dependence on other people;
- self-perception as being useless and lonely.

The financial situation is the main problem for about 60% of the elderly in Romania, the level of income being very low in relation to their needs. A large number of elderly people are in poverty (14.9% of the population over 65 in 2012), the situation being much more serious in the case of the elderly alone or women over 65 (25, 8% of the elderly alone they are poor).

"The monitoring of the quality of life of older persons aims to create the conditions for an active aging and the prevention of social exclusion" (Stanciu, Mihailescu, 2018: 339). In 2015, the Global Age Watch Index included as main indicators material composition, health status, education and employment, social relations. This index places Romania - with a value of 50.8 - on one of the last places in the European Union (Global Age Watch Index, 2015).

Conclusions

One of the phenomena that strongly affects the population, globally, in the last decades is that of the demographic aging that has multiple causes depending on the specific of each country. The aging of the population implies an increase in the

proportion of the population over the age of 65 and a decrease in the glue with the working age (15-64 years) in the total population. The main causes of the aging population are related to the decrease of the birth rate and the increase of the life expectancy.

The quality of life of the elderly is a topical issue for Romania, which, like most European countries, is facing the problem of demographic aging of the population. Elderly issues are increasingly being debated in the public space since the late 1990s, being brought to the attention of various studies on poverty or social inclusion (Zamfir, 1999; Zamfir 2001; Marginean and Balasa, 2005; Petrescu, 2017).

Older people in Romania face many challenges, from low incomes to chronic illnesses, insufficient opportunities for leisure, socialization and civic participation, poor access to health or social services, poor integration in the labor market or poor quality of work. housing. Besides the state of health, a major role in the perception of quality of life has the economic situation of the elderly. In a certain way, the life near the risk of poverty or social exclusion, as well as the severe material deprivation, decisively influence, in the negative sense, the perception on the quality of life of the elderly in Romania.

Older age is often associated with illness, worries, troubles, shortages, suffering, poverty. It is imperative that the collective mentality change for the better, focusing on the valuable elements of each generation. Beyond loneliness, illnesses and shortcomings, even vices, the elderly possess a particular wisdom and life experience that can be shared by both the congener and the young.

The elderly and the problems associated with the third age period are becoming more and more themes of quality of life research. The quality of life of the elderly is becoming more and more an important field of research in the conditions of increasing life expectancy and the socioeconomic impact that the demographic aging process has. The areas of quality that are the most important from the perspective of the elderly are: the standard of living, social protection, health, social participation, renting and the environment, social relations, family life. These areas of quality of life of the elderly considered important for them refer to the six types of well-being: social, physical, psychological, cognitive, spiritual and environmental.

The social protection and social assistance policies of the elderly in Romania are currently targeting three main dimensions: income protection; medical care; assistance for social integration.

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SHORT CONSIDERATIONS ON MANIFESTATIONS OF AUTONOMY OF WILL: CONTRACTUAL NEGOTIATION AND IMPREVISION

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Abstract: *Considered in the past a mandatory phase before the conclusion of any contract, the negotiation seems to have lost its importance with the spread of adhesion contracts that seem to fit with the demands of an increasingly dynamic society, where human time and resources are placed on a pedestal, and the real will of the parts is placed in a shadowy cone. As one of the components of contract formation, negotiation, at least as far as consumers are concerned, seems to have taken the form of the right to information of any party wishing to enter into a contractual relationship or to be limited to refusing to contract and looking for another co-contractor that can get closer to what is envisaged by each future party of an unformed contract. Although these are certainly manifestations of autonomy of will, it is easy to note that the classical scheme of the contract has undergone some changes, adapting to the new social realities. At the same time, by imposing itself as an exception from the "pacta sunt servanda" principle, the theory of imprecision, around which lies jurisprudential uncertainty, proposes, under certain cumulative conditions, the solution to the adaptation of conventions affected by a contractual imbalance. The same remedy solution for the adaptation of the contracts is provided, this time as an alternative, and in the case of error as a vice of consent, the parties being able to choose in favor of the "survival" of the invalid concluded contract.*

Key words: *contract negotiation; imprecision theory; error; autonomy of will.*

Preliminaries

Negotiation, as the distinct contractual phase and precursor to the conclusion of the contract, is the opportunity for the parties to be free to manifest their highest degree of autonomy of will, by making known to the other parties, most of the times directly, their expectations, the aim pursued, the desired execution method and the refiguration of the contractual clauses.

Often of a confidential nature, which may also impact the determination of the purpose that the parties have pursued for contracting, this pre-negotiation phase tends to be less and less present, and even to be missed if we consider the relative number high adhesion contracts.

The lack of the negotiation phase sometimes leads to hardships in the development of the contractual relationship, which is why both institutions, that of vice of error and imprecision play an important role, as they have in common a circumstance or circumstances that were not taken into consideration by the contracting parties at the time of expressing the agreement of will, assisting the

parties in adapting the contract and reviewing certain legal effects, thus putting highlights on the principle of autonomy of will and giving the parties the chance to maintain their contractual relations, but in a manner consistent with the purpose pursued since the conclusion of the convention.

Although in terms of the representation that the parties had in mind at the time of contracting, the two concepts can be difficult to differentiate, they are subject to distinct conditions and they have their own characteristics, which allows them, under a careful analysis, to be distinguished.

1. Negotiation and formation of contracts

Obviously, on the occasion of the contractual negotiations, the agreement of the will of the future contracting parties is not yet reached, so that we are in the presence of the consent, but they bring the way the will is to be given into discussion.

It has been judiciously shown in the specialty literature that the existence of consent, a condition for the validity of contracts, is not terminologically given by the meeting of two concordant wills, but it must consist of true statements of intent (to contract), known as offering and acceptance. (Zimmermann, 1996: 554)

Although, as we have shown, the autonomy of the parties will regain importance once they are placed at the negotiating table, but it is not to be interpreted as meaning that the parties are free to adopt behavior that is not circumscribed by certain requirements.

Thus, the current civil coding imposes from this pre-contractual phase the principle of conducting the negotiations in good faith, stemming from the need for mutual trust (Juanita, 2008: 16), the will of the parties being censured in the sense that they will not be able to limit or exclude this obligation, even if all contractors would express their agreement in this respect, art. 1183 par. 2 the final sentence of the Civil Code being an imperative norm.

Conduct contrary to the principle of good faith will not remain unsanctioned, even if it occurs prior to the actual formation of the contract, the present regulation stipulating that the party acting in the sense prohibited by law may be required to repair the damage caused.

The new civil code takes over the doctrine (Maurie & Aynes & Stoffel-Munk, 2009: 247-248) and jurisprudence of French origin, where previously it was suggested that it would be a prejudice in this respect, among other things, the unreasonable rupture of negotiation relations.

We appreciate that, in the absence of the conclusion of a convention, which strictly deals with the negotiation phase, being in the pre-contractual realm, in this case the tort liability of the parties will be attributed, and the intention, the unlawful act, the damage caused as a result of its existence and the causal link must be proved.

Another opinion was issued (Radu, 2010: 126), taken from German law, that if we are in a situation of a pre-contractual obligation, in case of violation, it would give rise to an obligational legal relationship.

2. Application of the rebus sic stantibus rule – still an innovative concept in Romanian private law

The "pacta sunt servanda" principle, on which civil law is based, implies that the parties engaged in contractual relations have to respect the clauses to which they have adhered with the binding force of law, since deviations from the performance of a contract are not permitted in the absence of a new agreement of will.

Exceptions have been made to this rule as regards both the extension, beyond the will of the parties, of the effects of a contract and their restriction as well.

The theory of imprevision implies that each contract has a tacit clause (or an implicit subsequent condition) that ends or modifies the binding force of the contract whenever a substantial change in state from the moment of contracting would cause its execution to be unfair (Rossen, 2015: 85).

Provided as an exception to the extension of the effects of contracts, the theory of imprevision, *rebus sic stantibus*, a concept that has been used in the public international law, began to make its presence known as a way to review the effects of conventions (Boroi, 2012: 212).

On the other hand, an institution with tradition in Romanian private law, around which practice and doctrine are already settled, the error, regarded as a vice of consent, is a cause of invalidity of the concluded contract and is provided under the sanction of nullity.

The idea that the effects of a contract could be changed without the need for a new agreement of the parties on this issue emerged from Roman law, so tributary to the principle of *pacta servanda*, where the breach of a promise (contractual) was difficult to conceive.

It has been taken into account that the expression of the will to contract is related to a certain set of circumstances and has been formed on the basis of certain assumptions, so that, if these were wrong, it would seem excessive that the part is still held by the same clauses (Zimmermann, 1996: 581).

Thus, the Roman philosopher Seneca (*De Beneficiis*: 3) is the one who envisions the idea that was later to be conceptualized into the theory of imprevision, which was also shared by Cicero in his work *Of officiis* (3, XXV, 95), which admitted that as a result of the occurrence of certain conditions during the performance of a contract, the debtor may no longer fulfill his obligation as contracted.

The theory is taken over by canonists in the 12th-13th centuries, and then Bartolus, under the name "*rebus sic se habentibus*", was the one who puts this notion in civil law, and this was taken up in other fields and used frequently for centuries.

Subsequently, imprevision enters a shadow cone, from where it is brought to light after World War I, in the context of which, due to the economic imbalance produced, difficulties arose in carrying out long-term contracts. The theory enters

both the European space, where it is incorporated in some codifications as well as in more remote territories, such as Brazil or Argentina.

In Romania, the theory of imprevision is regulated only in the current codification, starting with 2011, but even before this moment it enjoyed jurisprudential and doctrinal recognition, although it is not often used either as an argument in legal conflicts or as the basis of judgments, although including the supreme court, in a ruling (the Supreme Court of Justice - Decision No. 591 of 06 December 1994) states that it is "as a matter of principle that at the date of conclusion of the contract the parties have assumed obligations only in the extent of the consequences that they might have at the time".

Nowadays, with the entry into force of the new Civil Code and the explicit regulation of imprevision, the national courts, regardless of degree, proceeded to capitalize on the "rebus sic stantibus" theory, especially in lawsuits on the principle of monetary nominalism, where they considered that the overestimation of a foreign currency in relation to the national one directed the applicant to adjust a credit agreement.

Also, without further developing on the ontological dimension of the notion (Novak-Marcincin, Nicolescu, Teodorescu, 2015: 140-145), one should not ignore the approach of the Constitutional Court in Decision no. 623/2016, published in M. Oficial no. 53/18.01.2017, a binding decision for the courts, where in paragraph 96 it is stated that "the determination of the circumstances justifying the application of the unpredictability, a concept derived from the good faith that must characterize the performance of the contract, must be made taking into account the idea of contract risk. It should be analyzed from a bivalent point of view when it materializes; the contract itself entails an inherent risk assumed voluntarily by the two parties to the contract on the basis of their autonomy of will, a principle which characterizes the matter of the conclusion of the contract and an over-addendum which could not be in concreto the subject of foreseeing by none of them, a risk that goes beyond the foreseeing power of the contracting parties and which involves the intervention of elements that could not be considered at the time of a quo".

As regards the field of application, the theory of imprevision may be applied to onerous, commutative and of successive execution or affected by a suspensive term of execution contracts (Beleiu, 1993: 34-36), which in comparison with error, as a vice of consent, represents a much narrower field, by this means the legislature willing to protect the security of contractual relations, so that imprevision cannot be invoked in an abusive way, jeopardizing the trust people must bear when deciding to enter into contractual relations.

2.1. The necessary conditions for the intervention of the theory of Imprevision

Seen as a means of aligning the economic and legal realities with the new challenges of the 21st century (Patru, 2011: 6), for the intervention of the theory of imprevision it is necessary for certain conditions resulting from the regulation of

the notion to be cumulatively fulfilled, thereby discouraging the abusive invocation or prevalence of it.

Thus, it is necessary that the contractual imbalance occurs after the conclusion of the contract, that this was not or could not have been reasonably foreseen by the debtor, at the time of conclusion of the contract, and that the debtor did not assume the risk of changing circumstances or can not be reasonably considered as such (Boroi, 2012: 214).

It is clear from the enunciation of these conditions that it is the essence of the imprevision that the circumstances that cause the contractual imbalance to occur after the conclusion of the convention, because in this case we are considering a will agreement that respects all the substantive and formal conditions in force.

Changes occurring during the performance of the contract must be external, objective, independent of the will of the parties (Tandareanu: 1), at the limit of force majeure, but without interfering with this notion, although there are theories in this respect.

3. Juxtapositions between error as vice of consent and the theory of imprevision

Both the error as vice of consent, and the imprevision, aim at an erroneous interpretation by the debtor of the circumstances at the time of the conclusion of the contract.

However, in the case of error, the false representation of reality falls upon a decisive element at the conclusion of the contract, an aspect which implies its invalidity, whereas in case of imprevision the debtor concludes a valid contract in substance and form, but is "in error "-fails to predict the dynamics of external circumstances that could affect the performance of the contract exactly as it was taken into account at the time of the conclusion.

Since both institutions target psychological issues, in practice there may be probatory difficulties, which is probably one of the reasons why the legislator offered the possibility of adapting the contract in both cases.

Unlike the case of the error where the adaptation of the contract may also take place after the moment when the court is notified, in case of imprevision, the debtor is to try, as a prerequisite for the filing of the petition to sue, within a reasonable time and in good faith, to negotiate the adaptation of the contract, thus prevailing the will of the parties.

If the negotiation of the parties remains ineffective, the current legislation gives the debtor the possibility to go to the court in order to adapt the contract, but it was judiciously noted that it is not an identity with the adaptation of the contract under art. 1213 NCC, according to which, in order to avoid the invalidity of the error, a party declares that it understands to execute the contract as it was understood by the misleading party, but that it is actually a modification of the contract so that

losses and benefits resulting from changing circumstances are fairly distributed between parties (Tandareanu: 1-2).

We are witnessing one of the few cases where the legislator gives the courts the possibility to intervene in the parties' agreement and to modify it, in which case the device and the considerations of the decision will concretely show how the contract is changed.

Alternatively, as in the case of an error of consensus, if it finds that all the conditions of the imprevisión are fulfilled, but considers that it is not possible to adapt the contract, the court will be able to order the cessation of the contract, with all the subsequent consequences, including the eventual return of benefits.

Unlike the error, where the nullity penalty will operate retroactively, in case of imprevisión, the cessation of the contract will take place at the date and under the conditions set by the court.

Conclusions

Of overwhelming importance, stemming from the principle of contractual freedom and autonomy of will, the pre-contractual phase of the negotiations, in the current socio-economic context that imposed a fulminant increase in the number of adhesion or standard contracts, seems to be present in the relations between natural persons, where most often there is no dominance by one of the parties, or between professionals when the presumptive contracts are intended to deal with other matters than those of daily use.

In the legal relations in which consumers are involved, the lack of negotiation, which is far from being equivalent to information on contractual provisions, is already a notorious fact, as the obligation to comply with new requirements related to the negotiation of contractual clauses, already transposed into our internal law, is imposed on our states at the European level.

In this context, the theory of imprevisión, although not a novelty in the Romanian legal system, still requires time to crystallize, but is welcomed in the context of current geo-political and financial insecurity, helping to maintain a climate of stability.

By regulating a jurisprudential and doctrinal creation related to the old codification, the legislator, with the express provision of imprevisión, offered the possibility of renegotiating the contract even during its execution, thus avoiding, on the one hand, an unfair solution regarding the abuse of a part dominant, and on the other hand, a new valence of the principle of autonomy of will. In this way, coming out of a cone of shadow, the principle of autonomy of will is rendered useful in the pre-contractual area, precisely where its manifestation was the most obvious.

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ADVANCED UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT - DETERMINANT FACTOR IN QUALITY ASSURANCE IN EDUCATION

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Abstract: *The quality of an educational system is reflected not only in the instructive performances of the educational actors, but also in the degree in which it ensures an adequate professional integration. The motivation of this research is closely connected to the improvement of the level of communication between the two aspects –the academic one, by its finite products, and the economic one, by job offer. The study set sights on over 29 of the most important employers from the Jiu Valley, and 39 of the leading graduates of the University of Petroșani. Data were collected in 2016 year, through a survey oriented as well as for the employees and graduates. The research was a pilot study, based on the quantitative questionnaire was structured on 21 questions for the employers and other 25 questions for the graduates, of which 8 were common for the two lots of subjects, by which comparable results have been constituted between the requirements and expectations of the two parties involved in the labor market. Statistical data processing was done using SPSS program.*

Key words: *university management; employer; graduate; quality; labour market.*

1. Theoretical Framework

Contemporary society is defined as a knowledge and learning society, an information society in which real flows of goods and services are replaced by information flows through a virtual economy in which the sustainable factor of progress is generated by the continuous improvement of human capital. The emphasis is on the quality of individual life, on major transformations of a qualitative nature of living standards. All this is only possible in those societies where the educational institution actually fulfils its social mission, assuring quality education, effectively contributing to the construction and affirmation of the new society. Taking into account social development, documents drawn up by the Ministry of Education and Research, in collaboration with the European Center for Higher Education and UNESCO, highlight: "Numerous demonstrations prove that today's developed societies and especially tomorrow's are more and more knowledge and learning societies. Procedure, transmission and application of knowledge in any field of activity are courts that increase productivity. Also, without lifelong learning, personal adaptability or individual way and style are poorer in content and performance decreases the quality of life in terms of economic standards, the diversity and depth of cultural actions or experiences. Intelligence based on

knowledge and professional competence constantly upgraded by assimilating new skills and knowledge is the sign of a personal quality of life capable of contributing to the development of the national and local community "(MEN, CEPES, UNESCO, 1998 apud. <http://www.preferatele.com/docs/management/noi/managementul-perform11206231719.php>).

1.1. Effectiveness of knowledge management

Given that the decentralization of the education system is becoming increasingly strong, the effectiveness of knowledge management increases substantially if the educational institution proves your concern for a careful analysis of the external environment, thus offering other information about their own activity. Decentralization of education implies involvement, responsibility, change of tactics approaching the educational process, strategies, a new management of that institution and a services offered by it. (Ciolca, 2012: 88). This, especially given that the Romanian university system is obliged to adapt its educational offer to the current demands of the labour market. Otherwise, the number of graduates leaving the country will increase each year.

Actions aimed at improving the management system of the school, as it is knowledge is integrated into this system, it mainly targets: conceiving the management system of the education unit and redesigning it on rigorous scientific bases; remodelling the school development strategies corresponding to the stage requirements the current development of the Romanian society, characterized by the transition to market economy and restructuring of the national economy; the decisive role of strategic and tactical decisions, risk and uncertainty, and those economic growth in rationalizing decision-making and accelerating profitability; training of educational managers according to the requirements of European education. (Ciungu, 2005: 114).

Management of the system and educational institutions involves activities that make use of: clear formation of finality; designing the institutional network (types, profiles and specializations, location in the territory in relation to certain criteria); developing the content of learning (the official curriculum); ensuring the legislative framework necessary for the achievement school policies and financial resources; initial and in-service training of teaching staff; establishing evaluation techniques to optimize results. (Cristea, 2004: 178). At central level there is a strategic management guiding, guiding and evaluating the entire system education, at the level of institutions is practiced one operational management to implement the strategy developed at a higher level. (Ghergat, 2007: 110).

An important indicator on the efficiency of the organization's educational management is the dynamism of the conception and realization of the actions, the entrepreneurial spirit that it is both the leaders of the institution as well as the teaching staff and the other employees. The beat accelerated changes in all areas of activity, the specific requirements of the economy market, require an increase in the response rate of all the factors that work in a learning unit. Initiation and dynamism

have an increasing influence on the effectiveness of educational decisions and actions, being decisive in achieving a education which corresponds to the quality standards during this period of adaptation of Romania to EU requirements, which is based on the construction of a competitive type of economy in Romania which fast technical progress, the multitude of international contacts and profitability will be the main goals of the economic and social development of our country.

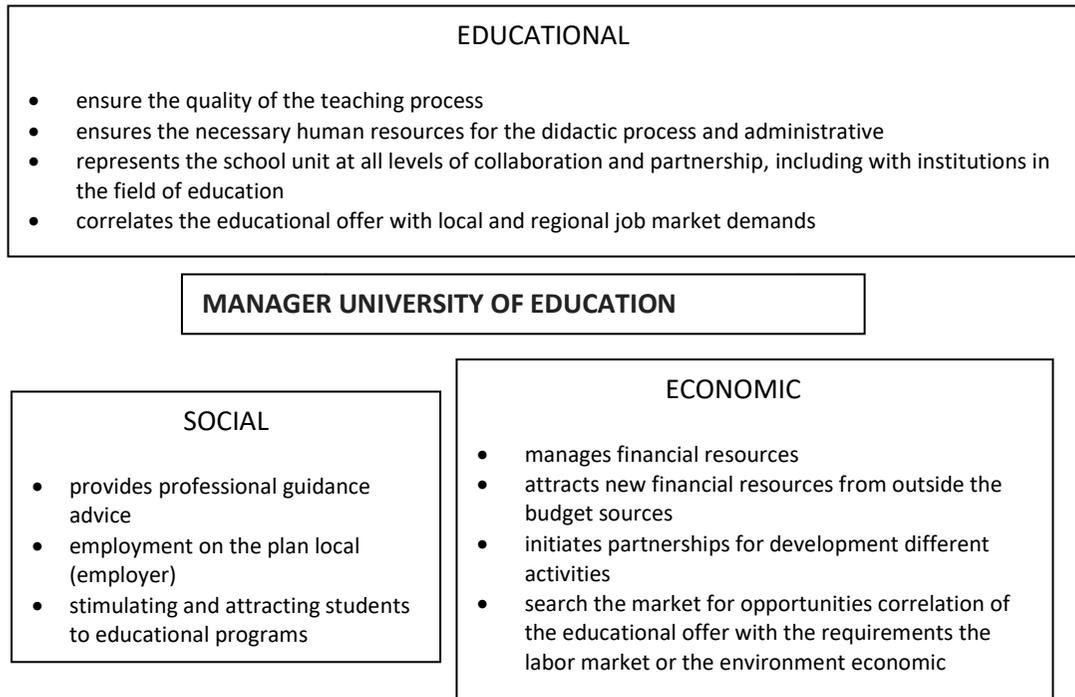
1.2. Managerial performance and performance management

Peter Drucker, a contemporary personality in the field of management, performance achieved through management is actually characterized and achieved in practice two dimensions: effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness is the ability to choose the right and appropriate goals and reach them again efficiency is the ability to make the best use of the resources available in the process of achieving, respectively fulfilling the objectives.

