

UNIVERSITARY JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY

REVISTA UNIVERSITARĂ DE SOCIOLOGIE



Year XVIII, no. 2/2022

REVUE UNIVERSITAIRE DE SOCIOLOGIE

**REVISTA UNIVERSITARĂ DE SOCIOLOGIE
UNIVERSITARY JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY
REVUE UNIVERSITAIRE DE SOCIOLOGIE**

Year XVIII - no. 2/2022



**Beladi Publishing House
Craiova, 2022**

Editor: Adrian OTOVESCU

This journal is published by Beladi Publishing House.

ISSN: 2537-5024
ISSN-L: 1841-6578

First cover photo: London city center - 2022

International Scientific Committee:

- Albert OGIEN – *Ecole des Hautes Etudes en Sciences Sociales*, France
- Laurent TESSIER – *Institut Catholique de Paris (ICP)*, France
- Lucile BONCOMPAIN – *Universite de Bordeaux*, France
- Ugo de AMBROGIO – *Institut Social di Milano*, Italy
- Gilles FRIGOLI – *Université de Nice Sophia Antipolis*, France
- Marie-Carmen GARCIA – *Université Lumière- Lyon 2*, France
- Bernard LAHIRE – *Ecole Normale Supérieure Lettres et Sciences Humaines*, France
- Efstratios PAPANIS – *University of the Aegean*, Greece
- Azucena HERNÁNDEZ MARTÍN – *Universidad de Salamanca*, Spain
- Maria SAMPELAYO – *Universidad Camilo Jose Cela de Madrid*, Spain
- Matthieu GATEAU – *Université de Bourgogne*, France
- Marcel PARIAT – *Université Paris Est Creteil*, France
- Pascal LAFONT – *Université Paris Est Creteil*, France
- Philippe JORON – *Université Montpellier III*, France
- Michel CRESPIY – *Université Montpellier III*, France
- Teodora KALEYNSKA – *University of Veliko Tarnovo*, Bulgaria
- Vihren BOUZOV – *University of Veliko Tarnovo*, Bulgaria
- Laura VERDI – *University of Padua*, Italy
- Kémonthé Marius GALLON – *University Félix Houphouët BOIGNY*, Ivory Coast
- Willy Didier FOGA KONEFON – *University of Yaoundé I*, Cameroon
- Soufyane BADRAOUI – *University of Tebessa*, Algeria.
-

National Scientific Committee:

Cătălin ZAMFIR – academician, Romanian Academy, Ilie BĂDESCU – correspondent member of the Romanian Academy, Doru BUZDUCEA, Maria VOINEA, Radu BALTASIU, Adrian DAN (University of Bucharest); Elena ZAMFIR, Sorin CACE, Ioan MĂRGINEAN (Research Institute for the Quality of Life, Romanian Academy); Ștefan COJOCARU, Nicu GAVRILUTA, Cristina GAVRILUȚĂ, Ion IONESCU („A.I. Cuza” University of Iași); Mihai IOVU (Babes-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca); Ștefan BUZĂRNESCU, Laurențiu ȚÎRU, Cosmin GOIAN (West University of Timișoara); Floare CHIPEA (University of Oradea); Nicolae PANEA, Adrian OTOVESCU, Cristina OTOVESCU (University of Craiova); Dumitru BATÂR, Horațiu RUSU (“Lucian Blaga” University of Sibiu); Claudiu COMAN (“Transilvania” University of Brașov); Lucian MARINA, Călina BUȚIU („1 Decembrie 1918” University of Alba Iulia); Lavinia POPP (“Eftimie Murgu” University of Reșița); Felicia ANDRIONI (University of Petroșani), Maria CONSTANTINESCU, Maria PESCARU (University of Pitesti), Lavinia BETEA (“Aurel Vlaicu” University of din Arad).

Founder Director: Dumitru OTOVESCU

International Indexing



Currently indexed in:

ERIH PLUS – European Reference Index for the Humanities and Social Sciences, DOAJ – Directory of Open Access Journals, UlrichsWeb, EBSCOHost, CEEOL – Central and Eastern European Online Library, Index Copernicus, RePEc – Economics and Finance Research, HeinOnline, CiteFactor, Ideas, Citec, LogEc, DRJI – Directory of Research Journal Indexing, SafetyLit, WorldCat, Wilson College Library, ORCID, ROAD – Directory of Open Access Scholarly Resources, Genamics JournalSeek, Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin für Sozialforschung, NewJour-Georgetown Library, GIGA-German Institute of Global and Area Studies – Information Centre.

Indexed in:	
DOAJ	2021-present
ERIHPlus	2020-present
UlrichsWeb	2018-present
EBSCOHost	2018-present
CEEOL	2014-present
Index Copernicus (ICV 2019 - 100.00)	2017-present
RePEc	2018-present
HeinOnline	2004-present
CiteFactor (IF=1.48)	2021-present
GESIS	2004-2017

Year XVIII, Issue 2/2022

REVISTA UNIVERSITARĂ DE SOCIOLOGIE

Electronic and Printed Journal
(<http://www.sociologiecraiova.ro>)

Editorial Board:

Nicolae PANEA, Sevastian CERCEL,
Andreea-Mihaela NIȚĂ, Gabriel-Nicolae PRICINĂ,
Cristina GOGA, Veronica GHEORGHITĂ, Emilia SORESCU,
Alexandrina-Mihaela POPESCU, Mihaela BĂRBIERU

Editorial Secretary:

Vlad-Ovidiu CIOACĂ

Director,

Maria-Cristina OTOVESCU

Editor in chief,

Gabriela MOTOI

Contact: University of Craiova, 13, A.I. Cuza Street, c. 167B

E-mail: rus.craiova@gmail.com

CONTENTS

WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA	10
Olumide Abraham AJAYI (Nigeria), Adebisi ADEBAYO (Switzerland)	
RESPONSES OF MAIZE PRODUCTION TO CLIMATE VARIABILITY IN THE NDOP PLAIN: NORTHWEST REGION OF CAMEROON	19
Leonard Nkimih CHOP, Valery NKIENE, Julliete KARBA, Albert NDUM (Cameroon)	
LOCAL GOVERNANCE AND IMPACTS OF ARTISANAL GOLD MINING ON THE POPULATIONS OF NGOURA IN EASTERN CAMEROON	32
Innocent Camille DANG (Cameroon)	
SOCIO-HISTORY OF THE REGULATION OF LIGHT WEAPONS, SMALL CALIBER AND AMMUNITION IN FEDERAL CAMEROON: 1958-1971	43
Marie Julien DANGA (Cameroon)	
GENEALOGY OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL HERITAGE OF PAN-AFRICANISM: A TRANSCONTINENTAL IDEA	54
David Melvin EBOUTOU (Cameroon)	
PRESBYTERIANISM A CENTRAL REALITY OF THE FOUNDATION OF PROTESTANTISM FROM THE EPCO TO THE MORAL LIFE OF CHRISTIANS (1967-2010)	66
Jean Louis NDO ABE (Cameroon)	
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS AND PREVALENCE OF COMORBID HYPERTENSION AND DIABETES IN ALGERIA: EVIDENCE FROM NON COMMUNICABLE DISEASE RISK FACTOR STEPS SURVEY (2016-2017).	85
Abdellatif MOUSSOUNI, Adel SIDI-YAKHLEF, Houari HAMD AOUI (Algeria)	
IMPACT OF ANGLOPHONE CRISIS ON BUI CATTLE INDUSTRY AND IMPLICATIONS ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT, NORTH WEST REGION OF CAMEROON	102
SHEY Dominic NFORYA, OJUKU TIAFACK, TCHAWA Paul (Cameroon)	
WILLMOT'S AND KNIGHTS'S PERSPECTIVE ON LABOUR PROCESS ANALYSIS: SUMMARY AND DEBATE	122
Soufyane BADRAOUI (Algeria)	

PROVIDING DRUG USE TREATMENT IN ROMANIA AMONG CHILDREN WHO HAVE COMMITTED A CRIMINAL ACT AND DON'T HAVE CRIMINAL RESPONSIBILITY	127
Elena MANEA MIRCEA (Romania)	
INVESTIGATING THE SITUATIONS AND CASES THAT CAUSE VIOLENCE IN THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT	141
Maria PESCARU (Romania)	
THE FAMILY – A FUNDAMENTAL INSTITUTION OF SOCIETY	154
Silica-Valerica FLOREA (Romania)	
FARM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE DIVERSIFICATION STRATEGIES IN FARM PRODUCTIVITY ENHANCEMENT IN THE NORTHWEST REGION OF CAMEROON	168
FONDZE Gilbert BAMBOYE, NDZIE SOUGA Clotaire, KONGNYUY Anastasia KININLA (Cameroon)	
IN-EQUALITIES AND VISITS BACK THE THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF VISITING THE HOME-VILLAGE	188
Angela PRINCIOTTO (Spain)	
SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE	195
Elena-Otilia ȚÎROIU (Romania)	
PERCEPTIONS ABOUT EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ACCESS TO QUALITY ACADEMIC TRAINING, THROUGH ONLINE EDUCATION	204
Ecaterina Sarah FRĂSINEANU, Mihaela Aurelia ȘTEFAN (Romania)	
THE GEOPOLITICAL MAPS OF THE ROMANIAN IDENTITY	
Radu BALTASIU (Romania)	
THE UNSEEN WOMEN – A GLIMPSE INTO THE COMMUNIST PAST OF ROMANIA	214
Ovidiana BULUMAC (Romania)	
THE CONTEMPORARY STATE AND THE QUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES	237
Enache TUȘA (Romania)	
TEACHERS' PERCEPTION ON INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AS A RESPONSE TO THE CHALLENGES FACED BY CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS	252
Alexandrina-Mihaela POPESCU, Gabriela MOTOI	

"GENERATION ME". THE GENESIS OF GENERATION AND ITS IMPACT ON SOCIETY	266
Samira CÎRLIG (Romania)	
TRENDING PATTERN OF YOUTH VIOLENCE AND CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR ON RESIDENTS IN CROSS RIVER STATE NIGERIA: UNVEILING THE MYTH OR UNRAVELING THE MYSTERY	277
Kevin AKPANKE AKAN, Olawale James GBADEYAN, Monday Oriabure OJIEZELE (Cameroon)	
GENDER, CITIZENSHIP AND PEASANT RESPONSES TO LAND GOVERNANCE IN CAMEROON: STATUS OF FORCE POWERS	292
Yves ESSENGUE	
"WEEVIL DOES NOT KNOW FAMINE IS BAD": NIGERIA'S SECURITY AGENCIES AND TREACHEROUS ACT OF BACKHANDER	304
Babatope Matthew AJIBOYE (Nigeria)	
THE RELATION BETWEEN DIVORCE EXPERIENCE AND SOCIAL SKILLS OF CHILDREN AGED 15-18 YEARS	318
Rana KHALEEL (Romania)	
THE USE OF GIS AND MULTI-CRITERIA ANALYSIS FOR PLANNING OF HEALTH INFRASTRUCTURES' IMPLANTATION IN THE MAYO DANAY DIVISION, FAR NORTH REGION, CAMEROON	330
TAKEM MBI Bienvenu Magloire, Ruth TUA ENI, TANKIE Quinta SHEGWE, SIRRI Erika SUH (Cameroon)	
TRAUMATIC EFFECTS OF REFUGEES IN THE EU	345
Adrian OTOVESCU, Karimi PAYKAR (Romania)	
ETHNIC MINORITIES AND PARTIES IN THE REPUBLIC OF NORTH MACEDONIA	365
Anda-Diana PÂRLEA	
BOOK REVIEW: Edgar Morin (2021): <i>Lessons of a Century of Life</i>, Paris, Denoel Editions, 100 p.	341
Hatem BENAZOUC (Algeria)	

WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Olumide Abraham AJAYI¹, Adebisi ADEBAYO²
Lecturer I, Ph.D., Skyline University Nigeria, Kano State (Nigeria)
Email: ajayi@sun.edu.ng
Ph.D., Director, Bridging Development Gap (Switzerland)
Email: adebayob2000@yahoo.com

Abstract: *The need for women's empowerment has been an issue of concern, especially in African societies where cultural practices relegated women to second fiddle. This study focused on women's empowerment for sustainable development. The objective of the study is to examine women empowerment and sustainable development as well as identify factors militating against women empowerment in Nigeria. The population of the study consists of inhabitants of Kano city, Nigeria from which a sample of 300 respondents was selected with the use of stratified random sampling. Copies of the questionnaire were administered to elicit information from respondents. The use of frequency distribution, percentage, and Pearson product-moment correlation was adopted for data analysis. The result of the test of the hypothesis shows a positive correlation between women empowerment and sustainable development with a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.884251$. Poor access to education, violence against women, preference for a male child, unequal access to advance economic and political opportunity, and poor access to healthcare services were identified as factors militating against women's empowerment among others. The study, therefore, recommends that the government of Nigeria should implement policies and laws that support women's empowerment and sustainable development throughout the country. In addition, Nigerians should be sensitized and re-orientated about the gains of women empowerment and the dangers of discrimination against women in society.*

Keywords: *Women empowerment, sustainable development goals, cultural practices, violence against women, Inequality.*

1. Introduction

Inequality in terms of power relations between men and women is a subject of immense concern for scholars and researchers. This is because inequality still persists in spite of different policies designed to ensure women's empowerment. Women are still seen as deputies of men today, they are still being forced into prostitution, marriage, hard labor, and terrorism. Women and young girls are still being kidnapped and denied educational opportunities. Although, the economic status of men and women are similar in the world of work in the twenty-first century, yet, it is still not equal as some women receive lower employment incomes than men and they carry out a larger share of unpaid work in the home (Ponthieux and Meurs, 2015). Women are sometimes prevented from accessing employment opportunities due to their susceptibility to maternity leave among others.

It is quite unfortunate that these incidences are being recorded in the 21st century in spite of an enormous number of women who have distinguished themselves in different fields of endeavor over the years. This paper, therefore, examines women's empowerment and sustainable development in Nigeria.

Women empowerment according to Akomolafe (2006) refers to the development of mental and physical capacity, power, and skills in women in order to operate as expected the society. Empowerment entails the capability of a person or group to choose from different options and transform such choices into the desired action with a visible result (World Bank, 2007). Empowerment cuts across different processes of change described as internal and external change. Internal change involves the belief or ability of a person to make a decision and solve problems without external interference while external change deals with the ability of a person to act and implement capabilities, information, practical knowledge, resources, and skills (Parsons et al.,1998). There are four aspects of empowerment in human life according to Charlier and Caubergs (2007), these are (1) power to assets in terms of land, resources, income, and technology (2) the power to increase knowledge or skills by allowing an individual to control others and become a leader (3) the internal power to make choices which include psychological strength and self-confidence (4) the internal power or capacity to take responsibility and act freely. Women empowerment, therefore, entails the process in which women have self-confidence about their status and are capable of making decisions in their homes (Sharma, 2007).

Empowerment of women engenders the development of a country in the sense that it entails the full involvement of women in the decision-making process and access to power which is the basis for achieving development, equality, and security (Hazel and Sally, 2000). Empowerment gives women the power to play active roles in the socio-economic development of a country (Jayaraman, 2008).

Danjuma, Muhammad, & Alkali (2013) submitted that the aim of women's economic empowerment is to improve the socio-economic condition of women by creating an economic culture that will address women's multi-faceted roles, providing them with various economic ventures and enhancing women's emancipation from poverty. Indeed, discrimination against women in Nigeria is manifested within and outside the home. For instance, a significant number of women in Nigeria, which might include the highly placed women, are exposed to domestic violence. At the social level, especially with regard to the ongoing democratic dispensation, fewer women are nominated for political appointments. According to Ejumudo (2013), laudable efforts have been made in Nigeria to reduce the incidence of gender discrimination in order to ensure gender equality and human dignity. The National Policy on Women was replaced with the National Gender Policy to curb gender inequality problems in Nigeria. However, a carefree attitude to gender variables posed a lot of problems to the policy. Gender-blind and gender-insensitive orientation of the first two decades of development planning in Nigeria still persists to date and this is militating against the empowerment of women despite the interest and attention given to women's empowerment in the millennium development goals and sustainable development goals.

The situation of women is worsened in the rural areas where negative attitudes and beliefs about women's participation in socio-economic development are culturally entrenched. Development experts and planners have conceptualized different ways of improving the status of women in society in order to ensure the empowerment of women at all levels. This is because women's empowerment is a key to sustainable development (Lohani and Aburaida, 2017). In spite of different strategies conceptualized to ensure the empowerment of women at all levels, little or no improvement is seen in most developing

countries. The objective of this paper, therefore, is to examine women empowerment and sustainable development; and identify factors militating against women empowerment in Nigeria. The study hypothesis is that there is a relationship between women's empowerment and sustainable development.

2. The Need for Women's Empowerment and Sustainable Development

The need for empowerment of women cannot be overemphasized because women are key to sustainable development. Unfortunately, Nigeria is still struggling to achieve sustainable development in spite of the contributions of international multinational, bilateral, and non-governmental organizations to development strides in the country because poverty, unemployment, and conflict levels keep increasing at geometrical progression with little or no corresponding growth in basic infrastructure and social amenities such as electricity, good roads, educational, and health facilities (Ogujiuba et. al., 2013).

Women empowerment epitomized by equal access and rights to economic resources is essential for the realization of sustainable development goals. An investment in the empowerment of women will go a long way in speeding up the process of achieving a series of targets attached to sustainable development. The targets according to Mishra & Tripath (2018) include:

- Women's effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels in society.
- Elimination of harmful practices, such as child marriage or early and forced marriage as well as female genital mutilation.
- Eradication of violence and other forms of exploitation against women and girls
- Provision of unconditional access to sexual and reproductive health information and services.
- Reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance, and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.
- Adequate use of information and communications technology to promote women's empowerment.
- Enactment of enforceable laws that promotes gender equality and the empowerment of women.

The targets highlighted above are indeed necessary for sustainable development. The General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the 2030 agenda for sustainable development that includes seventeen development goals in September 2015. Based on the principle of "leaving no one behind", the new Agenda emphasizes a holistic approach to achieving sustainable development for all. The seventeen Sustainable Development Goals form a cohesive and integrated package of global aspirations which the world intends to achieve by 2030. In furtherance of the achievements recorded with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) focus on important global challenges of the twenty-first century, relying on the support and partnership among different nations of the world for sustainable development, economic growth, environmental sustainability, and social inclusion (The United Nations, 2015). The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are as follows:

GOAL 1: No Poverty

GOAL 2: Zero Hunger

GOAL 3: Good Health and Well-being
GOAL 4: Quality Education
GOAL 5: Gender Equality
GOAL 6: Clean Water and Sanitation
GOAL 7: Affordable and Clean Energy
GOAL 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth
GOAL 9: Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure
GOAL 10: Reduced Inequality
GOAL 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities
GOAL 12: Responsible Consumption and Production
GOAL 13: Climate Action
GOAL 14: Life below Water
GOAL 15: Life on Land
GOAL 16: Peace and Justice Strong Institutions
GOAL 17: Partnerships to Achieve the Goals

A good look at these goals presupposes the need to empower women at all levels as women constitute the key drivers of the goals. For instance, the first and second goals “no poverty and zero hunger” can only be achieved when women are properly empowered. Failure to empower women would translate to continuous poverty and hunger. Similarly, the role of women in ensuring good health and well-being cannot be overemphasized within the family, hence there is a need to empower women for the achievement of goals number three and four which revolves around good health and well-being as well as quality education. Women are known naturally as caregivers within the family, they also play a key role in socialization. Good health begins with living in a well-kept environment and eating a balanced diet. A healthy environment and a balanced diet are better coordinated by women in the family. In addition, women have a significant duty in the education of children who are new members of society, as a result of this, a popular adage says “when you educate a woman, you educate the whole nation. Hence, the empowerment of women will no doubt promote good health, well-being, and quality education. Goal number five and goal number ten which revolve around gender equality and reduced inequality are similar. There is an urgent need to empower women more in order to achieve gender equality and reduce inequality at all levels in order to ensure the emergence of Nigeria among nations of the world that values gender equality. In sum, women’s empowerment is germane to the achievement of the seventeen sustainable development goals.

Center for Women Policy Studies (2013) reported a number of challenges against women empowerment epitomized by gender-based violence against women such as female infanticide, sexual trafficking, and exploitation among others. These, in addition to a series of other factors, seem to be working against women’s empowerment in Nigeria and portend a sort of challenge to the achievement of sustainable development goals. There must be concerted efforts on the part of government especially in Nigeria to tackle the factors militating against women’s empowerment in order to achieve sustainable development goals (SDGs).

3. Methods

This study is basically descriptive research that adopted the quantitative method of data collection with the use of questionnaire to harvest the opinion of respondents selected for this study. The population is made up of inhabitants of Kano city, Nigeria. A

Stratified random sampling technique was used to divide the city into different strata which consist of local government areas, wards, and streets from which a sample of 300 respondents was selected for this study. The services of two research assistants were engaged to facilitate the data collection process.

Data collected from respondents were analyzed using frequency distribution, percentage, and Pearson’s product-moment correlation. The result of the analysis serves as a basis upon which conclusion was drawn and recommendations made.

4. Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 1: Socio-demographic data of Respondents

Respondents’ Age	Frequency	Percentage %
20 – 29 years	65	21.7
30– 39 years	101	33.7
40 – 49 years	82	27.3
50 years & above	52	17.3
Total	300	100
Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage %
Single	94	31.3
Married	186	62
Divorcee	16	5.3
Widow/ Widower	4	1.3
Total	300	100
Religion	Frequency	Percentage %
Christianity	86	28.7
Islam	212	70.7
Others	2	0.6
Total	300	100
Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percentage %
Primary School Certificate	96	32
Secondary School Certificate	120	40
Tertiary Education Certificate	84	28
Total	300	100
Respondents’ sex	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	128	42.7
Female	172	57.3
Total	300	100

Source: Researcher’s Fieldwork, 2022

Table 2: Opinion of Respondents

2.1 Opinion of Respondents on whether women are well empowered in Nigeria.		
Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	78	26
No	198	66
Indifferent	24	8
Total	300	100

2.2 Opinion of Respondents on whether women empowerment is necessary in Nigeria.		
Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	156	52
No	98	32.7
Indifferent	46	15.3
Total	300	100

2.3 Opinion of Respondents on whether there is sustainable development in Nigeria at the moment.		
Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	62	20.7
No	184	61.3
Indifferent	54	18
Total	300	100

2.4 Opinion of Respondents on whether sustainable development is desirable or not.		
Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	286	95.3
No	8	2.7
Indifferent	6	2
Total	300	100

2.5 Opinion of Respondents on whether women have roles to play in sustainable development		
Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	160	53.3
No	134	44.7
Indifferent	6	2
Total	300	100

2.6 Opinion of Respondents on factors militating against women empowerment in Nigeria		
Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Custom and traditions	165	55
Violence against women	24	8
Poor access to education	30	10
Unequal access to economic and political opportunity	72	24
Poor access to healthcare services	9	3
Total	300	100

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, 2022

5. Discussion of Findings

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic data of respondents with respect to age, marital status, religion, educational qualification, and sex. Table 2.1 shows that the majority of the respondents 66% noted that women are not well empowered in Nigeria. 26% of the respondents believed that women are well empowered, while 8% of the respondents were indifferent. This result shows that women empowerment in Nigeria is still below expectation and it supported the position of Ejemudo (2013) which stated that

women are not adequately empowered in Nigeria in spite of different policies targeted at the empowerment of women. Table 2.2 indicates that the largest percentage of respondents 52% believed that women empowerment is necessary for Nigeria. This corroborated Lohani and Aburaida (2017) who noted that women's empowerment is necessary as it is a key to sustainable development. 32.7% of the respondents noted that women empowerment is not necessary probably due to their socio-cultural affiliation, while 15.3% of the respondents were indifferent.

Table 2.3 shows that 61.3% of the respondents observed that sustainable development is not visible in Nigeria at the moment. This supported the position of Ogujiuba et al. (2013) that Nigeria is still struggling to achieve sustainable development because poverty, unemployment, and conflict levels keep increasing at geometrical progression. This equally shows that there is an urgent need to work towards the achievement of sustainable development goals. Only 20.7% of the respondents noted that there is sustainable development in Nigeria at the moment, while 18% of the respondents were indifferent.

Table 2.4 indicates that majority of the respondents 95.3% desire sustainable development. Only a negligible few does not desire sustainable development; and were indifferent probably due to their present condition or state of mind.

Table 2.5 shows that 53.3% of the respondents noted that women have roles to play in sustainable development 44.7% of the respondents believed that women have no roles to play in sustainable development probably due to their socio-cultural orientation, while 2% of the respondents were indifferent.

Finally, in table 2.6, respondents made their opinion known on factors militating against women empowerment in Nigeria. 55% of the respondents identified customs and traditions as factors militating against the empowerment of women, 8% of the respondents opined that violence against women militates against their empowerment, 10% of the respondents noted that poor access to education militates against women empowerment, 24% of the respondents identified unequal access to economic and political opportunity as a factor militating against women empowerment while only 3% of the respondents noted that poor access to healthcare services militates against women empowerment.

Respondents suggested measures to ensure women's empowerment and sustainable development in Nigeria. The measures suggested will go a long way to ensure women's empowerment and sustainable development in Nigeria. First, the government of Nigeria has to implement policies and laws that support women's empowerment and sustainable development throughout the country. A lot of laws and policies on women empowerment, liberation, emancipation, and gender equality are in place but the political will to implement these policies is lacking at all levels of government. The Federal government of Nigeria needs to encourage all the states in the country to adopt and domesticate these laws and policies for sustainable development.

Moreover, there is a need for sensitization campaigns and re-orientation of people about the gains of women empowerment and the dangers of discrimination against women in society. A lot of people are still engrossed with the age-long practices of subjugation of women and relegating women to second fiddle in the society in line with customs and traditions. This attitude and assumption about women need to be corrected for the realization of sustainable development.

Moreover, all hands must be on deck to empower women in all spheres towards the achievement of sustainable development in Nigeria, Africa, and all over the world.

Women are mothers, wives, sisters, and daughters. They mean so much to society and Nigerians have a duty to empower women in order to achieve sustainable development goals (SDGs).

The result of the test of the hypothesis using Pearson's product-moment correlation to determine the relationship between women empowerment and sustainable development epitomized by the data in table 2.2 and table 2.4 clearly shows that there is a positive linear correlation between women empowerment and sustainable development with a correlation coefficient value of $r = 0.884251$. This result supported the position of Lohani and Aburaida (2017) that women's empowerment is a key to sustainable development.

6. Conclusion and recommendations

The result generated from this study shows a positive relationship between women's empowerment and sustainable development. The study examined the need for women's empowerment and sustainable development and found out that women's empowerment is necessary and sustainable development is desirable. However, a number of factors are still militating against women's empowerment in Nigeria. These factors include poor access to education, violence against women, preference for male children, unequal access to advance economic and political opportunity, and poor access to healthcare services among others.

The study, therefore, recommends that the government of Nigeria need to implement policies and laws that support women's empowerment and sustainable development throughout the country. The Federal government of Nigeria has a duty to encourage all the states in the country to adopt and domesticate laws and policies that support women's empowerment for sustainable development.

In addition, Nigerians must be sensitized and re-orientated about the gains of women empowerment and the dangers of discrimination against women in society. Equally, women should be encouraged to strive for the best and emulate other women in the society that rose to the top by sheer determination and commitment.

References

1. Akomolafe, C. O. (2006). "Open and Distance Learning as a Mechanism for Women Empowerment in Nigeria" Educational Foundations and Management Amhara Region Women Entrepreneurs Association, Ethiopia, Women's Economic Empowerment Series, Sida, Stockholm.
2. Center for Women Policy Studies, (2013) www.guidestar.org/profile/52-0962100
3. Charlier, S. and Caubergs, L., (2007). The Women Empowerment Approach. A Methodological Guide, Commission on Women and Development, Brussell.
4. Danjuma, Muhammad, & Alkali (2013). Factors Militating Against Women Economic Empowerment and Poverty Reduction in African Countries, *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 13 (6), 47-51
5. Ejemudo, K.B.O (2013) Gender Equality and Women Empowerment in Nigeria: The Desirability and Inevitability of a Pragmatic Approach. *Developing Country Studies* 3 (4), 60.

6. Hazel, R. and Sally, B. (2000). Gender and Development. Concepts and Definitions. *BRIDGE (Development-Gender)* 55: 1-38. Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
7. Jayaraman, R. (2008). Performance Analysis of Fisherwomen Self Help Groups. *Journal of Veterinary and Animal Sciences* 4 (2), 52-55.
8. Lohani, M; and Aburaida, L. (2017). Women Empowerment: A key to Sustainable Development. *The Social Ion* 6 (2), 26 – 29.
9. Mishra, P.K and Tripath, P (2018). Women and Sustainable Development Goals. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/327814277_Women_and_Sustainable_Development_Goals
10. Ogujiuba, K.K; Ehigiamusoe, K.U; and Patrick, U. (2013). The challenges and implications of sustainable development in Africa: Policy options for Nigeria. *Journal of Economic Cooperation and Development*, 34 (4), 77-112.
11. Parsons, R., Gutierrez, L. and Coz, E., (1998). *A model of empowerment practice*. In Empowerment in Social Work Practice. Pacific Grove, CA, Brooks.
12. Ponthieux, S. and Meurs, D. (2015) Gender Inequality. Handbook of Income Distribution 2A: 983. DOI: 10.1016/B978-0-444-59428-0.00013-8
13. Sharma, P. (2007). Micro-finance and Women Empowerment. *The Journal of Nepalese Business Studies* 4(1), 16-27.
14. UN (2015) Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld>
15. World Bank Institute (2007). Empowerment in Practice: Analysis and Implementation. A World Bank Learning Module. *The World Bank, Washington, DC*, 1-60.

RESPONSES OF MAIZE PRODUCTION TO CLIMATE VARIABILITY IN THE NDOP PLAIN: NORTHWEST REGION OF CAMEROON

Leonard Nkimih CHOP¹, Valery NKIENE², Julliete KARBA², Albert NDUM³.

¹National Institute of Cartography (Cameroon)

²Department of Geography, University of Yaoundé 1 (Cameroon)

³Department of International Development, Madison University, USA (Cameroon)

Abstract: *Climatic factors have severe effects on maize production methods and yield in the Ndop plain of Cameroon. As a measure to attain food self-sufficiency in this area, maize farmers have resorted to modifying production methods and tools since obtaining a desirable output has become major issue. Utilizing a research method that entailed the collection of data from primary sources (field observation, interview, focused group discussions) and secondary sources such as publications from libraries, Government, ministries and NGOs, we were able to study the strategies of adaptation adopted by maize farmers to the effects of climate variability in the Ndop plain. The results show that there has been a general increase in the dominant elements of weather and climate such as rainfall and temperature indicated by the frequent occurrence of several hydro meteorological extreme events (floods, droughts, dry spells, storms). With regards to rainfall it was realized that there were 4 outstanding positive anomalies and 3 outstanding negative anomalies while temperature had 8 outstanding positive and 6 outstanding negative anomalies. Findings revealed that the perception of farmers on the impacts of climate variability on maize production corroborate scientific results. Our investigation shows that there has been a significant level of adaptation to cope with the above situation. This is confirmed by the Pearson's chi square. With the degree of freedom being 12 at a significant level of 0.90, the critical value was 6.34 while the calculated valued stood at 8.062. Maize producers in this area have adopted certain adaptation strategies at the farm level, farmers' level and plant level. However the implementation of these adaptations is highly limited by certain barriers. The level of adoption is still quite minimal due rejection of innovations by some farmers. This accounts for the relatively insignificant increase in output. Considering the facts that the strategies adopted cannot fully solve the problem, there is therefore the need for all stakeholders to be actively involved in the implementation of the different adaptation strategies and the recommendations mentioned in this document such as financial assistance in the maize base sector for the purchase of tools, HYS, the promotion of agricultural research and education and the development of irrigation schemes.*

Keywords: *Maize Farmers, Responses, Climate Variability, Ndop Plain.*

1. Introduction

Climate is major factor of global food production. Maize being the third world's most important crop after wheat and Rice (Alabi, 1999) is also conditioned by climatic factors. Individual, communities, nation, civil societies and organizations have responded in diverse ways towards mitigating and adapting to the adverse effects of climate variability through International conventions and agreements, (Nkwemoh & Nkimih, 2019). Considering the rapid growth in the demand for maize, there is the need to improve upon output over the coming decades (Wudiri & Fatoba, 1992), though this appears difficult due to the declining natural resource.

Studies have been carried out on the general impacts of climate variability by Tani (1978), Ayonge (2000), Tsalefac and Amougou (2008), Molua (2009) and Odjugo (2010). Others have carried out studies on the impacts of climate change and variability on global food production such as Ekpoh (2004) who dealt with climate change and tropical agriculture, Rosenzweig and Parry (1994) studied the potential impacts of climate change on world's food security. De Datta (1981), Parry et al. (1999), peng et al. (2004) Sarker (2012) and GIEC (2007, 2014) found out that heat or high temperature stress caused problems, induced by many biochemical, molecular and physiological changes whose responses in turn impacts a gamut of cellular reaction and on the entire processes of vegetal that affects yields and quality of crops yield in particular in the tropics. The impacts and Adaptation or responses of specific climatic indices and or parameters on specific crops have been examined variously by Satake & Yoshida (1978), collier et al (1991), Adams (2000), Levy et Veilleux (2007) Sarker et al (2012), Nkiene (2015), Nkwemoh (2016) and Nkwemoh & Nji (2017), Nkwemoh & Nkimih (2019).

The cultivation of maize in the Ndop Plain is as old as the history of the early settlers. The physico-human environment has presented a wonderful opportunity for crop production. The Ndop plain is surrounded by hills such as the Sabga at the upstream of river Noun. This presents a favorable environment for the development of fertile alluvial soil in the plain necessary for the cultivation of maize. In The beginning of this activity, maize output has always been kept on a continuous rise depending on the number of hectares cultivated. Farmers depended on the natural environment and could certainly determine their output even before cultivation. They knew when the rainy season would approach and when the dry season will set in and as such output was never a doubt.

Over the past few decades climate variability has greatly influenced maize production in the area. There has been a steady fluctuation in annual yields showing severe reduction in some years. Maize is either cultivated by individual farmers or farmers union (Common Initiative Groups) such as; the association of sons and daughters of Mankah, in Baba1, Basket Women Farming Group-Bambalang, Bit by Bit Common Initiative Group Balikumbat, Ngiemoh Mixed Farming Group Bamunkumbit etc. Both cash crops and food crops are cultivated though 90% of food crops farmers cultivate for subsistence. (Nkwemoh & Nkimih, 2019).

Considering the current trends of climate variability in the Ndop plain, productivity has become unpredictable. There has been a remarkable drop in annual maize output in the area over the study period (1980-2015). In order to cope with the falling yields, maize farmers have resorted to certain adaptation strategies. Our investigation was therefore guided by the following objectives.

- I. To show the impacts of climate variability on maize production,
- II. To analyze the responses or adaptation strategies adopted by maize farmers and

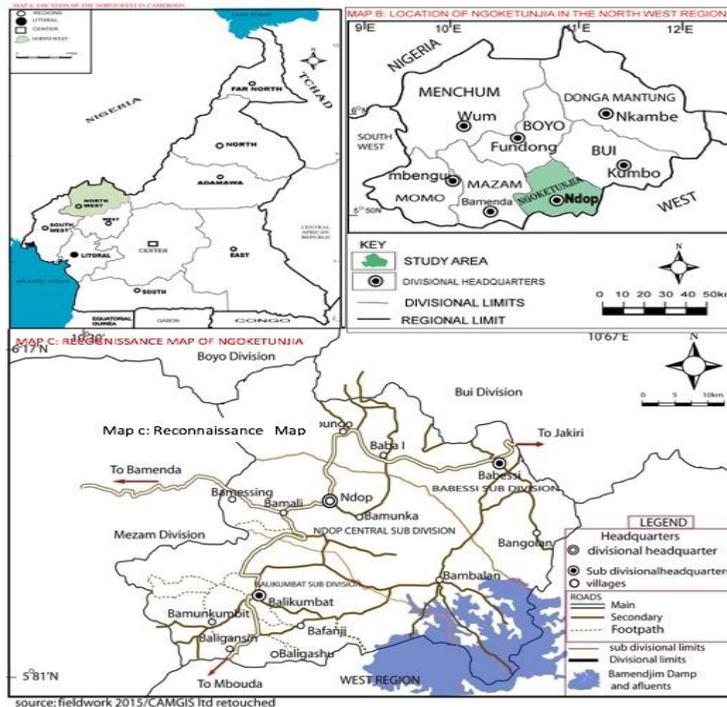
The results of our investigation thus serve as a point of reference for developmental works in the farming sector as a whole and maize base sector in particular at the local, national, international and scientific scales.

2. Biophysical background

The study area is located between latitude 5°81' and 6°17' north of the equator and longitude 10° 30 East to 10° 67 east of the Greenwich Meridian. Ndop plane is found in the North West Region of Cameroon precisely in the eastern part of the region. It is bordered in the west by the Mezam division, to the south by Bamboutos and Noun Divisions, to the

east by Bui division and to the North by Boyo Division. The Ndop plain is made up of three Sub Divisions; Ndop Central Sub Division, Balikumbat Sub Division and Babessi sub division with a total of 13 autonomous villages (figure 1).

Figure 1: Location of the study area



Source: fieldwork 2015/ CAMGIS ltd retouched

The Ndop plain is found between high lava plateau and the Bamoum plateau. It has a flat landscape and forms a part of the Great Cameroon Line that stretches from Fernando-po to mount Cameroon and to the Mandara Mountains in the northern part of the country. Ngoketunjia has an average altitude of 1150M above sea level with an extensive low altitude (the Ndop plain). This plain is limited by few hills like the Bamessing-Sabga , the Bamungo hill that extend to Belo sub division in Boyo and the Bamunkumbit–Baligansin hill that extends right up to Santa sub-division in the Mezame division and Bamboutos in the west.

The distribution of temperature, wind, precipitation and humidity of the area is exhibited in the relief characteristics of the zone. The climatic characteristics of the Ndop plain like the North West Region of Cameroon shows two distinct seasons, the wet and the dry seasons. The rainy season begins in the month of March and ends between October and early November while the dry season runs from November to March. Ndop plain has a favorable hydrographic network for the cultivation of maize. There is a dense hydrographic network with permanent water courses like the river Noun which is the largest and the longest river, river Monkie, Sefou, Meyem, Mbeye, Tembou, Monoun, Melongo. The soil is much more hydromorphic and clayey and carries much more of hydrophytic vegetation with patches of gallery forest and grasses.

3. Materials and methods

Data were collected from secondary sources which included documents such as text books, dissertations, theses, journals, newspapers, magazines, reports, periodicals, articles and all materials drawn from the internet. All these research documents were obtained from places like, ministries (MINADER, MINIFOF, MINT, National Institute for Statistics, newspapers production centers), libraries (library of the faculty of arts letters and social sciences and Master's library of the University of Yaoundé 1 etc), internet sources (ASK, Google, bring, Wikipedia ...). Research from the above cited sources resulted to the acquisition of diverse information including the map of North West Region and Ngketunjia Division adapted from the topographical sheets, Bafoussam NB-32, Nkambe NB-32-XVII at a scale of 1;200000. A total of 300 questionnaires were intended for maize farming households but 220 were actually responded. These questionnaires had 71 questions that were semi-structured in order to assess farmers' responses. It was structured under five main headings; personal identification, farm related issues, farmers perception of climate variability, the impacts on maize production and adaptation of maize production to the effects of climate variability in the study area. Interviews were conducted with the divisional and sub divisional delegates for Agriculture and Rural Development, leaders of Common Initiative Groups and certain health workers using interview guide. Five (05) focus groups discussions were effectively carried out in 05 different villages.

The first method of data analysis was descriptive. This was done based on trend between operational variables and response variables with the use of mean, running mean, Coefficient of Variance, Standard Deviation and coefficient of determination were fitted in some cases to show relationship between changes in the operational variables and response variables. Any value closer to 1 show a strong relationship and any value closer to 0 shows a weak relationship. Analysis done from questionnaires, responses from interviews, focus group discussions and field observation were used to identify methods of adaptation or responses.

The second method used was basically inferential. For operational and response variables, regressive lines were drawn so as to determine differences and similarities in their trends. The equations of trend lines were fitted in some cases. Correlation analysis was done using the Student T- test and Pearson's chi square for a better understanding of impacts and adaptation respectively. Statistical tools were used to determine the level of significance through correlation between methods of adaptation and respondents. The above techniques of data analysis helped in calculating inter-annual and mean monthly averages which were therefore used in indicating trend pattern. Regressive lines were fitted in the trend so as to determine general trends. The equation of each trend line is given as;

$$Y=MX+C$$

Where Y=Value of data (eg rainfall in mm)

M=the gradient

X=the years under consideration

C=the intercept on y axis when x=0

Increasing or decreasing trends were easily indicated by the positive or negative gradient of the lines. There was equally the use of cartographic techniques in the production of maps such as Adobe illustrator and ArcGIS. SPSS (statistical package for social science) and Micro soft word EXCEL were used in counting questionnaires, generating frequency tables and realizing charts. The data analyzed were presented in the

form of graphs, charts, histograms and tables. Using cartographic techniques, data was presented in the form of maps and photographs.

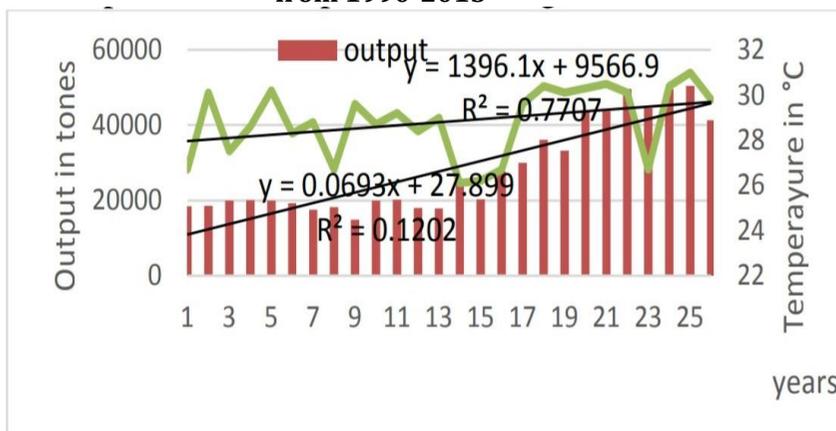
4. Results and discussions

Climate is a major factor that influences maize production in the Ndop plain. Maize is not just a staple food in this area; it is also an important source of income to the population. Maize crop require a favorable climatic condition at all phonological stages and so the crop is very sensitive to climatic variability. This is why variability in climate is liable to affect crop yields due to the frequent occurrence of **Floods, droughts, dry spells, storms, heat waves and cold waves** (Nkwemoh & Chop, 2019). The effect of these hazards is confirmed by the correlation analysis between Rainfall and maize yield, Temperature data and maize yields (fig 2 and 3).

A. Inter-Relationship between Mean Annual Temperature and Maize Yields

Temperature variation has caused remarkable impacts on maize yield over the Study period. This is particularly observed in years when average annual temperature goes far beyond the general average (temperature anomalies). **Using Student T-Test** findings show that the perceptions of farmers on the impacts of temperature on maize corroborate scientific results. With the degree of freedom being **50**, considering that it was at a **0.05** level of significance, the critical value for a two tail t-test is **2.02** which is far lesser than the calculated t-value **4.02**. There were **8** outstanding positive and **6** outstanding negative anomalies (figure 02).The information in this figure correlates temperature data and maize yield from 1990 to 2015. 1990 is represented as year 01 while 2015 is represented by year 25.

Figure 2: Correlation between Maize Output and Average Annual Temperature from 1990-2015



Source: Nkwemoh @ Chop 2019

There is an increase in output and an increase in average temperature over the study period. Between 1990 and 1995, it is noticed a meaningful fluctuation in the average temperature without a substantial increase in output. From 2006-2015, there is a great increase in temperature followed by a substantial increase in yield. That notwithstanding,

there are years in which increase temperature results directly to a fall in yield. This could be seen in 1991, 1998, 2002 and 2008.

b. Inter-Relationship between Mean Annual Rainfall and Maize Yields

Correlations between maize yield and average annual rainfall over the study period show severe loses. Employing the Student T test statistical technique, with the degree of freedom being **50**, considering that it was at **0.001** level of significance, the critical value for a two-tail t-test is **3.55**. The calculated t-value is **4.65**, which is far greater than the critical value. The result of this finfing show **4** outstanding positive anomalies and **3** outstanding negative anomalies for rainfall (figure 3).