(<http://steconomiceuoradea.ro/anale/volume/2006/management-si-marketing/44.pdf>). In practice, managers need to balance the need for efficiency with the need for efficacy.

Educational management is a complex process of leading education at the level of the education system considered as a whole or at its structural levels and it includes the management of the educational act manifested under its informal and non-formal aspect (Toca, 2002; Jinga, 2001).

Educational management combines the theoretical aspect (concepts, approaches) with the methodological aspect (information accumulation and processing necessary to carry out specific activities) with the appearance technologically (the concrete solution of different situations, processes, operations, stages) and managerial practice (Orțan, 2004: 76-77). Any institution or organization providing services education is included in a specific environment that condition and influence the managerial process. The three specific environments are: educational, social and economic. The activities carried out by the educational unit manager in these three listed areas need to be harmonized in a manner that ensures overall performance.

Figure 1: Areas of activity of an educational unit manager

2. Results of the study

The socio-economic crisis that crosses the Jiu Valley in recent years, made the three important pillars in the development of this area - business, university and local government - to sit at the discussion table to determine which are business requirements in terms of human resource that provides university and how can local governments to support two media mentioned above, however the idea he wants to lay the foundations for sustainable development of the area Valley Jiu. The main question raised was that young people choose to leave this area to operate in other parts of the country. University requires from the businesses company owners, to create the conditions for young people to stay in Jiu Valley, and from the local governments the requirement was to create a conducive environment for investors that want to do business in this region.

The data presented in Figure 2 show the success of the action taken by the companies involved in the study, involving students interested in long-term internships, resulting in graduates with higher education, experienced in the workplace and motivated to remain active actors in the labour market work in the native country. In order to halt the emigration of young people with higher education, not only the labour market must be flexible and adaptable, but also the

educational offer of higher education, the collaboration between the two environments being the essential condition for an adequate insertion on the labour market.

Figure 2: Labour market opportunities in the opinion of graduates and employers (%)

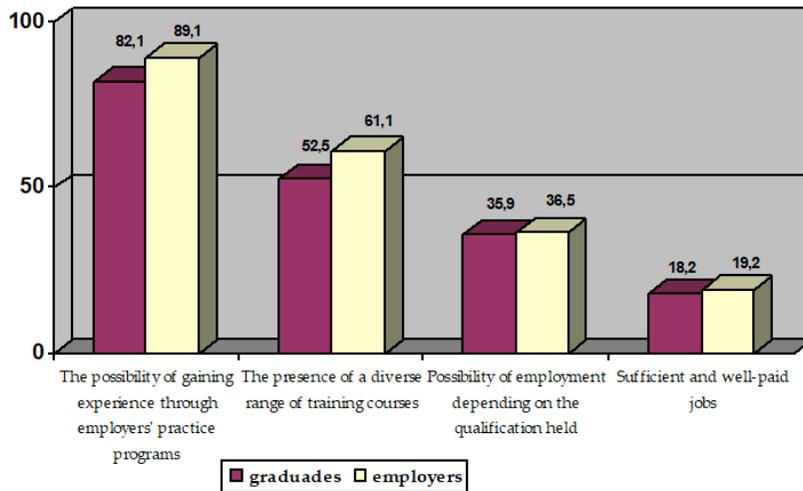
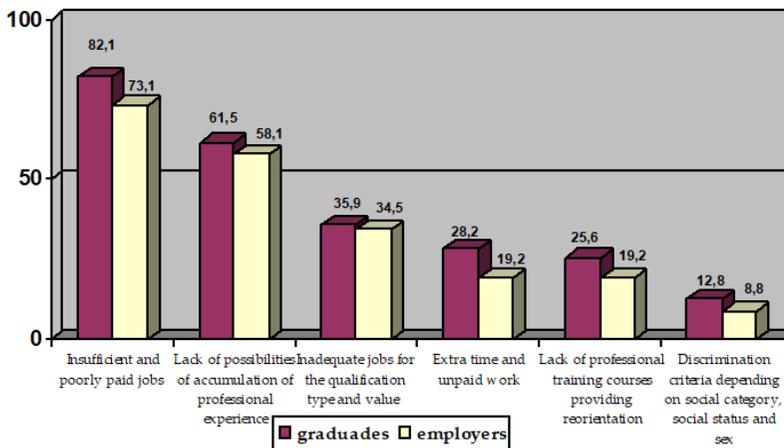


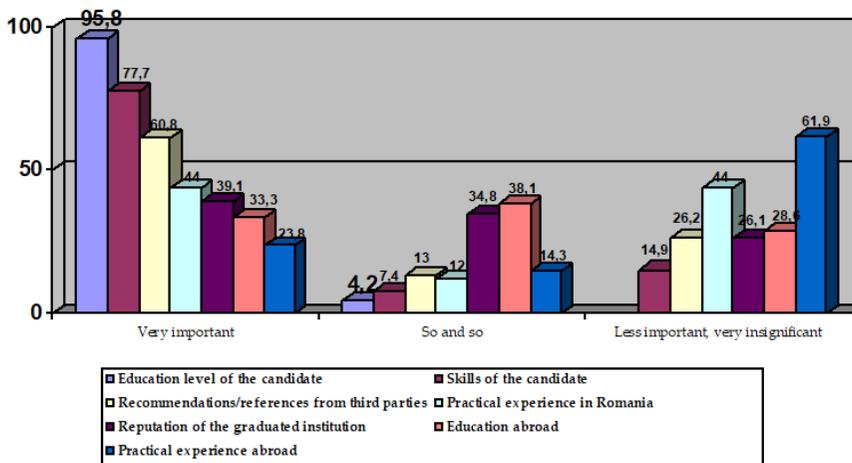
Figure 3: Labour market limits in the opinion of graduates and employers (%)



The comparison between the two lots of respondents points out a relative similarity of opinions regarding the limits existing in Romania’s labour market. Thus, the variant with most of the choices, both of the graduates and of the employers, is represented by the problem of insufficient and poorly paid jobs. One should mention however, that with the graduates, among the aspects mentioned as limits of the labour market, we may also find lack of possibility of accumulating professional experience, a requirement that is absolutely necessary for hiring, but also the existence of jobs that do not match the value and type of qualification, an aspect which should be in the attention of the universities.

Figure 4 shows that most of the employers participating in the study consider that the education of candidates is very important (95.8%), but also their skills (77.7%). Recommendations in favour of the candidate are appreciated by more than 60%, and the reputation of the higher education institution is appreciated by approx. 40% of the respondents.

Figure 4: Importance of the following aspects in the recruitment process (%)

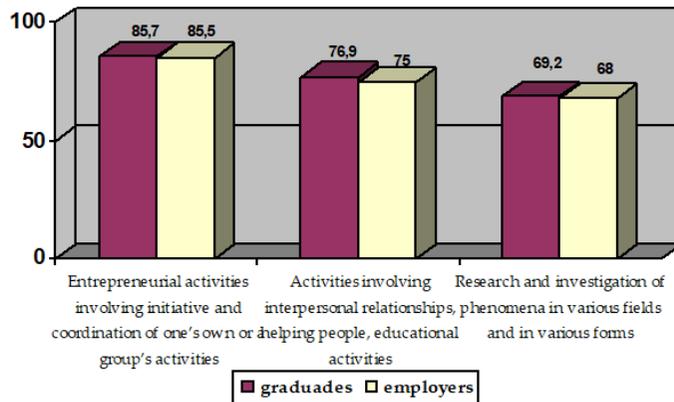


We can conclude that the level of the education of the candidate is more relevant than the practical experience, even the graduates are very afraid of the lack of practical experience.

The comparison between the two lots of subjects of the study points out a perfect match of the hierarchy of activities intended to accumulation by the graduates of professional experience. Thus, in a percentage of over 85%, both graduates and employers rate first in the process of acquiring professional experience, entrepreneurial activities, which involve initiative and coordination of one’s own activity or of a group’s, followed by activities involving interpersonal

relationships, helping the others, educational activities, appreciated by more than three quarters of the respondents.

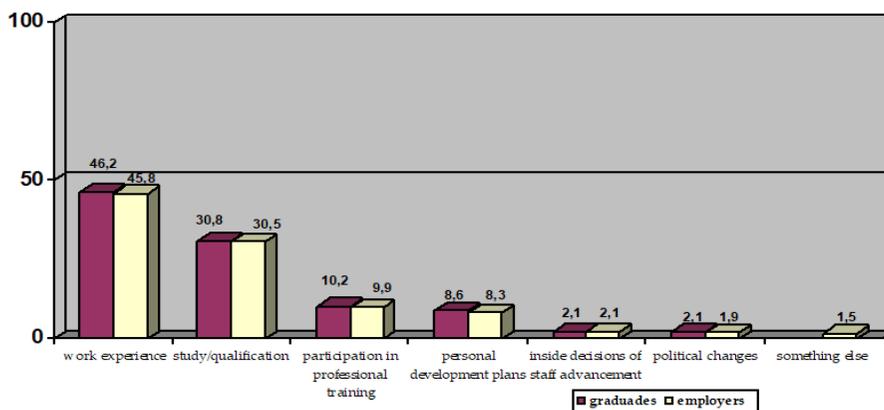
Figure 5: Importance of the following activities for accumulation of professional experience by graduates (%)



For the young at the beginning of their carrier, access to as much information as possible regarding the employing company, the expectations regarding the ideal candidate is important.

The same work experience is seen both by the graduates and the employers as key-element in carrier promotion and advancement, followed by the level of qualification attained, but also the existence of a personal and professional development plan, first of all by participating in training courses.

Figure 6: Carrier advancement possibilities, in the opinion of graduates and employers (%)



It is already known that when a university is graduated, the objectives in life are formulated generally, and the perception on the professional future is vague. Being in a continuous process of knowing their own selves, graduates will need instruments, strategies and methods that might help them discover themselves from a professional point of view, understand individual resources, but also their limits, so that they might build up medium and long term objectives, starting from these personal evaluations, being able to discover their abilities, but also their weak points in relation to a carrier they intend to develop.

Lack of self-knowledge, of exploration of employment opportunities, preponderant centring on identification of a possible employer, without putting into balance one's own interests or values, make the entire decision process unsatisfactory. To this one might add the fact that most of the graduates put the responsibility for developing professional competencies on the University instead of their own person. The fact that the support in the professional course is done by academic means is a plus for the undergraduates, since it meets the needs and expectations manifested. Meanwhile, however we should take into account the fact that there is a risk of transforming the undergraduates into simple receptors. It is necessary to maintain the responsibility and confidence attributed to the academic environment, and meanwhile to encourage the development and assuming of one's own responsibility by offering practical exercises that might be achieved outside the academic environment, by orientation toward labour market, by support offered in developing a personal brand and training in social networks that might assist them in their professional course.

The pressure exerted at university level is also highlighted by the data presented in the correlation tables 1 and 2, obtained by calculating the Spearman correlation coefficient.

Table 1: *Correlation between the importance given by the employer to the desire to investigate their own ideas or others and the need for higher education to improve other competencies*

			The need for higher education to improve analytical thinking	The need for higher education to improve the ability to learn quickly	The need for higher education to improve the ability to open up for new opportunities	The need for higher education to improve the desire to investigate one's own ideas or others
Spearman's rho	The importance given by the employer to the desire to investigate their own ideas or others	Correlation Coefficient	,626**	,768**	,663**	,712**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	,000	,001	,000
		N	19	20	19	20

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2: *Correlation between the importance given by employers to analytical thinking and the need for higher education to improve other competencies*

			The need for higher education to improve analytical thinking	The need for higher education to improve the ability to learn quickly	The need for higher education to improve the ability to mobilize the capacities of others	The need for higher education to find new ideas and solutions
Spearman's rho	The importance given by employers to analytical thinking	Correlation Coefficient	,616**	,597**	,717**	,597**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	,002	,000	,002
		N	20	21	20	21

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Conclusions

The hypothesis on which our entire research was based, namely “We estimate that there are no significant differences between the labour market needs and the outcome of the educational system”, has been confirmed.

University of Petroșani wants to become a bridge between business and academia, so students trained here, could find a place in the labour market, and this approach management has been declared through the official event organized on June 15, 2016 at the headquarters university. Higher education institutions that address holistic activities can be characterized as having a responsible way of action, ensuring a high level of long-term competitiveness.

It is therefore advisable for university management to understand and take into account the strategic context, impact area, and the importance of social responsibility. Then it is necessary to clarify the university objectives and implement the principle of social responsibility, taking into account the specific problems faced by the institution as well as its opportunities.

For the young at the beginning of their carrier, it is important to have access to as much information as possible regarding the employing companies, and the expectations of those on the ideal candidate, this being the main reason of maintaining an active partnership between the two media – academic and economic, its final goal being an increase of the level of employability of the university graduates.

Nowadays, more and more young people have been employed since the student years. This is due to financial problems or the desire for self-improvement. Internships or practice programs offered by business environment are a very effective way to gain experience and improve personal curriculum vitae. Most young people, once they leave school, start building a career. Each of them seeks at least one source of motivation and a professional destination.

The importance and attractiveness of such an internship is to acquire and develop applied professional skills such as teamwork or project management, the chance to gain real professional experience and ultimately to get a permanent job in the workplace chosen. There are quite a lot of employers, plenty of renowned companies that lend a hand to young people, giving them the chance to start somewhere, learn directly from specialists.

The experience gained during such an internship is very important, especially because nowadays the experience matters more than the many diplomas or courses you have attended. Most employers are looking for experienced or at least willing people to learn and accumulate as much information as possible in the shortest possible time. Young participants at a practice stage will have countless advantages: interaction with professionals in the field, the opportunity to participate in training and theoretical and practical training sessions, work within competitive teams, and result orientation.

On the other hand, through these internship programs, employers have the opportunity to attract valuable young people to their company, whom they can form, guide and then hire on a permanent basis. Selecting a student or a fresh graduate in a practice program involves earnestness, orientation towards learning and refinement, as well as openness to acquire new professional skills.

It is possible to discover with the help of the media the companies that organize such practice programs. A practice internship at a renowned company can be a big step forward towards a successful career. It is true that these programs can also be used to promote the image of the company that organizes them but at the same time it is a great opportunity for students or graduates to figure out which profession they want to pursue in the future and take the first steps in that direction.

Finally, it is important to emphasize that although the active role of youth towards unemployment is essential, it should not lead to the alleged blame of an individual because he or she is guilty if unemployment has not been adjusted. It is important to be aware of the fact that it is a multi-level phenomenon with important contextual and structural factors that the individual cannot cope with. Furthermore, it is important for governments, educational institutions, companies and other organizations to create and implement resource-friendly interventions to help young people effectively cope with and experience the experience of unemployment, to improve career development in an expanded context.

In our opinion, when it comes to reforming education, we must mainly focus on the evolution of education time of each level, from preschool to postgraduate and analysed strengths and weaknesses. Like suggestions reforming the educational system, we go on the idea of highlighting strengths and balance between practical teaching and theoretical methods, focusing on the practical side, the introduction of counselling programs to help each preschool, student or student in a direction appropriate to him, be helped to make the right decisions through clear arguments, taking into account their desires, passions and talents. Also, another point to be correlated with the above, we could talk about the efficiency and the way of

teaching, which, in our opinion, should be dynamic, based on innovation and interactive methods.

Universities have the necessary capacity to develop the intellectual framework in support of practical applications on the concept of sustainable development. Higher education institutions, as academic leaders, have the capacity to agree on academic disciplines on large and complex issues, to mobilize resources, to create incentives and programs for skills development, and most importantly to lead by example in to promote and implement sustainable development education.

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NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL IN THE VALORIZATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES: DILEMAS AND PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract: *As a result of the radicalization of the globalist rhetoric, the decrease of the interests for the curricular projection of the educational offers in compatibility with the national development projects, revealed a practical paradox: instead of internationalizing the prosperity at global level, the process of globalization has contributed, indeed, to maintaining the traditional asymmetries between rich countries and poor countries. In response to the supporters of globalization, we support the imperative rethinking the process of training human resources in national frameworks, by curricular reform of educational systems, not by diminishing the ethnic parameter, but by complementing the national dimension, the educational offerings, with the international parameter. In this article we plead for the inclusion in the educational offer of the study disciplines in the countries where multinationals operate, of all the theoretical subjects and of the laboratory work necessary to train the set of competences that they need. It is possible, on these coordinates, to form public-private collaboration relationships, with beneficial effects for both employers and employees, provided that the multinational corporations obtain the right to disseminate the licenses of the technologies that the multinationals in this case need. On these coordinates, the migratory flows could be kept under control and the stability of the work force / human resource could be more motivated and efficient in all the fields of activity. By globalizing skills, prosperity can be globalized, but through work, not through charitable acts (illusory) of the already prosperous, and eager, exclusively, to increase their profits.*

Key words: *human resources; job opportunities; education supply; vocational reconversion; human potential.*

Thesis

The return of Romania after December 1989 to the capitalist system of human resources management has generated controversies (Zamfir et al., 2000) that have ignited the relationship between the curricular structure of educational offers and the ways of structuring the labor market.

The adult generation, which entered the labor market until December 1989, argues (with very few exceptions), that placing graduates through government departments on the labor market would be the only way to avoid unemployment and to fully use human resources for national development, while

the supporters of the Western model are, in consequence, in favor of the definitive renunciation of the paternalistic formula of the use of the national human potential, with the argument that in the new European formula of the situation of Romania, that of a member of the European Union, maintaining the national monopoly of the use of human resources, it is no longer possible, but neither legitimate (Pasti, 2000: 21): human resources are European, and their free movement cannot be restricted, without harming the fundamental human rights.

Beyond the ideological, inevitable, sociologically speaking connotations there is a difference of managerial options: under the conditions of a centralized state, such as Romania until December 1989, the education system was designed as a "tool of national development" in order to ensure the "labor force" necessary to achieve the objectives of the "single development plan", each graduate to be have a workplace for an indefinite period of time; the stability of the workplace of was ensured, and the promotion at the job was guaranteed as a result of the option, individual, of improvement through professional courses designed for the specific profile.

The results are historically verifiable: from the late Middle Ages stage, that of an eminently agrarian country, Romania has evolved to the stage of an industrial-agrarian country, with export potential not only of agri-food products, but also of industrial equipment from many fields of activity, until December 1989 (Murgescu, 2000: 35).

Arguments

Under the conditions of the postdecembrist pluralist system, in which the social-economic space is shared between the state and the Romanian private companies, as well as between the multinational companies with private capital, the governmental distributions have become impossible, because the employment correlates with the development programs of the employers, not with the government programs of the national state. Companies with private capital have only the obligation to pay taxes owed to the Romanian state, they do not have the obligation to absorb all the resources generated by the school programs, at all levels from Romania. In this context, the asymmetry between the structure of the educational offers and the structure the labor market in our country is impossible to solve regardless of the political orientation of the government formulas, at one time or another, in government. Consequently, unemployment is inevitable.

Surprised by the disappointments of some of the Romanian analysts, very worried that the western model adopted by our country after the change of the ideological paradigm of 1989 causes unemployment, some western teachers (Ruegg, 2001) mentioned that unemployment is a sign of the socio-economic development of a country: namely, the country has saturated the level of employment of labor force in all areas and the development continues on the

component of services, the number of population employed in the field of services being a parameter of the degree of development of the respective country. Thus, if more people work in services (the tertiary sector), it means that the primary sector (agriculture and energy) and the secondary sector (industry and manufacturing) are so productive that they provide the necessary social space. The available population can find, freely, a form of professional expression in the tertiary; services, in the broad sense of the word.

The "underuse of the" labor force" (Stiglitz, 2003) is no longer possible now, as in the last century in which only the work carried out with physical effort provided forms of expression on the labor market. Here is the paradox: unemployment is a proof of development of contemporary social spaces.

We reserve the right not to comment on the slightly apologetic tone of the afore mentioned paradox.

With the express intention to alleviate the pressure exerted on the governments for the increase of unemployment, at European level it has been passed to the "Bologna system" of management of the educational offers, through which after the three years of initial formation, the possibility of professionalization through master's degrees is offered and who aspires to the level of expert, follows doctoral studies, the title of doctor conferring the quality that expert and the legitimacy to carry out expertise in the respective field of doctoral qualification.

After a few cycles of graduates, the analysis of the results is not encouraging: at the end of the three years, the graduates, however, claimed jobs on the labor market, contributing to the increase of unemployment. The initial program according to which out of the total of the graduates of initial training (the three years), 50% will follow the masters and 25% will follow the doctorate, has proved to be very attractive theoretically, but not functional in practical relation. The initiative, although well-intentioned, has proven to be not a solution, although mobility at the continental and international levels has remained open. A rethink of the effort to explore possible solutions to the problem of unemployment, (Isărescu, 2000) remains a challenge for the present, but also for the indefinite future; the western model also has its limits.

The idea that globalization can be a solution to the problem of more efficient use of the available labor force, at the planetary level (Wallerstein, 2008: 12) due to the freedom of professionalized individuals to obtain job opportunities, should be viewed with some circumspection, because the competition between the national human resources and the ones coming from outside the national area has not been proven so far to give spectacular results. This experiment has ended, and the search must continue.

The experts in the educational sciences from the West, have come to us many times in Romania to give courses focused on increasing the compatibility between the structure of the educational offers in pre-university and university education, but they could not answer the following question: "If, in fact, you have

miraculous solutions, why in your Western European countries unemployment was not liquidated, with the solutions you offer us?"

The reproach that we, those in the East, have a "democratic deficit", somewhat believable through the 1990s, is now completely devoid of credibility and is beginning to be perceived as propaganda and the mobility of students and teachers through Tempus-Erasmus programs (which have lived and been active for a time in the developed capitalist countries, with a "consolidated" democracy) the apprehensions regarding the acceptance of the "good practices" of the reduction of unemployment exclusively through the contribution of the education system have increased.

The practice of "structural reform" of the Romanian social space has shown that social reform is not a technical problem: it is not possible to replace one component of the social space with another, as is done in the ethnic system where everything can be made after a certain standard, because in the social space the role of the collective mind has a determinant that cannot be standardized. The educational system and all its correlations with the global social space cannot be standardized; at most, only some components that prove their compatibility can be grafted. So, the only selective takeover (Buzărnescu, 1998: 154) of good practices in line with our collective mind can have some success.

In this context, we formulate the following hypothesis: exploring our development potential through correlation with the European market can contribute, decisively and pragmatically, to the formulation of more attractive educational offers and greater chances of being placed on the labor market in Romania and on the continent. The big mistake of the curricular programs would be the underestimation of the national interests, because the local development needs qualified social actors for the jobs in the national economy, obviously and by using the technologies that our country cannot produce, which is why our school programs, at all levels, may include specialized courses, in profile, from Western Europe; it is really a priority, provided that the owners of these technologies allow it.

Now, after three decades since the abolition of vocational schools and specialized high schools in our country, it became evident the error of the decision-makers from the post-December period of authority, because the need for qualified personnel in all fields of activity, especially in executive activities, is acute.

Recently promoted, the initiative to re-establish the technical network for training young people in our country is a very good opportunity to build a modern logistics, in public-private partnership, for the preparation of qualified human resources in accordance with the national need, but also with the need for employers from multinationals. In this way one could avoid delaying national economic objectives due to the lack of labor force, but would also support multinationals who reproached, upon their arrival in Romania, that they do not have such a well-qualified workforce to contribute, immediately, to maximize the

profits of their investments, without period, naturally, adapting to their new technologies.

Here is the possible solution: financial support of training programs for their future employees that our education system can train according to the requirements of multinationals, in order to avoid, in this way, training to adapt to their workflows.

From another angle, it is possible to avoid the dissemination of messages with negative impact on the image management of the identity profile of our education system. In this case, I refer to the impressions, not at all favorable to the Romanians, of the first "foreign investors" who, seeing the little compatibility of the abilities of the Romanian engineers and workers with the integrative requests of the new technologies specific to the multinationals in question, drew, superficially, conclusions on the precarious quality of our specialists, putting pressure on the permanent reform of our educational system. The truth is another: our specialists, for example engineers, even in IT from the Polytechnic University of Iași, Bucharest, Timișoara, or Cluj, have found jobs in many countries in Europe, and have integrated seamlessly there, obviously due to their competitive educational offers of the Romanian vocational training system. If the reproaches previously mentioned came from well-intentioned people, the explanation is another: our workers and engineers had not worked, until that moment, on the technologies with which the multinationals came, but after a very short training, the integration into their flow of activities was even performing; which means that our educational investment in Romania was good.

All the rhetoric of the immediate reform of our education system has proved counterproductive, because the abolition of vocational schools and specialized high schools was not the priority, but their re-technologicalization, through the contribution of Western technologies. This is the perspective of vocational training, provided that all the inertial moments of the multiple "conditioning" imposed by the Western European partner demands for Eastern European countries are eliminated.

Another part of the solution would be the curricular compatibility of the educational offers on a continental scale. Similar to scientific research, an area where a single, European area of scientific research was established, the promotion of a unique, curricular, vocational training space in which some percentages are compulsory, European (may be 50%), and other percentages (50%) to be reserved for the curriculum with national coverage, so as not to underestimate the national development projects); something similar to a subsidiary that exists in other fields of activity.

On these coordinates, the asymmetry between the expectations of the multinationals and those of the employees could be diminished; it is not expected to eliminate all these asymmetries.

As for the role of the education system on unemployment, we make it clear: the training system does not generate unemployment.

The school, as an institution and profession, has the role of teaching educators how to write, read, calculate / count, and round them with some skills and abilities, that is, a profession, by which they can relate, qualified to the world of work. Job training and financing is the attribute of government formulas within the authority range of leadership and multinationals. Who else thinks of the logic of a "full" compatibility between the structure of educational offerings and the structure of occupations in the "field of work", as it was in the centralized planning system, means that he did not understand anything about the change that occurred in December 1989; the capitalist social system is not one of centralized planning.

It is not the duty of sociology to make a comparative assessment, but only to explain what is the cause of unemployment; not the school generates unemployment, but the nature of the macro-social management instituted at the level of the social space, in this case the government formula that is in power. The school has done its duty, according to its potential for training and qualification, but if the institutional structure, i.e. the functioning regime of the community social space uses only partially the human resources available, it is no longer the responsibility of the education system. If some very vocal politicians hold the school accountable as a training institution, this rhetorical exercise is based either on sociological uncultivatedness, on the escape of responsibility of political decision-makers, or both. The solution of unemployment, even if unemployment is alarmingly growing, cannot be exclusively the competence of the school institution in the generic sense of the word, implicated also in the "dual formation" that is now presented to us as an absolute novelty, in the field.

Known as a "job qualification" where the employee was doing an apprenticeship, after which, after an examination he was titled in the specialty in which he did the apprenticeship, this training also worked during the socialist period of our country for all the young people who did not they were able to pass the examination for high school, but also for the adults without occupation, in a somewhat obligatory regime, because every citizen was obliged to enter, somewhere, in a work place, the unemployment being completely forbidden; so impossible.

And then, even now, the obligation to work was criticized on the grounds that work is a fundamental human right, not an obligation. This critical approach is relevant, but if there are no job opportunities, what is the fault of the amateur in the labor market?

To this question, neither sociology nor the school institution is obliged to formulate answers.

Another hypothesis of the use of human resources is the migration flows generated either by the aspiration of the qualified people to sell their labor at a cheaper price in the economically developed countries, or because of the liquidation of the jobs in the Eastern European countries, such as and the case of Romania (Pasti; 2000) or for other reasons of personal choice.

Regarding the price difference of the work submitted in Romania, at the multinationals, and the hourly rates for the same types of activities in the countries from which the respective multinationals originate, there arose a problem that is far from finding any solution: the employees from Romania calls for non-discriminatory treatment. In the face of this challenge, the multinationals have the choice: either to give up this discriminatory treatment, or to leave our country for other countries, where the multinationals in question can continue their activities without diminishing the profits obtained with the current level of pay in our country.

The reality is obvious: the multinationals came to Romania for the profit generated by the very low level of wages practiced in Romania, not from any charitable feeling or for humanitarian reasons. The requests of the Romanian employees to be paid at the same level as the employees of the same companies in their countries of origin (from Western Europe) are not only unpopular, but unacceptable to the managers of the respective multinationals. Asymmetries of waiting horizons initiate a conflict of proportions, with unpredictable denouement.

Conclusions

The professional reconversion, as a solution to solve the problem of unemployment in Romania, where during the period of communist government, job security was guaranteed, in all fields of activity, it proved to be rather a palliative, because the areas in which they were offered professional reconversions, have reduced unemployment insignificantly. In addition, many of those who have completed such courses as hairdressers, cooks, waiters, etc. they left the country to find job opportunities in other countries. In conclusion, although well-intentioned and funded by the government formula in power, the measure of professional reconversion has not proven, in practice, its effectiveness.

Since 1989, we in Romania have been waiting for solutions to the unemployment generated by the adoption of the Western model from the "consolidated democracies" of the Western European, but the growth of the "sovereign debts" of those countries shows that the solutions do not exist in their managerial practice. We hoped that there is a European policy (Cartesian, of course!). For the production and employment to which Romanians, as recently joined the EU, do not yet have access. After 30 years of waiting, our hopes have been shattered and Euroscepticism is threatening us too, those who were the most europhiles in the conditions of accession. If hopes will turn into illusions, what will happen next?

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THE EFFECTS OF THE "REFUGEE CRISIS" IN THE EUROPEAN UNION AND IN ROMANIA

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Abstract: *Nowadays, the issues of migration and refugees are widely debated at international level and mostly in the European Union, especially considering the fact that in recent years a very large number of people have chosen to emigrate or have been forced to emigrate and a real "crisis of migration" has been reached. The problem of refugees from the last period has seriously affected the migration policies in the European Union and in the Member States. Thus, we encounter unprecedented situations in the European states. This article focuses on presenting the situation of refugees in the European Union and in Romania, analyzing their status, and at the same time, presenting the policies in the field, but also the relevant statistical data.*

Key words: *refugee crisis; European Union; European Agenda on Migration; Romania; law; migration policies.*

1. Refugee situation: definition and social context

Immigration is of course a source of "opportunity for individuals and societies", but also, a source of problems (Baubock; Heller; Zolberg, 1996) and unfortunately, in the last years, the negative aspects of the migration are more highlighted. We see now the "emergence of culturally plural societies" (Kymlicka, 1995; Niță; Ilie Goga, 2017), in which "individuals and groups need to work out how to live together, adopting various strategies that will allow them to achieve the goal of living interculturally" (Berry et. al., 2006: p. 305; Ilie, 2013).

Although "most migrant-receiving states share common" instruments in migration policies, like "legal permanent admissions, guest-worker admissions, humanitarian refugee and asylum policies, border and worksite enforcement" and recent research "emphasizes emerging intraregional similarities and inter-regional differences" (Corneliu, 2005: 111).

Today, problems related to migration and refugees are widely debated at international level and mostly in the European Union (Otovescu et. al., 2011: 201), especially considering the fact that in recent years a very large number of people have chosen to emigrate or have been forced to emigrate and it has grown into a veritable "migration crisis". United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees shows in the 2017 Report, that "65.6 million people were displaced by conflict, violence, or economic and ecological disasters by the end of 2016" (UNHCR, 2017). In 2018, UNHCR highlights that "over 68 million people are currently displaced, including 25.4 million who have been designated by UNHCR as qualifying for refugee status" (UNHCR 2018a in Shaw and Funk, 2019: 1). A percentage of 85% "of displaced

persons are being hosted in developing countries, with Turkey, Uganda, Pakistan, Lebanon, and Iran hosting the largest numbers of refugees in 2018” (UNHCR 2018a in Shaw; Funk, 2019: 1).

Saskia Sassen points out that, “the global refugee crisis is but one in a larger system of expulsions that characterize contemporary capitalism” (Sassen, 2014 apud. Gluhovic, 2019: 14).

The “refugee” is a person who “owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it”. “In the case of a person who has more than one nationality, the term “the country of his nationality” shall mean each of the countries of which he is a national, and a person shall not be deemed to be lacking the protection of the country of his nationality if, without any valid reason based on well-founded fear, he has not availed himself of the protection of one of the countries of which he is a national” (Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees 1951: art. 1, A, 2).

According to Richard Black, the concept of “refugee”, indicates “uprootedness and exile and it often implies a dependence on humanitarian intervention and a rupture of “normal” social, economic and cultural relations” and “unlike the economic migrant, the refugee is forced to migrate, rather than somebody who has moved more or less voluntarily” (Black, 2001: 63; Puglisi; Șerban, 2019)

It is obvious that, “many people who have become (or have been) refugees suffer profoundly from having been tortured, raped, terrorized, spied upon, militarily attacked, separated from friends and families, and often, from having been left alive to witness death” (Malkki, 1995: 510), and this is precisely why international protection is needed and specific legal instruments have been created.

Currently, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Services, is the leading organization (Sorescu, 2014), “coordinating emergency response services for refugee communities, providing core relief items and shelter, including food and sanitation services, to people in over 50 countries in 2017. UNHCR also implements health, violence prevention, and cash transfer programs” (UNHCR, 2018b). But each state has its own refugee protection programs and services. For example, in Germany, “asylum seekers can receive governmental reception assistance including accommodation support and after receiving asylum, income assistance for job seekers” and in Sweden, asylum seekers benefit from “two -year individual integration plans that focus on language, civic integration and job preparation, including financial support” (Shaw; Funk, 2019: 2).

2. Refugee crisis in the European Union

The European Union has become a favorite area for migrants and refugees, in the period 2015-2016, we can even talk about a number of about one million migrants who have arrived in the European space, most of them coming from states where wars are taking place, like Syria (European Commission 2017).

After the Second World War, "the system of refugee protection was based on a separated dual structure: the codification of general principles and norms at international level, and the individual commitment of sovereign states to grant protection at the national level" (Lavenex, 2001: 856).

All "EU member states codified the right of asylum in domestic laws" (Lavenex, 2001: p. 856). But now, "the Europeanization of refugee policy lies at the heart of political unification and highlights important developments in the evolution of the European Union" (Lavenex, 2001: 870). But, today "European migration policies affect state sovereignty. Internally, the abolition of internal migration policies implied by freedom of movement deprives member states of their sovereignty over the admission of EU citizens and long-term resident third-country nationals. Externally, the development of common European policies regarding third-country nationals amplifies this retreat of state sovereignty and symbolizes the EU's appropriation of quasi-statist features" (Lavenex, 2019: 568). So, we are witnessing today "the tensions underlying western asylum and migration policies, that derive from the value of security on the one hand, underlining the need to control and limit immigration, and, on the other hand, from the values of freedom and human rights, which, command openness" (Lavenex, 2019: 568).

Currently is active, the Directive 2011/95/EC on the standards regarding the conditions that third-country nationals or stateless persons must meet in order to be able to benefit from international protection, to a uniform status for refugees or persons eligible for subsidiary protection and to the content of the protection granted.

European Union "members have moved toward common refugee and asylum policies and nationality laws, and most European states have liberalized their immigrant integration policies in an effort to incorporate immigrants into the body politic" (Cornelius, 2005: 111).

The crisis of migration and refugees in the European Union has deepened with the large influx of migrants and refugees and the European institutions have been somehow overwhelmed by the situation created. It was even estimated that during the period "January-November 2015, about 1.5 million migrants arrived illegally in the EU Member States", and during the period "July-September 2015, a number of 413,800 persons applied for international protection" (European Commission, 2016). Moreover, the effects of migration have been deeply felt at on the European structure, with the decision of the United Kingdom to leave the community space and thus, looking at the basis of this decision, we observe that the political discourse was based precisely on this crisis caused by migration, refugees, directly related to

effects, such as terrorism (Ilie Goga, 2019), the decline of the labor market (Ilie; Pricină, 2014), the increase of the crime rate (Ilie, 2014), etc. As Baker and collaborators observe in their work, when UK newspapers analyzed topics such as: "refugees, asylum seekers and immigrants", most denoted a "negative stance", contrary to the term "migrant", for which there was "an overall positive use" (Baker at. all., 2008: 288). We find permanently in discourses connections between migration, Islam and terrorism, revealing the ways the Muslim body is marked as unintelligible and, therefore, threatening to white" (Fritzsche; Nelson, 2019: 3; Serban, 2018; Petcu, 2015). Unfortunately, overall, "refugee claimants are often viewed with suspicion and hostility" (Esses; Veenvliet; Hodson; Mihic 2008: 5) by the citizens of the host countries, because it is considered that, persons "seeking refugee status are fraudulent, making illegitimate claims with regard to their circumstances and are violating principles of justice and fairness" (Esses; Veenvliet; Hodson; Mihic 2008: 6, 23). Moreover, following the recent referendum, emigrants from the UK are dominated by "uncertainty, anxieties, unpredictable and unknown" (Clayton; Vickers 2018: p. 20) and "a threat of illegalization hangs over the head of both the asylum seeker and economic migrant" (Mezzadra; Neilson, 2013: 145 in Clayton; Vickers, 2018: 21).

A different perspective on people who have been forced to migrate, was adopted for the first time by the German Chancellor Angela Merkel, who decided in mid-2015, to open German borders to Syrian refugees and other asylum seekers, motivating that, their reception in Europe is "both morally mandatory and economically feasible" (Gluhovic, 2019: 12).

But, migration crisis and Brexit procedure, have come to "endanger the very concepts of European Identity and European Citizenship" (Ammaturo, 2018).

Ammaturo considers that "the relationship between European citizenship and migration is fundamentally permeated by both questions of race and ethnicity, as well as social class" (Ammaturo, 2018: 11). In this context of race and ethnicity of migrants it is very important to distinguish between categories of migration, like those proposed by Favell: "ethnic (non-EU) migration", "new intra-European", "elite" migration and "East-West migration" ("following the EU's 2004 Enlargement") (Favell, 2009: 167) or by Nash ("super-citizens, marginal citizens, quasi-citizens, sub-citizens and un-citizens") (Nash, 2009). Ammaturo considers that "ethnic (non-EU) migration' and 'East-West migration' described by Favell (2009), would hardly be able to ever ascend the ranks of citizenship and get past the status of quasi-citizens, in Nash's (2009) terms" (Ammaturo, 2018: 11)

Taking into account the current international context in which the crisis of migration and refugees has become more and more profound, at European Union level, a "European Agenda on Migration" has been proposed, aiming to act outside the European Union, within the European Union and at the borders of the European Union (European Commission, 2015; Porumbescu, 2019: 38). The "European Agenda on Migration" has the following objectives outside the European area: "Assistance to refugees around the world, addressing the causes of irregular migration in the

countries of origin and transit and relocating refugees to the states of the European Union"; at the borders of the European states, the European Union aims at "tripling the presence of the EU in the territory of the marine waters to save the lives of refugees; creation of "hotspots" in Greece and Italy; a useful management of the external borders, identification and registration of newcomers by streamlining the asylum procedures and regulating the readmission and return procedures"; and within the European Union states, it was aimed "to relocate refugees in the territory of all Member States but also to simplify and harmonize the system of asylum" (European Commission, 2017).

Because of the "large-scale refugee movements", we notice that attention is increasingly directed towards "the routes and trajectories pursued by individuals and families, especially across the Mediterranean" (Kofman, 2018: 2186). Among the population who applied for refugee status in Europe, it is noted that men predominate and this seems to be a cause for concern for the authorities, if we consider the consequences: security issues; propagation of refugee traditions, related to "gender-based violence or subjugation of women"; the risk of an imbalance in the European population balance and also it is assumed that the men-refugees will want "to bring in other family members in future through a right to family reunification by those granted refugee status, thus leading to an increase in the refugee population" (Kofman, 2018: 2186, 2188). According to Eurostat (2016), almost "all Syrians and nearly three-quarters of Iraqis were granted refugee or subsidiary status in 2016, and hence potentially generate a large demand for family reunification" (Kofman, 2018: 2186).

In 2015, the European Commission took important measures to support the refugee crisis and has proposed "the transfer of 160.000 people, who clearly need international protection, from the Member States under extreme pressure in the other Member States of the European Union, and at the same time, the Commission has recommended the establishment of an EU relocation mechanism for 20.000 people in need of international protection" (European Commission, 2016b).

In the European Union, in recent years, the following concrete actions have been taken:

- "In October 2016, the European Border and Coast Guard Agency (Frontex) was established (European Commission, 2016a), whose mission is to ensure better protection of external borders, in the current context of the refugee crisis".
- "The number of operative actions taken in the Mediterranean was increased, so that 400,000 people were rescued, 2000 networks of traffickers were annihilated and 365 ships were removed" (European Commission, 2017). In EU, "the Mediterranean is a very important space and is seen as "a borderzone of intertwining crises" (Gluhovic, 2019: 2);
- "Collaboration with five African countries of origin and transit, such as Ethiopia, Mali, Nigeria, Niger and Senegal, has been strengthened" (European Commission, 2017);

- In the period "2015-2017, from the EU budget a total of EUR 17.7 billion was allocated to deal with the migration crisis, divided as follows: EUR 10.3 billion went to financing outside the EU, including 2.7 EUR billion for humanitarian aid, EUR 0.6 billion for the Trust Fund in response to the Syrian crisis (The MADAD Fund) and EUR 2.4 billion for the Emergency Trust Fund for Africa (for stability and addressing root causes of irregular migration and displaced persons)" (European Commission, 2017);
- In "March 2016, the EU-Turkey Statement was signed, thus, aiming to stop the uncontrolled flows of migrants in the Aegean area and establishing legal paths through which refugees can enter Europe, thus reducing the number of refugees who arrived from Turkey". "By this agreement, it was established that any irregular migrant who arrives from Turkey to Greece and does not apply for asylum or whose application has been rejected, to be returned to Turkey, instead the European Union accepting another Syrian citizen from Turkey on his territory which did not attempt to enter its territory in an irregular manner". In this context, under the provisions of this agreement, "until July 2017, a number of 7.807 Syrian refugees were relocated from Turkey to the EU" (European Commission, 2017);
- "Hotspots were set up in Greece and Italy (more precisely, experts coming from other European states, which will help to verify, identify and register the migrants and inform them about the right to request international protection), these "hotspots" supporting the two states to better manage migration flows" (European Commission, 2017);
- In European Union, "a system for emergency relocation was set up in 2015, thus the Member States accepting to take over migrants from Italy and Greece. In this context until July 2017, more than 24.000 people (16.774 from Greece and 2.675 from Italy) had been relocated to the territory of 24 participating states. Moreover, it was agreed on a "voluntary relocation program", which established that 22.500 people from outside the European Union will be transferred and thus, by July 2017, about 16.500 people have been relocated to 21 states" (European Commission, 2017).

However, "in the European Union, asylum applications have dropped by nearly half from over 1.3 million in 2015 to 0.7 million in 2017 (UNHCR & Eurostat 2018 in Shaw and Funk, 2019) and continue to decline in 2018" (Eurostat, 2018 in Shaw; Funk, 2019).

Pressure "on national asylum systems has stabilised to a monthly average of around 54,000 asylum applications in 2019 in the EU plus Switzerland, Norway, Iceland and Liechtenstein, substantially below peak years (more than 100,000 applications were lodged per month in 2015-2016) but still higher than before the crisis" (European Commission, 2019b: 3)

In 2018, around 150.000 irregular arrivals were detected at the EU's external borders, 25% less than in 2017. This was the lowest level in the last five years, with more than 90% below the level of 2015, when there was a record number of migrants (European Commission, 2019a: 1).

3. The situation of refugees in Romania

The definition of the term "refugee" in Romania is taken from the "Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees" adopted in 1951 and ratified by Romania on July 4, 1991 by Law no. 46, published in the "Official Monitor of Romania", part I, no. 148 of July 17, 1991.

The main element of the definition of "refugee" is the expression "justified danger of persecution". It is closely related to the reasons for the flight. The reasons for the flight are exhaustively listed in the text of the Convention on the Status of Refugees. Precisely these reasons make the distinction between refugee status and other types of people seeking international protection, such as asylum seekers, displaced persons due to armed conflicts, natural disasters or urban humanitarian activities" (Goga; Ilieva, 2018: 129). The "international protection" is represented by "the refugee status or the status conferred by subsidiary protection" according to the Emergency Ordinance 194/2002, updated (OUG 194/2002, art. 2).