Figure 3: Correlation between Maize Output and Average Annual Rainfall from 1990-2015



Source: 2019 field investigation

The above figure indicates a slow increase in average annual rainfall and a substantial increase in average annual yield. However, one can notice a certain level of relationship between maize production and average annual rainfall. From 1990 to 1997 when average rainfall was almost constant or registered a very slow increase, annual yield was equally fluctuating at a low rate. Yield has thus increased greatly despite the fluctuation in average annual rainfall. This is due to the influence of other factors that affects maize production apart from climate. However, a problem remains is the general fluctuation in yield over the period.

c. Farmers’ Responses to Climate Variability

Much attention has been given to climate variability adaptation through new policies, technological innovations, and development interventions. Agricultural adaptation is imperative to protect the livelihoods of farmers and to ensure the food security of the area. Naturally, farmers are trying to cope with in their traditional ways based on the available resources, experiences, and exposure to vulnerability. The choice of coping option depends on social and Biophysical elements such as socio-economic characteristics of farmers’ households (farm size, level of education, household income), access to extension services, credit supply and existing resources. The different actors that have implemented certain spontaneous methods of adaptation are; farmers, Government and Non-governmental organizations. To better analyze farmers’ responses or adaptation,

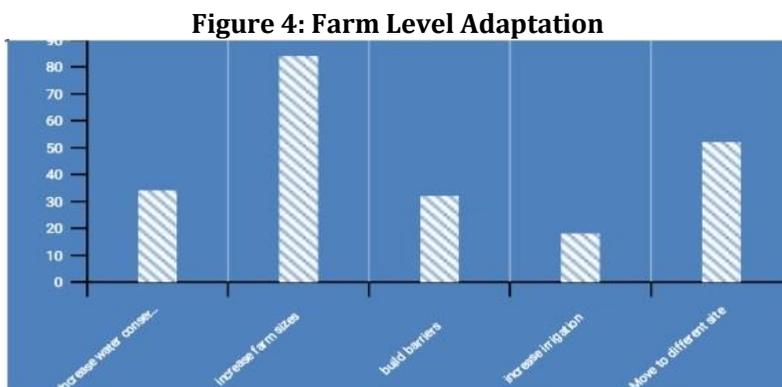
this chapter has been broken down into farm level adaptation, farmer’s level adaptation and plant level adaptation.

5.1 Farm level adaptation

Maize producers have developed certain adjustments in farms to mitigate the impacts of climate variability and boost yield. There are diverse modes of adjustments or responses which can be grouped under certain subheadings.

a) Increase farm sizes, water conservation, irrigation, barriers and creation of new farms.

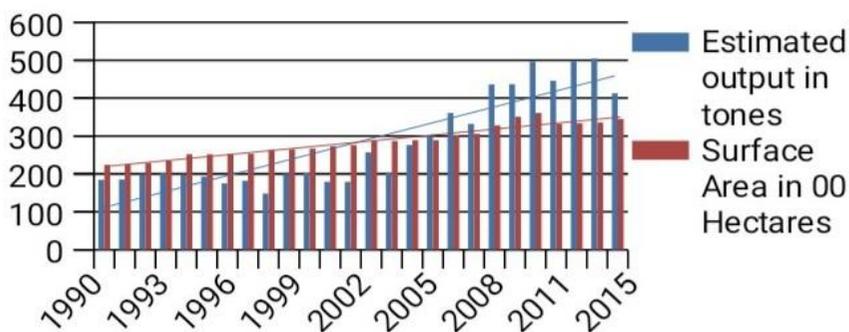
Farmers have carried out series of adjustment at the level of the farm. In most cases, farmers have either increased farms sizes, move to different sites, increased water conservation technics, built barriers and carried out irrigation schemes (figure 4).



Source; 2019 field investigation

Out of the 220 households censored during this investigation, 32.2% confirmed to have increased their farm sizes as a respond or adaptation, meanwhile 23.6% households’ moves to different sites and 15.5% increase water conservation techniques. Farmers increase farm sizes to improve upon annual yield. Most of these techniques do not seem to bring forth the desired results as they are being carried on by farmers themselves with less intervention from other actors such as the state, NGOs and Council. Maize farmers develop techniques to increase water conservation as a means to prevent soil moisture deficit which is common during droughts and dry spells. Through these farmers in a reactive way carryout dry farming. This help to shade the soil from the impacts of direct sunrays that causes high moisture loss through evaporation. This method of adaptation is common in the upland areas of Balikumbat Sub Division and Babungo where sunshine often results to severe soil moisture deficit causing the plant to dry up. Increasing farm sizes is often an important option taken by farmers to promote yield. In situation where a proportion of crop has been damaged, farmers immediately respond by cultivating new farm lands so as to increase annual yield and ensure food security. Figure 5 shows the evolution of annual maize output in tones in Ngoketunjia Division and total surface area in hectares cultivated annually for the 25years period considered during this study, (1990-2015).

Figure 5: The evolution of maize production output and surface area cultivated.



Source; DDARD for Ngoketunjia

In a general manner, it can be observed there has been a constant increase in the surface area cultivated from 1990- 2015. This has resulted to a progressive increase in yields with increase in years. This is observed in 2003, 2007, 2011, 2013 and 2014. However, years in which increase surface area have caused little or no increase in yields have been observed. Some of these years even coincide with years of reduction in yield for instance 1998, 2008, 2002 and 2003. This is probably due to the adversity of the climatic conditions resulting to floods, dry spells, droughts etc.

b) Measures to increase soil fertility and to prevent the spread of diseases

Maize producers in the Ndop plain are gradually turning toward severe mechanization. This is seen the application of chemical and Nitrogen fertilizer as well as stabilizers as a way of improving soil nutrients. The most common types of nitrogen fertilizers used in this area are NPK (nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium) and Urea ammonium nitrate (UAN) solution which are applied to the surface. Nitrogen fertilizer is one of the most critical input in corn production. Its importance is highlighted in years when excess rainfall leads to Nitrogen deficiency and thus yield reduction. However, under prolonged wet field condition, Nitrogen can be lost from the soil and losses may be moderate or severe, depending on the form of N fertilizer and the extent of wet, warm condition that favors its loss. The most common among the N fertilizer in this area are; Anhydrous ammonia, Urea and Urea ammonium Nitrate (UAN) solution. Apart from the utilization of Nitrogen fertilizers, some farmers have turned toward household waste, animal waste and crop residue as a way to improve upon soil nutrient.

Considering the severe impacts of weed on maize production, Weed control has become an important management practice for maize production. Methods of weed control are more feasible, less laborious, cost effective and economical. These are Weed management strategies which attempt to limit the deleterious effects of weeds growing with crop plants. These effects could be quite variable but the most common is competition for available resources. The quantities of growth factors used by weeds are thus unavailable to the crop. Some of the grass weed found in maize are; *Cynodon dactylon*, *Dactyloctenium aegypticum*, *Echinochloa crusgalli*. The following are methods of weed control adopted by maize farmers in Ngoketunjia.

I) **Weed control through efficient seed bed preparation:** This constitutes two to three ploughing followed by 2 to 3 harrowing which do not only bring desired tilth but makes weed free seed bed preparation. Ridge and furrows layout further reduces weed intensity.

II) **Weed control through seed treatments:** Soaking the maize seed in water for 24 hours and sowing and shade dry makes the seed to germinate earlier compared to weed seed and gives upper hand to maize crop over weeds. This practice besides provides optimum plant stands and reduce crop duration.

III) **Chemical weed control:** Weed control by mechanical means is possible only when crop grows up to certain stage and crop has to compete with weed till such period. Chemical weedicides are being applied in such a situation to combat the problem. Pre-plant, pre-emergent herbicides are applied to the soil surface and mechanically mixed in the soil before the crop is planted. Herbicides applied before the corn emerges offer the advantage of controlling weed before they compete with the corn when it is in the seedling stage; this is the most critical time with regards to weed reduction. Pre-plant herbicide such as EPST (Eradicane), alachlor (Micro-tec), or Metachlor (Dual magnum) can be applied on flat ground and incorporated by dicing before beds are formed and the corn is planted, or they can be applied in a band of prepared beds, then incorporated with a rolling cultivator though to a limited extent in this area. Maize production in Ngoketunjia suffers severe damages from the development of pests and diseases due to rainfall and temperature variability. Some of the major diseases that attack maize production are curve leaves, roots, stem and leaf borer. These problems have become more severe in this area as it often results to loss in yield causing low income and exposing farmers to the risk of malnutrition. Farmers have therefore developed various ways of coping with these diseases such as the utilization of insecticides. The most commonly used are; Agrovert and Caiman B. In some cases, borer destroys the anthers of the plant and as such, pollination is tampered upon. The disruption of pollination usually limits the development of kernel as there are no pollen grains to be deposited at the stigma.

c) Measures to Limit the Impacts of Wind

Wind is an important factor to be considered in maize production. Maize just like many others economically important crop is wind-pollinated but when the environment is characterized by wind of high intensity, pollination is rather limited or prevented. This is because pollen grains are constantly being carried away by wind thereby limiting fertilization at the stigma of the maize flower. Maize farmers therefore carry out mulching in order to render crops more rigid.

Mulching is the addition of soil to maize plant in order to improve upon its firmness into the soil. This is done at growth stage when the maize plants have attained 1m in height (June and May) when wind speed is always known to be high causing severe destruction of crops.

5.2. Plant Level Adaptation

In Ngoketunjia Division, there is a long history of extension services in livelihoods and adaptive processes. State-driven interventions in governance practices and the effects are of great importance in promoting external services in this area especially in the agricultural sector. A survey of NGOs active in this area showed that they have activities that are explicitly oriented toward climate variability and adaptation. Though there are few

NGOs in this area, their activities appear to be more beneficial to maize production. Some of the major external organization identified in this area are, strategic humanitarian services (SHUMAS), Plan Cameroon, Divisional Delegation of Agriculture and Rural Development for Ngoketunjia Division (DDARD), Upper Noun Valley Development Authority (UNVDA)

Plan international is one of the most active humanitarian agency in this area. The activity of this external humanitarian agency is centered purely on the promotion of children. Within this scope, plan international have provided mosquitos net, constructed public toilets in public squares and schools. This helped to reduce the spread of certain diseases that are linked to climate change and variability such as malaria, typhoid and dysentery that often attack farmers reducing their capacities to carry out. Again the government through the state subvention to groups within the framework of national support for maize subsector has been an important tool of support to group activities in this area. In that regard the government have been providing financial support to several CIGs in this area.

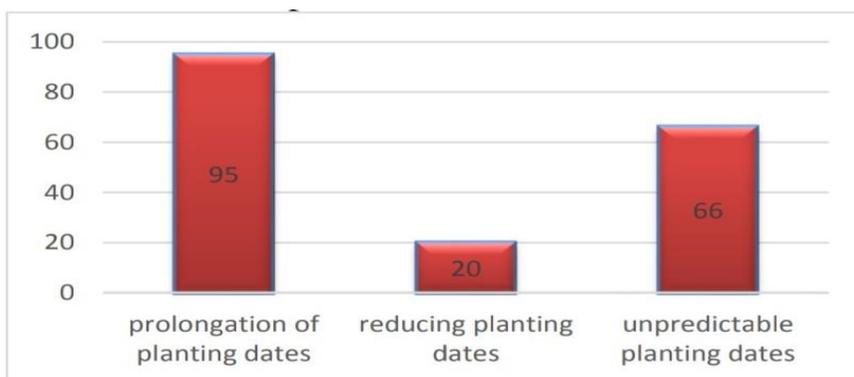
5.3. Farmers level of Adaptation

Maize plants are being adjusted to fit the current trends of annual and seasonal variability in Rainfall and temperature. These modes of adaptation vary in relation to individual farmers and topography. The following paragraphs show the different forms of adaptation undertaken by maize producers in Ngoketunjia division at the level of the farmers.\

a) Varying Planting Dates

Annual and seasonal variability in rainfall and temperature have brought about series of responses by farmers as far as planting dates are concerned. It has been observed that some farmers in this area have brought about steady variation in planting dates. This is to counteract dry spells, drought, floods etc. Generally, there is the prolongation of planting dates, reduction of planting dates; planting dates have become unpredictable and the planting of different varieties. Figure 06 shows the adjustment of planting dates by farmers face to the impacts of annual and seasonal variability in rainfall and temperature.

Figure 6: Adjustment of planting dates of sampled farmers



Source; 2019 field investigation

Out of the 220 households sampled, 43.2% households have carried out prolongation of planting dates, 9% of households have reduced planting dates and 30% couldn't predict planting dates. It can be seen that farmers do not really have a specific way of adjusting planting. However, a majority have carried out prolongation of planting dates.

b) Adjustment of maize plant

Farmers have resorted to changing the variety of maize under cultivation. Since the introduction of maize in this area, farmers have been cultivating maize traditional species with low productivity and very vulnerable to changing environment. This has often resulted to low yields. Some of the most prominent maize varieties cultivated in this area are the Coca, Kasai, APK and Panasori II. Out of the 220 farmers surveyed, 36.4% of households use short cycle plants varieties, 36.4% uses drought resistance variety and 18.2% households uses flood resistance species. However, 6.4% of households still rely on early traditional maize species which are generally associated with low output.

6. Conclusion

The result of this study shows that there exists a significant relationship between climate variability and maize production in the Ndop Plain. Result from mean monthly, annual rainfall and temperature indicates a general increase. A gradual increase has been observed in the average rainy season rainfall and dry season temperature from the first decade to the last Sub Decade. Result from rainfall analysis for the 31 years under study also indicate variations in the onset and termination of annual rainfall, number of rainy days and total annual rainfall. There is a great difference the number of rainy days between the month of first rain and the month of last rain. These variation in rainfall and temperature have resulted to the frequent occurrence of several hazards such as dry spells, droughts, floods, storms, cold and heat waves. The occurrence of these hazards remain the primary factors behind lodging of maize crops, development of pest, growth of weeds, development of roots, stems and grains borer and distortion of pollination at the plants level.

Farmers in response have developed certain approaches to cope with the current situation. Findings from field show that there has been a significant level of adaptation to cope with the above situation as confirmed by the Pearson's chi square. With the degree of freedom being **12** at a significant level of **0.90**, the critical value was **6.34** while the calculated valued measured at **8.062** confirming farmers have responded significantly to the impacts of climate variability in the area. These responses are diverse methods of adaptation put in place. These adaptation approaches are systematically classified under planned and unplanned adaptation strategies discussed at the plant level, farmers level and farm level. There appear to be a strong variation in the applicability of these methods of adaptation. Some farmers still remain adamant and refuse to embrace innovative strategies. As such we put forward the following recommendations. (1) The government should develop better techniques of managing climatic risks. (2) The government should put in place structures in charge of intervening in anticipation of weather related calamities such as floods, droughts, dry spells, storms etc. (3) Irrigation and drainage canals should be promoted in maize farms. (4) Advanced techniques of cultivation should be introduced and existing ones should be promoted. (5) More training centers should be created especially in the interior for famers to acquire basic skill needed for production. (6) Second cycle maize production should be given more attention, (7) other income

producing activities should be promoted, (8) Maize producers should rely more on plan adaptation rather than reactive adaptation. (9) The traditional council should be well integrated in the implementation of adaptation strategies and management of climatic risks as a whole.

References

1. Adams, R. (2000). *Climate variability and climate change, implications for agriculture* 56p
2. Agrawal, A. (2010). *Local institutions and adaptation to climate change*. in Mearns & Norton (eds) *Social dimensions of climate change: Equity and vulnerability in a Warming world*. The World Bank Washington, DC
3. Alabi, R. (1999). *Assessing the impacts of climate change on maize production within the Five ecological zones of Nigeria*, Nigerian Meteorological Society, (NMS), 125p.
4. Amougou, J. ; Abossolo, S. ; Haman, U. (2008). *Dynamique du climat et impact sur la production du maïs dans la partie littorale du Cameroun*
5. BER. (1991). *Effects of stem borer on the yield of maize*, 81p
6. Chop L.N. (2016). *The Adaptation of maize production to the observed effects of rainfall and temperature variability in the Ngoketunjia Division*, 156p
7. Cedrick, A. (2012). *Variabilité climatique et Adaptation l'Agriculture vivriers de Subsistance dans le groupement Foto de l'arrondissement de Dschang (Hautes terre De l'ouest-Cameroun)*, 152p.
8. Coper, P. and Dimes, J. (2008). *Coping better with current climate variability in the Rain fed farming system of Sub-Saharan Africa*, an essential first step in adapting to future climate change; *Agriculture, Ecosystem and Environment*, 126 p.
9. Corbellini, M. and Canevar, (1997). *Effects of the duration and intensity of heat shock during grain filling on dry matter, protein accumulation, technological quality and protein composition in bread and durum wheat*, vol 23, 260p.
10. Dale. F. (1983). *Temperature perturbation in Midwestern and south-eastern United states Important for corn production*, west view press Colorado, 132p.
11. DDARD. (2014). *Meteorological data pertaining to Ngoketunjia division from 2008-2015 (Temperature and precipitation)*.
12. DDARD. (2015). *Maize production output, surface area, total population, household Population of Ngoketunjia division*.
13. FAO, (1986). *African agriculture: the next 25year Rome*, 18p
14. FAO, (2007). *Adaptation to climate change in the agricultural sector, forest and Fishing (Context, Framework and periods)*, interdepartmental group work on climate change, 93p.
15. Hatfield, Jerry, L., John, H and Prueger, (2015). *Temperature extreme, effects on plant growth and development*, 132p.
16. IFAD. (2007). *The role of education in agricultural adaptation to climate variation*, 23p.
17. IPCC. (2007). *Contribution of working group one to the fourth assessment report of the Inter-governmental panel on climate change*, Solomond. S et al, Cambridge University Press, 2007, 118p.
18. Khan, S. (2008). *Managing climate risks in Australia; options for water policy and irrigation management*, vol 48, 287p. K,S. (2005): *corn growth and development*, 21p.

19. Laura, H. Joel, M and Funk, C. (2011): *Effects of Temperature changes on maize production in Mozambique*, 98p.
20. Michell and Petolino, (1998): *The impacts of high temperature on cell division*, 87p
21. Nkiene, V. A. (2014): *Vulnerability of swamp rice production to the effects of climate variability, The case of Ndop central sub division*. A master dissertation university of Yaounde 1(155).
22. Nkwemoh C.A and Chop L.N. (2019): Predisposition of maize production to the impacts of temperature variation in the Ngketunjia Area, Cameroon, 13p
23. Nkwemoh, C.A. (1999). *The impacts of agro-pastoral activities on the physical environment of The Mezam- Ngoketunjia area*, 282p. Cambridge advanced learners dictionary, 2ndedition, 454p.
24. Nyandico, N. (2014). *Effects of climate variability on maize yield in the arid and semi-arid lands of lower eastern Kenya*, 110p.
25. Odjugo, (2010). *The impact of climate change on food crop production and adaptation Strategies* 148p.
26. Samuel, A. ; Joseph, A. and Mesmin, T. (2017). *Perturbation climatiques et pratiques agricoles dans les zones agro écologiques du Cameroun*, 251p
27. Tsalefac, M. (1983). *Ambiance climatique de Hautes terre de l'ouest du Cameroun* ; thèses de doctorat, université de Yaoundé 1, Département de Géographie. 189p.
28. Zoelick, (2009). *Effects of rainfall and temperature variability on rain fed crops*, 58p.

LOCAL GOVERNANCE AND IMPACTS OF ARTISANAL GOLD MINING ON THE POPULATIONS OF NGOURA IN EASTERN CAMEROON

Innocent Camille DANG

PhD Student, University de Yaoundé I (Cameroon)

Email: Dangcamille9@gmail.com

Abstract: *Artisanal gold mining is one of the oldest civilizations inherent in human anthropology. From the gold coast in Ghana, passing through the flourishing mines of Ubangi-Chari, to the auriferous breasts of Batouri in eastern Cameroon, gold mining is a thousand-year-old tradition that has made greatness of the great kingdoms and empires of pre-colonial black Africa. Its long culture in the region of East Cameroon in general but in Ngoura in particular has known for several decades a mining boom generated by an unprecedented explosion, accompanied by significant impacts on the economic, environmental and socio-cultural levels. Indeed, in this context, many developing countries have embarked on a process of decentralization of decision-making in public matters, often with the management of natural resources as the engine of development and related reforms. However, starting from this postulate, our reflection pursues a plural objective, first of all to show how the regions potentially rich in mineral resources are exposed to covetousness and at the same time constitute migratory crossroads, and then to highlight the impacts linked to artisanal gold mining in the Batouri region in eastern Cameroon, and finally suggest some perspectives in order to gradually plan the shift of artisanal gold mining from its informal ocean to the formal sector which would contribute to growth local government revenue. In short, to help local governance to design better local development programs and lead to better decisions in the management of their resources, this article is based on the concept of decentralization which could be enriched by an increasing application of participatory methods of management and exploitation of natural resources. Thus, through a multidisciplinary methodology, and a theory focused on local development, enriched with an abundance of sources made: decrees, application laws, works, theses, dissertations, articles, clippings of newspapers and field surveys, this study is based on the analysis of the excesses linked to artisanal gold mining as a whole in Ngoura.*

Keywords: *Local governance, Artisanal mining, gold, Ngoura, East Cameroon*

The town of Ngoura is an old town in the East-Cameroon region, located in the heart of the department of Lom and Djerem. Once dependent on the district of Bétaré-Oya, it will be erected as a district municipality by decree N° 95/082 of April 24, 1995 following the break-up of the district of Bétaré-Oya in 1993. The locality extends over an area of 7000 m² for 32 villages so the main ethnic groups are: Gbaya, Bororos, Foulbé, Haoussa, Bamiléké, Bamoum, and Maka. The dominant economic activities are agriculture, livestock, fishing, petty trade, crafts, and above all artisanal and semi-mechanized mining of gold deposits and sometimes logging, with a population estimated at: 59,594 inhabitants. However, it knows an intense activity of the artisanal exploitation of gold which is not without consequence since the Chinese invasion in the sector with the semi-mechanized methods (Leduc et al, 2000: 4). However, the artisanal exploitation of gold, commonly called "gold panning", as opposed to mechanized and intensive industrial exploitation, consists in the exploitation of this resource in an unplanned way, by manual methods with tools, rudimentary. Within the meaning of the Cameroonian mining code, artisanal mining

refers to "any mining whose activities consist in extracting and concentrating mineral substances using manual and minimally mechanized methods and processes". It is mainly centered on alluvial gold generally located at the edge of rivers. In most countries of sub-Saharan Africa and in Cameroon in particular, artisanal gold mining is widespread. Thus, in the mining areas, like that of the locality of Ngoura, more than 66% of the population depends economically on the artisanal exploitation of gold (Friedrich, 2015: 17). Despite the relatively complex conditions in which it operates, artisanal gold mining plays a considerable role in the dynamics of the local economy. It offers rural populations more diversified basic economic activities such as jobs both in mining operations and in the related services that these operations would require. Artisanal gold mining, due to its clandestine and informal nature, is of little or no interest to the State, which consequently creates a significant lack of information on the various risks associated with it. This lack of knowledge mainly concerns the impacts relating to the human component such as health, lifestyle, the specificities of socio-economic grouping systems and in particular socio-cultural aspects. Indeed, artisanal gold mining, despite the strong enthusiasm it arouses on the part of local populations, presents many negative impacts which must be highlighted through a reliable impact study, in order to help decision-making by setting up a management plan. The first challenge of this article is to place people at the heart of artisanal mining in order to bring artisanal miners towards a more legal and formal framework and to minimize health risks. However, if the effects on the environment can a priori be apprehended, the analysis of the impacts on the human component is still poorly studied, taking little account of cultural, sociological and even psychological specificities. At this stage, it therefore appears important, even capital, to evaluate and characterize them. This study targeted the locality of Ngoura, which constitutes an excellent pilot site, because it combines several characteristics common to other mining areas in the East where artisanal mining is predominant (Leduc, and al: 2000). The analyzed of this article can be used for the balanced development of resources, the improvement of living conditions and the establishment of mining operators. This study also aims to determine the impact of gold mining on the populations of Ngoura in the East Region of Cameroon.

1. Ngoura: a civilization of artisanal gold mining in eastern Cameroon

The civilization of gold mining in the Ngoura region is centuries old, and concentrates several centers in the East Cameroon region. It has known for the last two decades a spectacular rush of women and children to the detriment of other activities such as agriculture, trade, hunting, fishing or livestock. This intense gold mining activity is a reflection of the dynamics and issues that mark the history of the peoples and communities that have it.

1.1. Artisanal gold panning: A cultural heritage of the peoples of the Ngoura communit

The region of Eastern Cameroon is one of the oldest civilizations so the culture of artisanal gold mining dates back to time immemorial. It is an ancestral heritage, present in all the communities which abound in mining resources, therefore the region of Ngoura which is the subject of our study. Taking into account the concept of artisanal mining, and socio-cultural realities, the Cameroonian mining code stipulates that: artisanal mining designates: any exploitation whose activities consist in extracting and concentrating mineral substances using methods and processes manual or minimally mechanized (Feudjio, 2016: 87.). So the small mine is part of the mining craft as opposed to the mine

industry which uses great means and in quantity. However, the maximum depth of artisanal mining works is 30 meters within the framework of an area of one hectare with a maximum of four hectares for an operator (four authorizations possible per applicant).

1.2. Dynamics and challenges of artisanal gold mining in the locality of Ngoura in Eastern Cameroon

Since the early 2000s, the Cameroonian mining sector has generally recorded positive average growth rates. These rates appeared for some years well above those recorded for example in other sectors and even in agriculture, the main base of the country's economy. In the region of Eastern Cameroon particularly where this growth has been the strongest, thanks to the exploitation of natural resources mainly drawn from diamonds and especially gold, driven by the good performance of prices on the various international markets. While the social development indicators are among the lowest in the world, the important literature on mining operations, for the most part, has focused on growth, neglecting the effect on other dimensions of development. The objective of this study is to show the extent of artisanal gold mining in the locality of Ngoura in East Cameroon. More specifically, we will analyze: its impact on economic activities, the environment, the evolution of inequalities, and the dynamics of human capital. The dimension is particularly important because it is in line with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), particularly those related to poverty reduction, universal health coverage, education and gender equality (Yeboah, 2008: 112). Therefore, it is appropriate to take a dive into this ocean of precariousness in which artisanal gold mining bathes and how its informal framework imposes itself as a legitimate right in local communities, accentuating by the same circumstance the trafficking illegal activities, environmental disorders, and population health issues. Moreover, as part of this analysis, we estimated the effect of artisanal gold mining on the joint evolution of local income and the accumulation of human capital.

Moreover, among the localities potentially rich in mining resources in the East-Cameroon region, that of Ngoura appears to be fundamentally dependent on artisanal gold mining in view of its strong preponderance and the financial autonomy or the direct money that it procures for the mining farmers. Indeed, it should be noted that this unequal dependence on the artisanal exploitation of gold in its informal form, is a consequence political fragmentation, and further reinforces heterogeneity in local communities. This is perceptible in the economic and local performances recorded during the recent period. By way of illustration, the human development indices of localities producing mining resources are relatively low and without this even being accompanied by a significant improvement in life expectancy or the level of education. Similarly, the size of the population differs and is very unevenly distributed within one locality and from one region to another. However, some regions that have been victims of dependency effects have diversified their economies in strategic production sectors and have substantially reduced their dependence on basic raw materials, such as coffee, compared to the 1970s. However, on the basis of local geostrategic (Friedrich: 2015) issues and local economic policies to be implemented in the various communities of the Ngoura region, a synergy of state and local actors would be a panacea so that artisanal gold mining is no longer abandoned to the anarchy of the informal, but be in a formal framework the fuel that participates effectively in the well-being of local development.

1.3. Chinese involvement and semi-mechanized gold panning in the Ngoura region

To understand the redefinition of the government of mines in Cameroon, it is useful to look at the power relations at the local level between populations and local authorities and the upheavals that these relations can experience with the entry into play of a third actor, in our case, a Chinese company. Natural resources of their land and block the way to the machines of the Chinese mining company. The Chinese state-owned company Sinosteel Corporation has obtained the permit... which has recently explored the Mont Maumelle's iron mine. The population, led by the village chief, demands the immediate cessation of the activities of the Chinese company which they suspect of illegally exploiting iron, no representative of the company having come to present themselves to the village chief as required (Friedrich: 2015). The tradition, in absolute terms, the villagers ask above all that in return for its presence on what they consider to be their land, Sinosteel provides them with water, electricity and work in the mine, three elements which are particularly lacking in this bush zone. To understand the reasons for this barricade and the social and political relationships that cross this mining region, I decided to go there in February 2011, accompanied by a local guide, member of a local (NGO). My guide and companion in Ngoura is a volunteer who speaks the local language and knows both the people of the region and the area where the Sinosteel Company is located

The Chinese interpreter who speaks a little French shows me around the site, delighted to show the facilities to a student who has come especially from Paris to discover a mine. My guide takes the opportunity to ask a few questions to the few Cameroonians who work there. The return of the camp leader forces us to leave the place. We return to Ngoura, to meet the village chief and the villagers who had opposed the company in 2014. In addition to many recriminations against the French who "let them down", the Chinese who invade them and the government and the local authorities "who eat the money" of the foreign companies, the young men of the village insist on their expectations about Sinosteel in terms of infrastructures and jobs. This conflict is indicative of the social and political relationships that characterize mining policy in Cameroon today (Penaye, et al, 2013: 5.). Combining popular imaginations reminiscent of the concessionary companies of the early 20th century, it reveals both the new methods of management of mining resources by the Cameroonian government and the diversity of interactions between all the actors (representatives of the State, foreign companies, NGOs, local populations) concerned by the recent policy of development of mining resources by the Cameroonian government. Thus, since the beginning of the 2000s, and in particular following the adoption of a new mining code in 2001 Most of these, which arrived in recent years, are small exploration companies and little-known juniors, often created with the prospect of signing a contract with the Cameroonian government.

These small companies are little known. At first glance, the privatization of mining policy in Cameroon would be part of a "downward" transformation of the regulatory capacities of the State. The erosion of capacities for action and the "withdrawal of the State" advocated by international financial institutions can paradoxically lead to the redeployment of the State and a transformation of power relations, particularly between the State and companies. This observation therefore suggests a paradox: While the state is certainly disengaging from mining strictly speaking, the daily relations of the Cameroonian presidency with foreign companies allow it to keep control over the management of mining revenue. Indeed, the privatization of the mining policy entails a recentralization of the

decision-making process in favor of power (presidency in the first place, Ministry of Mines and affiliated organizations then), the gesture of the delegation not necessarily being synonymous with a complete transfer of power to foreign companies. These power relations at the local level, which would suggest that the Cameroonian State, not having the means to control and monitor mining activities, is weakened by these shortcomings, would in fact hide an instrumentalization of the mining policy by the central power and an appropriation of the rent by the representatives of the public authority (Goh, 2016: 8.). The absence of regular relations between the companies and the local authorities is in any case the reflection of a centralized management in the capital of the contracts between the presidency and the international directors of foreign companies.

2. Socio-environmental changes and the effects of artisanal gold activity in the locality of Ngoura

The shift from traditional habits to the rush to artisanal gold mining in the locality of Ngoura is a cultural manifesto so the repercussions are proportionally variable from one area to another.

2.1. Contrasts in local economic growth

Mining activity in the locality of Ngoura mainly concerns the exploitation of: gold, diamonds, mercury and aggregates. This activity is dominant in Gounté, Kolomine and Batouri. These minerals are exploited on a small scale by the local population and in a semi-industrial way by some Chinese and other mining companies. The products exploited are sometimes channeled into clandestine circuits, although they can produce taxes for the municipality if they pass through the formal circuits. The local economy is mainly driven by agricultural and mining activity. In agriculture, the main crops grown are: food crops which employ a large part of the working population. They are intended for domestic consumption and supplying the local market. Commercial activity is quite developed thanks to the presence of mining areas which attract many populations and constitute economic centers (Kolomine and Ngoura) in the commune. It is carried out by local retail traders and large traders who own the shops, boutiques and food outlets where traders from the villages come to stock up (N.O. C, 2011: 28.). These traders participate in the development of the locality through the payment of local taxes and levies. The tertiary sector is dominated by service offerings (provision of goods and services). In the municipality, there are various structures and infrastructures that offer the population the financial service, including microfinance, money transfer and postal service. Other activities are developed as part of the local economy, such as livestock farming, fishing, crafts, services and artisanal mining (gold, mercury and diamonds). They are practiced by local populations and constitute an important source of employment.

2.2. Environmental consequences

When active mining ceases, the mining facilities and site are rehabilitated and closed. The goal of a mine site rehabilitation and closure plan should always be to return the site to a condition that resembles the pre-mining condition as closely as possible. Mines that are famous for their immense environmental impacts have most often produced these impacts only during the closure phase, when mining operations had ceased. These impacts can persist for decades and even centuries (Penaye, et al: 2013). Therefore, the EIA for each proposed mining project should include a detailed discussion of the rehabilitation and

closure plan offered by the mining project proponent. Mine rehabilitation and closure plans should describe in sufficient detail how the mining company will restore the site as closely as possible to the pre-mining environmental condition; how it will prevent - in perpetuity - the release of toxic contaminants from various mining facilities (such as abandoned open pits and tailings ponds); and how funds will be set aside to ensure that rehabilitation and closure costs will be paid for this purpose as shown in the photo below.

Figure 1: Environmental damage from artisanal gold mining in Ngoura



Source: snapshot, Camille Dang, Ngoura April 17, 2019.

2.3. The socio-cultural consequences of artisanal gold mining in Batouri

The State in its various sovereign functions has set up a multitude of infrastructures to help vulnerable groups. However, the observation that emerges on the ground is rather disconcerting, like the infrastructures which are almost non-existent, which can be seen in the locality of Kambélé village which does not even have an integrated health center other examples are legion in the many villages that the commune of Batouri contains. In terms of social infrastructure, we have a single hospital and a few integrated health centers: the District Medical Center (DMC) of Ngoura, the Integrated Health Centers (IHC) of Guiwa Yangamo, Tongo-Galdima I and Mapa, and the Woumou private health center (Friedrich: 2015). The water cover is non-existent, because there is no water supply, but we can nevertheless count: (76) boreholes, (34) wells with human-powered pumps and (39) springs.

The lack of electrical energy coverage is felt by the presence of a few generators as well as solar panels belonging to individuals (Friedrich: 2015). The lack of educational infrastructure is very flagrant: only (40) primary schools, (07) nursery schools, (10) community preschool centers, (01) high school, (02) CES and (01) CETIC. Even if there are improvements in the education sector within the Ngoura region in view of the investments made in this sector in recent years, boys still outnumber girls at all levels of education. , the gender gap is larger at the secondary level. In 2017, secondary education establishments in the locality were made up of an average of 40.2% girls compared to 60.8% boys

(Friedrich: 2015.). The female literacy rate remains low and has increased with the arrival of Central African refugee populations. The female literacy rate is particularly low in rural areas, especially in villages far from existing schools. In 2017, the primary school enrollment rate for girls was 70% and for boys 75%. Enrollment at secondary and higher levels is low, especially for women with percentages of 35% in secondary and 11% in higher education compared to 48% and 13% respectively for men. While girls' access to education has progressed, it remains limited by socio-cultural considerations on girls' education, especially in urban areas. Girls dropping out and dropping out of school are mainly due to: Patriarchal norms: some families do not value girls' education because women's roles and jobs would not generate much income. Poor families prioritize boys in education (Friedrich: 2015.). Domestic and agricultural work is assigned to girls. Early marriages and pregnancies Low income of parents to ensure schooling for all children (girls and boys). Women are sufficiently represented in the teaching and administrative staff in primary schools, but less so in secondary establishments in the municipality. The recruitment of female teachers is identified as a lever for action to improve the quality of education and promote girls' access to schools: gender-based violence and in particular sexual harassment is identified as one of the problems most important in schools, perpetuated against students by teachers, and against female teachers, by other teachers, as presented in the table below.

Table: 1 General state of the distribution of school buildings in the locality of Ngoura

Schools	Good	%	Fairs	%	Bad	%	Total
Nursery	03	42,85	04	57,14	00	00	07/70,07
Primary	50	64,10	18	23,07	10	12,82	78/78?78
High and college	08	50	04	25	04	25	16/16/16
SM/SAR	00	00	01	100	00	00	01/01,01
Total	61		27		14		99/100

Source: Ngoura Council, participatory diagnosis, 2017

This table shows that 64.10% of the buildings of the Public Primary Schools (EPP) of the Commune are in good condition, 23.07% in fair condition and 12.82% in poor condition. Also, 50% of high school and college buildings are in good condition, 25% in fair condition and 25% in poor condition. The State, the National Program for Participatory Development (PNDP) and other partners of the Commune finance the construction of school buildings (Yeboah, 2008: 88). However, it should be noted that the number remains insufficient and that it is necessary to ensure the maintenance of existing buildings made of permanent materials. Mining activities can suddenly affect the standard of living and the physical, mental and social well-being of communities. Local makeshift mining towns and camps often threaten food availability and security, increasing the risk of malnutrition. Indirect effects of mining on public health can include increased incidence of tuberculosis, asthma, chronic bronchitis and gastrointestinal diseases. Field surveys reveal that the population is mainly affected by waterborne diseases (32%) and skin diseases very often related to water (20%) (Yeboah: 2008). This is explained by the diversion and pollution of watercourses which are used for household needs (dishes, laundry, bathing), some being used as drinking water. It is the cause of diseases such as typhoid fever, stomach aches, diarrheal diseases and various skin diseases. The washing of aggregates, which can occupy all the days, especially women, is carried out in water, which generally leads to edema and

rheumatism. Mining activities can cause direct and indirect impacts on cultural resources. Direct impacts can result from mine construction and other mining activities.

3. Prospects and strategies for promoting gold mining towards the formal sector

Gold activity has long been the prerogative of the anarchy of local populations, the State as guarantor of society intends to promote a regularization of the artisanal sector towards the formal sector.

3.1. Fight against administrative laissez-faire and restore state authority at the local level

In terms of access to and control of resources the conditions and criteria for access to the means of production constitute an obstacle to the development of women and their participation in development (access to credit, access to land, techniques and technologies appropriate) from the Ngoura region? The weak organization of the informal sector and the confinement of women to unprofitable activities are obstacles to the development of the local economy (Friedrich: 2015). The exclusion of women from the possession of land by inheritance, according to some cultural practices from both the host populations and the Central African refugee populations of the commune of Ngoura, constitutes a violation of their rights in addition to this: the insufficiency of collection tracks, non-existence of the macro-economic fabric (factory, small and medium-sized enterprises), poor use of technical service expertise, absence of a community radio station, insufficient health structures and personnel, insufficient management structures and agricultural personnel, absence of town planning (Town Planning Master Plan, Land Use Plan), non-existence of a specialized service for the supervision of children and early childhood (orphanage and single mother), absence of a program to fight against school dropout linked to artisanal gold mining, absence of pharmacies, absence of strong training for municipal staff and municipal councilors, low rate of collection of taxes/revenue communal; lack of taxpayer files, non-existence of the natural resource management system; lack of structures offering business development support services; poor condition of the roads in the urban center (Friedrich: 2015).

Absence of communal land reserve; construction without a building permit; the degradation of the environment by gold mining which is not accompanied by mitigation of the environmental impact; poaching; tax incivility, lack of electricity network; Deforestation ; poor compliance with construction standards, poor compliance with biological rest, invasion of pastures by the Bokassa, poor management of structures by the beneficiary populations, excessive consumption of alcohol by young boys and girls; low respect for state law by the natives; prostitution and vagrancy of young people; disruption of the cropping calendar; lack of zoning; soil degradation (bush fires, uncontrolled cutting of wood, slash and burn agriculture, deforestation, etc.).

3.2. Promote a decentralized formal policy of the artisanal gold mining sector in the locality of Ngoura

In terms of participation in political life and decision-making Statistics on the participation of women in political life and in decision-making bodies are still very low in the Commune of Batouri. Indeed, we are still far from the 30% recommended by the Beijing conference. For example, the municipal council of Ngoura is made up of (03) women

against 22 men, i.e. a representation of women of 13.63% and no woman is president of a committee within the municipal council, which shows the weak commitment of women to life and to political office. The promotion of women to positions of responsibility, with equal skills, remains low, regardless of the grade considered at the level of public and private services in the locality. The principles of equality and non-discrimination are governed by the constitution, internal laws or other institutional mechanisms (Friedrich: 2015). Among the most expressive, we can cite: the Cameroonian constitution (law of 18 January 1996 revising the constitution), family law (civil code), civil and political rights, the right to bodily integrity and socio-economic rights. Many women are victims of violence of their rights and do not dare to denounce them even less to seize the courts for their exercise for fear of suffering reprisals within their community. More than 50% of women in the commune of Ngoura as a result of the participatory diagnosis carried out have already suffered violence of various types.

3.2. Promote a policy of sectoral development planning and monitoring of artisanal gold mining in Ngoura

The lack of robust administrative institutions and sectoral planning policies is one of the main reasons that reinforce the paradox of a region potentially rich in mining resources, especially gold and diamonds, but languishing under the weight of the resource curse. The history of natural resource-based development planning in Eastern Cameroon is marked by inconsistencies, poor implementation and poor monitoring. But today, equipped with solid, long-term development plans based on local decentralization and the harmonious exploitation of resources, the mining region of Eastern Cameroon is being offered better opportunities to rise and grow (Yeboah: 2008). Sustain the economic growth needed to create enough decent jobs for a rapidly growing population. The test for administrative and local authorities will be to use natural resources to stimulate new initiatives that create added value from the endowment of mining activities, and which gradually move towards new, modern manufacturing sectors, to strong labor intensity. In addition, long-term perspectives are of crucial importance for the decentralized local governance that cashes in on the windfall of natural resources. A sudden and brutal influx of public revenues can have the effect of weakening the desire for financial prudence, when the authorities strive to meet the expectations of their population, amplified by this windfall, which often leads them to make bad choices without any social impact (Friedrich: 2015). This windfall can also have the effect of leading governments to follow strategies that stifle community development instead of stimulating it. Finally, to understand how good management of natural resources could increase revenues at the local level for the structural transformation of the region, it is necessary to broaden the predominant perspectives in terms of governance of natural resources, but above all to include principles likely to contribute to this transformation. These additional concerns include the centrality and role of development planning, resource ownership and control, economic diversification strategies, and the effects of international markets on natural resource management.

4. Conclusions

Reached the end of this reflection which was part of a specific framework devoted to the artisanal exploitation of gold and its impacts in the region of Ngoura in East Cameroon. This activity, which has a significant hold due to its peculiar nature, abounds in

both negative and positive consequences which hinder the well-being of the populations in the locality (Yeboah: 2008). This study allowed us to identify the hegemony of gold panning on the daily life of populations. She also highlighted the destruction of the environment by artisanal gold mining with its multifaceted corollaries (deforestation, pollution, education, health, culture). The precariousness and the absence of protective equipment during artisanal mining, combined with the ignorance of the medium and long-term negative impacts by most of the actors involved in the sector, contribute to increasing the magnitude of the impacts on health (Friedrich: 2015). The rate of socioeconomic change is enormous. Indeed, we can therefore deduce from this work that over time, the lifestyles of the populations involved in artisanal gold mining show a progressive disinterest in other activities considered "less profitable" unlike to gold panning which provides direct earnings. This study also underlines that if the artisanal exploitation of gold is illegal, and informal, it is advisable to specify how much the implication of agents and executives of the public services the purchase of gold in this activity contributes to perpetuate it and give it a certain autarky in the eyes of the rural masses. In short, the artisanal mining of gold with its illicit nature and its harmful effects appears to be the joint consequence of at least three social factors: the mitigated involvement in gold panning of people supposed to enforce the law, the poor sale of gold-bearing land and above all ignorance of the medium and long-term negative impacts of the actors involved in the sector.