The main normative act regulating "asylum in Romania" is Law no. 122 of May 4, 2006 (updated). In conjunction with Law no. 122/2006, for regulating the situation of foreign nationals on the Romanian territory, we find the following normative acts: Government Ordinance no. 44 of January 29, 2004 on the social integration of foreigners who have acquired international protection or a right of residence in Romania, as well as of the citizens of the Member States of the European Union and the European Economic Area (updated); Government Emergency Ordinance no. 194 of December 12, 2002 regarding the regime of foreigners in Romania (updated); Government Emergency Ordinance No. 102 of July 14, 2005 on the free movement on the territory of Romania of the citizens of the Member States of the European Union, of the European Economic Area and of the citizens of the Swiss Confederation (updated); Government Ordinance no. 25 of August 26, 2014 regarding the employment and posting of foreigners on the territory of Romania and for the modification and completion of some normative acts regarding the regime of foreigners in Romania (updated).

According to the General Inspectorate for Immigration, in 2018, in Romania, there were 120.358 foreigners with legal residence, of which 69.141 foreigners from third countries and having the right to legal residence and 51.217 citizens from EU/ EEA/ Swiss Confederation (IGI, 2019: 7). Also in 2018, a number of 2.716 foreigners were detected residing illegally, 106 migrants were supported for voluntary repatriation, 374 foreigners were removed under escort, 312 foreigners were taken into public custody and 73 foreigners were tolerated (IGI, 2019b: 8-9).

In Romania, the highest number of requests for asylum were registered in 2017, namely 4820, so "the asylum system in Romania was subjected to a constant and ascending pressure, with repercussions on accommodation, reception, processing and integration capacity of asylum seekers" (Vasile; Androniceanu, 2018: 6).

According to the 2019 Report, "Evaluation of the Activity of the General Inspectorate for Immigration in 2018", a number of 2138 asylum applications were registered in Romania in 2018, less than in 2017, but with a multi-year upward trend. Most asylum applications come from Iraq (51%), Syria (17%) and Iran (7%) (IGI, 2019b: 10).

In Romania, in 2018, 554 applications for international protection were resolved in the administrative stage. In a number of 464 cases, a form of protection was granted, as follows: in 223 cases, the refugee status and in 241 cases, subsidiary protection. In 2017, in our country there were 2.079 solved cases, refugee status was granted for 849 cases and subsidiary protection for 460, and in 2016, a number of 1.124 cases were solved, for 590 granting refugee status and for 234 subsidiary protection (IGI, 2019b: 11).

In our country, the Romanian Office for Immigration has six Regional Centers for Accommodation and Procedures for Asylum Seekers: in Bucharest, Galați, Giugiu, Rădăuți, Șomcuta Mare and Timișoara. Also, the Emergency Transit Center operates, destined for temporary stay of the refugees in urgent need of evacuation from the asylum country.

According to Law 122/2006, the Regional Centers for Accommodation and Procedures for Asylum Seekers "have living rooms and kitchens that are properly equipped, as well as recreational spaces (prayer rooms, clubs, play rooms, computer rooms and sport rooms) which are used free of charge by asylum seekers. Accommodation in the IGI Regional Centers also involves providing personal hygiene and cleaning products, as well as ensuring the material goods necessary for the preparation of food and table service" (IGI, 2019a).

At the same time, asylum seekers also benefit from the following assistance measures:

- Asylum seekers benefit, upon request, if they do not have maintenance means, of an allowance for the purchase food within the amount of 10 lei (≈2.09 EUR)/person/day, an allowance for the purchase of clothing of 100 lei (≈20.92 EUR) for cold season and 67 lei (≈14.01 EUR) for hot season and other expenses, up to 6 lei (≈1.25 EUR)/person/day (IGI, 2019a).
- Asylum seekers benefit from access to the labor market under the conditions provided by law for Romanian citizens, after the expiry of a period of 3 months from the date of the application for asylum, if the asylum seeker is still in the procedure for determining a form of protection.
- Asylum seekers "receive free emergency primary and hospital care, as well as free medical assistance and treatment in cases of acute or chronic illness. Minors seeking asylum attend Romanian language learning courses, during

one school year, after graduation being enrolled in the compulsory school education system under the same conditions as the Romanian minors. In order to ensure the participation in the courses, IGI grants packages with supplies" (IGI, 2019a).

- "Asylum seekers participate in cultural adaptation activities free of charge and may benefit from counseling and psychological assistance" (IGI, 2019a).
- "Children seeking asylum benefit from the state allowance granted to minors, under the same conditions as for Romanian citizens" (IGI, 2019a).

In 2018, Romania had an accommodation capacity for immigrants of 900 places, reaching an extended accommodation capacity in existing spaces, of 1162 places, where we find an average occupancy rate of 49.04%. A total of 2275 asylum seekers were accommodated and 512 asylum seekers were transferred between centers (IGI, 2019a: 13).

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DOMESTIC VIOLENCE: A DETERMINING FACTOR IN THE SOCIO-EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

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Abstract: *Domestic violence is a major problem of contemporary society. The number of abused women is constantly increasing, and this is due to several factors: the lack of involvement of the authorities in order to adopt laws, to protect the victims of domestic violence, the lack of counseling programs for abused women in order to overcome experiences. traumatizing and social reintegration, excessive jealousy, alcohol, the inferiority position of the woman, etc. Violence in the family environment has repercussions, both on the woman and on the children, because in the absence of behavioral models worthy to be followed, they can see the violence as a normality, which they then apply in their own families. The effects of domestic violence are devastating for children who have been victims of witnessing violent scenes within the family. Child abuse has long-term effects, adolescence, and later adult life is marked by this phenomenon, behavioral patterns and family climate can be real milestones in setting up their own families. This study involves extensive bibliographic documentation and extensive analysis of the effects of domestic violence on children. The quantitative research consisted in applying an questionnaire to 20 people from Reșița Municipality, Caraș-Severin county, who were witnesses or victims of domestic violence during their childhood.*

Key words: *domestic violence; children; socio-emotional development; emotional abuse.*

Introduction

The social context in which children grow and develop is represented by the neighbourhood and the community. Growing up in an environment with a high degree of violence and delinquency is a major risk factor for children's development. Exposing children to violence generates behavioural problems, sensitivity, and anxiety. When children's exposure to violent episodes is indirect, they experience an intense, negative emotional state of fear caused by the traumatic violence and a secondary trauma, through the relationship they have with the friend or family member who is the victim. Thus, this indirect experience is more intensely traumatic, with far more complex consequences than direct victimization (Ceballo et al., 2001).

1. Children, vulnerable witnesses to domestic violence

Intra-family violence is one of the major problems nowadays, as "often enough the very parents who have the responsibility to protect their children resort to violence" (Georgevici., 2014: 35). Violent manifestations have different values and consequences for the aggressor and the victim, although they functionally modify and influence them both. The effects are not only here and now, but can have a transgenerational extension. Through the concept of 'phenomenon in the child's room', Fraiberg reveals the mechanism by which the suffering of victimised parents passes to the being of their child. A child who suffers, depending on the intensity of the suffering, the age at which it was provoked, its duration, but especially the chance or misfortune in terms of support, in the absence of a person to listen to and understand their suffering, to love and to protect them, will find ways of development more or less beneficial for them and for society, for the social groups they belong to (Killen, 2003; Shapiro, 2009).

"Child abuse and neglect have long-term, clearly proven effects on adult mental illness. There is growing evidence that child abuse and neglect also have significant consequences on the physiological disorders of the adult, such as: ischemic coronary disease, liver disease and lung cancer, which are likely due to the patient's health risk behaviours" (Kessler et al., 2008: 625).

As regards the emotional experiences there is a continuum from suffering to happiness. Intense emotions are usually generated by the relationships that the human being has with others. In the case of children, the most important people with whom they have a vital and decisive relationship are the parents. Current research demonstrates 'the biological effects of failed relationships, insecure attachment and multiple traumatic breaks' (Rubin, Nonan, 2010). If suffering impedes development, it deviates from genotyping into phenotype; on the other hand, the state of happiness and mental comfort ensures the development of the person's abilities, creates the possibility of a quality life, and at the same time the possibility of being valuable to others (Muntean, 2011: 109).

2. Children - victims of domestic violence

Different forms of violence or abuse are exercised throughout a life cycle, having devastating effects on the lives of victims. Lori L. Heise, after examining the long-term consequences of violence acts, underlines the idea that “an approach based on the life cycle of the woman victim shows that violence experienced at a certain stage of life can have long-term repercussions, which predispose the victim to increased risks in terms of physical or mental health, or in the acquisition of deviant behaviour”. Over time, the notion of child abuse has been defined from several perspectives:

- *Psychological abuse*: “it implies a continuous terrorization and blackmailing of the child with various things, nicknaming, and child debasement. Any form of abuse, neglect or failed attachment is reflected in the psycho-cognitive and social aspects of the child’s life” (www.revistacalitățiivietii.ro).
- *Sexual abuse*: “it is materialised by subjecting children to practices of oral, genital intercourse, sexual molestation with direct sexual contact, their seduction or corruption, involving children in sexual practices not compliant with their age, obligating, forcing them to watch unwanted erotic materials, requesting the victims to wear various clothes that stimulate the sexual "appetite" of the aggressor, obligating the same victims to satisfy erotic fantasies, forcing children to attend or take part in sexual activities per se, their exploitation for pornography or prostitution purposes (Rădulescu. and Pătrioară., 2003: 21).
- *Physical abuse*: “it is unfortunately the most common form of abuse, it is the deliberate action or inaction by a parent or the person caring for the child (lack of interest, carelessness), it leads to physical injury. Kept in inhuman conditions, in the cold, left unattended, stuck for hours in the same spot, threatened, beaten, burned with cigarettes, children may be burnt, hit, get sick. All this is topped by the fear of parenting, excessive submission, diminished self-esteem, anxiety, bipolarity. All these factors render victims extremely vulnerable in the period of adolescence and later in adulthood to the usual challenges of life.” (www.revistadesociologie.ro)

3. Risk factors associated with children from violent environments

Social factors. From a sociological perspective, the organisation of the family life predisposes towards a rate of violence, determined by the differences of age, gender, interests, which trigger tensions in the family environment. The sociological approach is the one that considers the causes of domestic violence as residing in the process of distinct socialisation of men and women, of family type differences (customs, different traditions), the stereotypes conveyed, the "social scenarios" contributing to the description of the problem. (Irimescu, 2006: 106).

Abuse can be considered the result of parent-child interaction within a culture that provides poor alternative models for conflict resolution or which does not provide for child abuse restrictions. The authors Erchak and Rosenfeld, in 1994 analysed how the rate of abuse varies in different countries according to different characteristics, such as norms related to violence and patterns of violence in society. The two authors claim that where domestic violence is not sanctioned; the deviations from the norms of the society, deviations appear, generated by rationalization and neutralization techniques. Children who grow up in environments where reproaches and anger are transferred into aggressive behaviour will be at risk of becoming aggressive when they become adults. Analysing the aggressive behaviour of the parents, the plots, the insults are considered as causes of the abuse on the life partner and on the child. Abuse is considered as acquired behaviour and determined by the action of certain factors, such as: observed and experienced reward, consequences of behaviour, observer's characteristics and individual behaviour modelling, associated patterns (the exposure to aggressive behaviours depends on the individuals with whom a person comes into contact). (Irimescu, 2006: 109)

Emotional factors. Emotional abuse is the result of children's repeated exposure to situations with strong emotional impact. The abuse comes from an adult who is in a relationship of trust, responsibility or power over the child, preceding and accompanying the other forms of abuse or violence, but can also manifest itself in isolation: threats, insults, verbal and nonverbal humiliations, unfair accusations, denigrations, ridicule, hostile or rejecting attitudes towards the child (<https://ibn.idsi>).

Children who are emotionally abused feel they are not wanted, loved and accepted, they are living in denial, aggression and terror. They face serious emotional problems and survive by internalising the image offered by the abusive parent. The category of emotional abuse includes various modalities, which are easy to identify in children: inhibition, adaptation and communication difficulties, inability to play or express themselves through play, isolation, aggressive manifestations. All these are reached by subjecting children to humiliation, refusing their affective gestures, obvious preference for the other siblings, refusing to congratulate and reward the children for their results, forbidding their attending recreational activities with other children, cultivating a feeling of distrust toward the persons outside the family, forcing children to participate in activities that displease them and which they fear, threats and destructive actions towards their personal objects. (<http://www.revistadesociologie.ro>)

4. Research methodology

The quantitative research consisted in applying an questionnaire to 20 people from Reșița Municipality, Caraș-Severin county, who were witnesses or victims of domestic violence during their childhood.

Research purpose: Identifying the effects of domestic violence on children.

The objectives aimed by the study: analysing the effects of domestic violence on children; the extent to which domestic violence affects the socio-emotional development of children; the perception of the victims of domestic violence regarding the repercussions of this phenomenon on the socio-emotional development of the person.

5. Interpretation of research results

Questions of the quantitative research:	Answers of the questioned persons
Q1. How important is family to a person's socio-emotional development?	12 of the 20 said that the family plays an essential role in the socio-emotional development of a person; the other 8 people considered that family does not influence individual development.
Q2. In your opinion, what are the main causes of domestic violence?	14 respondents stated that violence is caused by lack of education, alcohol and other substances abuse, and 6 of them underlined that violence is determined by the behavioural patterns in the family of origin.
Q3. In your opinion, what are the main effects of domestic violence on children?	8 subjects highlighted that violence is the result of violence; children abused in childhood will become aggressors at maturity. 12 subjects concluded that abused children become introverted, isolated, and aggressive.
Q4. How important are the behavioural models for the harmonious development of a child?	The 20 questioned stated that behavioural models play a decisive role in the development of a child.
Q5. To what extent has the violence in your family affected your subsequent socio-emotional development?	18 respondents considered that violence in their family environment has had repercussions on socio-emotional development, and two respondents claimed that violence in the family environment had no long-term effects.
Q6. How did you perceive the aggressive father?	20 people said that the father was perceived as the man who strikes for no reason, screams, breaks things.
Q7. Do you think that the violent scenes you witnessed in your childhood have affected your social relationships?	13 people concluded their social relationships were affected by domestic violence, because they had difficulty expressing and integrating into social groups, 7 people stated that the social relationships they developed were not affected by the emotional baggage

	that resulted from the violent episodes in the family environment.
Q8. Are children from an abusive environment more prone to depressive episodes, anxiety or suicide?	16 persons pointed out that children from abusive backgrounds are isolated, fail to express their feelings and may even have suicide attempts, out of their desire to escape violence from their own family, 4 people saying that abused children are not prone to depression or anxiety.
Q9. How can children from abusive backgrounds be helped to overcome crisis situations?	12 people said that affectivity and emotional support are particularly important for children to overcome crisis situations, and 8 people declared that children who are victims of domestic violence need the intervention of specialists (psychologist, social worker).
Q10. Did you feel defenceless in the family environment?	9 people said they felt vulnerable because they could not defend themselves, and 11 people said they did not feel defenceless in the family environment.

Conclusions

Domestic violence is a relatively new field of investigation, this form of violence having been considered a taboo subject for a long time, as family is the intimate setting in which each member should be free to express his or her personality. The emotional development of children from abusive backgrounds suffers, because in the families of origin the children are humiliated, mistreated, mocked, and this generates a low self-esteem, difficulties of adaptation, anxiety, depressive episodes, isolation, even suicide attempts. The lack of affection, the absence of behavioural models worth following causes the children to see violence as a normality, as a natural thing which they then apply at school, in the group of friends, in the communities to which they belong. Emotional abuse of children causes existential changes, all the more severe as they occur at very young ages and are maintained for a long time. In the case of young people who were victims of domestic violence in childhood, they can apply abusive behaviour in their own families, dominated by restrictions, insults, punishments, unconsciously repeating violent episodes from their own childhood. In order to avoid the hindering of the emotional development of children who are witnesses or victims of domestic violence, emotional and moral support is needed to overcome crisis situations, community intervention by reporting the situations of abuse they identify in their communities, as well as the help of a team of specialists, meant to provide children with support in discovering and strengthening the internal resources assisting them to integrate and evolve from a social, spiritual and educational viewpoint.

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FAMILY AND RELIGION: TWO FORMS OF ROMANIAN SOCIAL CAPITAL

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Abstract: *The objective of this article is to emphasize the importance of family and religion from a social perspective in today's Romanian society. As social manifestations, family and religion are perennial forms of human manifestations in general throughout history. The degree, the intensity and the forms in which they crystallize at a certain historical moment in a society put it in the light and offer a comparison term between this and other societies. At present, the research of the relevance that family and religion have in the Romanian society represents an opportunity to clarify it in the context of the European society, by comparison, at least, with the relevance that these manifestations have in the society in other countries. In this article, there are brought to discussions the various studies and research at European and Romanian level regarding the relevance of family and religion in a European and Romanian social context. Their study in the context of Romanian society is relevant also due to the particularity of Romanian society as a transition society from a totalitarian society, controlled by the state in the communist regime, in which they intervened massively in terms of the organization of the family and the expression of religious beliefs, to an open society of democratic type in which the individual is given the freedom of option in respect of the organization of his family and religious beliefs.*

Key words: *value; family; religion; totalitarian society; open society; Romanian society.*

Introduction

Family and religion are two universal social realities. For the time being, it cannot be envisaged a society in which these two deeply human manifestations do not exist, in one form or another (Otovescu, 2017: 112). Although they are perennial, they are not static, but they are in a specific dynamic with the spirit of the time, implicitly with the particularities that characterize a certain society. In this article, we intend to follow the characteristics of family and religion in the context of the present Romanian society. A changing society, at least regarding the radical change of political and ideological regime, a society in which, like all the states in the Eastern European bloc, for almost half a century, the communist experiment was conducted. Family and religion are also concrete forms of manifestation of social capital, relevant to the axiological dimension of a society. In the contemporary society, strongly secularized, the individual and the social groups need benchmarks, values in which to believe. Religion in its classical meaning tends to be replaced by civil religion (Cristi, 2001) and the belief of trust in social institutions and socially relevant values.

“In what believe those who do not believe?”

The analysis of the situation of social capital and confidence in the Romanian context must take into account the particularities of the Romanian society in relation to the experience of communism, definable as a closed society, with specific social control mechanisms, as well as the transition to the open society, the post-communist society in Eastern Europe. Romania, from this perspective, beyond the particular aspects, is part of this process of transition from the post-communist world. In democratic societies free consent and trust are natural elements: “trust is linked to a series of provisions that underlie democratic culture, including tolerance for pluralism and criticism” (Warren, 1999: 9).

Thus, in post-communist societies new types of cooperation had to be developed between individuals, on the one hand, and between individuals and the state, on the other hand. Specific to the communist regimes, based on the repression of free speech and action, was the indoctrination, coercion and, as a result, the establishment of control mechanisms based on mistrust and double standards between official statements and actual behavior. In communist societies it was clear that we should not believe in everything that is declared at the official and interpersonal level. One consequence of this was the emergence of a culture of relative trust. The low confidence scores of the population in certain institutions or in interpersonal relations are a consequence of the legacy of the communist period: “Theoretical analysis places Romania in a unique position, that of having no connection between social capital and the level of life satisfaction. This apparent exception could be attributed to the destruction of the communitarian sense in the communist period associated with the high degree of distrust between the neighbors of this period. On the other hand, since 1990, with the transitional period, due to geographical, community and neighborhood mobility it has not been possible to recover” (Halman, 2011: 96).

Postmodern society and fake news

Together with the above-mentioned factors, with historical and cutaneous determination, the confidence of Romanians, as of other people in the contemporary world, is determined by the characteristics of the type of post-modern society, influenced by the phenomenon of globalization, by multiculturalism and by the increasing impact of technology and media virtual communication. Romania, as a member of the EU, is fully connected to this type of reality and influence. Relevant for testing this new type of reality is the Eurobarometer from February 2018, so an EU-wide investigation that also includes Romania (Flash Eurobarometer 464). With direct reference to trust we have the first part of the report, namely Trust in news sources and awareness of fake news, which follows three aspects: 1. the level of trust in news sources; 2. Awareness of exposure to fake news (perceived exposure to Fake News); 3. Perceived ability to recognize Fake News).

According to the research, the Romanians trust the following sources of information, compared to those from other states, and the situation looks like this: a. Radio (55%); b. television (54%); c. written press -53%; d. online press - 42%, social media (online social networks and messaging apps) - 39%.

Interestingly, Romanians have the highest level of trust in social media in the EU - 39%, compared with, for example, 17% in Austria and Germany.

Regarding the confidence in the ability to discriminate against fake news, the Romanians have a high score - 79%, along with British, being outnumbered by Danes (87%), Irish (84%), Croats and Finns (82%). On the other hand, the perceived ability to recognize fake news is a problem for 58% of Romanian respondents, the same level as in Italy, Romania being in this regard in the first half of the ranking.

1. Family

1.1. The cross-cultural approach of the family as a value

The family, as a value in cross-cultural research (Voinea in Otovescu, coord., 2010), is a standard item, even strategic to the extent that, depending on it, relevant extensions and connections are possible. Thus, in a paper on the study of values (Inglehart, 1998: IX), the family, as a theme, has a dedicated part in a separate chapter, in which the following connections are highlighted:

- the importance of family, extended family, home satisfaction, marital status;
- sharing attitudes such as those regarding religion and morals, social life, political attitudes, attitudes towards sexuality, attitudes towards parents;
- marriage success (a. characteristics of marriage and partners: adequate income, common background, mutual respect, good administration of the household, sharing of religion, sharing of political beliefs, understanding and tolerance, children, common interests, marriage seen as a living institution respect for parents; b. characteristics related to children: ideal number of children, parents' debts, good manners, independence, hard work, responsibility, imagination, tolerance, respect, determination, religious belief, obedience, trust in the family).

1.2. Social sustainability of the family

Although there is a consensus among specialists regarding “the recognition of the family as a natural and fundamental unit of society, not the same is valid from the point of view of accepting a certain conception of the family” (Constantinescu, 2004: 10).