References

5. Feudjio, F, (2016). *Impact and mapping of small-scale mining activity in the district of Bétaré-Oya*. Professional Master in environmental impact assessment (EIE). Regional Center for Specialized Education in Forest-Wood Agriculture, University of Dschang, 87 p.
6. Goh, D, (2016). Artisanal Gold Mining in Côte d'Ivoire: The Persistence of an Illegal Activity. *European Scientific Journal*. January, Edition, vol.12, No.3
7. Law No. 001 of April 16, 2001, on the mining code and its implementing decree No. 2002-648 PM of March 26, 2002.
8. Law No. 2010/011 of July 29 (2010). *Amending the mining code Order 0070/MINEP of April 22, 2005, establishing the different categories of operation whose implementation is subject to an environmental and social impact study*
9. Leduc, G. A. et al. (2000). *Environmental impact assessment, a decision support tool*. Editions Multi-monde, p.43.
10. MINEF (1996). National Management Plan of the environment. Sectoral Analysis. Volume II. PNGE. Yaoundé.
11. NO, C. (2011). *Impacts of artisanal gold mining on the environment and socio- economic development in Bétaré-Oya, East-Cameroon*. Professional Master in environmental impact study (EIE). Regional Center for Specialized Education in Agriculture University of Dschang, p. 28.
1. Paul, A. et al, (1999). *Environmental impact assessment, processes, actors and practices*, 2nd Edition. Quebec, Polytechnic International Press.
12. Penaye, J et al, (2013). "Abandoned artisanal gold mining sites of Eastern Cameroon: environmental problems and Cameroon regulation": Institute for Geological and Mining Research, Yaoundé, Cameroon.

13. Stiftung, F.E. (2015). *State of play on decent work in the mining sector in Cameroon. The case of mining workers in the Adamawa and East regions of Cameroon*. African University Press, 17 p.
14. Takoutsi. L, (2009). *Environmental analysis of artisanal mining in Faro and Déo: perspective for sustainable development*. Professional Master, CRESA F. B. University of Dschang, 68 p.
15. Yaw, Y. (2008). *Environmental and health impact of mining on surrounding communities: a case study of AngloGold Ashanti in Obuasi*. Master of Arts, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, 112 p.

SOCIO-HISTORY OF THE REGULATION OF LIGHT WEAPONS, SMALL CALIBER AND AMMUNITION IN FEDERAL CAMEROON: 1958-1971

Marie Julien DANGA
PhD, University of Yaoundé I (Cameroon)
Email: juliendanga@gmail.com

Abstract: *The accession to international sovereignty was not an easy task because of the violence organized by the demands of Cameroonian nationalists. Escalation of violence had become a hot issue to be administered by military authorities. reunification intervened on October 1, 1961 between Cameroon Oriental, became independent on January 1, 1960 and the British part, did not stop this conflagration of the country. This new administration was keen to put in place a regulation concerning traffic., the port and sale of SALW. Faced with this critical security situation, the implementation of regulation son the SALW regime based on the Firearms Ordinance of 1958 and the Firearms Regulation of 1959, applied in Cameroon English speaker. However, these were the colonial texts that dated from the tutelage British territory, colonial legislation that was in force in the Nigerian federation. Operations related to the opening, management, visit and inspection armories were surrounded by corruption; police officers and the civil administrators responsible for the field of armories shone with sterile quarrels, through passes of arms epistolary. The state of stocks of rifles and ammunition was far from in good condition and mediocre quotas in these armories did not benefit from any security framework worthy of the name. Otherwise, we would have ended up with explosions in these powder magazines by Kumba, Mamfe, Bamenda and Buea The Federal Administration Inspectorate of Cameroon English speaker in Buea had not had it easy.*

Keywords: *weapons light weapons, ammunition, Cameroon, smuggling, legislation*

1. Legislation on small arms and light weapons imported and enforced by the British colonial crown

This part of the territory integrated into the neighboring colony of Nigeria was subject to the legislation in force in this colony. Therefore, all the laws concerning the regulation, the endowment, the sale and the opening of the armories were measures enacted by the British crown. Despite the special international legal status recognized in Cameroon by trusteeship agreements of the UN of December 13, 1946, was that of trust territory. Great Britain was doing so to safeguard its own colonial interests in this part of Cameroon. However, it undoubtedly had to apply the recommendations of the United Nations. During the period from 1958 to 1971, regulations tinged with a colonial coloring were applied about the endowment, transfer, sale and opening of arms stores. Light and ammunition in Cameroon English speaker.

2. The SALW regimen in Cameroon British: an English colonial legacy from Nigeria.

The question relating to Cameroon's internal security the day after reunification had become a worrying problem whether in West Cameroon or in eastern Cameroon (NAB, PC/I (1964) 22, Arms and ammunition, security Reports in West Cameroon, 1964-1966). A series of nationalist demands had an unfortunate impact on security and law

enforcement. To this end, administrative measures had been made applicable in the case of the western part of the Federal Republic of Cameroon.

This is the case with the decree Ministerial 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962 issued by the Minister Delegate to the Presidency of the Republic in charge of the armed forces, relating to the state of emergency (NAB, PC / I (1964) 22) and applicable in that entity of the country. The state of emergency obeyed the context marked by dissent orchestrated by the armed men of the UPC. This Party lets itself be sucked into the spiral of extremism and is taken over by the anti-Western camp (NAB, PC/I (1964) 22, Arms and ammunition, security Reports in West Cameroon, 1964-1966). Armed hordes who have taken up residence in Cameroon Westerner. The city of Douala being bordering, in Cameroon English speaker, she was also a city subject to this peasant jacquerie in the country. The Minister of Defense then decided to put an end to this possible rebellion in Western Cameroon by promulgating a state of emergency. This special provision of the law fundamental was extended in Cameroon English speaker for a period of six months from October 1, 1961, in accordance with Decree 62 / DF / 373 of October 8, 1962 published under the emergency procedure (NAB, PC / I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966). The following conclusions flow from this decree: President Ahmadou Ahidj was aware of the precarious security situation in eastern Cameroon, because of the armed bands of the ALNK, SDNK of the NOC (Previtali, 1999: 1). It had become urgent, if not essential, to prevent the western part of the federation from flaring up in the same way as eastern Cameroon. Then the traffic fraudulent weapons stocks and ammunition was the main cause of this adoption of the state of emergency for a period of six months (ARO, Vt, 1/41, Terrorism, 1959-1960). Because, it was necessary to annihilate any possibility of endowment and transfer of SALW which caused serious disasters in the towns of Mbanga, Loum, Douala, Nkongsamba, Bafang, Dschang to take just these examples. The spread of gun violence was made within the newly formed federation on October 1, 1961.

The father of the Cameroonian nation protected his regime by force of arms. This state of emergency also posed the problem of maintaining order, and peace and security in Cameroon English speaker (Interview with Abba Abdouraman, July 20, 2018). This justifies this emergency extended for six months by the Minister of Defense. This situation resulted in a conflict of interest between European hunting enthusiasts and the administrative authorities.

Respect for this state of emergency in Cameroon English speaker was not always there, because of the mobility of the men and especially the activities carried out by them. For example of Europeans residing in Douala in eastern Cameroon, was going during the weekend on vacation in Cameroon English speaker (NAB, PC/I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966). The border between the two administrative spheres became a plot because it caused concern for the mobility of men (ANY, 1AA366 (2), Daily Safety Report No1244). The latter almost did not always respect the administrative laws in eastern Cameroon, especially those residing in Douala, and going to Buea.

Indeed, a group of Europeans surrendered on February 21, 1964, with their weapons, in a residential area for a hunting party. The inhabitants not being used to the crackling of weapons, panicked, some had taken refuge and asked for help from the police (NAB, Ministerial Decree 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962). These are tourist activities carried out by expatriates residing in Douala and in Buea with hunting rifles in a region

(Buea) under a state of emergency since 1962. A horde of zealous expatriate hunters, without faith or law, transgress the laws in force, believe they are allowed to act without respect for government measures to fire shots in a residential area of officials in Buea to practice game hunting using hunting weapons.

Regulations in terms of hunting was not the same in Cameroon Oriental where these expatriates resided under the law in hunting matters in the administrative unit of Buea, subject to a state of emergency. These expatriate hunters imbued with themselves, shamelessly were required to respect the state of emergency in force in West Cameroon. Hunting itself was subject to regulations that could not be violated, for its selfish interests to the detriment of the peace of the citizens. These expatriates, followers of the resort, pose the problem of sports tourism and hunting tourism, that of the places of pleasure during their stay at that time in Cameroon (NAB, PC/i (1965) 6, Arms and ammunitions. Security reports on West Cameroon 1965 to 1972). However, it is a question of the destruction of African flora and fauna for the benefit of the selfish interests of a few settlers who have little respect for Cameroonian state institutions. They thus undermined the tranquility of the residents of Buea, not used to the crackling of shots from hunting rifles and who, frightened, called for help from the police from Buea. It is quite simply a blunder of the French colonist, little concerned with the sustainability of endangered species such as felines, rodents and reptiles. In addition, the provisions of the decree⁵², could be extended to the whole of their department by the prefects, by virtue of the ordinance 62 / OF / 17 of March 12, 1962 which extends to the other parts of the Federal Republic, the provisions of the ordinance relating to the emergency state.

3. Conflict of interest and problematic of the legislation on small arms

Under the terms of the decree Ministerial 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962, taken by the Minister Delegate to the Presidency of the Republic in charge of the Armed Forces, the sale, transfer, possession and transport of weapons importation of all kinds and their ammunition were strictly prohibited in parts of Cameroon English speaker where the state of emergency was declared. In the same vein, the manufacture of local milking, stone or piston weapons was also prohibited (NAB, Note n° 151 1 / MINFA / JM, The Minister of the Armed Forces, Yaounde, November 13, 1962, p.258). An application decision being coordinated by the Keeper of the Seals, the Minister Delegate to the Presidency in charge of Territorial Administration, Finance and Planning, Onana Awana with his counterpart from the Armed Forces Sadou Daoudou. This government coordination reflects the firm will of the Yaoundé regime to fight traffic fraudulent devices of violence in Cameroon English speaker. But, also, the local manufacture of milking guns, stone, or piston. When advanced guns were inaccessible due to prohibitive regulations, locals and black smiths locals made them across Cameroon to make up for the lack of sophisticated rifles in the maquis and these rare and rustic trading weapons were used as a means for the combatants armed, UPC nationalists (Kenne, 2006: 195). They were sometimes rare their manufacture required enough time: two months for three shotguns of caliber twelve. Despite their poor physical condition, the State federal government decided to ban their manufacture in western Cameroon; these were especially flintlock or piston rifles.

This also posed the problem of forges locally manufactured weapons installed not only in Cameroon Oriental, but also on the whole of the Cameroonian federation. Several Cameroonians thus put their ingenuity to the transfer of technology in the field of firearms. Faced with the scarcity of modern rifles, such an administrative measure was never

respected by the insurgents who were on a daily basis in search of rifles, powder and ammunition. to endanger the Cameroonian republican institutions, and denounce the presence and demand the departure of the two French and British colonial administrations (NAB, Note n° 151 1 / MINFA / JM, The Minister of the Armed Forces, Yaounde, November 13, 1962, p.259).

Respect for this state of emergency in Cameroon English speaker was not always there, because of the mobility of the men and especially the activities carried out by them. For example of Europeans residing in Douala in eastern Cameroon, was going during the weekend on vacation in Cameroon English speaker (NAB, PC/I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966). The border between the two administrative spheres became a plot because it caused concern for the mobility of men (ANY, 1AA366 (2), Daily Safety Report No1244). The latter almost did not always respect the administrative laws in eastern Cameroon, especially those residing in Douala, and going to Buea.

Indeed, a group of Europeans surrendered on February 21, 1964, with their weapons, in a residential area for a hunting party. The inhabitants not being used to the crackling of weapons, panicked, some had taken refuge and asked for help from the police (NAB, Ministerial Decree 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962). These are tourist activities carried out by expatriates residing in Douala and in Buea with hunting rifles in a region (Buea) under a state of emergency since 1962. A horde of zealous expatriate hunters, without faith or law, transgress the laws in force believe they are allowed to act without respect for government measures to fire shots in a residential area of officials from Buea to practice game hunting using hunting weapons.

4.12 gauge hunting rifles, local wildlife extermination devices

Regulations in terms of hunting was not the same in Cameroon Oriental where these expatriates resided under the law in hunting matters in the administrative unit of Buea, subject to a state of emergency. These expatriate hunters imbued with themselves, shamelessly were required to respect the state of emergency in force in West Cameroon. Hunting itself was subject to regulations that could not be violated, for its selfish interests to the detriment of the peace of the citizens. These expatriates, followers of the resort, pose the problem of sports tourism and hunting tourism, that of the places of pleasure during their stay at that time in Cameroon (NAB, PC/i (1965) 6, Arms and ammunitions. Security reports on West Cameroon 1965 to 1972). However, it is clear that it is a question of the destruction of African flora and fauna for the benefit of the selfish interests of a few settlers who have little respect for Cameroonian state institutions. They thus undermined the tranquility of the residents of Buea, not used to the crackling of shots from hunting rifles and who, frightened, called for help from the police from Buea. It is quite simply a blunder of the French colonist, little concerned with the sustainability of endangered species such as felines, rodents and reptiles. In addition, the provisions of the decree 52, could be extended to the whole of their department by the prefects, by virtue of the ordinance 62 / OF / 17 of March 12, 1962 which extends to the other parts of the Federal Republic, the provisions of the ordinance relating to the emergency state.

The findings of this study show that the management of the arms department within the police left much to be desired because of serious shortcomings. Inspector Folabit was not at all an example of moral probity, because the inventory of the armories was a question of caution. Table above shows that the weapons were delivered to individuals,

without them paying a single centime franc, out of forty-seven (47) holders identified by the audit throughout Cameroon English speaker, only one had discharged his duty by paying, the sum due of 692 CFA francs. On May 05, 1965, the named Tanwani, with the following license number 2571. A huge shortfall for the customs offices Cameroonian (NAB, Reference No. 108A/vol.2/42, office of the senior superintendent of police Victoria. Appendix 'A'. Arms License Issued free, 1965). However, the payment of this license was a means to replenish the public treasury. This is a strategy put in place by this corrupt official to bypass customs and in no way respect the legal procedure for issuing a weapon. We realize that almost all of these gun owners have been illegally through fraudulent transfer, without respecting the regulations in force (NAB, PC / (1966), 23 security reports meetings and their minutes in Buea. West Cameroon. 1966-1968). This regulation was trampled underfoot by the various stakeholders in the administrative procedure for opening and importing, public warehouses and issuing licenses and providing rifles and cartridges, in Cameroon English speaker. Hence the merits of such an audit, to expose offenders, but also to punish these dishonest and crooked citizens. This is why the Police Commissioner demanded much more rigor, discipline on the part of the inspector Folabit; better still, he responds to the charges that weighed against him (NAB, PWC/9/V.2/14, MH Ntune, and Commissioner of police West Cameroon. The Secretary Police Service Commission, Buea, Discipline of Mr. FD Folabit, SSP, 28th March 1967 Confidential) before military justice, a serious breach of the law.

During the period of the state of emergency, the firearms ordinance of 1958, in chapter 69 of the legislation in force within the federation of Nigeria and Lagos was itself applicable in Cameroon under guardianship British. Concretely, applicable in all prescriptions not contrary to those of the texts referred to above, in accordance with the provisions of ordinance 61/2, of October 1, 1961(NAB, Ministerial Decree 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962). This ordinance put in parenthesis because of adoption of a State six-month emergency. This ordinance in application at the end of the state of emergency in Cameroon English speaker (NAB, PC/i (1967) 15, SEDOC, Intelligence reports on the Cameroons security and subversive activities, 1967 Federal republic of Cameroon).Once independent and having formed a Federal Republic, Cameroon did not get rid of the texts from the British colonial era, simply because the end of the state of emergency in this part of the country still saw the application of this ordinance on weapons fire of 1958, applicable within the Federation of Nigeria, Lagos and Southern Cameroons. The proof of the federal state, in its western part, had not completely changed about colonial regulations in this area. An ordinance issued by Her Majesty Queen Elisabeth II was made applicable by the Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief Robertson (NAB, Firearms licenses and permits, senior divisional officer MH Ntune, Commissioner of Police, West Cameroon, 1967). This regulation quite simply reflected the desire for its establishment in Cameroon by the decision-makers.

In the event of failure to comply with this state of emergency, the penalties provided for, punishable by Article 8 of Ordinance 61 / of / 5, stipulated that all offenses are punishable by imprisonment of two to five years and a fine of three hundred thousand to one million francs. Then, the ban on residing there throughout the national territory was enacted in one or more parts for a period of five years at most (NAB, Reference No. HWC, 25/Vol.4/209. The Federal of Administration, Buea, 6th March, 1965). If the offense was submitted by an offender with arms seizures and the documents of observation by the police, the latter was tracked down, seized and brought before the magistrate and the

Mixed Mobile Brigades (BMM) were not entered directly for gun law violations (NAB, Firearms licenses and permits, senior divisional officer MH Ntune, Commissioner of Police, West Cameroon, 1965). Only serious cases, with a breach of State security (Interview with Koufan Menkene Jean, Yaounde March 25, 2020). The rest of the procedure conceals enough colonial incongruities in the strategies for restricting the possession of guns to civilian populations. The BMM authorities forwarded the file to the prefect or the police officer competent (NAB, Interministerial Instruction of August 10, 1962, of the Delegate Minister of the Armed Forces and Minister Delegate for Planning). One wonders about the content of this severe case terminology. The administrative synergy was set in motion to track down, arrest and translate the culprits of armed robbery before the court to answer for their acts, in accordance with the laws in force and especially the state of emergency. The circulation small arms was not tolerated in Cameroon English speaker during this period and commit a violation of this law, led the unfortunate man before the competent courts. This regulation also bore the stamp of the police commissioners from 1965.

5. Police Commissioners and the inspection of armories in Western Cameroon

Regulations concerning the weapons regime light in Cameroon caused a certain redistribution of tasks. This is why in 1965, we witnessed the adoption of a new legislation: that of licenses and authorizations of firearms.. It was a note from the Federal Inspector of Administration in Buea, addressed to the Police Commissioner with Buea for seat (NAB, Reference n° HWC, 25 / Vol.4 / 209. The Federal of Administration, Buea, 6th March, 1965 Confidential). Concretely, this authorization and license on small arms fell within the sole competence of the police superintendent.in Cameroon English speaker in the cities of Bamenda, Mamfe, Kumba and Victoria whose authority extended in these localities in terms of authorization or licenses for the purchase of small arms, according to the ordinance on weapons in Cameroon English speaker.

6.The stormy domestication of colonial regulations on SALW in Western Cameroon

It should be understood here that in 1965, the police officers in Cameroon English speaker were given the mandate to grant authorizations, purchase licenses, transfer, or endowment of SALW (NAB, Reference n° HWC, 25 / Vol.4 / 209. The Federal of Administration, Buea, 6th March, 1965. Confidential). Their competence was extended in the four specific localities above the Federal Inspector of Administration in Buea, by this reference allows officials of the National Security, more precisely to their guardianship in Buea to better control operations related to the issue, sale and purchase of weapons light in Cameroon English speaker. It is in this wake that the mandate was given to the police superintendents to better coordinate the implementation and curb the licenses and authorizations to purchase SALW according to the ordinance of 1958. Did they have it easy on the ground with all those involved in the chain of arms? This is an important issue for better understanding and questioning the rest of this text. Because, there is regularly a disarticulation, a gap between this authorization and license on small arms and its effective application. In the field, too many red tape and bottlenecks persisted. This is the case of the rampant corruption and greed which became the only means of acquisition of the guns by the applicants.

At the end of the audit ordered on April 24, 1967 by the prosecutor of the Court of Appeal, Wyatt opened a judicial investigation against FD Folabit, superintendent of police, for the following reasons: fraudulent importation and management of weapons in the city of Victoria¹. Three (03) months after the audit, the following recommendations were presented by the members of the commission: regular inspections must be organized by the police teams within the provinces, in collaboration with the staff of the armed forces stationed in Cameroon English speaker, in accordance with public warehouses and other provisions relating to the safety of firearms and ammunition stored (NAB, Ministerial Instruction No. 370 / MINFA / 400, signed in Yaoundé by the Minister of the Armed Forces Sadou Daoudou on November 02, 1966). The main lesson to be learned is that importing, opening, inspecting and the audit of armories in Cameroon English speaker were governed by the 1958 weapons ordinance. The police, through the superintendents, were responsible for the management and control of these premises. But because of their taste for money, the register of entries and exits of weapons was poorly kept, especially since these weapons were chronologically poorly stored (NAB, Ref. N° DVA.C.55/19, Ammunition depot, 30th August, 1967). Weapons were circulating without a purchase license. It was necessary to wait for the audits to discover this disorder which was current in these armories; rampant corruption was becoming the golden rule, the main obscure and unhealthy means of acquiring a gun.

The security context marked by the state of emergency in certain localities of the territory required a certain restraint and more control on the part of the administrative authorities and the armed forces and defenses. Therefore the management of sequestered stocks of weapons and ammunition by the FMOs was necessary for an efficient endowment to self-defense. In a context which was marked by an absence of arms and ammunition.

The observation is as follows: a group of gunsmiths from the eastern part of Cameroon was going to Cameroon English speaker, they had enormous difficulties during the multiple checking operations of the police inspectors. They argued that asking them for authorizations and licenses for weapons fire in this part of the country was a little-known requirement, almost non-existent in eastern Cameroon. They went further and reported that the police of eastern Cameroon did not require these official documents during the multiple police checks of the gunsmiths (NAB, PC/I (1965), Arms and ammunition. Security Reports on Cameroon, 1965 to 1972). Administrative situation not easy for both parties. On the one hand, for the police in the western part, accused of strict compliance with the prior obtaining of these two administrative documents to exercise the activities of gunsmiths in their area of competence. Which was a serious offense for these police superintendents. On the other hand, the gunsmiths from the eastern part of the country were not used to the administrative hassles associated with obtaining prior authorization or a license to exercise their function (NAB, PC / I (1967) 3, Security meeting west Cameroon, 1967) English speaker.

7.Is the independence and reunification of the country a factor in the federalism of regulations on SALW?

¹NAB, Report of the committee of inquiry into allegations made against Mr. FD Folabit, a senior superintendent of police, a respect for illegal importation and disposal of firearms and ammunition. A voluminous 20-page document, which overwhelms police superintendent FD Folabit on the cookie-cutter management of Victoria's armories. Document signed by the members of the following investigation: JB Wyatt, Prosecutor and President of the Commission, followed by Colonel JJ. Chaibi, member and Lieutenant-Colonel Valentine, member. Buea, June 06, 1967. This analysis is the following BV consulted, the attached document.

Despite the federalism of the country, there were still distortions, gray areas in the implementation of the texts and laws in force in the federation. In addition, the circulation men and goods were regulated according to the laws in force in each sphere of the Federal Republic of Cameroon (Interview with Ngoucheme Kutnjen Alexandre Legrand, on May 19, 2018). In a context where the two entities had experienced two ambivalent colonial realities after independence and reunification (Interview with Daniel Abwa, December 03, 2018 in Yaoundé), the vestiges of French and British colonial fossilization were still being put into practice, they (the parts of the federation) had not yet shed the clothes of colonial rule. This is what makes the Cameroonian historian Abwa say that a certain reconciliation of the political forces of the Southern Cameroon is necessary for the future political evolution of relations between Cameroonians in the French and English zones, then the advent of the Federal Republic of Cameroon (Abwa, 2015: 85). The territorial reunification operated by the political leaders did not lead inexorably towards a symbiosis of texts, of the various regulations in the matter. In Cameroon English speaker, until the establishment of the state of emergency, the ordinances were in force with regard to the legislation on the weapons light and ammunition: those of 1942, chapter 14, revised in 1948, the ordinance of 1942 on explosives, the import, control and their sale and that of 1947. The last, more explicit and better applied was the Ordinance of 1958 on firearms (NAB, Firearms ordinance 1958, Article 40, no.7 of 1958), ordinances applicable in Nigeria, then to Lagos and the Southern Cameroons. This part of the guardianship British was therefore subjugated as a British colonial possession, in defiance of its international legal status of the United Nations.

Setting work of British legislation had succeeded in the habits of Cameroonians, removing such a colonial imprint must take time. On the Cameroon side Oriental, the situation had changed little, it was almost similar, in the western part of the federation. The populations suffered the legacy of colonization French on Cameroon, because they were bound to respect it. This called into question even the federation born from the ashes of the plebiscite organized by the UN on February 11 and 12, 1961². The populations of the two banks of the Mungo were victims of the realities of the will of the French and British colonial power in Cameroon since 1916, the date of their effective capture of the territory, following the departure of the Germans, the day after their defeat in the First War global.

8. Conclusion

In short, the authorizations and licenses required from gunsmiths in Cameroon western by police superintendents did not keep the flower promise, because of red tape. Their interpretation was questionable, because of the traffic men, goods and their ignorance of the armories from Eastern Cameroon (NAB, Ref n° CB 19/32, superintendent of police Cameroons, 10th July 1953). Realities in the field of weapons light small caliber and ammunition were not the same as in Cameroon English speaker. Thus, the inspection Federal Administration of Cameroon English speaker in Buea and the police continued their task, about opening, inspecting, checking, and auditing armories established in Cameroon English speaker. The main lesson to be learned is that importing, opening, inspecting and the audit of armories in Cameroon English speaker were governed by the 1958 Arms Ordinance.

²It was a popular consultation that led to the reunification from Cameroon October 1, 1961. For explanations, see, D. Abwa, (dir), Bilingualism, multiculturalism and living together. A reflection of Cameroonian academics, Yaoundé, Proximity, 2019. Abwa., Neither English-speaking nor French speaking.

The police through the superintendents were responsible for the management and control of these premises. But because of their taste for money, the register of entries and exits of weapons was poorly kept, especially since these weapons were chronologically poorly stored (NAB, Ref. N°.DVA.C.55/19, District office, Victoria Division, West Cameroon. Ammunition depot, 30th August 1967). Weapons were circulating without a purchase license. It was necessary to wait for the audits to discover this disorder which was current in these armories; rampant corruption became the golden rule, the main obscure and unhealthy means of acquiring a rifle. The security context marked by the state of emergency in certain localities of the territory demanded a certain restraint and more control of the part of the administrative authorities and the armed forces and defenses. Therefore, the management of sequestered stocks of weapons and ammunition by the FMOs was necessary for an efficient endowment to self-defense. In a context which was marked by an absence of arms and ammunition.

References

1. Abwa, D. (2015). *Neither English-speaking nor French speaking in Cameroon: All Cameroonians!! Historical analysis essay in tribute to the late Professor M.Z Njeuma*, Yaounde, Kilimanjaro.
2. Abwa, D. (2019), *Bilingualism, multiculturalism and living together. A reflection of Cameroonian academics*. Yaoundé, Proximity.
3. ANY, 1AA366 (2), Daily Safety Report No1244.
4. Kenne, FM. (2006). *The great leaders of the armed insurrection in Bamileke country and their activities from 1955 to 1971*. Doctoral Thesis / PhD in History, University of Yaoundé I, 2006, p.195.
5. NAB, Firearms licenses and permits, senior divisional officer MH Ntune, Commissioner of Police, West Cameroon, 1967.
6. NAB, Firearms licenses and permits, senior divisional officer MH Ntune, Commissioner of Police, West Cameroon, 1965.
7. NAB, Firearms licenses and permits, senior divisional officer MH Ntune, Commissioner of Police, West Cameroon, 1967.
8. NAB, Firearms licenses and permits, senior divisional officer MH Ntune, Commissioner of Police, West Cameroon, 1965.
9. NAB, Interministerial Instruction of August 10, 1962, of the Minister Delegate of the Armed Forces and Minister Delegate for Planning
10. NAB, Ministerial Decree 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962.
11. NAB, Ministerial Decree 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962.
12. NAB, Ministerial Decree 52 / ATF / APA of June 30, 1962.
13. NAB, Ministerial Instruction No. 370 / MINFA / 400, signed in Yaoundé by the Minister of the Armed Forces Sadou Daoudou on November 02, 1966.
14. NAB, Note No. 151 1/MINFA/JM, The Minister of the Armed Forces, Yaoundé, November 13, 1962, p.258.
15. NAB, Note No. 151 1/MINFA/JM, The Minister of the Armed Forces, Yaoundé, November 13, 1962, p.259.
16. NAB, PC/I (1964) 22, Arms and ammunition, security Reports in West Cameroon, 1964-1966.

17. NAB, PC/I (1964) 22, Arms and ammunition, security Reports in West Cameroon, 1964-1966.
18. NAB, PC/I (1964) 22, Sadou Daoudou, Ch. Onana Awanaand Arouna Njoya, Interministerial instruction for the application in Cameroon western texts relating to the manufacture, possession, transport and trade of arms and their ammunition, Yaoundé, November 10, 1962, p.2.
19. NAB, PC/I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966. This is a note from the Federal Inspector of Administration for the Coastline in Douala, JC Ngoh. (Confidential). Copy sent to the head of regional security service Buea, Regional Tourism Delegate.
20. NAB, PC/I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966. This is a note from the Federal Inspector of Administration for the Coastline in Douala, JC Ngoh. (Confidential). Copy sent to the head of regional security service Buea, Regional Tourism Delegate.
21. NAB, PC/I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966. This is a note from the Federal Inspector of Administration for the Coastline in Douala, JC Ngoh. (Confidential). Copy sent to the head of regional security service Buea, Regional Tourism Delegate.
22. NAB, PC/I (1964) 23, Gendarms and police correspondence concerning West-Cameroon, 1964-1966. This is a note from the Federal Inspector of Administration for the Coastline in Douala, JC Ngoh. (Confidential). Copy sent to the head of regional security service Buea, Regional Tourism Delegate.
23. NAB, PC/i (1965) 6, Arms and ammunition. Security reports on West Cameroon 1965 to 1972.
24. NAB, PC/i (1965) 6, Arms and ammunition. Security reports on West Cameroon 1965 to 1972.
25. NAB, PC/I (1965), Arms and ammunition. Security Reports on Cameroon, 1965 to 1972.
26. NAB, PC/i (1967) 15, SEDOC, Intelligence reports on the Cameroons security and subversive activities, 1967. Federal republic of Cameroon.
27. NAB, PC/i (1967) 15, SEDOC, Intelligence reports on the Cameroons security and subversive activities, 1967. Federal republic of Cameroon.
28. NAB, PC/I (1967) 3, Security meeting west Cameroon, 1967.
29. NAB, Ref No. CB 19/32, superintendent of police Cameroons / Bamenda province, Buea, 10th July 1953.
30. NAB, Ref. No.DVA.C.55/19, District office, Victoria Division, West Cameroon. Ammunition depot, 30th August, 1967.
31. NAB, Reference No. HWC, 25/Vol.4/209. The Federal of Administration, Buea, 6th March, 1965. Confidential.
32. NAB, Reference No. HWC, 25/Vol.4/209. The Federal of Administration, Buea, 6th March, 1965.
33. Prévitali, J. (1999). *I remember Ruben. My testimony on the maquis Cameroonian*, Paris, Karthala.

Interviews:

- Interview with Abba Abdouraman, 51, civil administrator, prefect of Ndian, Buea, July 20, 2018.
- Interview with Abba Abdouraman, 51, civil administrator, prefect of Ndian, Buea, July 20, 2018.
- Interview with Daniel Abwa, 66 years old, teacher in the History Department of the University of Yaoundé I, December 03, 2018 in Yaoundé.
- Interview with Koufan Menkéné Jean, 67, Cameroonian academic and teacher, Yaoundé March 25, 2020.
- Interview with Ngoucheme Kutnjen Alexandre Legrand, 52, civil administrator, sub-prefect of Okola, Okola on May 19, 2018.
- Interview with Ngoucheme Kutnjen Alexandre Legrand, 52, civil administrator, sub-prefect of Okola, Okola on May 19, 2018.

GENEALOGY OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL HERITAGE OF PAN-AFRICANISM: A TRANSCONTINENTAL IDEA

David Melvin EBOUTOU
PhD, University of Yaoundé I (Cameroon)
Email: dmeboutou@gmail.com

Abstract: *The idea disseminated and sometimes taught about Pan-Africanism is that it is a movement and an ideology that promotes autonomy in all forms of Africa and that favors solidarity between black and mainly African communities. However, very little is said about the route taken by this concept coined by Henry Sylvester William. It is therefore in this article to revisit the traveling idea of Pan-Africanism, through the great moments that engenders it until its parturition. It is precisely a question of recalling the origins, both distant and recent, of Pan-Africanism by exhuming the historical events that have contributed to placing the said movement at the heart of the struggles and aspirations of black people in Africa and around the world.*

Keywords: *Pan-Africanism, Negritude, Black Americans, Africa, African Unity*

1. Introduction

The origin of Pan-Africanism cannot be identified only from the year 1900 when this term was coined. Historically, the reality of Pan-Africanism is attested long before the date of 1900, when Henry Sylvester William finally coined this term. The context preceding the 19th century was marked by numerous struggles by black people to free themselves not only from the yoke of the slave trade, from slavery in its most degrading forms, but also from battles whose challenge was to deconstruct stereotypes and the myths constructed by the Western world about black people. An arsenal of institutional and legal norms codified and framed this segregationist functioning which imposed a clear line of demarcation between blacks and whites. Blacks therefore had to beyond developing a natural resilience to resist in the face of this oppression, imagine and create mechanisms that guaranteed their survival but also their rights as human beings. Among the distant factors to be certainly considered in the advent of Pan-Africanism, there are some that are exogenous to Africa and other internals. Going through these different stages contributes to the analytical itinerary of this reflection.

2. Exogenous factors to the emergence of Pan-Africanism

The role of black diasporas in the advent of Pan-Africanism has been decisive. Between the struggles for the independence of Haiti, through the segregationist struggles in the United States, to the ardent desire of the new independent states of Latin America determined to self-determine against their former masters, the cup is full to arouse a vast unifying and solidarity movement in the black world.

3. Haiti as a click and symbol of liberation of the Black world

Indeed, as far as Haiti is concerned, this "small country" which has just gained independence on January 1, 1804 after a long war is struggling to have its international recognition accepted by its former masters. To better understand this situation, we must go back to 1791, during the French Revolution, when a revolt of black slaves broke out on

the island of Haiti, then Saint Domingue, under the leadership of Toussaint Louverture, a former slave who later became general. In 1793, the movement resulted in the abolition of slavery by convention. This revolution, which was not at all digested by the Creoles and the merchants, led the latter to exert great pressure on Bonaparte. It should be noted that at that time, the one nicknamed the pearl of the Antilles (Abenon and Chauleau, 1989: 76) was a rich and prosperous island. It is therefore rightly that the settlers find it difficult to lose free labor that can be cut and corv  ed.

As early as 1802, former junior officers of Toussaint Louverture's party continued to wage atrocious battles at the head of the farmers of the Northern Province in order to impose total emancipation. Inspired by Toussaint Louverture, who had become the hope of an entire people, these battles would last until the latter's capture by the French and his death at Fort de Joux in Doubs in 1803 (Blancpain, 2004: 94). His deputy General Dessalines despite taking over the torch and some sporadic victories against his French counterpart Rochambeau even after the proclamation of independence had difficulty in establishing his recognition.

A sum which represents the equivalent of one year of income of the colony around the revolution, or 15% of the annual budget of France. Haiti for having fought hard for its independence had to pay the double debt of independence. This will also earn him disastrous political, economic and social consequences later on. It was after many negotiations and battles that in 1825, King Charles X granted his independence to Haiti in exchange for compensation of 150 million Gold Francs (Blancpain, 2004: 94). This will also earn him disastrous political, economic, and social consequences later on. i.e. 15% of France's annual budget. Haiti for having fought hard for its independence had to pay the double debt of independence. This will also earn him disastrous political, economic and social consequences later on.

Moreover, the end of slavery in Haiti and the recognition of its independence became throughout the 19th century major political issues for the colonial powers of the time. These issues sealed the future of the first two free and independent countries of America, namely Haiti and the United States of America. But that is not the object of our work. What must also be remembered is that in the perception of black Americans, Haiti will constitute a triple symbolic reference. First as a reference that functions both as a symbol of freedom from slavery, then as a land of asylum, and finally as a place of political inspiration (Gomez, 2013:179). This perception is totally opposite to that of whites because, according to them, Haiti constitutes a state to be repressed since, reference of savagery and a state to be ignored by a total denial of recognition⁸. The reality remains that by becoming independent in 1804, Haiti, the former French colony of Saint Domingue, acquired a strong symbolic status. Haiti becomes in fact the first colony to have defeated a European army. It constitutes the first successful servile revolt and is the first free black republic in the world. What is known today as the Haitian revolution thus becomes the beginning of a long battle of the blacks which will give birth to Haiti. The independence of Haiti marks the end of colonialism. In the Atlantic world, any rumor of a slave in revolt or threat of political unrest was accompanied by the reference to Haiti. Haiti has therefore become a fallback base for revolutionary movements in Latin America.

4. Wars of independence in Latin America and the heavy price of black slaves

With regard to Latin America in particular, there has been a series of Spanish-American wars of independence. In fact, during the Spanish War of Independence which

began in 1808 (Kaspi et al, 2004: 88), Spain found itself cut off from its colonial empire and had no stable government. The war in Europe and the absolutist restoration persuaded Spanish Americans to make themselves independent from Spain, which led to the outbreak of various revolutions across the continent. These wars of independence invaded all of Latin America as far as Brazil and the Caribbean. This process of independence takes place in the general political and intellectual climate which emerged from the Age of Enlightenment and which influenced all the revolutions of the Atlantic, including those in France and the United States that paved the way for the Spanish-American revolutions. Moreover, we can see that there were a number of triggering factors that clearly allowed the realization of the various independence movements observed in Latin America. We have institutional reforms poorly appreciated by Hispanic Americans. These reinforce the already existing degrading feeling against this community and therefore constitute an unbearable lever. Alongside, there is the development of progressive ideas from the Age of Enlightenment and the examples of the French and American revolutions. These are the examples that have largely inspired several revolutions, each time against the backdrop of an ardent desire for emancipation. One of the main liberators of Latin America.

5. Segregation and racist practices in the United States of America

For most people living in the United States in the 19th century, there were two societies. One black and the other white which is separated by a wall of hostility and mistrust. Racist prejudices were confirmed and legitimized by science like those of Franz Joseph Gall. His study has therefore often served as a scientific postulate to establish a hierarchy of races and to show the bestiality of the black race classified in the same category as that reserved for animal species. It is in this context in the United States that the blacks who are already subjected to slavery, although abolished since January 1, 1863 (Petré-Grenouilleau, 2004: 104) by President Abraham Lincoln, live. In effect, it was with the end of the Civil War in the United States in 1865 that the abolition of slavery took place for the whole country (Petré-Grenouilleau, 2004: 104). The period preceding this date was essentially characterized by racial segregation in all its forms, often the most violent. Despite a legal framework like this law which spoke of separate but equal, the reality is quite different. The level of racial segregation is also different from one state to another because here, everyone applies their own laws. In North Carolina, for example, the law stated that black workers were to be called servants and they had to work from sunrise to sunset and six days a week in the service of the Masters.

The laws in the South are harsher on blacks and, as it was each state that took care to determine who was a person of color and who was not, the level of violence therefore remained perceptible much more in the South than in the North. Lynchings had multiplied from the 1890s. Extremist groups had made their appearances, but the most striking fact had been the appearance of popular and welcomed laws in the white racial strata. Of all the racist laws that have existed in the United States with a particularly perverse imprint on blacks, there is undeniably the Jim Crow Law. This reached its climax in the southern states with terrorist groups advocating white supremacy such as the Ku Klux Klan which used threats and summary executions. In these southern states, punishments imposed outside the judicial system were even more brutal.

These executions sometimes turned into veritable pogroms. The culprits were not punished and some even took pictures with their victims. All this reinforced racial

solidarity in the white population and installed a climate of terror within the communities. black. The law served no purpose except to legitimize the actions of the white community. This is how we saw blacks constantly lynched after mock trials before complicit authorities. As a reminder, these different stages of the black man's ordeal were photographed, including to make postcards or collectible images. Also, in this macabre game was devoted to heart joy the press which extolled the merits of the supremacy of the white race and the despicable aspect of the blacks aiming mainly to demonstrate the intellectual and even moral incapacity of the Blacks to exercise the activities most more common. Caught between the hammer of a racist legislative system and the anvil of an oppressive legal arsenal,

In the North, where the segregationist policy was more flexible, it manifested itself above all at the level of the acquisition of housing by a black, access to bank credit, decent jobs and even access to trade union movements. In the South where this policy was deemed harsh, racial segregation beyond the aspects set out in the North, affects the areas of public schools, public places, public transport, public toilets, restaurants, fountains and even the army. To this should be added the prohibition of mixed marriages or marriages of Negro descent up to the fourth generation. All that was needed for the Black was to organize himself in order to develop not only resilient aptitudes but also mechanisms of existence as a human being.

As we have therefore seen, the very late abolition of slavery went hand in hand with the reinforcement of segregation and the racist practices of the white race over the black race, overriding their own laws to ensure hegemony. persistent. Besides, these historical elements exogenous to Africathat we have just exhumed, note that there were several major facts in Africa which favored the emergence of Pan-Africanism.

6. Factors endogenous to the emergence of Pan-Africanism

Among the factors internal to Africa who contributed to the advent of pan-Africanism, we noted the very important role of Liberia which is the direct consequence of the immigration of blacks from the United States. Alongside Liberia, we have the major role of Ethiopia in the establishment of a truly African identity without, however, forgetting to recall the consequences of the slave trade in the advent of Pan-Africanism.

7. The Birth and Independence of Liberia

The birth of Liberia dates back to the founding of Monrovia by the first American settlers. It was the Portuguese who gave the region its name of seed coast or pepper coast in reference to the commercial products they found there. They remained there until the creation of the Republic of Liberia. This region evolved according to the fluctuations of the balance of power between the great powers due to the control of the trade in spices, gold, ivory, and ebony (<http://www.agoravox.tv/story-liberia.com/> "History of Liberia" accessed 20 March 2017). Tensions were particularly high between France, Holland and England. It is precisely from the condemnation of the slave trade that germinated in the United States at the beginning of the 19th century, the idea of creation in Africa, from a home reserved for freed blacks. The American Colonization Society was responsible for carrying out this project. It is therefore in a context marked by the emergence of the abolitionist movement that the idea of a possible return of black African-Americans is increasingly promoted. In reality, the American project is not completely new. It was largely inspired by a British antecedent which created in Sierra Leone in 1787 a foster

home for unfreed slaves. However, the Liberian experience differed radically in one fundamental respect from the Sierra Leonean model.

While Sierra Leone only broke with its status as the British crown in 1961, Liberia gained independence in 1847 and was therefore for more than a hundred years the only free state on the African continent (Wauwermans: 1885). American immigration to this part of the world had therefore developed after the initiative of the American colonization society. 13,000 people settled there between 1821 and 1867. divide the population into two categories. On the one hand, those who call themselves freemen who are former freed slaves from America, strongly Christianized by Methodist missionaries. On the other side, those they exploit, made up of an indigenous population that they call the bushmen or the natives. The freemen share the same regime of oppression on the natives as the Westerners on other territories and make their colony prosper which will be definitively declared independent on July 26, 1847. The new State of Liberia will then acquire a system of suffrage based on property which allows the American-Liberians to retain power for a century. The emigrants baptize the new country. Its flag is modeled on that of the United States, with a single star and the capital is Monrovia in honor of the American president.