Over time, more and more sociologists have tried to highlight the characteristics of the family, those that distinguish it from any other group. Thus, Henri Walon (1971, p. 652) emphasizes that, “unlike other groups more or less optional, the family is a natural and necessary group. As a form of human communication, the family is perhaps the strongest of them, being characteristic for all stages of historical development and having a great stability as a social structure”.

1.3. The family as an aspirational group

According to the French sociologist Paul-Henry Chombart de Lauwe (1971: 657) in the article "The evolution of needs and the dynamic conception of the family", the family group is considered as one of the intermediaries between the individual and the society, the family must be in a permanent relationship and communication with the other social groups, to represent, "an aspirational group and not a pressure group".

1.4. The family in cultural and identity context

Another direction of family research today, relevant to the context of postmodernity and of phenomena such as immigration, multiculturalism, the attempt to construct new, supranational identities (European citizenship, for example), tries to shine a light by comparison and contrast traditional conceptions about the family in a cultural context with the dynamics of current representations and practices related to the family (see Simpson, 2013). Thus, the work of the Patricia Ann Simpson updates the family problem, pointing out that in the context of immigration and multiculturalism, coordinates of the European family, characterized by the preference for the model of the small family, by the employment of both spouses, by the religious indifference against the background of the secularization of the European society, tend to change and accept other forms of representation and family formation, due to the cultural forms brought by non-European immigrants. In the case of immigrant families, in contrast to the standard family of the secularized European society, we have to deal with large families, with many children, whose life is determined by customs and religious values.

1.5. The value of the family in the Romanian context

The specificity of the research on the value of the family in the Romanian context is approachable on several levels, one of them may be that of highlighting the dynamics of the Romanian family, as representation and practice as follows: a. the traditional mentality about the family, still remaining in the village and certain geographical and cultural areas of Romania; b. the project and the representation of the family in the context of the communist era; c. representations about family, practices and family realities of Romanians during the transition period and as a result of contact with the phenomenon of multiculturalism following the migratory phenomenon of recent years.

Thus, in a study on family values in Romania (Voicu, 2007), the research is themed according to the following relevant coordinates: a. change and stability regarding the family; b. demographic changes and their impact on the Romanian family; c. family roles and status; d. the importance of marriage and the dynamics of family representations in Romania (the importance of marriage, consensual couples); e. satisfaction with family life; f. European orientations at the level of family.

However, the family aspects mentioned above can be found in applied studies of acute social phenomena in Romania during the transition period. One of these is without a doubt the migration phenomenon. Migration has multiple effects on Romanian children in the concrete reality in terms of demographic and symbolic representational aspects. A relatively recent study of this phenomenon is *The social worlds of the Romanian migration* (Sandu, 2010). Thus, referring to the situation of the migrants in Spain, Madrid, the author mentions: "in Madrid and, most likely, in Spain. One third of the Romanians from Madrid came alone to Spain, and two thirds with the family or part of the family. Migration of the latter is of a family type, within the family migration three subtypes are clearly distinguished: the migrant with the spouse (16% of the total immigrants), the migrant with the spouse plus other members of the family (27% of the total immigrants) and the migrant accompanied by family members different from husband or wife (26%)" (*ibidem*: 117).

The idea can be pursued in a possible detailed research, for example, on cultural spaces and countries of emigration of Romanians, in which, in addition to the demographic effect in Romania (Otovescu, Otovescu, 2019), the effects at the symbolic cultural level, the importation of certain models, respectively families from the cultures in which Romanians are found as migrants or, on the contrary, their resistance to them and the perpetuation of a traditional family model. In some cases, the values of the families of Romanians collided with the standard family model of the secularized European society. This is the case of the Bodnariu family in Norway, a family that emphasized Christian values in the education of children, which was considered excessive and inadequate for the contemporary family education model in that country (https://ro.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cazul_Bodnariu).

Another study, relatively recent, regarding the changing Romanian family, which is worth mentioning, is *Family trajectories. Romania in European context* (Mureșan & Foldes, 2016). Thematically, the studies included in the paper are grouped into two parts: family solidarity and the changing family. The red thread of the first part's research is intergenerational solidarity. In this regard, the family from Romania of the recent period knows new phenomena, already existing at a more successful level in Western society, namely the phenomenon of loneliness, of insularization of generations within the same family, previously reunited in the extended family of traditional type. Thus, following a research on filial obligation in seven European countries, five countries in Central and Eastern Europe - Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Georgia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Russia - and two countries in Western Europe - France and Norway, it has been found that in Romania religious traditions still have an influence on the filiation obligations: "In some societies, women can reject the rules related to filial responsibility to a greater extent than men. This phenomenon has been studied in the Netherlands by Van Bavel et al. (2010), and by Dykstra and Fokkema (2012), and in the case of France, Germany and Norway by Herlofson et al. (2011). Further research shows that the reverse is true for some Eastern European states (Romania, Bulgaria, Russia and Georgia), where women are more strongly linked to the idea of filial responsibility. This finding can

be considered an indicator of cultural change, given that the gender distribution of intergenerational solidarity is contested by women in Western Europe, while in the East, change is not so visible” (ibidem: 16).

Regarding the second part, the changing family, we mention the approach of consensual unions in Romania as an alternative to the traditional family model (ibidem, chap. 6-7). In this respect, the consensual union is a consequence of the transformation undergone by the Eastern European societies after 1990 at social, economic and cultural level. Characterized by the lower fertility and marriage rate: “Cohabitation as a form of partnership has begun to expand in Eastern Europe since the period of state socialism, but accelerated growth began after the regimes changed. Births within cohabitation have increased markedly over the last few decades throughout the European continent, contributing to non-marital births to a much greater extent than single mothers (without a co-resident partner)” (ibidem: 182).

This phenomenon is the consequence of several factors, on the one hand it is the phenomenon of emancipation of the woman, who tends to build her own career, who requires a period dedicated to studies and affirmation in professional and social life, and on the other hand, it is the consequence of the brutal changes at the economic level, which changed the situation of the relative safe income from the communist period with the one of the insecure incomes and jobs during the transition period, which calls into question the birth of one or more children under such conditions: “The analyses of Perelli-Harris and his co-workers (2010) on the relationship between education and non-marital births shows that women who benefit from more material resources and more economic opportunities (i.e. women with higher education) can choose a more stable lifestyle (in the form of marriage), while women with limited (poorly educated) resources persists in a lifestyle characterized by uncertainty, even when waiting for the birth of a child. Women with a low educational level and thus a less privileged job have lower prospects for career advancement, which is why having children is something that gives them meaning and structures their lives (Mills et al., 2003). When alternatives in the labour market are limited, when the perspectives for economic prosperity needed for marriage are lacking, women choose motherhood for self-fulfillment, because it is achievable regardless of financial stability or marital status” (ibidem: 188).

On the other hand, direct family opinion research is worth mentioning. Thus, to a question like: How much do you trust your family? 88% of the Romanians replied that they had very high confidence (IRES. 2010: 7). Interestingly, among those who gave such a response, most, according to the age category criterion, were those between 18-35 years (61%). According to the criterion of the school graduated, those with higher education were the most numerous respondents to this question (64.4%). According to the criterion of the region, the most numerous were those from the regions Romania South, Dobrogea and Bucharest (56.5%), followed by Transylvania and Banat (55.2), Moldova (45.7). This situation somehow reflects the

state of poverty spread over the geographical areas of Romania, Moldova being the first at this chapter.

We can also mention the way in which Romania appears in cross-cultural research at European level regarding the main aspects related to the family. Thus, regarding the preference for the traditional family, Romania is at the top of the ranking (Halman, Sieben & Van Zundert, 2011: 25), regarding the importance of learning good manners by children within the family, Romania is in the first place in this regard (*ibidem*, p. 27); Regarding the obedience of children towards their parents, Romania is also classified in the leading platoon (*ibidem*: 28). In terms of fidelity to the family and the freedom to have an extramarital affair, Romania is in the bottom half of the ranking, the lowest level of this type of freedom having Turkey, and the highest Belairs, followed by France and the Czech Republic (*ibidem*: 23).

Psychosocial research conducted in our country (Chelcea, 1986; Mitrofan and Mitrofan, 1989; Voinea, 1996; Mihailescu, 1999 etc.) revealed that the family constitutes a higher value for the majority of the Romanian population, including for young people.

Thus, in Romania, “the propensity for marriage and family is still high, the cultural model valuing them high”. (Constantinescu, 2004: 18). However, one should not lose sight of the alarm signal drawn by specialists in connection with the process of degradation of family life.

2. Religion

2.1. Theoretical perspectives on religion in sociological research

The fact that current European values, even if secularized, are still determined by the religious dimension is represented by their inclusion in cross cultural research as a reference indicator. Europe “is more than a mentis form, it is a form of faith, embodied in various religious and cultural expressions” (Remond, 2003: 25). The social, political and cultural history of Europe is accompanied by a history of religious and spiritual problems. Beyond the conflicts caused by the ambitions of some Christian institutions to get involved in the organization of the whole society, it cannot be disputed that a fundamental element of European unity and identity in relation to other civilizations is the Christian universe of values. Christianity has given a new face to the European space, through its symbols, through the places of worship, from the most modest churches to the most imposing cathedrals, through the erection of monasteries, through its liturgical calendar which has made its mark on time, through influence on the social and political institutions, through the particular cultural manifestation, through the promoted behavior, through the values of the person, having their roots in the idea of freedom and responsibility.

Before referring to religion as a value in the Romanian context, we briefly outline some contemporary views on the importance of the religious phenomenon from a social perspective.

2.2. Functions of religion

Niklas Luhmann (2013), referring to the main representatives of the sociology of religion, highlights the main “functions” of religion at the social level. Thus, religion is a form of content/meaning (“form of meaning”, “Sinform”). For Durkheim, Luhmann points out, religion had a moral meaning in society; for Max Weber, and religion has the function at the social level to rationalize the common events. The relationship thus represents at the social level for sociologists a framework of aggregation and communication of groups, it is in a code.

Referring to the secularization process, through which the influence of religion is reduced on different spheres of social life, Anthony Giddens (2000) states that there are three aspects or dimensions of it. The first refers to the number of members of religious organizations, namely how many people belong to a certain church or religious institution and participate in services or other ceremonies. In this respect, in the industrialized countries (with the exception of the United States) there was a significant secularization. The second dimension of secularization concerns the degree to which churches and other religious organizations retain their social influence, wealth and prestige. In the past, religious organizations had an important influence on governments and society. This influence has gradually diminished almost worldwide. In terms of wealth, the situation differs from one religious organization to another: some recognized churches are quite rich (material heritage, objects of worship, financial capacity to get involved in social, educational, mission work), new religious movements can be enriched quite quickly, and others have an insecure financial situation.

The third dimension, religiosity, refers to beliefs and values. In this sense, we can speak of a detachment of ethics (of the principles and rules of behavior), of religion, even if we generally understand it as supernatural. Many people reject religion as the foundation of morality, replacing it with values such as natural liberty, human dignity or simply complying with the laws of the country or community concerned for fear of the negative consequences that would result from their violation. On a personal level, secularization often leads to young people growing up in a social and family environment where the transcendent dimension is neglected, at the loss of the meaning of life, of the chance of a true salvation. In turn, they often lead to depression, self-destructive or antisocial manifestations.

Wilson (2000) identifies several functions of religion at the social level. One of the functions of religion refers to the fact that “myths and rituals allowed individuals to have collective feelings and to express a feeling of social unity” (Wilson, 2000: 44). In other words, religion maintains social cohesion, renews and deepens the perception about the community's own existence, as well as its legitimacy. The contemporary society, which, unlike the community, is characterized by impersonal,

rationalized relations, is increasingly pluralistic, both in cultural manifestations and in religion. The number of different denominations or sects has increased especially because of the waves of migration, which amplifies the ethnic and religious diversity within the nation-states. But even in areas where the phenomenon of migration did not occur, the process of religious diffusion appeared. For example, in many Asian countries there are Christian or Muslim religious minorities, which distinguish many different groups. The attitudes of these movements towards each other range from mutual ignorance to mistrust, rivalry or hostility, even if the ultimate values they adhere to are expressed in a similar way. It is precisely this diversity that alters, in present-day societies, the function of religion to enhance social cohesion.

A second function of religion is to provide a moral foundation, of supernatural origin, for social control. The existence of moral norms brings with it the behavioural sanctions: good deeds are rewarded, and bad ones are punished, divine justice is fully realized in the next life, but in the present, people bear the consequences of their deeds. Currently, in Western secular societies, behavioural control is no longer dependent on religious sanctions. The effect of secularization is all the more visible if we take into account the fact that European countries are the heirs of a Judeo-Christian tradition, and in this case the moral order of the societies was to the greatest extent supported by religious prohibitions and restrictions. Currently, it seems that the promise of eternal life, on the one hand, and the threat of eternal punishment, on the other hand, no longer represent strong psychic incentives for proper social behaviour. In the past, it was considered (under the influence of the ideas of Christianity) that people cannot achieve a perfect justice on earth, given their failure, neither in terms of laws (their quality and quantity) nor under their application. Therefore, the Church exhorted the rich and powerful to show compassion and generosity to the poor, an attitude worthy of the Lord's reward, as is evident from the Gospels. Also, to the poor, the Church urged them to be content with what they had, to have an attitude of obedience and respect for their social superiors and to believe that they would be rewarded for them in later life. In the contemporary world, the law covers many aspects regarding the disruption of social relations, but strictly personal moral issues (such as those related to sexuality) tend to fall outside the scope of the law. Hence the reduced place - compared to what was in the past - of religion in strengthening social control. At the same time, many technical issues have become the subject of legal control: those concerning contracts, possessions, economic exchanges, the status of associations, organizations, scientific discoveries, etc. This change leads to a new mentality about the process of socializing children: parents make much less appeal to religion when they try to induce their children moral attitudes. The current moral education is based on more and more pragmatic reasons, a calculation on the things that should be achieved or avoided. From this calculation "progressively disappear that diffused kindness towards people and that disinterested commitment that the old religion-inspired codes preached" (*ibidem*: 50).

Another function of religions is to provide an explanation of the physical universe, (though not all include a myth of creation), or allow people to ignore it, as in the case of Theravada Buddhism. Currently, no advanced society accepts the interpretations of religion regarding the physical universe, a role that has been taken over by science. The myths of creation are accepted only as allegories with symbolic meaning, recognizing them only as an aesthetic role.

Further, he shows that, as a fourth function, religion had the role of legitimizing the goals and procedures of society: it sealed the commitments made, it justified the wars, it explained the misfortunes, it represented the Supreme Court in disputes, it sanctioned certain relations and modes of action, it prescribed techniques with the role to support and arm people in the struggle with life's difficulties. Nowadays, wars, political parties, public disputes and business seek their legitimacy in sources other than religion. The major corporations are organized on an impersonal structure, and among the issues discussed are not the religious implications of their economic activity. For example, when considering the working conditions of the employees or the effects on the environment, the character of the discussion is not religious: they are not talking about the sin of destroying nature, but in terms of illegality or, in the happiest case, immorality of the pollution act. .

The fifth function of religion refers to its ability "to confer an identity on individuals and groups of individuals or to strengthen the sense of identity born of other types of human associations and affiliations" (pp. 45-46 In other words, in the case of individuals, religion answered the question "Who am I?", And in the case of groups – "Who are we?". The type of response offered by them has no meaning limited to a certain field of knowledge (psychological, sociological, biological, etc.), but reaches the highest level of generality, by defining the place of the individual or group in the cosmic order and in the perspective of eternity. Therefore, these answers of an absolute nature imply in the case of the advanced religions the acceptance of a metaphysical scheme of the world, each thing receiving its value within it. Although at present individuals and groups may seek support and confirmation in religion for their ideas about themselves, "modern nation-states are not based on religious legitimacy, possibly included in their constitutions" (p. 51). On the contrary, most societies in modern states share secular conceptions or are even based on explicitly atheistic philosophies, as is the case with communist states. Sociologists argue that in modernized pluralist societies conflicts do not occur precisely because the source of value consensus is no longer religion. In contrast, social and political tensions appear in societies that have stepped rapidly, from a great leap (not as in the West, in stages) into the era of contemporary technology. The explanation of the emergence of these tensions is represented by the sudden encounter between divergent orientations towards the world (traditional religious values face to face with pragmatic and instrumental inclinations), sometimes reaching anti-modern revolutionary movements.

Finally, a sixth function of religion is to be a factor for expressing and regulating emotions. The religious ritual facilitates the expression of emotions, and then manages them, offering the opportunity and the way to manifest them in a decent and controlled form. The source of human emotional needs is often the confrontation with the obstacles of life. Through the symbolic action of the rituals, religion spiritually exalts these emotions and gives them a solemn character. Today, significant competitive factors have emerged regarding the expression and regulation of emotions. Factors such as television, movies and pop music have a great ability to manipulate emotional life, especially since they have much more technically advanced channels of communication than those of religious groups. In addition, the attraction exerted by these factors is amplified by the fact that it offers contexts in which the emotional experience is completely separated by moral discourse, civic or social commitment. In the emotional contexts offered by elements such as those mentioned above, emotions can only be lived in a hedonistic way, only for the sake of personal pleasure; instead, within the religious framework, even if such satisfaction could be obtained, she always received the image of sober obligations. Modern factors rarely get used to emotions for moral reasons; rather, morality becomes an element of propaganda, being relativized by politicization. The current technological means ensure efficiency in this regard. Individuals no longer meet - as in the case of religious rituals - with those elements that integrated them into the community and at the same time established certain moral benchmarks. Having the role of liberation and emotional regulation in a social context, the emotional manifestations caused by rituals did not only concern the individual and they did not just focus on him. At present, the individual is alone in these manifestations and it is considered that - in the absence of a massive and express cultural consensus - it is up to him how he will achieve the socially acceptable balance. "The increasing spread of gambling, the manipulation of people's desire to win effortlessly, the supply, as well as the demand for pornography, growing larger and more undisguised, are indications of an efficient exploitation of people's emotions" (*ibidem*: 53). If the religious rituals are carried out according to a certain logic dictated by the religious calendar or they respond to the acute emotional needs of the people (in the traumatic situations of life), the new competition factors upset the emotionally dependent people. Because access to them is continuous, regardless of emotional needs and a certain rhythm, the emotional experience is trivialized. In other words, on the one hand, false needs are created, and on the other, true emotional needs are not adequately answered. The emotional organs of man are disturbed by the wide emotional manipulation and the effective control practiced on large sectors of the contemporary society. In this context, it can even happen that the process is irreversible, ie the old emotional dispositions induced by religion (when the emotion was put at the service of morality), it is impossible to revive. Having said that, can it still be said that emotion regulation continues to be a latent socially relevant latent function of religion?

The contemporary man is not more intelligent or rational than his ancestors, but he lives in a world that is subjected to an increasing degree of rational control. Being rational means having the right reactions to modern stimuli, and those reactions come to represent a certain mode of behavior, which replaces the one determined by reflexivity, value reason. There is pressure from the contemporary social system, in the sense of developing new techniques and of moving away from the type of moral education cultivated in the past. Accepting technological control, the individual learns to use rigorous cause-effect thinking, defending the risk of applying it more and more to his personal life, or in areas “where there are no direct pressures that require this kind of thinking” (*ibidem*).

The multiplication of international organizations and problems, the globalization of markets and capital, consumerism make the old religious forms do not find their place, and the strictly local traditions represent something foreign to modernity. Religious concerns are currently of low prestige because of their relativization, which can be attributed to the awareness of the great diversity of existing religious movements.

2.3. Religion as a value in the Romanian context

Religion, according to cross-cultural studies, is a very important value for Romanians. However, many issues remain to be clarified about this finding. Aspects related to the dynamics of this fact in historical and social context as well as about the particularities of the type of religiosity of the Romanians.

In terms of the dynamics of the status of religion as a social fact, on the historical line, we must refer to three reference moments in the logic of recent Romanian history: religion in Romanian society before the establishment of communism, during the communist regime and after 1989. It concerns both the official status of the religion, from the perspective of freedom of conscience and its restriction, as well as the type of development of the Romanian society in these three historical moments. In terms of cultural becoming, the three moments can be characterized as modelled societies, even if not completely determined, by the following types of generic mentalities: traditional mentalism, modern communist type mentality, postmodern mentality. Starting from here, we can more precisely circumscribe the type of religiosity of the Romanians and its axiological classification in a certain type of ethos, of effective value horizon.

In terms of terminology, we think it is good to make a distinction between religious politics in these historical moments and the religiosity not so much of Romanian as a generic term but of Romanians, or citizens living in Romania. Both in the aftermath of the establishment of communism and in the communist period, there was not so much talk about the values of the Romanians, but about the values of the Romanian. This is explained both by the methodology and theories about society specific to the end of the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century, when the idea of a psychology of the peoples was still accepted, as well as because

of the uniformist communist ideology, enhanced by the Romanian national-communism.

Paradoxically, both the inter-war period and the communist period had limiting characteristics in relation to the freedom of conscience of the citizens of Romania. During the interwar period, against the backdrop of the fascist ideology of the legionary type and of the exaltation of nationalism combined with orthodoxy, I had to deal with restricting the freedom of religious expression of Romanian citizens by confessions other than the Orthodox one. The inter-war period, from the perspective of the Romanians' religiosity, is an effervescent period on the social level, in which an attempt is being made for a kind of orthodox revival both at the level of the political ideologies of the time, and in particular the ideology of the Iron Guard, but also at the popular level, the case of Petrace Poenaru from Maglavit, or the emergence of the religious movement Oastea Domnului (Army of God) within the Romanian Orthodox Church. It is the period in which, following the defrocking of some Orthodox people with influence among the parishioners (it is the priest Tudor Popescu from Cuibul de Barza), here appears the first non-Protestant Romanian confession, later known as the Romanian Evangelical Church, spread especially in Muntenia, Muscel and Dâmbovița area. The diversity of religious types and religious experience will be heavily revealed and brought to light in the communist prisons, ironically becoming a place of dialogue and atonement for the representatives of all forms of religiousness in Romania (a good source of documentation in this regard is the memorialistic literature, see Nicolae Steinhard, Richard Wurmbrand, Ioan Ianelide, Sergiu Grossu).