In terms of consequences, the country will know until 1902 several changes to its borders. To its main land will be added the acquisition of new lands like Gallinas, Maryland and Casa. On the other hand, part of its territory will be amputated by France for the benefit of Cote d'Ivoire. Note that it is since 1830 that some citizens of Philadelphia subsidize the creation of Port-Cresson, now Liberia. Liberia's declaration of independence was written by a member of the American Colonization

8. Ethiopia: Inspiration for Black Heroism

The story of Ethiopia, a country isolated in its mountains for millennia, evokes a series of struggles carried out always until the final triumph. During the 15th, 19th and 20th centuries mainly, Ethiopia fought with generosity and success for the safeguard of national faith, freedom and independence. The 19th century marks a memorable date in the destinies of the empire because Ethiopia, pressed by circumstances, then renounces its traditional isolation. Its rapid development both internally and externally. It commands respect and its prestige reaches its peak during the Addis Ababa Peace Treaty which it grants to Italy on October 26, 1896 (Duprey, 1955: 11). The intense diplomatic action carried out by Ethiopia during the 19th century aimed to consolidate its relations with other states and to strengthen, by means of treaties, pacts and conventions, the independence of the empire. The threat came from the colonial expansion manifested by the European powers in Africa on the eve, then following the Suez Canal in 1869 (Duprey, 1955: 11). Towards the end of the century, Ethiopia had to face the Italian invasion which ended with the resounding victory of Emperor Menelik II at Adoua in March 1896 (Lefort, 1981: 111). It is since this period of Ethiopian history that this event is commemorated every year. The various Heads of State who are often invited to this anniversary always have the pleasure of recalling the founding role of this battle.

Indeed, the spirit of independence that has always characterized the Ethiopian nation is not a mere myth. Already in history From antiquity, the Ethiopians, that is to say then the peoples located to the south of Egypt, on the Upper Nile and on the coasts of the Red Sea, held a place of choice in this respect. Their reputation for bravery finds echoes in the Greek poets, Herodotus and Diodorus, who praise their courage and praise their fights for freedom (Duprey, 1955: 11). For nearly a millennium, Ethiopia had been imbued with

Judaic spirituality through which it drew religious, moral and political values on which modern civilization was slowly built. Despite all the separations imposed on her by historical vicissitudes, she drew from this faith a deep communion with the nations to which she was close. It is also in the spiritual and social framework of its religion that Ethiopia has drawn its strength. It is thanks to her that the Ethiopian nation was able to successfully face the worst dangers. It is moreover its surest guarantor of independence whose codification of these precepts in the old code of Fetha Nagast (Duprey, 1955: 11) 36 in the 13th century, constitutes a decisive stage for the maintenance of a tradition which, apart from ephemeral eclipses, could be perpetuated in time. Ethiopia could neither be conquered nor bought off despite numerous attempts at invasion by countries that were either outside or even outside of Africa. constitutes a decisive stage for the maintenance of a tradition which, apart from ephemeral eclipses, has been able to perpetuate itself over time. Ethiopia could neither be conquered nor bought off despite numerous attempts at invasion by countries that were either outside or even outside of Africa. constitutes a decisive stage for the maintenance of a tradition which, apart from ephemeral eclipses, has been able to perpetuate itself over time. Ethiopia could neither be conquered nor bought off despite numerous attempts at invasion by countries that were either outside or even outside of Africa.. Gingold Duprey also summarizes in a few words, this all-out oppression that Ethiopia is undergoing in these terms:

Ethiopia has suffered too much for too long from being stuck in the middle of colonial territories, from having remained an independent island in a sea of colonies or, to reverse the metaphor, from existing as a large country cut off from the sea by a continuous barrier of colonies which, as we have already shown, owe it to still exist, by its wealth and its trade (Duprey, 1955: 34).

As we can see, this indomitable status of Ethiopia has several times prompted certain powers to stir up hatred against it but has always been able to resist. She remained faithful to the words of her national anthem whose lyrics say:

*Noble Ethiopia! Rejoice!
Great is your God, strong is your King;
Your heroes, united by valor
Will give you independence!
Your mountains will be your defenders,
So don't be afraid of the aggressors.
That our King for our glory
Long live and win Victory.*

It is therefore a state of mind that the Ethiopians clearly assume because their commitment lies in the faith they have in God and the confidence they have in their abilities. The victory of Ethiopia over the great Italian army at Adoua on March 1, 1896 thus gave it unequalled prestige in an African colonized, martyred by forced labor and a diaspora delivered to the throes of lynching or segregation (Abebe, 1998: 101). Thanks to this victory, the Ethiopian Emperor Menelik II manages to free himself from European tutelage and extends his domination in neighboring territories.

This victory led to the collapse of Crispi's colonialism in Italy and ensured Menelik II the necessary control to negotiate in 1897 three treaties limiting Italian, British and French encroachments. Menelik II will not stop there and will embark on a vast project of modernization of the country to such an extent that in Ethiopia from 1893, the posts work. Addis Ababa is connected by telephone to Djibouti and by telegraph to Asmara. Thanks to his cooperation, a hospital was established by the Russian Red Cross in 1896. From

Djibouti, the railway reached in Harar in 1902 the new town of Diré-Daoua. Menelik II died on December 12, 1913 having relentlessly pursued what Yohannés IV and he had designed to spare Ethiopia from foreign colonization. Ethiopia has long developed pan-Africanist initiatives long before this movement was born.

Through its legendary hospitality with other African nations and the black diasporas, Ethiopia was long engaged in a dynamic of solidarity, even unitary. This will be justified during the first attempt to occupy Ethiopia by the Italians with the help of the Haitian Benito Sylvain, later granted the honorary title of aide-de-camp to the emperor who immediately came to his aid. Having stayed in Ethiopia between 1897 and 1906, it was he who represented Ethiopia at the Pan-African conference in London in 1900. Indeed, Ethiopia has never been a country like any other in the eyes of Haitians. Its very long duration embodied the African political genius and, under the reign of Menelik II, it had reached its peak economically, politically and diplomatically.

9. The role played by the slave trade in the advent of Pan-Africanism

The slave trade began in the 15th century when the Portuguese began to buy men. With the discovery of the new world, and its colonization by the major European maritime powers, this despicable activity will increase exponentially. Still a victim of prejudices of all kinds, Africa quickly presents itself as a great opportunity for these new merchants of men who find in this trade something very lucrative. Secular Africa will thus suffer one of the most violent rapes in its history. In reality, the context of this time is marked by the exploitation of wealth and other Indian territories decimated by exploitation and disease are not enough for the task. It is thus that a vast system of Atlantic trade from the 15th century will be put in place and known in history. like triangular trade. Between the middle of the 15th century and the end of the 19th century, it is estimated that more than 12.5 million captives were deported from Africa to the Americas and the Atlantic islands (Thomas, 2006: 76). What is certain is that the slave trade was a historical phenomenon of great magnitude due to the number of victims, the many methods of enslavement and the multiple transport operations over long distances (Omotundé, 2011: 117) . The consequences of the slave trade for Africa were disastrous. Africa is still paying a heavy price today for this crime against humanity which decimated its children and emptied it of its first raw material. After such debauchery of its best sons in a barbarism that does not say its name, Africans, better, blacks therefore needed to reorganize to carve out a new existence. This was all the more obvious when we read this conclusion by Eduardo Galeano who states:

The overall situation of Africa at the time of the slave trade is to be compared with that of America and the Amerindians. There is an undeniable correlation between the extermination of the latter and the deportation of thousands of Africans to American mines and plantations; between the collapse of Amerindian material and spiritual cultures in contact with Europeans and the agony of traditional African societies emerging from the Atlantic slave trade (Galeano, 1981: 47).

The story universal of slavery, the Atlantic slave trade takes on a triple singularity in this respect. First in terms of its longevity because it took four centuries. Then at the level of its specificity concerning its main victims who only concerned the black African man. Finally, there is its intellectual legitimization, in particular through anti-black ideology and its legal organization, the black code. It was also an activity prized by Westerners who, through its commercial and economic side, rightly illustrates the drama of the encounter

between history and geography, for having linked several regions and continents, including Europe, Africa, the Indian Ocean, the Caribbean and America. The transatlantic slave trade, a determining factor of the world economy in the 13th century, was indeed the largest organized movement of deportation in history (OIF, 2013: 16). Millions of Africans were uprooted from their homes and deported to the Americas to be sold (OIF, 2013: 16). A veritable raid that amputated Africa much of its energy. Several historians consider the slave trade and the slavery that resulted from it to be the most gigantic tragedy in history human in scale and duration. This tragedy for the African continent remained inscribed as an indelible mark in the minds of every black person and the stigmata of this memorial pain were not going to remain without consequences.

10. The recent origins of Pan-Africanism

Of all the distant historical events that we have just described, it must be remembered that these have had significant impacts within the Black world. This will not take long to stimulate within it the establishment of an intellectual and political movement between Africans and Afro-Americans, who consider Africans and peoples of African descent as homogeneous, but also as a set of ideas that emphasized the cultural unity and political independence of Africa.

11. The Contribution of the First Black Intellectuals in the Diaspora

The idea of pan-Africanism comes first from a refusal of the slave trade, slavery and all their consequences on the legal status of blacks, on the image of Africa in the world and on the destiny that the great powers of the time had in store for Africans and their continent. It is by rejecting the slave system that Africans in Africa and the Diaspora affirmed the equality of peoples and the right of Africans to live in freedom and dignity like other human beings (OIF, 2013: 16). If African resistance to slavery begins with slavery itself, this rejection begins to take an intellectual form and a political content in the 18th century in philosophical and religious texts, in political pamphlets, in lawsuits brought by Africans against their real or alleged masters. Black intellectuals are inspired by some authors of the Black world who guide and inspire their actions. This is the case of authors such as the philosopher Anthony Amo the Guinean, Ignatius Sancho, Ottobah Cuguano, Olaudah Equiano who were then distinguished by militant publications. In 1772 in London, a historic event will occur with the lawsuit won by a slave named James Somerset from Virginia against his master. Intellectuals take advantage of it to make a large propaganda with the aim of inspiring several black people compartmentalized in fear.

To these events were therefore added the independence of Haiti, the positioning of Liberia, which had become a land of African-American immigration, the progressive abolition of slavery, followed by the independence of the former Spanish colonies and Brazil. In 1772 in London, a historic event will occur with the lawsuit won by a slave named James Somerset from Virginia against his master. Intellectuals take advantage of it to make

a large propaganda with the aim of inspiring several black people compartmentalized in fear. To these events were therefore added the independence of Haiti, the positioning of Liberia, which had become a land of African American immigration, the progressive abolition of slavery, followed by the independence of the former Spanish colonies and Brazil.

Throughout the 19th century, the Pan-African idea was enriched and consolidated by taking advantage of the rather difficult circumstances that surrounded the history/turmoil of Africans in the diaspora as well as those on the continent. It is capitalized on through many actions mainly led by intellectuals and politicians who are now campaigning for the recognition of a black identity. It is for these intellectuals and politicians, a response to the denial of humanity and consideration of which blacks are victims. Therefore, a lot of work is being done with the aim of highlighting and revaluing Africa's share in the past of humanity and, on the basis of this rectified history, proclaim the opposition of Africans to all policies and all practices tending to subjugate them.

Africa will particularly be at the heart of the commitment of black intellectuals on both an intellectual and political level. Pastor Alexander Crummell (1819-1898), who, after traveling the United States and Great Britain, had settled for twenty years in Sierra Leone and Liberia, was one of the first to speak openly in 1852 of Ethiopia, which was a generic name designating all of Africa, but also evoked the Atlantic Ocean to the Indian Ocean, from the Mediterranean to Cape Town. His contemporary, Martin R. Delany (1812-1885), who had visited the Liberia and southern Nigeria, advocated for an Africa of African race and black people to govern it. Moreover, this idea was to be taken up by two great intellectuals. First, Edward Wilmot Blyden (1832-1912), who came from the Danish Caribbean to settle in Liberia and who criss-crossed the entire West African coast, from Sierra Leone to Nigeria, was particularly committed to defending the interests of this particular type of humanity known throughout the world as a Negro (OIF, 2013: 16). There was also Marcus Garvey (1885-1940), who left Jamaica for the United States to better fight for a black identity.

The black intellectuals of the new free colonies like Haiti have distinguished themselves by an exemplary commitment. This Haitian intelligentsia distinguished itself particularly in a fight against the detractors of the black race embodied by Anténor Firmin (1850-1911), statesman, patriot and resolute opponent of the expansionist aims of the United States on the black republic. He is one of the black intellectuals to have established himself in the United States through an important Black Literature. He published in 1885, at the very time when the European powers were embarking on the partition of Africa, an immense book entitled *On the Equality of Human Races-Positive Anthropology* which, by responding directly to Arthur de Gobineau's theses, at the same time destroyed all the theoretical foundations of colonial domination and racial segregation. History, as a scientific discipline, would therefore occupy a prominent place in the concerns of these activists, with numerous publications, both in the United States and in West and Southern Africa (OIF, 2013: 16).

Under the pen of Blyden, Africanus Horton, and lesser-known authors, such as Abbé Boilat, all the themes of pan-Africanist historiography appeared. They revisited all the themes relating to Africa, which is the cradle of humanity; the anteriority and unity of Negro civilizations; the exemplary nature of Ethiopia throughout its very long history; the brilliance of the political, economic, cultural and scientific life of African states in the Middle Ages; the ravages of the slave trade and slavery; the ability of African societies to survive

in the face of the most destructive intrusions; African resistance to slavery and foreign domination; the closeness between Islam and African cultures. Throughout this gestatory period of Pan-Africanism, intellectual protest and cultural creativity would thus accompany the strictly political struggles. During this founding period, politics remained at the center of the issues.

The theme of the independence of the African territories occupied by the colonial powers appeared even before the completion of the process of domination of Africa intellectual protest and cultural creativity would thus accompany the strictly political struggles. During this founding period, politics remained at the center of the issues. The theme of the independence of the African territories occupied by the colonial powers appeared even before the completion of the process of domination of Africa intellectual protest and cultural creativity would thus accompany the strictly political struggles. During this founding period, politics remained at the center of the issues. The theme of the independence of the African territories occupied by the colonial powers appeared even before the completion of the process of domination of Africa, with the watchword broadcast by Blyden from Africa to Africans.

12. An ideologically favorable international context

We note a sort of contagion of thought in the 19th century that started in Europe and spread to America and other parts of the globe. This favorable wind has largely contributed to the emergence of Pan-Africanism. Indeed, the whole of Europe was agitated in that century by nationalism and problems of unity (Anceau, 2003: 19). Launched at the time of the French Revolution, the nationalist ideology is widespread. In Germany it is the hour of Pan-Germanism under the influence of thinkers like Fichte Gobineau and especially List. Pan-Slavism is in vogue in Central and Eastern Europe. Zionism is no exception. It is a liberal model that prevails in Europe. The principles from the Enlightenment were propagated throughout Europe by the Revolution and the Napoleonic Empire and despite the restorations of 1814-1815, the return to absolutism became impossible in many countries. Among the main ideologies in vogue in Europe, there is Liberalism. Stemming from the philosophical movement of the Enlightenment, liberalism imposed itself as the dominant political ideology in Western Europe in the 19th century (Anceau, 2003: 21). It insists on the so-called fundamental individual freedoms, namely the defense of freedom of opinion; of expression; meeting against any authority. It is fundamentally opposed to absolutism and calls for a constitutional and parliamentary system with two chambers, the separation of powers and decentralization. We also have traditionalism, which is a political movement that appeared and developed at the very end of the 18th century in reaction to the French Revolution⁶⁰. It is therefore above all a counter-revolutionary, anti-liberal and anti-democratic movement. For Traditionalism, the French Revolution is the culmination of a decadence born in the Age of Enlightenment. It discloses the idea that there is a divine order of things, in nature as well as in society.

This fashionable ideological proliferation arouses much debate and passion and sows the first seeds of a democratic ideal. This ideal therefore has its roots in Liberalism and is gradually beginning to take root in people's minds. The democrats, while defending individual liberties like the liberals, demand the transition from national sovereignty exercised by the elites to genuine popular national sovereignty. Each citizen must have the same political weight by the establishment of universal suffrage. They remember the definition of American President Abraham Lincoln who defined democracy in his speech at Gettysburg in 1863 as: "Government of the people, by the people and for the people".

Compatible with both monarchy and republic, democracy requires that the policy pursued be that of the people. Consequently, the democrats also militate for the development of the instruction and the press. Between 1848, the year that universal male suffrage appeared in France until 1897 with Bulgaria, most European countries found themselves stuck in this ideological movement. This development is accompanied by social progress and efforts in the education of the masses followed by the protection of great freedoms like the press, public meetings or associations. most European countries found themselves stuck in this ideological movement. This development is accompanied by social progress and efforts in the education of the masses followed by the protection of great freedoms like the press, public meetings or associations. most European countries found themselves stuck in this ideological movement. This development is accompanied by social progress and efforts in the education of the masses followed by the protection of great freedoms like the press, public meetings or associations.

The political, cultural and intellectual debate, focused in Europe around these nationalist concepts will therefore gradually win over the educated elites of the Diaspora.black in America; through their contact with European migrants in the new world. Already seduced by the story from the former British colonies that gave birth to the United States, the black elites find in European nationalist debates the inspiration that will forge their own vision on the condition of their race. After the Civil War and the end of slavery, there was a massive entry of extremely precarious slaves into the unions to organize themselves and define a policy for the defense of their rights. This has the consequence that the northern camp led by the Republican Party grants blacks, who still live overwhelmingly in the rural states of the South, a certain number of rights, including the right to vote, and a certain economic freedom. This period opens the era of a set of legal solutions to the problems of blacks in the United States.

It should be noted that there is a substantial report of this abundant ideological climate in Europe and the United States on Africabecause many Africans have already settled for long periods in these parts of the territory, and it is they who will seize this ideological perch to create channels of repercussion on the continent.

Conclusion

By way of conclusion, it follows that the pan-Africanism whose history retains that it was born in 1900 is a long-attested reality both in ancient Africa and in the Americas. It is both the historical product of a desire for liberation and of the battles of blacks against the oppressor, of the cultural pride of African peoples in the face of new civilizations, but also of the will of blacks to assert themselves as only worthy beings.

References:

1. Abenon, J.; de Cauna, LR. and Chauleau, L (1989). *Antilles 1789-La Révolution aux Caraïbes*. Paris, L'Harmattan.
2. Anceau, E. (2005). *Introduction to the 19th century. Volume 2: 1870 to 1914*. Paris, Belin.
3. Blancpain, F. (2004). *The French Colony of Santo Domingo*. Paris, Karthala.
4. Galeano, E. (1981). *The Open Veins of Latin America: A Counter-History*. Paris, Plon.
5. Gomez, A.E. (2013). *The Specter of the Black Revolution. The impact of the Haitian revolution in the Atlantic world, 1790-1886*. Rennes, PUR.

6. Kaspi, A.; Durpaire, F.; Harter, H. and Lherm, A. (2004). *American civilization*. Paris, PUF.
7. Omotundé, J.P. (2011). *The European Slave Trade: Truths and Lies*. Paris, Menaibuc.
8. Petré-Grenouilleau, O (2004). *The slave trade, Essay on history overall*. Paris, Gallimard.
9. Thomas, H (2006). *The slave trade*. Paris, Robert Laffont.
10. Wauwermans, H.E. (1885). *The beginnings of the work of African emancipation. History of the Foundation of a Free Negro State*. Brussels.

PRESBYTERIANISM A CENTRAL REALITY OF THE FOUNDATION OF PROTESTANTISM FROM THE EPCO TO THE MORAL LIFE OF CHRISTIANS (1967-2010)

Jean Louis NDO ABE
Lecturer, Ph.D., University of Yaoundé I (Cameroon)
Email: jeanlouindo@yahoo.fr

Abstract: *This article shows the impact of the Cameroon Presbyterian Church, effectively, its work over the time had influenced the relationships between local populations on one part and how it modified these relationships with the help of Christian on the other part. It was around the management of the theological inheritance which had become very tough, in missionaries and socio-educational that tensions between the members of the church began. Thus, disagreement of ideas and opinions between pastors reached its peak in 1967 resulting in the Cameroon Presbyterian Church (CPC) schism on whether to join the ecumenical board of Churches or not, opinions between pastors and laics of the church split into antagonist groups. This conflict finally came to an end with the creation of the dissidents of the CPC Anti-ecumenical. This is where lays the question of Presbyterian doctrine, where pastors and laics bumped into a fight of leadership.*

Keywords: *Church, Presbyterian doctrine, Protestantism.*

Introduction

From antiquity to the present day, there are still areas of religious and even theological knowledge, avenues that have often remained unexplored or barely explored. One of them is that of the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church (EPCO). Thus this work offers us avenues of reflection that give food for thought because of their interest and specificity at the dawn of democratization and globalization. Indeed, faced with the deviations of the Roman Catholic Church, the monk Martin Luther founded Protestantism at the beginning of the 16th century, which is a strict return to the faith. From then on, Catholics and Protestants clashed, such a situation interested the religious community: it was the start of a fierce campaign between the two Christian religious denominations. The Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church (EPCO) is the result of the schism of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church (EPC), which occurred after its independence on December 11, 1957 Ndjoumou (1957: 11). However, this article presents the context of the creation of the ÉPCO and its evolution until 2010. Qualified as fundamentalist, it had its recognition on February 18, 1970, at the end of the rivalries about the adhesion of the EPC at the World Council of Churches (WCC). This adhesion of the young independent Church is at the origin of the rivalries and the schism. Therefore, it is a question of knowing how Presbyterianism is applied within the ÉPCO. The answer to this question leads us to present the institutions and the organization of Presbyterianism, the artisans of Protestantism and its expansion in Cameroon, the ÉPCO and the consequences of Presbyterianism.

1. The institution and organization of Presbyterianism

Before continuing, it is appropriate to define the term Presbyterianism. According to the Dictionary petit Larousse, it designates a system of ecclesiastical government

inspired by Calvinism, in which the administration of the Church is entrusted to a mixed body made up of lay people and Petit Larousse pastors (2001: 820). Clearly, it is a branch of the visible and universal Church of Christ whose power rests with the Christian community. In other words, it is a post Augustinian term used in justice and which means: to profess, to testify, or to declare openly or publicly D. Epo Andjongo (2008: 2). Further, it denotes the form of government, indeed an administration of the members of the Church which has adherents of a faith based on the control of elders or overseers. It comes from a collation of laws based on the Holy Scriptures. Hence it is necessary that pastors entrust the ordinary administration of church affairs to governments or governing board members and not to the general body of church members.

In a word, Presbyterianism has a specificity that it entrusts the government of the local Church, also called "Ecclesia" or parish to a college composed of elders of Churches (church elder) and a pastor who is dedicated. It is these "Presbyterians" who administer the parish under the direction of a pastor, moderator, or president of the parish or session council. It should be noted that all the elders are elected by majority universal suffrage by the religious community, regular communicant members of the parish, with the exception of the pastor who is under the responsibility of the presbytery, but he is the moderator Epo (2008).