During the communist period, the religious policy of the state was assumed to be one of restriction of freedom of conscience for all religious manifestations and cults. However, religiosity first as a fundamental human phenomenon and then as a psycho-social phenomenon could not be fully controlled. In communist Romania, the manifestation of religiosity and freedom of conscience during the communist period was of a particular character, perhaps more drastic than in other parts of the communist bloc (central European countries, Hungary, Poland, Czechoslovakia), but more permissive than in countries such as Albania or the USSR. In Romania, the communists, perhaps unconsciously, have finally accepted tacitly the religion as a sociological reality, a social form, which could be used to some extent in the policy of social control. Thus, in Romania, which was to be made clearer after 1989, the population was inclined to one form of religiosity or another to a much greater degree than in other European countries, be they from the former socialist camp or from the Western area. We have to deal with a phenomenon that remains to be explained, at least from the perspective of the secularization tendency in the European cultural space.

After 1989, the dynamics of religious manifestations in Romania acquire different trajectories and intensities compared to the communist period. On the one hand, through the "liberalization" of the religious domain, on the other hand, through Romania's exit from previous isolation and its integration into the broad

process of globalization with all its faces, multiculturalism, the growing influence of the technology of communication in people's life, the reality of the migratory phenomenon of the population of Romania and access to other cultural, religious pictures, etc.

Regarding the relevance of religion as a value for Romanians, we currently have the results of cross-cultural research EVS and WVS, as well as a series of studies on religion as value.

Thus, more research shows that Romania appears as one of the most religious countries (Gheorghiu, 2003; Halman, Draulans, 2004; Muller, 2004; Pollack, 2001, 2003, 2004, apud Voicu, 2007: 151). We are dealing with a process of revitalizing religiosity in the transition period. There are several hypotheses regarding the explanation of this phenomenon, hypotheses related to the degree of education of a society, and its determination to the general phenomenon of modernizing the society, economic development and well-being. In the context of the former communist states and the period of their transition to the capitalist economy and private property, a series of painful transformations took place at the social level, which created a mood of insecurity, a decrease in income and the standard of living, an indeterminacy with regard to the near future: "All these create a high degree of existential insecurity and may be the basis of the religious revitalization that was signaled in Central and Eastern Europe after the fall of communism" (Voicu, 2007). The existential insecurity of the individual in such a context represents a premise for its orientation to the domain of religion, which offers an explanatory framework, an existential meaning and support. Another explanation would be that with the collapse of the "Marxist orientation regimes it gave the possibility of manifesting religiosity publicly and paved the way for religious education and propaganda. The emergence of discussions on religious issues in the media, as well as the establishment of religious education, allowed the penetration of the knowledge related to religion at the population level and created the premises for a religious revitalization. Beyond the effects of the economic downturn or the liberalization of the market for religious goods, lifting the restrictions imposed on religious practice and faith may have contributed to the start of religious revitalization" (*Ibidem*: 156). The indicators for increasing religiousness in Romania are on the one hand the attendance of the church, and on the other hand the confidence of the population in the church. In the first case, the share of those who attend the church at least once a month from 31% in 1993 to 46% in 2005. Also, according to the sociological studies after 1990, the confidence of the population in the church has increased greatly, 88% in 2005 (Voicu, 2007).

This increase in church confidence and religiosity in Romania must also be linked to the change of religious policy after 1989, to measures such as the constitutional and factual guarantee of the freedom of conscience and the introduction as a school discipline of a new subject, Religion, from the first grade. Beyond these statistics, one must go deeper and investigate the degree of superficiality and intensity of religiosity, on the one hand, and the variety of types of

religiosity. At the level of the Romanian society, we have to do not rarely with a cognitive dissonance of the type “to do what the priest says, not what the priest does”. Also, when we talk about trust in an institution, we should see how it is outlined through clear coordinates in the collective mind, what expectations project the questioned subjects on it.

The approach of a research of religion as a value for Romanians is still topical from at least a few points of view: the emergence of new forms of religiosity in the context of globalization, the relation of this value with other values of Romanians (for example, family as value and the recent referendum between family), religion as a symbol and institutionalization in Romania (for example, the construction and recent inauguration of the Cathedral of the Nation)

Conclusion

As for the religion, according to the polls, Romanians are faithful people and have very high confidence in the church as an institution. In this case, however, the values following the assumption of religious behaviour must be investigated. Values such as godliness, honesty, self-help, and respect for the religious calendar, diligence, submission to authority, respect for marital life and fidelity to the life partner can be mentioned here. One can research quite interestingly the repair and prevalence of these subsequent values of religion according to religious cults and minorities.

The family, in turn, as a value, implies a series of attitudes that particularize the Romanians in relation to the populations from other countries. It is about the continuity of some aspects of the family that it establishes traditionally, for example the fact that Romanians still prefer the family constituted by marriage more than the family constituted on the basis of a civil partnership. One can also mention the existence of the extended family. On the other hand, there is an increasing influence of the modern social-economic way of life, claiming the right to family recognition, for example, among LGBT sexual minority partners. Other aspects of the family dynamics that value in today's society are the multiplication of the number of single-parent families, the abandonment or neglect of children due to the precarious economic situation and the migration of parents looking for a job abroad. The refusal, the lack of desire to proceed, the option for abortion is another valuable reality regarding the family in the current Romanian society.

Last but not least, an extremely interesting aspect can be represented by the relationship between the subsequent values of religion and those of the family. It can be discussed about the cultural modelling or remodelling of the family depending on the religious values, or on the contrary, by renouncing them on the basis of secularization.

In terms of both religion and family, in 2018, two major events took place regarding the value options and the attitudes of the population towards them. It is about the consecration of the Cathedral of the Salvation of the Nation and the referendum for the traditional family.

In the first case, the symbolic dimension of values can be exploited, the need to raise some grand buildings for the strengthening of identity values such as national belonging, Christianity as value and assumed cultural model.

Extremely interesting, at least through the intensity of the debates started in the Romanian society, was the referendum for the traditional family. The event brought into question the availability for tolerance and innovation regarding the family, but at the same time it highlighted the value of the family as the form of respecting the biological, procreative, educational, gender identity dimensions.

The research presented in this report remains to be deepened in the following stages in terms of data, the connection between them and the value options at the level of social groups or from the perspective of certain social fields. Also, during the next stages of the research we will focus on clarifying more deeply the theoretical and methodological dimension.

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LAND: A DETERMINING FACTOR FOR THE VILLAGE AS A HUMAN SETTLEMENT

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Abstract: *According to the classical definitions, village is the oldest form of human settlement consisting of houses and groups of people who earn their living from an established social space. Besides the features of an urban, economic, social, ethnographic and historical nature, the village is characterized by a certain type of activities based on the exploitation of resources by inhabitants. The principle of causality, one of the principles of human settlements, puts into question the determining factors for the emergence, evolution and disappearance of human settlements, and the precautionary principle refers to the risk factors (natural or anthropic) that limit or stop the evolution of a settlement. This article presents a series of public data from the concrete reality that could be useful theoretically in order to establish a causality between the distance of the inhabitants on the earth, as their main resource of existence, and the disappearance of their forms of settlement, that is the disappearance of the determining factor becomes a risk factor.*

Key words: *Romanian village; European village; land; human settlements; agriculture.*

Introduction

The Romanian scientist Simion Mehedinți appreciated land as being the education house of the human race (Mehedinți, 1943). For villages, as forms of human settlements, the land, as a source and resource of existence, represented the determining factor of their formation, evolution and development, of their lifestyle, of their standard of living (Pricină in Otovescu, coord., 2010). From this point of view, no scientific analysis or research on the topic of the reform or crisis of the European village can be final without referring the inhabitants of this space to the determining factor that is the land and to the direct and indirect aspects generated by this report (Stahl, 1939:37).

From this point of view, on a number of occasions, when the need for reforms aimed at this space was brought into discussion in the public space, a number of opinion leaders asked the question whether there is anyone to listen also to the opinion of the peasants, because, usually, the political scenery changes but, when the music stops, one thing shall not be changed: those in power, as well as those who write about public affairs, shall continue to come from big cities and, as a result, the natural environment shall continue to be unrepresented. As there

are voices in the space of the European village that are not heard in any of the national debates. Those living in the countryside have the experience of generations of rural life and are often intelligent people, but, in the last 30 - 40 years, they have been marginalized. Portrayed in the metropolitan media in a simplistic, caricature way - greedy, whining, grabby, "simple" - peasants are rarely invited to express their views on the modified appearance of the natural environment. So, at a time when great decisions are being made regarding the natural environment, the voices of environmentalists, entrepreneurs, settlers, even of the huge city army who invaded the "rural" area (with their villas) are heard, covering with their ruckus those of those who try, harder and harder, to earn their living from the land. The society is totally controlled by "city boys" and peasants are not "devoted to media games", an obvious trend since the 19th century, with the processes of industrialization and urbanization (Thomas, Znaniecki, 2016/1918).

Deeply connected to the world of the land, they are not shelling to do emotional exhibitionism regarding the defense of animals, preferring to do their job with the maximum of humanity (as they have done for thousands of years). There is still a sense of shame in the countryside, a tradition of not getting in the way of another, assuming that he / she shall treat you with the same common sense - which disadvantages the peasants in today's world of busybodies. The perspective of the farmer with a sense of responsibility is complex and not likely to find his / her place in the fairy tales of the media and on the corridors of power. Livestock is a source of food, but it must be treated with respect. The fields themselves have to pay for the work, but not be drained.

We live in an obvious hypocrisy. We rather not think about the animals killed for our soup. But we take care that peasants produce meat "in a human way", leaving commercial networks to get rich by cheap imports at the expense of animal welfare. We take care of foxes, ferrets, but we do not think for a moment about the frightening practices of poultry farms and slaughterhouses. Around 1995, at the congress of a political party in Romania, half of the hall stood up and came out ostentatiously, when a country teacher, dressed up in a peasant costume, came to speak. Whoever has heard the kind and intelligent words of the rural teacher would surely have remembered them every time he / she saw drought or other calamities that overtook the world. Out of which the lack of shame is not the last one.

1. The role of local communities in the exploitation of the land

The basis of the Romanian society is the agriculture and the small peasant household (Otovescu et al., 2010), but, for this, the peasant or the farmer must be free and master on his / her land, the most valuable wealth Romania has, a fact recognized by at least all the political decision-makers.

In March 2016, Romania's Prime Minister Dacian Cioloș, a former European commissioner for agriculture, stated that, in Romania, there is a bipolar agriculture, with very large farms, where there is also very much poverty, "which says certain things about, probably, the efficiency of land use on larger areas, therefore, efficiency in increasing the yield of agricultural production, but, unfortunately, a negative impact on the development of local communities, which, if we ignore the agriculture, there is not much left over there" (Guvernul României, 2016) and there are subsistence farms or subsistence households, where one produces from one year to another the quantity necessary to that family, to cover its need for consumption and possibly to sell a surplus.

"On the other hand, what I have found, while I was in Brussels for five years, is that, practically, without exception, I think, there is no country with an important agriculture and agrifood sector in Europe that does not base its development on the agricultural and agrifood sector in the family farm. Of course, there is now the development of corporate agriculture, that of the company, as they say, but also by the evolution of the family farm. So the core, so far, the model in the EU, the high performance model of agriculture development, which also has an impact on rural and local development, this model is the family farm, family farming. And that is exactly what is missing from us and what Romania has not been able to consolidate for 25 years. And I would like not to see, at least I don't see the development of the middle class and that of the family farm as a reaction against big farms or against the farm or subsistence farms. I think it should be a natural evolution, but this evolution should be framed and must be accompanied by some adapted measures. In a wild environment, if I can say so, from a legal, legislative, fiscal and judicial point of view, the family farm shall not grow. In order to be strengthened, this model needs some sort of framing and support. And that's exactly what we want to do by this program, by this package" (The speech of the Prime Minister Dacian Cioloș at the conference "Package of measures for the development of the middle class in villages", 2016).

Regarding the reporting of the community to land, the former prime minister of Romania says he wants the land to be used by local communities, "because it is a resource that you can hardly get from elsewhere - and it cannot, practically, get it from another part", and even more, no one can use it better than the respective community (*Ibidem*).

"If you lose it, once you have given up such a resource, you can hardly get it back. But whatever laws we may give at a national level to legislate the sale of land to foreigners, whatever laws we may give, these laws cannot replace your desire, that of the owners, to sell or not the land, to sell it or to use it locally. So this resource - it is important to underline it - this resource must first make us aware that we have it and have the courage to undertake it. And I would also like to send the message of the mayors who are here, in the room, and who hear me: do not facilitate at any cost the sale of land until you have made every effort to exploit that land in the village, with local communities. Of course, it is probably

easier to get some support when a foreigner comes to buy the land and ask you to regroup it for them to sell it. But think about the fact that in that way you sell a resource belonging to the community that you can't bring back afterwards. No matter how many foreign investors you may bring in, those foreign investors cannot exploit the land better than local communities can exploit it. So, think about it very well and I can assure you that you shall have all the support of the Government, with the measures available to us, to give you the opportunity to organize yourself to work your land, but think that this is the first resource from which you start when you want to develop your communities and that the first responsibility to act in such a way that the land remain and be exploited by local communities is in your hands, that of mayors, and you know very well the reason for which I say it. So I hope we shall be partners here and there is nobody who calls out that, because of the Government, the land is being sold to foreigners and to find out that, in some places, it is too late to do anything else" (*Ibidem*).

2. Land exploitation in Romania: statistical data

In Romania, the surface of agricultural land exploited by foreign natural and legal persons was 422.000 hectares, at the end of 2018, with 793 persons registered using these lands, according to the data provided by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (2019).

In terms of provenance, most people came from Italy - 194, Germany - 80 persons, France - 33, Austria - 31 persons, Holland - 28, Spain - 23, Belgium - 17, Denmark - 16 and Greece - 10 persons etc.

Regarding the sale of agricultural land in Romania, the operational data of the Ministry of Agriculture, according to the procedure provided by the Law no. 17/2014, shows that, last year, 154.076,23 hectares were sold, almost similarly to 2017, respectively 153.927,46 hectares. Last year, a total of 149.546 tenders were submitted for the sold area, and, in 2017 – 149.767 tenders.

MADR statistics from the last years show that, in 2014, 58.875,14 hectares of agricultural land were sold, in 2015 – 172.353,79 hectares, and in 2016 – 144.350 hectares. In 2019, until the 30th of April, 48.746,67 hectares of agricultural land were sold, the number of tenders submitted being 50.304 (Agerpres, 2019).

Currently, at the level of the Parliament, there is a legislative initiative that shall regulate the sale of agricultural land in Romania, and which aims to amend and supplement the Law no. 17/2014. It was transmitted for report to the standing committees of the Chamber of Deputies, as a decision-making chamber, with a view to exercising parliamentary control and finalizing the parliamentary procedure. The legislative proposal aims to establish the right of preemption in this order: co-owners and relatives of the first degree, the landlord / the owners of agricultural investments for the crops of fruit trees, vines and hops, of owners

of neighboring agricultural lands, of young farmers, ASAS, units of research as well as the Romanian state, by the State Property Agency.

With regard to the preemption right of tenant farmers who want to buy agricultural land, they must first have the status of a tenant farmer, according to the agricultural lease signed and registered at least one year before the date of listing of the sale tender; tenant farmers - natural persons must prove the domicile / the residence located on the national territory, established for a period of 5 years prior to the registration of the tender; tenant farmers - legal persons: associates / shareholders to prove the domicile / the residence located on the national territory established for a period of 5 years, prior to the registration of the sale tender; legal persons tenant farmers, having as shareholding another / other legal person / persons, their associates to prove the social / secondary headquarters located on the national territory established for a period of 5 years. The legislative initiative stipulates that, in the case of the preemptive owners of neighboring lands, the owner of the neighboring land with the large side of the land offered for sale has priority; in the case of owners of neighboring lands that meet the same conditions, the young farmer with the residence established on the national territory for a period of 1 year takes precedence.

Also, there are following the neighboring agricultural land owners who have a common border - in descending order of the length of the common border with the land in question, and if the large side or one of the equal sides of the land has the common border with a land situated within another administratively territorial unit, the priority when buying the land belongs to the neighboring owner with the residence / the registered office and / or the secondary headquarters located within the administratively territorial unit where the land is located. As for young farmers, the young farmer who carries out livestock activities with the fulfillment of the condition regarding the residence established on the national territory for a period of 1 year has priority in buying the land subject to sale. In the case of the exercise of the right of preemption by young farmers, the priority for the purchase of the land subject to the sale belongs to the young farmer who carries out activities in animal husbandry, by complying with the condition regarding the domicile / the residence established on the national territory for a period of one year. The main conditions for natural persons potential buyers are: the domicile (the residence) located on the national territory established for a period of at least 5 years, prior to the registration of the sale tender; to carry out agricultural activities on the national territory for a period of at least 5 years, prior to the registration of this tender; to be registered by the Romanian tax authorities with a minimum of 5 years prior to the registration of the sale tender and to have studies in the agricultural field.

In the case of legal entities, they must have the registered office and / or the secondary office located on the national territory established for a period of at least 5 years, prior to the registration of the sale tender; to carry out agricultural activities on the national territory for a period of at least 5 years, prior to the

registration of this tender. Also, legal entities must have the documents stating that out of the total income of the last 5 fiscal years, at least 75% represents an income from agricultural activities, and the associations must prove the residence located on the national territory established for a period of at least 5 years, prior to the registration of the sale tender of agricultural land located in the outskirts. In case the shareholding is another legal entity, their associates shall prove the residence located on the national territory established for a period of at least 5 years, before the registration of the sale tender.

Other conditions provided in this legislative initiative to amend and supplement the Law no. 17/2014 regarding the sale of lands aim to the prohibition of alienation by sale, for a period of 15 years from the date of purchase; the sale before the 15-year deadline is made only to the Romanian state; the unitary application of the procedure provided by the normative act regarding the observance of the preemption right and the increase of terms; establishing the unique national Register regarding the movement and the destination of agricultural lands located in the outskirts; the conclusion of the documents by which the ownership right is transferred (payment, establishment as a contribution to the share capital of a company or for any other legal act between the living by which another real right is transferred or constituted to ensure the possession and the use of agricultural land located in the outskirts, by the circumvention of the Law no. 17/2014, is sanctioned by absolute nullity.

“The evaluations carried out with regard to the application of the law and the developments on the land market have identified issues that imply the need to amend the conditions of sale of agricultural land, so that young people have access to the land market, to achieve economic exploitations that produce for the market, the consolidation of agricultural lands, as well as the diminution of the acquisition of agricultural land on the land market for speculative purposes”, it is shown in the explanatory memorandum of the Draft Law for amending and supplementing the Law no. 17/2014. Regarding the land registry of agricultural lands for which subsidies are obtained from APIA, according to the data of the National Agency for Land Registry, until the 1st of March 2019, 3,87 million hectares, respectively 40%, were registered.

3. Experience of Western European farmers exploiting land in Romania

“Out of the total of 9,57 million ha of agricultural land subject to APIA subsidies, 3,87 million hectares (40%) were registered in the integrated land registry and real estate register system (40%) and approximately 4,10 million hectares (43%) are contracted, with the term of completion the end of 2019, respectively the beginning of 2020, which represents about 83% of the total area subsidized by APIA”, it is specified by the representatives of MADR (Agerpres, 2019).

Romania has a total agricultural area of 14.630.072 hectares, out of which in private property 13.699.725 ha (93.6%), while the arable area is 9.395.303 hectares, out of which in private property 8.940.204 hectares (95,1%).

Since 2010, in the Western media, there were articles discussing the issue of fertile land in Romania and the opportunities it offers, for Western farmers, the agricultural land in Romania representing a manna from Heaven (Ziare.com, 2014), and today it is impossible to cross Romania without meeting foreigner farmers who make agriculture in Romanian villages increasingly depopulated and abandoned.

In 2014, the newspaper *Le Monde* made a report on “the sweet attraction of Romanian green pastures, an agricultural Eldorado in Europe, with about 10 million hectares of agricultural land, out of which one third is cultivated by western farmers”, presenting the case to a French farmer, by his name Maxime Laurent, who came with machinery and bought land around the commune of Macesu de Sus of the county of Dolj (Le Monde, 2014). The Frenchman cultivated wheat, barley, sunflower and rapeseed, he was considering a project for which he received European funds in order to have good conditions for the storage of 7.000 tons of products and the irrigation of 500 hectares of crops.

Together with his life partner from Romania, he built a nice house in the village and they have an apartment in Craiova. “Here, from the age of 19, I have started to run a 1.400 ha farm. In order to do in France what I have achieved in Romania in three years, it was required the work of three generations. In the first months, I felt overwhelmed. If I remained in France, what would I have done today? I would have finished my studies and found a job for a maximum of 1.200 euros a month. You pay your taxes, bills, you eat, you get dressed and, at the end of the month, you have almost nothing left. As far as I am concerned, you can’t call this a life”, that was what the French man told reporters (*ibidem*).

Conclusions

The land, as a determining factor for the village as a human settlement, has ceased to be considered a heritage, in order to become progressively a working tool, by changing itself, above all, into an immobilized equity from which a financial return is expected. In this context, it would be necessary to conduct extensive research on the theme of relation between the distancing of village inhabitants from land, as the main resource of their existence, and the disappearance of these forms of human settlement.

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THE ROLE OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract: *This article approaches the idea that a community always stands to gain if public-private sector collaboration projects are developed within its territory and to its members' benefit. Financial, material and human resources, if efficiently combined and used can lead to community problem solving. Public-private sector partnership is a method of collaboration between public authority and the private sector, i.e. non-governmental organizations, in order to implement a project which positively influences local development. Public-private sector partnership can lead to faster implementation of a program for planned investments, as they can add quite substantial extra financing to the traditional budget programs. Also, it is beneficial to usefully combine public with private sector expertise in order to thoroughly assess projects and ensure project growth. Public-private partnership can also ensure social welfare and it is a means to attaining multiple goals: reducing public expenses, public services improvement, more efficient public administrative activity, which should generate truly less expensive management with qualitative and more efficient programmes.*

Key words: *partnership; growth; community welfare; commitment decisions; civil society*

Introduction

Within the Romanian social services there is an on-going changing process, accelerated by adoption of the Social Welfare Law no. 292/2011. Service decentralization, more efficient use of existent services, exploring new means of financing developing local services, and also providing more diverse services were priorities of the law, although these were also affected by the financial crisis and its toll on local budgets. Furthermore, these measures have not been accompanied by unitary methodologies nationwide, which would allow local authorities to give a complex diagnosis of social needs, to accurately allocate the needed budgets, or to efficiently monitor them.

People's need for social service is continually growing. As everywhere, the financial crisis (Otovescu et al., 2011), the unemployment of youth and the elder generation (45 and over), economic migration of the people, as well as population ageing have led to new necessities and phenomena, requiring active measures, flexible, fast, both locally and nationally, so as to be able to guaranty decent living conditions and fundamental rights of citizens (Zamfir in Otovescu, coord., 2010).

Many of the current social issues cannot be efficiently handled by a single actor or civil society, either governmental, or private, which is why we admit the fact that governments can no longer deal with occurrent social issues on its own, that the private sector must take on social responsibilities, and that civil society must play a more important part. One of the government's objectives in the last decades has been cost reducing, without decreasing the number of services.

Lately, in Romania there has been an increased attention for public and private sector cooperation, with regards to social policies. An increased willingness and ability of the private sector to take over a number of the government's social responsibilities has led to increased efforts to reach objectives and implement projects through an overall cost efficiency and social service quality improvement.

The starting point in developing various forms of partnership is one of the most important principles of social assistance: social collaboration as a means of achieving and assessing social assistance action. Extremely relevant for a successful partnership is pairing its implementation with other principles of social assistance: social solidarity, universal right to social assistance, providing warranty that it is accessible to everyone, flexible social assistance solutions and ensuring they meet the real needs of the individual or family; validating independence and personality autonomy, honouring human dignity.

1. The partnership concept and public-private partnership

From a historical point of view, the partnership appeared as a consequence of the need to replace the common conflict between union and management, potentially destructive, with a partnership model, which identifies common objectives on both sides and targets mutual agreement, acceptable for both participants. This partnership represented a new principle of democracy, replacing disagreement with agreement. Consequently, we can speak of social partners who, for mutual understanding and acceptance of interests, lay down common objectives and engage in negotiations regarding how they can be achieved.

The partnership with the civic society has become a common problem amongst public institutions and non-government organizations activating in different areas of social life. Although the public-private partnership is increasingly being confirmed as a cost efficient solution for solving various types of problems that occur nationwide or locally, defining this term tends to be controversial in published literature. Nevertheless, a broadly accepted definition refers to any type of cooperation or initiative between at least two sides, with the purpose of achieving cooperation, where the partners clearly state their parts and responsibilities in organizing common interest activities for the society. "Authentic partnership involves, at least in theory, tight collaboration and combining specific advantages of the private sector (more efficient and more competitive) and the public sector (with responsibilities towards society and its finances)" (Lambru, 2004).

Thus, partnership can be defined as a contractual lawful bind, which exists between two entities considered to be the main associates in a business.

A more complex definition considers partnership to be formed of collaborative activities of interested groups, based on mutual acknowledgement of strengths and weaknesses of the two partners, who work together in order to meet commonly set goals, developed through efficient communication.

With regards to the public-private partnership, the contractual relationship is decided between a partner from the public sector and a partner from the private one. This agreement generally involves a central or local governmental institution which contracts a private partner in order to modernize, build, administrate, coordinate or manage a facility or system providing a public service. In this agreement the public agency or institution can keep its management, while the private side invests capital in order to form and develop the public system's abilities (Zamfir, Stanescu, coord., 2007).

Considering all these, a partnership takes place when there are common goals and it is initiated in order to implement objectives that have been agreed upon by all the parties; when there is agreement concerning the initial activities; actions are set based on the strengths of both sides; actions that lead to overcoming of weaknesses, which can require hiring consultancy and sharing knowledge and expertise (Yidan, 2000).

In general, in a community or area facing major social exclusion problems, such partnership is not formed spontaneously, as local actors do not possess in these cases the energy and abilities to mobilize and promote virtual partners. In most cases outer stimuli are needed to engage local energies. The start of such process requires negotiation in order to create a general consensus so as to implement a follow-up strategy or operational plan, with these being elaborated within the partnership. The partnership formed for a local development project meant to solve a certain social problem has the advantage of involving most economical, social, and political actors, also the causing factors of that social problem. For example, a corporation which, due to its activity, is a polluting factor can get involved, through partnership with environment protection public institutions and other actors from the community, in a project about social responsibility (*Ibidem*).

Internationally, a partnership takes place in a three-part dialogue system between social partners (private-syndicate-government, the latter having been lately replaced in the EU countries by NGOs, according to the European model). Such are the Economic Social Councils, which have appeared as a consequence of the 144/1976 Convention of the International Labour Organization regarding written consultancy, meant to promote international work regulations enforcement. In order to be able to eradicate, write and implement efficient policies, the government needs the support of important social groups, since community actors' willingness and stability facilitates policy elaboration, ensures their efficient enforcement and, finally generates substantial decrease of public resource consumption.

This is why the public-private partnership, viewed as a means developing new policies has lately seen an increase in Romania regarding various forms of public service. Developing various forms of public-private partnership has been possible due to a number of determining factors, both political and economic (Zamfir, Stanescu, coord., 2007). Among the most relevant determining factors are:

1. Community involvement in producing collective well-being and the impact of these changes on the social programmes
2. Applying the concept of citizen and social involvement, extremely important in the context of producing the status of social wellness
3. Implementing the concept of government reform in the context of public sector reform.

The ability of a public institution is defined not only by its inside organization, but also by how it is connected to society, whose issues must be dealt with through proper policies, oriented towards its welfare and involving all community actors. Contemporary Western tendency is ending governmental monopoly over social policies and guiding it towards the non-profit sector and towards local community.

However, for this, public institutions must give up monopoly over all social services, allowing local non-governmental organizations to take over some activities in the service of community needs. Central and local public administration releases a number of specific activities concerning social services management to non-governmental institutions through various types of contracts, from subsidies and grants to privatise some services. This strategy promotes the principle of local empowerment, which gives greater responsibilities to local collectivities, delegating authority and decreasing administrative centralization.

Governmental and public institutions' role is to regulate legislation, establish strategies, monitor their implementation, without directly interfering (law no. 233/2016 regarding public-private partnership- currently abolished; Emergency Ordinance No. 39/2018 from May 10th 2018 on public-private partnership). The government establishes the achievement criteria that must be met by those who will be providing the respective service. Furthermore, a number of responsibilities are released regarding funds for benefice granting. The financial resources will no longer be central, as they will be provided by local budgets; for this, it is absolutely necessary that this budget is balanced in such a manner that it can give citizens the benefits stated by law.

"The process of decentralization has opened more opportunities to promote a complex public-private partnership system that is wider within public administration, local collectivities, and NGOs" (Petrescu, 2007: 409). Promoting partnerships between the public administration and other social actors, including non-government organizations, for clarifying community issues, a collaboration which involves extremely complex and vast areas, oscillating between collaboration and pressure, has become an objective for the public institution. Non-governmental organizations are a mediator between the government and the people, placing decision making outside the narrow frame of the political elite, organizing a public

dialogue on the key topics of community development. Non-governmental organizations are characterized by a greater mobility regarding their method and course of action.

Their dynamics is relevant for the community's possibility to react fast to its own needs, catalysing resources which public administration does not have. Due to this self-organizing and managing ability, to the acquired professionalism, non-governmental organizations are significant human and intellectual resources, which can contribute to the creation of government policies in the most diverse areas. Those who initiate and develop such partnerships must be skilful administrators and managers. "The manager of the future is proving to be an active, intuitive, inventive leader, who is acting like a revitalizing motivating force" (Constantinescu, 2004: 202) for the collectivities or community which they look after.

2. Social contracting

The public administration reform, known as the New Public Management, which took place in the '80s in countries like the United States or the UK, brings about the idea of creating an 'entrepreneurial government' which would use its resources to maximize efficiency and productivity. An organizing financing reform was thus suggested, as well as assigning some responsibilities to private actors and public service privatization. Reinventing governing involves adopting solutions based on market mechanisms, but also restating government efficiency to them. In a globalizing world, with states whose national budgets are insufficient, and citizens' expectations are increasing, public issues cannot be handled by one single actor (Lambriu, Marginean, 2004).

Partnership is a type of connection between entities with common or compatible missions, and which have decided to work together for a specific purpose and for a given period of time. Collaboration, cooperation and team work, the base of any partnership, are considered successful strategies not only for governmental organizations, but also for public and private ones. Financers are aware of this and their initial conditions are availability of funds and forming partnerships. The latter is important not only for its effect of increasing organizational capacity, but also for its level of representativeness.

The public-private partnership, involving public institutions, the private sector, and the civil society, is internationally confirmed as a method of overcoming diverse social problems- medical care, education, social protection, human trafficking, corruption, etc. each actor's role within the public-private partnership in terms of providing social solutions is :

- *Public administration role*: correction of market failure (when needs tend to increase due to market failure, government action is needed); during the transition period social services had to be diversified in order to address beneficiaries' needs; as NGOs could offer services to a small number of individuals, public authorities involvement was needed, and they financed

NGOs so that the respective services could be completed; providing help to the poor; setting and meeting service quality standards; achievement standards, necessary to ensure public service quality; cost control.

- *Private sector role*: improving service quality in order to retain clients; client relations improvement; management improvement; developing new services (Petrescu, 2007).

3. Methods of improving consulting mechanisms and decision making in the area of social services planning and financing

Although in Romania public-private dialogue is still poor, especially with regards to planning, managing and financing social services, it is mandatory that we continue in order to diversify social services in agreement with population's increasing requirements, targeting system decentralization and forwarding social responsibility to local collectivities.

Given that in Romania the civil society is not greatly involved in decision making regarding community social needs, we must raise awareness amongst social service providers and certain beneficiary group representatives, regarding taking part in local decisions about using public funds in the social services department.

Also, investment in civic education involvement is useful, as well as training for planned involvement of members of non-profit organizations providing social services, or those representing groups of individuals liable to undergo marginalization and exclusion. Primarily urgent is nationwide initiation of involved assessment of social needs, in agreement with law no. 292/2011; within this need-assessment mechanism, both private (non-profit) social service providers, representing various professional categories involved in social and integrating services, and beneficiaries and potential beneficiaries must be real dialogue partners for public authorities in order to define investment priorities and develop local services. Thus, it is necessary to organize a public consulting session at least once a year as well as meetings with all social service providers within a community in order to periodically update local social service status. Moreover, during these meetings unaccredited providers can be invited. It is also necessary that non-governmental organizations be more involved in local committees and county councils for yearly social services budget planning.

Initial partnerships should be designed for long-term collaboration, should be based on partnership agreements or contracts and also have clear objectives with expected results allowing periodical assessment, while authorities should stimulate citizen involvement in decision making and public meetings. Non-government partnerships must be thought of as an attempt to improve community resources (with regards to expertise, the number of volunteers they bring, the number and quality of implemented services, etc.).

Non-government organizations must be willing to form central work groups, in order to speed up the process of clarifying and explanation of the existent legal frame, for the particular cases of social or integrated services.

With small towns and villages, there is a need for government financing of social services covering an option of minimum social services, which should be properly adjusted to local needs and intervention priorities decided upon locally. Furthermore, there is a great need for a specially designed financing plan from the government to local budgets; this mechanism is considered especially useful in small towns and villages. In addition, it is suggested that there is need for a greater availability of public funds financing, of personnel expenses financing from private funds. These are strictly correlated to service quality and thus they are expenses indispensable to the well- functioning of the service. Any cost reduction causes lack of service quality.

However, mainly using central budget funds in order to finance public services, as opposed to almost completely financing NGOs services through local budgets, is a dysfunctional mechanism which significantly affects the social services system. A valid solution may be a financing system specifically designed for local social services, which authorities could also use in case of externalizing the services.

As for financing certain service categories or activities, a number of measures could be considered, such as: introducing mandatory insurance; involving the National House of Health Insurance and the Ministry of Health in joint intersectoral responsibility, especially concerning care services for elderly, (neuro)psychiatric or physically affected individuals; involving the education system in joint intersectoral responsibility regarding child and youth care financing, especially in isolated, underdeveloped rural areas; a more substantial financing for prevention services in all beneficiaries categories.

Also needed are budgets for uninterrupted personnel training, available to both public and private services personnel. At the same time, social services provided by non-governmental non-profit organizations for inhabitants in a given town (thus relieving our state from substantial expenses) should be financed accordingly by the local budget (salaries for skilled personnel, food, and maintenance). With financing social services out of central or county public budgets, a direct system should be developed, especially for the rural area; in other words, providing safe financing for the rural area in order to avoid local funds embezzlement or misappropriation.

Regarding diversification of local social services, as currently their range is quite narrow, especially with the elderly and adults with disabilities, legislation does not create opportunities for social innovation (for example, there are only two types of home care services in Arges county), and, in general, the services provided by mobile professional teams, multidisciplinary mainly, are facing significant financial challenges.

An altogether different aspect is the need for a more judicious use of the infrastructure available to administrative-territorial units. An exact inventory of available locations would show that there are facilities where non-profit private structures could develop social services. However, this would require additional rehabilitation and upgrading expenses in order to meet mandatory minimal quality standards, and neither Town Halls nor non-government providers can afford these.

In Romania, the public-private dialogue is still very poor, with regards to planning, managing and financing local social services. Furthermore, an important number of non-government social services providers are facing financial instability and consequently impossibility to guarantee long-term quality service for their beneficiaries. A real growth of the social services cannot be done exclusively based on local council budgets, as it is currently required. Since these budgets are seriously affected by flawed tax collecting, and moreover by the on-going developing and diversification of social services, the available budget funds are utterly insufficient. Thus, an absolute priority would be adding new public budget systems for local services to the already existing ones.

Conclusions

The main aspects to be considered with public-private sectors relationship are subjected to the institutional barriers (mainly legal), as well as to human resource training within public administration. We can safely state that in Romania this partnership is in an early stage, especially with common interest investments. How certain local authorities have dealt with public-private partnership responsibilities, either by creating an office, or by designating an employee within various departments of the Town Hall, proves that a unitary institutional approach for these types of projects is still missing. There is also reluctance from the public sector in using public-private partnership, as there are not clearly stated decision-making responsibilities within the Town Halls. Given that this is an early stage of partnership, public sector representatives tend to leave most of the risks to the private sector, which renders the collaboration less attractive. In order to gain trust in this type of projects, more examples of success would be necessary, in order to inform the beneficiary public about achieving project goals, together with identification of generating causes of existing problems and the means to overcome them. Another reason which has thus far led to private system reluctance to partner up with the public sector is finances. A project would involve substantial amounts, and the monetary constraints are caused by the low financial force of the private system on the one hand (mainly considering Romanian investors), and low financial risk coverage on the other. In this respect, there is the possibility of legal fiscal and administrative measures for private investors. Analysing and eliminating institutional barriers thus far encountered by initial projects, better communication between partners, as well as between service providers and beneficiaries, promoting successful projects, are only a few recommendations that could make public-private

partnership more attractive. The experience both sides have acquired will be useful in the future, and this partnership will be developing on a wide scale, not only in large communities (towns and cities), but also in small ones (villages) where he impact could be bigger.

A community always stands to gain if public-private projects are developed on its territory, and to its members' benefice. Financial, human, and material resources, when combined and efficiently used, can lead to community problems overcoming or alleviating. This partnership is the collaboration between public authority and the private sector, non-governmental organizations respectively, in order to implement a project with a positive impact on local development.

Thus, the public-private partnership can lead to faster implementation of planned investment program, as these can provide substantial additional finances, complementary to the traditional budget one, but there is also a possibility of sharing the risks with the private partner, of reducing costs throughout the entire project. Also useful is the possibility to share expertise in the most efficient manner, in order to thoroughly assess projects and optimize their span.

Public-private partnership introduces a new paradigm to ensuring social welfare and is a means to multiple ends: reducing public expenses, improving public service quality, improving public administration activity, increasing efficiency of policies. It stimulates political control, management freedom, and public administration transparency, the latter having to generate less expensive management, with qualitative services and efficient programmes.

In order to ensure an efficient partnership it is extremely important to improve partners' knowledge and ability to develop and commit to participating in whole processes targeting public policy improvement. Yet, public-private partnership currently requires public institutions management reform.

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DEMOGRAPHIC CRISIS AND DEPOPULATION IN RURAL AREAS

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Abstract: *The presented article establishes a series of essential coordinates regarding the demographic crisis and the depopulation in the rural area of our country, drawing attention to the fact that the Romanian village has always proved a landmark of our troubled history, that hidden secret of the soul of our Romanian nation. It was emphasized that Romania gives us the image of a country with an ever poorer population, increasingly old and more prone to migration to other countries, in search of a job, this being true, especially in the case of young people. In this way, a negative natural increase is recorded, which leads to the capture of phenomena and socio-demographic processes that attract attention and concern, especially when the results of the population census are underlined and interpreted. It becomes increasingly obvious that the villages, with their windows in which the collective memory breaks, seem to plunge into a valley of desolate carelessness, when impossibility seems to have included those who can, but will not, like those who they want, but cannot do something concrete for the benefit of the community. This causes the majority of the population to lose their identity and be reduced to the indoctrinated herd state and oriented in a specific direction to mass psychology.*

Key words: *demographic crisis; migration; aging population; collective memory; rural communities; demographic osmosis; socio-demographic processes; migration phenomena.*

Introduction

From the perspective of the demographic crisis in the European space, with a clear demographic explosion in the south of the continent, due to the flows of Afro-Asian migrants and with a demographic deficit in the north of the continent, if we analyze the arrival of a large number of immigrants in a country, we find that this is equivalent to the effect of the birth of a significant number of children by the population of the respective country, because both at the territorial level, but, especially at the demographic level, the indigenous population stops births due to immigrants.

This is one of the conclusions that can be reached from studying the migration phenomena of today. The pessimistic prophecies of the self-liquidation of the European identity are proving more and more insistent in different sharpnesses, even talking about the dissolution of the spiritual landmarks of some nations!

Like an arch over the frontiers of the time, as a corolla that crowns the succession of generations, the Romanian village proves a landmark of our shaken history, that hidden secret of the soul of the Romanian people, the unaltered reflection of the green of the plains, of the forests on the hills or of the fir trees, mountain, so beautifully found in the crystal clear of the mirror of the running waters

and the source of the springs, through the repeated experiences of the succession of seasons and of the rich woolen fruits, associated with the fresh smell of mossy hay or of the flowering apple in which the rich and perennial scents abound of the ancestral land.

1. Knowledge of present realities

In the constant effort to harmonize with the most refined and purifying tastes that are not disputed, but, too often only discussed, it seems that sometimes the outline of the "eternity that was born in the village" is supplemented by pure white or so brightly colored of the popular harbor, by the doina of mourning, sung near the flame of the sheep by the whistle or by the shepherds' horse, by the smoke that snakes on the misty sky of the long winter nights, by the booze that refreshes the forehead of the man in the hot summer evenings, through the dew that starts off with dreamlike brilliance in the mornings started earlier than anywhere else in the world, through the hours that are set for weddings or other holidays, all complementing what we have left from a picture of eternity in the village, through the bead of the images lived and always recreated in the cycles of life that always crown the dawn of seasons.

In analyzing the problem of depopulation of the rural environment, it becomes more and more important to identify the role that sociological investigation can play in the deeper knowledge of the causes of this phenomenon, especially since "sociological studies usually focus on the knowledge of present realities" (Otovescu, 2009: 22) and the characteristics of open systems, most often make impossible a supposed tendency to uniform.

Thus, for almost three decades, so, during the so-called transition period, after 1989, Romania gives us the image of a country with an ever poorer population, increasingly old and more prone to migration to other countries, in search of a place of work, this being true, especially in the case of young people. In this way, there is a negative natural increase, which leads to the analysis of phenomena and socio-demographic processes that attract attention and concern, especially when the results of the population census are underlined and interpreted.

Statistical data strongly show that during the interwar period, birth rates in Romania were several times higher than at present, being considered one of the largest on the European continent, despite the fact that healthcare was poor in the rural area, where it is found out more than three quarters of the population, the number of doctors being totally insufficient (Otovescu, Otovescu, 2019). In this sense, many solutions for stimulating encouraging public policies belonged almost exclusively to specialized medical professionals and generous people with the quality of large donors, so that the natural increase of the population during the interwar period was about four million people, which it meant an increase of 20% in a period of almost two decades. Because the number of medical professionals proved insufficient, special schools were set up at that time for those considered midwifery

graduates from nursing schools, as well as the establishment of future health colleges.

However, the villages, with their windows in which the collective memory breaks, seem to plunge into a valley of desolate carelessness, when an impossibility seems to have included those who can, but will not, like those who will, but we cannot do anything concrete for the benefit of the community.

2. The phenomenon of depopulation of the rural environment

With a kind of embarrassing reluctance, there is also a trembling and worrying voice about the people of the country who feel the disappearance of villages passing by, especially when the aura of some basic institutions that once shed the light of the spirit, ie: schools , cultural homes, museums, libraries and churches, so that the phenomenon of depopulation of the rural environment in Romania, of the Gorjian village, in particular, gets the expression of a dramatic reality that makes us ask ourselves legitimate questions regarding the number of rural communities disappeared in the last half a century, either due to the systematization of the territory, or due to the migration abroad of entire families from our villages, against the background of the drastic drop in birth rates.

The statistical figures always give us the results of the census and they are the ones that illustrate alarming situations, especially since statistical or other data are based on sufficient arguments that point us to certain sociological research directions regarding the causes that have generated and continue to generate the phenomenon depopulation, especially in rural areas, precisely to highlight the general implications affecting the population as a whole!

Beyond the difficulties inherent in a scientific approach elaborated and structured on the use of appropriate concepts, the research activity starts from the premise that the depopulation of the rural environment represents a serious and profound alarm signal, because, in the last resort, it is a phenomenon that it has to worry about the decision-makers and which endangers the very existence and identity of the Romanian nation, as a distinct entity, because it is necessary to adopt a set of measures at the level of the social system and the decision-makers.

It is precisely in such a setting where a series of unpredictable phenomena can occur, any delay or even a delay due to the lack of financial resources, so necessary in adopting effective strategies and with immediate applicability, would mean, in the end, completing the painting illustrating the exacerbation of a real social danger!

An overall picture of the habitat from the Romanian rural area offers the edifying image of a living space of a great diversity and variety that emphasizes the individuality and the specificity of the way of life, through everything that we consider can mean the universality related to the daily activity. in which we all meet, as we were born and we are living on these lands of the Romanian space.

3. The elements that define the Romanian rural environment

Despite the fact that the rural area also offers those elements of attraction related to ancient traditions and customs, as much as they are preserved, beyond those served by a living that cannot be envied, we can also mention a kind of pressing sacrifice of the gift that certifies humanity, whether or not only to ignore the phenomena and destructive processes that affect the human frame of life in the country, a living environment that always takes us thinking about those possibilities and opportunities to investigate what it means to depopulate the rural environment from Our country.

Analyzing the elements that define the Romanian rural environment, the isolation status of some localities, due to living in a difficult accessible area, due to the deteriorated roads, due to the lack of means of transport, can be highlighted throughout, which confirms the existence of depopulated areas, located mainly in hilly or mountainous regions, to which we could add the precariousness of the resources strictly necessary for the daily existence, especially in forgotten villages of the world, in the valleys or on the mountain peaks.

It is worth remembering on every occasion that the philosopher of the Romanian mioritic space and the author of "Poems of light", Lucian Blaga, the one who launched and even consecrated the well-known emblematic expression according to which "eternity was born in the village", could also be considered the living thing these times of today, in a context in which the expression as such proves more than a metaphor that reveals its significance in the inevitable flow of time. In the large speech from the Romanian Academy, from June 5, 1937, suggestively called "Praise of the Romanian Village", the same poet and philosopher, Lucian Blaga, in his vision, based on an unmistakable poetic metaphor, also argued that in the living unchallenged, the Romanian village represents "the only living presence yet, though immortal, though so terrestrial, it is our unanimous first unnamed", (Blaga, 1937: 297), just to convince us that the entire village civilization in the Romanian space has nothing monumental, but instead, it has a harmoniously composed fabric that gives life, has a natural and full harmony, which makes it extremely interesting, especially through the spiritual life that is its own. After the Second World War, in Romania, as in the whole of Eastern Europe, the communist regime was established according to the Soviet model, which caused the overthrow of moral, social-political and human values, affecting the Romanian village, in the case our, the Gorjian village, by destroying its roots, by abolishing private property, by expropriating the land of peasants and setting up collective farms.

This process of combining the land areas held by the peasants is eloquently explained by Prof. Gheorghe Gorun, teacher and researcher, when he talks about "a real calamity that strikes the fate of the Romanian peasant who was forced by the conditions. historical to ensure their daily life from a piece of land with which he had been appropriated, either in 1864, or in 1921, or in 1945, precisely as a certification of the peasant's uninterrupted connections with the ancestral land, because it is

necessary to explain the historical facts, highlighting the relationship between the singular and the repeatable ones, to define the continuity of the historical process ... The historical fact is placed in systems of culture and civilization. An event becomes a historical fact, only if it has consequences in the course of the historical process. Historical facts, as human facts, have validity in time and space, validity given by the creative activity of man" (Gorun, 2008: 39), in order to highlight a number of significant aspects, beyond the ephemerality of the phenomenon of depopulation of the Romanian village.

This time of the ephemeral civilization and the shock of the prospect of the future, determines the person oriented to the research of the social fact to pass many times to the historical event that comes back today, because demographically, the depopulation of the country, the rural environment, in particular, always leads to highlighting the existence of numerically reduced families, consisting of one or two children, and families with fewer children are the result of some people's concern to increase the standard of living from one day to another or to be achieved professionally.

In most cases, the atmosphere of domestic violence, the audience and the culture of hyper-masculinity, associated with the demographic osmosis, seem to confirm the situations in which the alleged modern families with a smaller number of children, often reach a higher standard of economic life and social, although we also witness an undesirable effect, related to the fact that the rural localities lose the reproductive competition, because the children and grandchildren from the families of the villages have a very low reproductive capacity.

If we analyze the process of ensuring the continuity of the population in certain larger territories, it is found that families with more children benefit from this, who are considered to have an assumed risk of losing in the short term some social-economic advantages, because the ethnic groups of families with more children, seem to be gaining in the demographic race that takes place in the last half century in different areas of the world, where we can talk about a differentiated population split by races and cultures, some considered atypical in family structure.

Through multiple forms of quite ambiguous expression, the media in our country, as well as the western one, have carefully analyzed the process of systematizing the Romanian villages, showing that by adopting the administrative-territorial reform of 1968, the leadership has since overruled by a predominantly propagandistic approach, the need to systematize the rural localities.

For example, in the 1970s, much of the party and state leadership obstinately resumed this problem, promoting the idea of halving the villages in our country, in order to achieve the well-known modern agro-industrial centers, to be endowed with standard utilities, consisting of sewerage, asphalted roads, central heating systems, running water, like conditions in the western world.

Of course, at that time, the Western media did not react vehemently and promptly, but in 1988 and 1989 a true propaganda campaign was carried out through what was considered to be the erasure of rural civilization from the surface of the

earth from our country and the destruction of invaluable ethnographic values, therefore, the destruction of an entire wealth of traditions and customs inherited from ancestors.

Paradoxically, nothing was remembered about the end of such a civilization crushed as today under the heel of modernity and postmodernity in the western countries, but we were given lessons on the sociological monographs of the Monographic School in Bucharest, because the world of that time to realize how to extract spring water from the well with the cork and buy, how to use the ox cart or how the Oltenic cobil looks, maybe and how to work on the war of weaving at the Cooperative Art House, a series of heritage objects finding it was only in the village museums, thus highlighting the danger of uprooting, which, rightly, concerned the fate of the people from the villages.

Some journalists in the western press appreciated that the demolitions were carried out through a systematic campaign, especially in the villages where the population of Hungarian or German ethnicity lived, because, in the regime's campaign against the national minorities, there would have been a kind ethnic cleansing, and in this regard, in Germany, the Netherlands, France or Belgium, as in other states, some civic groups and organizations acted that sounded a serious alarm to save the various Saxon or Hungarian villages from destruction. In the pastoral and obviously biased view of some Western analysts, this meant one of the most obvious manipulations through the media, thus exerting pressures with great psychological impact on international public opinion and the way in which the Romanian reality was perceived.

Conclusions

The analysis can be summarized by the fact that before 1989 it was intended that through the so-called system of village systematization, those old roots of village communities and rural settlements, those unbroken windows of the nation would be destroyed, diluting themselves. the vitality and the personal perspective of the nation, by systematically distorting the foundations that ensure the perpetuation of national traditions and customs, morals and values, so that the rural settlements have come to lose their belonging and twinning, and the urban ones sink into - a pathological amnesia, forgetting its consecration through the well-known fairs of the medieval era. This has caused the majority of the population to lose their identity and be reduced to the indoctrinated herd state and oriented in a specific direction to mass psychology.

Taking into account, even one aspect regarding rural youth, in the last decades it has been faced with the lack of concrete possibilities to engage in an activity that would provide the necessary income for a civilized life, or based on the absence of objective criteria for schooling and qualification regarding professional orientation, family living conditions or means of transport between home and school, in order to capture in detail the major shortcomings that are increasingly

manifested in the conditions of providing access to public utilities, to what we usually call the set of social services that undoubtedly enshrines the right to education, institutionalized healthcare or even social assistance.

Despite the demographic and identity metamorphoses that have become increasingly evident in European countries over the last two decades of the twentieth century and in the first two decades of the 21st century, a number of EU officials refuse to openly acknowledge and with legitimate concern the seriousness of the problems regarding the demographic evolutions, but, while such people prefer to remain silent and only always do not see the reality, the voices that perceive this are beginning to be heard, the voices of those who can afford it are heard. to tell the truth and to inform at a high level what is actually happening.

The precomprehensive effort to research for the purpose of scientific knowledge the social reality and the depopulation of the rural environment, without a doubt that it involves addressing important problems that seek to be solved at the level of the whole society or only at the level of a segment that can be considered more important, of the social system. Certainly, in the overall evolution of people's lives, if a certain problem is not solved in time, which the future of society itself depends on, it can generate other problems which exacerbate, as in a causal chain, the manifestation of imbalances leading to destabilization of social gear.

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BOOK REVIEW:**Laurent Tessier. *Éduquer au numérique? Un changement de paradigme*, Paris: Éditions Mkf, 2019, 180p.****Gabriela MOTOI**Senior Lecturer,
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Published in 2019, at the Mkf Publishing House (Paris, France), in the collection entitled “*Les essais numériques*”, and signed by the French sociologist Laurent Tessier, the paper “*Éduquer au numérique? Un changement de paradigme*” aims to explain what role plays the digital in the educational process, in a rapidly changing society that created the premises of what the author calls the “digital revolution” (p.9).

Beyond the theoretical approach in this area, the media and political approaches, the introduction (and use) of digital in education is still a challenge for many educational systems. What is the reason? As the author states, the use of ICT in education means changing educational programs, putting into practice new pedagogical experiments and practices, moreover, “changing educational paradigms” (in fact, this aspect is also mentioned in the book's subtitle).

The actuality of the subject of this work is illustratively explained and argued by the author, by contextualizing the “radically different” (p. 11) relationship between the old and the new generations (which the author describes using the phrase of M. Prensky – *digital natives* – a phrase that best outlines the generational profile of those people born after 2000).

Starting from the presentation of this context, which highlights, among others, one of the obstacles to a better use of digital in education, the author invites us to reflect on the answer to the following question: “What can the old generations transmit to the new ones, when the digital revolution seems to create between them two an irreconcilable rupture?” (p. 13)

The paper is structured in two parts that correspond to the two educational models that Laurent Tessier analyses and compares: the French model (TICE – *Technologies des l’Information et de la Communication pour l’Enseignement*) and the Anglo-Saxon model (EdTech – *Educational Technologies*). The choice for the two educational models is explained by the author, who argues that, beyond the strong contrast between them (one being characterized by the prominence of the theory on the practice, by a form of defence against technology; the other, characterized by

a “voluntarist” enthusiasm towards technology and based on the principle of *learning by doing*), they can serve as models that can be combined and applied in other education systems.

Therefore, the book does not aim to analyze two different and opposite educational models and to highlight the strengths of one of them, but rather to look at the strengths of each and to highlight how they can be combined in a “conceptual matrix that can then be applied in other educational contexts” (p. 19).

Moreover, in the concluding part of the paper, the author illustrates a possible “third way”, represented by “digital humanities”, as a model of synthesis between the two, a model based on “collaborative practices and open technologies”. Moreover, this model of digital humanities has been presented and analyzed more largely in another book – *Quelles humanités numériques pour l'éducation?* (in a collaboration with M. Bourgatte și M. Ferloni) – published in 2016, at M.k.F Publishing House, from Paris.

The first part of the book: “*Les TICE: enseigner et apprendre les technologies à l'école*” (pp. 24-101), devoted to the French model, it begins with a presentation of the historical context and evolution of the use of ICT in education, starting with the period after the Second World War. This historical context represents an asset of the book because it allows the reader, especially a reader of a different nationality than the French one, to better understand the French educational model in the ICT field and to be able to better problematize how it worked the relationship between education and technology in France, in the 20th century. Further, the first part of the book presents the main public policy measures for ICT introduction and use in education - from providing educational infrastructure to implementing innovative pedagogical practices. Also interesting is the presentation of the obstacles of the development of ICT education, which were characteristic for French society, between the 80's and the 90's: from the criticisms that have been made to the *Plan Informatique pour Tous* (IPT), to the possible risks of using multimedia technology in education, and to issues related to social and economic inequalities.

Useful for understanding the TICE model is also the presentation of how it was implemented, starting with the end of the 1990s when legislative texts, measures and instruments were developed; measures that aimed at “the reconfiguration of technology education around the TICE paradigm” (p.66). Of the “measures” presented in the book (and which, as mentioned above, can be used for other educational systems, why not, as examples of good practices), we mention B2i (*Brevet Informatique et Internet*) and C2i (*Certificat Informatique et Internet*), which are used in the French secondary and tertiary education. Also in this first part, the author addresses the topic of initial and continuous training of ICT teachers, as well as the challenges that motivate teachers to develop, change and improve their pedagogical practices, through the use of ICT.

The second part of the book “*Les EdTech: éducation au numérique vue de Silicon Valley*” (pp. 102-160) is written in a different approach: if in the case of the French model, the approach was one from the macro-social at the micro-social level

(from political, ministerial, to local initiatives), the Anglo-Saxon model is presented starting from local initiatives. The author prefers to use the term *EdTech* instead of *e-learning*, because, in his opinion, the term *EdTech* “involves a much more inclusive vision of the use of technology in education, which is not limited to the use of the Internet” (p. 111). First of all, this educational model is not limited only to formal education, but also to non-formal education, provided both inside and outside educational institutions. Secondly, this model is a collaborative, mixed one, a *blended learning* and/or *adaptive learning* model, whose main objective is to promote learning and make technologies much more attractive for students, teachers, decision-makers, “a certain audience or a certain minority” (p. 115).

Also, in presenting this model, the author emphasizes the role played by colloquiums, conferences and events organized around *EdTech* in “building” this attractiveness of technology (in general) and its use in education (in particular). Moreover, the principles of the *EdTech* model are found, or rather, they were inspired by the principles of the philosophy of education, in particular the Chicago School of Pragmatism (John Dewey, William James, George Herbert Mead), according to which “the school is an environment for experimentation” (*learning by doing*) (p. 135). The author also presents how the *EdTech* movement has become internationalized and expanded in several countries (developed or emerged ones) but also the criticisms/obstacles/resistance that it encountered in other societies (such as, for example, France). The arguments against (the technology resistance) the *EdTech* model, as they are presented by the author, start from the fact that through ICT, the school “leaves no room for boredom, learning of patience, of reflection” (p. 142); technology can diminish the role of the teacher “who is no longer seen as a unique repository of knowledge” (p. 142).

The second part of the paper ends with the presentation of a *HackEdu* model (a French adaptation of the *EdTech* model), initiated in 2016 by Stéphanie Pfeiffer, which led to the emergence (“flowering”, in terms of the author) of an on-going French *EdTech* network which is starting to be “active and increasingly visible” (p. 151). This is how, as we stated in the paragraphs above, with all the differences that exist between the two models that the book is analysing (TICE and *EdTech*), despite the criticisms and reluctance it has encountered and still encounter the Anglo-Saxon model in French society, however, certain elements of it were also taken over by stakeholders and experts in the field of education sciences.

This aspect highlights the same principle that should be the basis of building effective public policies and educational models: *instead of rejecting what is different, just because it does not correspond to the pattern of our educational system, why we cannot try to adapt it, so that the results are at least similar if not the same ones?* And this adaptation may be what the author presents to us as a possible “third paradigm” - *the digital humanities*, which he defines as “the application of digital technologies to social sciences and humanities”. This third paradigm, presented in the Conclusive part of the book, is viewed by some authors

as “a Trojan horse of the neoliberal management in universities or as one of the forms of the new public management” (p. 164).

It represents (in the author's view) a model that combines elements from the two paradigms; thus, it “can enable actors to identify and find alternative pedagogical resources and ways, both from TICE and EdTech” (p. 165), contributing to the renewal of educational institutions, starting from their internal structure.

The book published by Laurent Tessier inspires reflection on the place and role that technology plays in the development of today's society (in general) and of educational systems (in particular). Its reading can be more than useful for teachers, parents, researchers, pupils/students, but also, in particular, for relevant actors and experts, involved in the design of educational policies and reforms.

BOOK REVIEW:

Schiop, Adrian. 2018 [2017]. *Șmecherie și lume rea: Universul social al manelelor* [Trickery and Perverted World. The Social Universe Of Manele]. Kishinev: Cartier Anthropologic

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Published in 2017 and re-edited in 2018, *Șmecherie și lume rea: Universul social al manelelor* [Trickery and Perverted World: The Social Universe of Manele] was written by Romanian author Adrian Schiop as an adaptation of his doctoral thesis in anthropology on *manele* (sg. *manea*), a genre of pop folk music with an oriental twist that gained popularity in Romania after the fall of the communist regime.

This work by Schiop focuses on one of the popular themes of the songs: trickery (*șmecherie*), defined as the ability to get something, e.g., to get rich, by fooling others. He explores the form that trickery takes in the everyday life of the audience and in the songs by using semi-structured and non-structured interviews with musicians, singers, and discussions with *manele* fans, a content analysis of songs, participative observations in bars and clubs dedicated to the genre in Bucharest, analysis of press articles, YouTube archives of private events and ethnographic observations in Ferentari and in a village in Transylvania. Schiop shows that *trickery*, as manifested in songs and in everyday life, creates distrust of others and a perverse (*rea*) worldview.

In the first of five chapters, Schiop presents the evolution of the genre since 1980. He shows that the popularity of *manele* can be interpreted in terms of periodic tendencies trending from mass to marginal popularity. From 1985 to 1992, the genre gained popularity, even though it was not featured in the communist mass media. It was praised for its ability to describe the everyday life of its listeners, which was characterized by frequent shortages of goods and food and the need to be resourceful in order to survive. From 1992 to 2000, the genre was overshadowed by Anglo-American pop music, which offered an opportunity for *manele* to link itself with “businessmen from the underground economy” (Schiop, 2016, p. 189). When the mass media began to carry it in 2000, because of its new Anglo-American sound, *manele* gained incredible national popularity. However, only bands made up of majority non-Roma members benefited from this trend. It is also during this period that *manele* were accused in media campaigns of promoting immoral values to the youth. After 2008, the genre became less popular, although *manele* were still the fourth favourite musical genre of Romanians 18 and older by 2017 (Institutul

național pentru cercetare și formare culturală, 2018).¹ Schiop shows that the popularity of the genre is determined by how much the audience sees itself in the lyrics and themes of the songs and whether it is featured in the mass media. He also discusses the evolution of the *manele* industry and its professionalization.

The second and third chapters deal with how the audience influences the themes of *manele* songs. Schiop focuses on two social categories which make up an important part of the audience: *bagabonții* and “businessmen from the underground economy” (Schiop, 2016, p. 189) who value the use of trickery and are the protagonists who embody it in *manele* songs. They respectively belong to the “poor audience” (*publicul sărac*) (p. 67) and the “rich audience” (*publicul bogat*) (p. 121) of the genre.

In the second chapter, the author describes *bagabonții*, a label given to men who have little money but like spending it on entertainment, and who like to seduce women and sometimes do all sorts of scams. To satisfy the desires of the *bagabonții*, the singers refer to the tricks and cleverness that enables them to seduce women, have sex and make easy money. The lyrics reflect the desires and values of the audience and are characteristic of the musical tradition from which *manele* originates: the folk (minstrel) bands called “*lăutarii*”. The *lăutarii* are groups of musicians who usually play folk songs on demand for an audience in exchange for money. *Manele* singers play requests, e.g., announce the name of the person requesting the song and how much money he paid for it. This dynamic gives the audience the power to influence the “discursive universe” (*universul de discurs*) of the songs (p. 67), as the ones they like are the ones they will pay money to hear.

In the third chapter, Schiop shows that the “businessmen from the underground economy” (Schiop, 2016, p. 189) have a strong influence on *manele*, because they tend to be very rich and powerful. When hiring a singer to play at a private event, they tend to feel as if they were the personification of the “wiseguys” (Schiop, 2016, p. 188) (*șmecherii*), a popular theme of the *manele* songs before 2010. To please their audience, the singers will chant about the “wiseguys”, who are described in the songs as men who enrich themselves by their trickery and cleverness and who are envied for their success. This particular audience also use the musicians as a way of showing off their financial power and prestige. Schiop recalls that to book a popular *manele* singer like Florin Salam for one night can cost up to 10,000 €, which speaks volumes about one’s financial status and cleverness.

In the fourth chapter, Schiop presents the main thesis of his book and argues that trickery in everyday life presents the world as perverted and filled with “two-faced” (*două fețe*) (p. 181) friends, whom people should be wary of. Relationships of trust exist only between family members and with God. In this chapter, Schiop presents the different forms that trickery can take in everyday life and the strategies

¹ In order of preference, the percentage for the top five genres that Romanians across the country said they listened to “frequently” (*des*) or “very frequently” (*foarte des*) were: 48 percent folk music (*populară*) and *etno*, 30 percent Romanian pop; 19 percent foreign pop; 17 percent *manele* and 11 percent religious music (Institutul național pentru cercetare și formare culturală, 2018: 196).

people use to deal with the distrust it creates. He offers the example of *vrăjeala*, the ruse used to make someone believe something false in order to trick them, such as selling someone an old phone by telling them it is brand new. If trickery creates distrust, Schiop describes the strategies used by people to create “relational security” (*securitate relațională*) (p. 168), where they will not be victimized by trickery. For example, people may say they have a “moral compass” which prevents them from tricking others.

The last chapter² of the book opens with a reflection on the importance of considering *manele* as a form of *gangsta pop*. Recalling that his doctoral research was in an anthropology program studying public policy, Schiop argues that this label best reflects the influence of *gangsta rap* on *manele* after 2000 and offers, at the same time, a non-stigmatizing label with an aura of “cool” (p. 186). *Gangsta pop* means that *manele* did not maintain the subversive aspect of *gangsta rap* and that the latter helped *manele* gain popularity in the 2000s. People then realized that a genre embedded in what they considered as a “modern” and “civilized” society shared themes with *manele*, such as power and material wealth. This conferred social legitimacy on the genre.

Schiop’s book contributes to the existing literature on *manele* a deep reflection on how the social representations of everyday life and social relationships in Romania have influenced the “poetics” (*poetică*) of the songs (p. 136). The form and writing style of the book is captivating, as Schiop alternates between anecdotes, observations, quotes from individuals and passages from song lyrics. This allows him to show the interconnections between social representations and the themes of the songs. Even though his book is aimed at an academic audience, anyone who is interested in learning more about *manele* will realize from reading it that the genre comes from a complex universe. The broad diversity of qualitative methods on which the author relied makes this work an intriguing and profound reflection on a central theme of a musical genre which, since the fall of the communist regime, has gained a special place in the popular music landscape of the country.

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² Schiop’s book has a text in the annex that was previously published in *Criticatac* (2011) entitled “Cum au îngropat elitele României manelele. O poveste cu cocalari [How Romania’s elite buried *manele*: A story about *cocalari*]”.

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