1.1. The Institution of Presbyterianism

In the history of civilizations and religions, the Bible reveals that God used men (old people) to exercise discipline among his children. These are chosen among honest and worthy men. These elders embody the highest authority within the people of Israel. This jurisdiction is called the Sanhedrin. It is evident that early in the history of the Church this same system of government was adopted within it.

After the apostolic era, the Church underwent profound changes which are at the origin of the Roman Catholic Church. There are two reforms: one related to the government of the Christian faith. In the apostolic period, the spiritual and universal priesthood of all believers is generally recognized by the Church. There is no division between Christians (clergy and laity), and even a distinction between a spiritual order of high authorities and the faithful. Because of the disorder within the Church, this system evolves more and more and remains as in the Protestant reformation, which consists in a possible return of the Church to the old bases of the Christian faith. As a result, John Calvin gave the Church the ancient form of its government, namely the biblical and apostolic form. This makes the pastor and the church elder joint leaders of the local church. This Calvin Presbyterianism came out more or less in its old form. It should be noted that Calvinism encompasses the doctrine and form of government Mfom (1999).

This Presbyterianism is much more widespread in England and Scotland. During the reign of Queen Mary, Protestants were persecuted, seeking religious freedom: hence their migration to America. In this new world, Presbyterianism developed rapidly and took a structured form. From this moment, we witness the establishment of local Churches which are constituted in synods, of which the two main ones are: New York and Philadelphia. Until 1787, Presbyterianism had no general assembly. It sat for the first time in 1788 at the end of the revolution Epo (2008).

In the United States, there is a relationship between political and religious forms of government. American Presbyterianism is therefore of a democratic type, where every citizen participates in religious life. To show that from antiquity to the present day the

Church is at the center of life in society, because it is the environment par excellence where the majority of men adhere to it. During the first meeting, the general assembly voted its constitution, constituted as follows:

- the Westminster Confession of Faith;
- the large and the small catechism;
- the government ;
- the discipline and the book of worship called “Commons workshop” which was adopted in 1906 Mbom (1906).

In Greek the word presbytery comes from presbyteries which means old or presbytery: hence the name presbyterianism. It is therefore an ecclesiastical system advocated by John Calvin after the reform which gives the government of the Church to a mixed body composed of pastors and lay people called elders. After the Reformation movement, the Presbyterian Church established itself in England and the United States. It in turn established itself in Cameroon in 1892 through the work of an American missionary named Adolphus Clemens Good from Gabon. The nationals having very quickly immersed themselves in the work of evangelization, claim the autonomy of the Church which was granted on December 11, 1957 A. Binelé (SD: 9).

In addition, we find that several religious denominations were placed under a presbyterian government and that there is a legal subordination of the local Churches to this general presbytery. As a result, Ango Nna makes this remark in these terms: “Ministries are the only ones mandated in all ordinary circumstances to administer public sermons and sacraments. Elders are fully authorized to perform all necessary duties in the administration of Church affairs” Ango (2014: 34).

Here, everything that has been said arises the principle of the independence of the Churches. Presbyterianism emphasizes the following provisions:

- the unity of the Church according to the Holy Scriptures;
- transparency and equality among the faithful;
- the local Church is not invested with the ultimate ecclesiastical authority, this authority is taught at the presbytery, composed of constituent congregations;
- the equality of the elders is also exposed, there is no trace of hierarchy;
- the right of the people in the management and choice of leaders or the election of members to the superior courts of the Church. The people allied themselves with the decision taken by the elders Mfom (1999).

These main points give us the very essence of Presbyterianism and show it to be a form of church government based on the word of God. Thus, the Presbyterian regime aims to translate into institutions, the mutual links between the Churches. Each local community elects its elders and delegates its representatives to the presbytery, which sends them either to the synod or to the general assembly, which is empowered to make decisions applicable to all the Churches. In the Presbyterian system, therefore, authority is at the bottom (people), to be delegated to the top. This system promotes the responsibility of local parishes, in an independence that links them to each other Mfom (1999).

However, we note that the Presbyterianism lived by the American missionaries is different from that applied by the national pastors. This is because of its interpretation and practice within ÉPCO. The observation is that of a Presbyterianism in turmoil and tribal. Because the first pastors did not take into account social changes and the formation of Christians for theological improvement.

1.2. Organization and Missions of Presbyterianism

The organization of Presbyterianism is pyramidal, that is to say from top to bottom. Outwardly, the Church by nature manifests itself as a congregation of saints in which the gospel is taught and the sacraments administered. The true unity of the Church concerns the doctrine of the gospel and the administration of the sacraments. In principle, the Church is a community of faith in which the Holy Spirit dwells in the hearts of men. Hence, the mismatch lies at the level of organization and worship. The first has a special symbolic priesthood, that is, the authority to speak and act in the name of God for lead his children Anonymous (2006: 4). As for the second, she has a universal priesthood, giving a man power and a special relationship. These are the functions entrusted to bishops, priests, deacons, pastors, prophets and evangelists (Deacon and Pastor).

More extensive Protestant missionary activity began in the early 18th century. A general interest in foreign missions has been reawakened in other countries where there are Protestants. In 1776, a missionary society was organized in Scotland in Edinburgh and Glasgow. It was she who sent David Livingstone as a missionary to Africa. In Germany, the Evangelical Missionary Society of Basel was founded in 1821 and that of Berlin in 1884. In England, the Interdenominational Missionary Society was founded in 1795 in London. The Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in America (EPA) was organized in 1837 and formally inaugurated by the general assembly. From then on, the Presbyterian Church in the United States took charge of the work of missions in the world in general and in Cameroon in particular Ango (2014). Presbyterianism aims to convert men by instilling in them the moral qualities necessary to the flourishing of man and the development of society. The establishment of these institutions has allowed a new integration of men into society, even if it encounters many obstacles due to the proliferation of other religious denominations. The Presbyterians are considered as trade unionists, called upon to “let people know”, and that is to say denounced in order to find a solution. In a word, it enters the jargon of democratic principles where the congregation has the power to “choose or remove”. But nowadays, many Presbyterians do not know their rights, they are much more subject to the authorities of the pastors, as if the Churches constitute forms of monarchies.

2. The artisans of Protestantism and its expansion in Cameroon

Towards the end of the Middle Ages, the Catholic Church must again face the Protestant reformation. However, we note that in a context marked by the rise of nationalism and the thrust of humanism, the successive action of Martin Luther and John Calvin led to the birth of Protestantism. To better understand the problem of Presbyterianism, we will present the founders of Protestantism in the persons of Luther and Calvin.

2.1. Martin Luther (1483-1546)

German theologian, Luther is at the origin of the Reformation of Christianity which gave birth to the Protestant religion. Born in Eisleben, attended primary and secondary school in Mansfeld, Magdeburg and Eisenach. In 1501 he entered the University of Erfurt to study philosophy, where he obtained a bachelor's degree in 1501 and a master's degree three years later. According to him, only faith can save man and the truth of Christianity is found in the Scriptures and not in the clergy. Ordained in 1507, he waited anxiously for the moment when he was to celebrate his first mass. After his ordination, Luther was invited to study theology to become a professor in one of the German universities where teaching

was provided by the monks. Following his numerous studies in theology, he traveled to Rome with the aim of judging the Roman clergy. A few years later, he was sent again to Wittenberg to prepare his doctorate in theology, which he obtained in 1512 and was responsible for biblical teaching. He remained holder of the chair of biblical theology until the end of his life. At the beginning of the 16th century, Pope Leo X organized the sale of indulgences supposed to facilitate access to paradise. The money thus obtained should enable him to build Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome. This non-religious practice provoked the revolt of Martin Luther, a German monk, who in 1517 published his "95 theses" which founded the Reformation. Martin Luther affirms that only faith can save man and that the truth of Christianity is found in the Scriptures and not in the clergy. It recognizes only two sacraments: baptism and communion.

On October 31, 1517, Luther posted on the door of the Catholic Church in Wittenberg Castle the 95 Theses, denouncing the sale of indulgences in the Catholic Church. This act, which marks the beginning of the Reformation, earned him many marks of approval in Germany and soon throughout Europe. Despite pressure from the Roman Church, Luther refused to back down and in 1520 published *The Manifesto to the German Nobility and Babylonian Captivity*. In the little treatise on human freedom, he clarifies the doctrine of justification by faith alone and affirms the authority of Holy Scripture. Luther publicly burns the *Exsurge bull* (...) promulgated on June 15, 1520 by Leo X which condemns Lutheran theses. The diet of Worms excommunicated Luther and banished him from the empire. He takes refuge in the castle of Warburg where he undertakes the translation of the Bible into German Anonymous (2008: 77).

Outraged by the pomp and deviance of the Church of Rome, Martin Luther founded Protestantism at the beginning of the 16th century, which was a strict return to the faith. From then on, Catholics and Protestants clashed throughout Europe. The pope asks him to renounce his opinions, which he refuses. Rejected by the Catholic Church, he took refuge in Wartburg Castle where he began translating the Bible into German. Thanks to the recent invention of the printing press, the writings of Martin Luther are quickly distributed throughout Europe. In 1525, he married a former nun and founded a family; he fights against the celibacy of priests. He writes his *Small Catechism*, intended for children. When he died in 1546, several Protestant churches, called Lutheran churches, were founded in northern Europe. He is overwhelmed by the revival of the papacy, because he feels it is an attempt by the Jews to exploit the confusion among Christians to raise the question of the messianism of Christ. Faced with this situation, he engages in a polemic against the Jews, the papacy as well as the radical part of the reformers (the Anabaptists). Despite an anti-Jewish attitude and remarks that stain his memory, Luther remains the pioneer of great reformers and one of the first great writers in the German language Epo (2008). In a changing world emerging from the middle Ages and entering modern times, the Church is faced with a renewal of the Gospel spirit. The German monk following an interior journey acquired the certainty of salvation in Jesus Christ, "Sola Fide", and not to the personal merits of the believer (works), even less to the indulgences granted by the Church. Thus his thought developed from the Germanic countries, Central Europe and the Scandinavian countries, then the United States, and through the missions of many religions of the world. Most Lutheran churches today are affiliated with the Lutheran World Federation (LWF), i.e. 93% of Lutherans Epo (2008).

Indeed, Protestants recognize the Bible as the only authority. They therefore have no clergy to intercede on their behalf with God (as in the Catholic hierarchy). However,

some devotees help the community in prayer at the temple; they are the pastors, who can be men or women. It is for this reason that the Church must fight against currents of thought that deviate from official dogma (heresies).

2.2. John Calvin

A Protestant theologian of the 16th century, born in 1509 in Noyon, in Picardy, Jean Calvin relayed in France the thought of the German Martin Luther. For his part, he insists on the need to lead an exemplary life according to the teachings of the Scriptures. John Calvin's thought is called (Calvinism). The University of Geneva, founded in 1559 by Calvin, as well as the school of watchmaking, are the most prestigious educational establishments. Calvin gives the city a theocratic government according to which the power comes directly from God and is exerted by the religious authorities. He made Geneva an intellectual (Rousseau) and theological center of the Reformation (Christian Movement).

In addition, Calvin's theology exerted a considerable influence on French and Dutch Protestants, as well as on the evolution of the Anglican Church. To better structure his Church, he set up a synodal system which quickly spread to Central Europe, Scotland and throughout the world in general and in Cameroon in particular Pénékou (1996: 97-99). Its theological action is based on the glory of God, on the predestination of the elect, on the authority of the Bible and on the ways of life of Christians. It continued to evolve and express itself through the Reformed and Presbyterian churches. Clearly, the Protestant reform can be summed up in three more or less distinct rounds, namely: Lutheranism, Calvinism and Anglicanism Pénékou (1996). In a word, to be Calvinist is to be Presbyterian in organization and government.

3. Missionary expansion in Cameroon

In the first half of the 19th century, the question of the union of Congregationalists and Presbyterians for a common work of evangelization of the old world was posed with acuity and studied. This campaign begins in 1825. In the Presbyterians (1828), Dr. Nathaniel Taylor of the Divinity School is severe on the doctrine of original sin with the sympathy of Pastor Barnes. A year later, Rev. Barnes becomes the center of the Church's fury. He is accused of heresy and the ecclesiastical trial is instituted not against him alone, but also between Lyman Beecher of Lane Seminary, J.M. Sturtevant, William Kuby and Georges Duffield.

3.1. Protestant missionaries in Africa

The controversy intensified in 1836, when the New School party founded the New York Theological Union Seminary Binélé (2002: 53). This seminar declares itself independent of the control of the general assembly. The climax of this controversy appeared in 1837 when the men of the old school, at the general assembly, abolished the "plan of union" and expelled four synods: Western reserve, Vtca, Geneva and Genesis of the new school Binélé (2002).

At that time, the general assembly of the old northern school had 140 delegates and 126,000 members, while the new school had 136 delegates and 106,000 members. However, for 30 years, these two general assemblies carried the same name: Presbyterian Church in the United States of America. It has also retained the same doctrinal standards, the same ritual and occupy the same territory. Such is the case of the situation of the local Churches of Cameroon (ÉPC and ÉPCO) which have been going through the same internal

crises since their independence until today. We will present the Presbyterianism of these two religious denominations a little later Epo (2008).

This situation allowed Baptists and Methodists to gain ground. In 1862, the two Churches proposed their reunification. From 1863 this idea is accepted. A committee which is to reconsider the plan of this union worked during all the differences of doctrines subsequently born and ecclesiastical bases are applied. In 1870, the union of the two Presbyterian Churches was voted. This act gave birth to the United Presbyterian Church of America Abessolo (2010). Before tackling this question it is expedient to know who is a Presbyterian.

3.2. The various functions of a Presbyterian

The word Presbyterian is complex, it is for this reason that many have a false idea of this notion. Even those who are adept in what they consider the outward aspect of the Presbyterian which concerns his way of governing himself omitting what he should be inwardly. However, what characterizes its interior is its nature which deserves to be founded on Christian doctrine. Thus, the Presbyterian is:

- A believer is someone who has both a personal and conscious attitude toward God and who relies on the atonement accomplished by Jesus Christ on the cross. He is a man who changes his behavior, mentality, opinion and attitude. In a word, he is someone who changes for good and in value he is a conservative. According to the theologian Émile Brunner, the Presbyterian is a man who turns away from his path and turns towards the path of perfection Fouda (2015: 12).

A Christian, to be a Christian is to be animated by the spirit of Jesus and to submit to his will in all things. Here the believer strives to lead a life of holiness, he is humble and simple. The Christian is faithful to the teaching of the doctrine and is at the service of the other faithful P. Tsanga (SD: 17).

- A Reformed, that is to say a determined Christian, called to remain under the authority of the Holy Scriptures. The Reformation spawned Protestantism.

- A Protestant is one who belongs to a Reformed Church and is separate from the Roman Catholic Church. He does not participate in all unreformed liturgies and prefers the word of God to tradition. He's a democrat, a whistleblower called to tell the truth, nothing but the Bible-based truth. Protestantism is a strict return to the Tsanga faith (SD: 18).

- A Puritan is a Reformed Protestant, a member of a group of rigid Presbyterians attached to Bible reading. He is an upright faithful, uncorrupted, without moral fault (Persecution). Clearly, a puritan is one who affects a great rigidity of divine principles. They are strict orthodox Calvinists.

- A Presbyterian is a Christian believer who has become both a Reformed, a Protestant and a Puritan. It is subject to an ecclesiastical system recommended by Jean Calvin the reformer. The latter gives the administration and organization of the Church to the pastors and elders of the Church. The true Presbyterian is enamored with a spirit of denominational orthodoxy and biblical fundamentalism Akoa (1977: 14). All of the above has always characterized the state of mind of those who are true members of the family of God existing in America: this is also the case of Cameroon Mbom, (SD: 5).

To sum up, we can say that Presbyterianism is a visible and universal branch of the Church having a hierarchical jurisdictional government. It has at the top a General

Assembly, in the center of the synods, and at the end of the presbyteries, supported by the parish councils with for delegates the pastors and the elders of the Church. In view of this global conception of Presbyterianism in the world, what about Cameroon.

3.3. The Presbyterian Church in Cameroon

The Presbyterian Church of Cameroon obedience became independent in 1957, it abandoned the name of the American Presbyterian Mission (MPA) to become the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church (EPC). This happens three years before the political independence of Cameroon.

Already, at the beginning of the years 1955-1956, a little before the independence of the Church, the American missionaries, partisans of the demand for the autonomy of the Church by the nationals, stopped sending their students in formation in Europe and America. On the other hand, L P. Moore, knowing this attitude, his consist in forming the fundamentalist students at the faculty of Protestant theology of Dager in Bibia based in the Holy Scriptures. From there, two groups of young students attend this double theological formation. The consequence is the unilateral training of students in fundamentalism by Pastor Moore in Bulu country and Bassa A. Ndjoumou Nko'o (SD: 11-13).

The Board of Foreign Missions of the United Presbyterian Church in the United States of America has sent Missionaries to Africa. Some evangelize at the level of the islands of the Gulf of Guinea towards the end of the 19th century. They reached the coast of the Atlantic Ocean, notably at the great Batanga in Kribi. Thus, the Mabéa and the Batanga are the first evangelized or converted in southern Cameroon. American Protestant missionaries found the first mission station in Grand Batanga. Among these missionaries, we have the pastor Adolphus Clemens Good nicknamed "Ngoto Zambe" or "Nanga Kôn" by the Bulu; he extends the missionary action in Bulu country by creating the second missionary station in Éfoulan on September 8, 1837 (The minute of assembly).

A few years later the missionaries settled in Élat, Foulassi, Nkolmvolan, Yaoundé, Bafia, Batouri, Metet, Sakbayemé, Llanga etc. The creation of all these mission stations marks the expression of the strategy of the work of American evangelization in Cameroon. The institutions created by the American Presbyterian Mission (MPA) are many and varied.

In terms of education, we have the schools (normal school of Foulassi seat of the creation of the national anthem of Cameroon, the professional school Frank James for the training of technicians or executives in Ebolawa, the Dager seminary in Bibia for the training of pastors, the Biblical school of Olama for the training of evangelists and that of Kambélé in Batouri. We also note the creation of several colleges and primary schools at the end of the printing press Hasley Memorial Press of Ebolawa P. Mvondo, (SD: 6).

In terms of health, several hospitals were created: the central hospital of Énongal in Ebolawa, Metet, Foulassi, Sakbayemé, Donenkeng in Bafia, Nkolmvolan, Bibia, Libamba, Yaoundé and many others J. Ovono Alu (SD: 12).

However, we note that all these structures are badly maintained, even in disappearance because of lack of means and the bad management due to a selfish and autarkic spirit of the leaders (pastors). However, this American work is set up to encourage evangelization and avoid the begging of the pastors and faithful of the MPA first and of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church: hence the multiple rivalries and schisms within it of the autonomy to this day.

For a good organization of the Church, we are witnessing the establishment of presbyteries which are considered as areas of competence of each region or sub-region.

Among which we have: Corisco, Metet, Yaoundé, Kadéi, Sanaga, and Babimbi. These presbyteries are grouped into three Synods: Corisco, Bassa and Centre-Est. The highest instance of these two structures is the General Assembly, headed by a moderator. The MPA organized the evangelization from the mission stations, considered as the units of its action Béling Nkoumba (2009: 67). These are under the direction of a missionary pastor, assisted by other lay missionaries or pastors in charge of schools, hospitals, dispensaries, printing, breeding and construction. It should be noted in passing that the indigenous pastors exercise subordinate positions the important positions were in the hands of the American missionaries: hence the administrative immaturity or even the lack of a qualified workforce alongside the Cameroonians P. Mvondo (SD: 10-12). In a nutshell, American pastors are generally heads of institutions and initiators of projects and expenditures. During this period, Cameroonian pastors were in the minority and played a secondary role. The latter assist the missionaries considered as leaders of the stations (The distribution of evangelization).

- On the other hand, we find that all those who lead this mission during this period are not only Presbyterians. Many came from other religious denominations such as: the Baptist Church, the Lutheran Church, the Evangelical Church, and the Reformed Church of France. All are Protestants: hence the question of ecumenism within Cameroonian Presbyterianism. Indeed, the Protestant Missionaries are made up of Americans, English, Swiss, Germans, French where the MPA itself ensures the direction by the "Board of the Foreign Missions of this Church mother J. Ovono, SD (15). It is in this climate that the MPA laid the foundations of evangelization in Cameroon. So the time has come for the three synods to claim their autonomy from the mother Church. After several demands, an agreement in principle is acquired with the recommendation to present an appropriate constitution for the future Church. As a result, indigenous pastors are content with the translation of the Westminster constitution of the American Presbyterian Mission Akoa (1997). This work is done in a very short time, but produces an acceptable constitution, despite its condensed state Mvondo (SD1 4).

Faced with this situation, a point of divergence divided the pastors and the elders of the Church about the denomination of the new Church. Some proposed the name of the Presbyterian Church in Cameroon, others proposed the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church (EPC). The latter is finally adopted. Independence is granted to French-speaking Cameroonian Presbyterians and proclaimed on December 11, 1957, by the Missionary Eugene Carson Blake, Secretary General of the MPA in the presence of the late Amadou Ahidjo, still Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior. This grandiose ceremony took place in the presence of the Rev. Anderson, head of the mission in the presence of a considerable number of pastors, elders of the Church, lay people, high administrative authorities of Cameroon followed by a large mass of Presbyterians and other religious denominations. The following pastors have held positions of responsibility:

The Moderator of the General Assembly: Pastor Simon Mvondo Atyam;

- The Secretary General: Akoa (2010).

From this moment, we witness a massive return of the Missionaries to their Churches of origin. But, some missionaries remained and considered as fraternal collaborators.

A few years later, these collaborators were expelled from the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church (EPC). Because of greed and the greed of power, Cameroonian pastors who have lived abroad hastened the departure of these fraternal collaborators. From this

moment, the warning signs of division begin to take shape under the name of the ecumenical movement. Thus, the young independent Church lived through the great moments of this conflict which led to real hatred between the former missionaries and the young generation of pastors whom they know personally. It almost cost the life of Pastor Enoch Abenoyap, when he traveled to the United States of America in 1965 to prepare for his Bachelor of Divinity. His presence is reported to some of these former missionaries, which mount the bandits to assassinate him. Faced with this situation, the plot is quickly brought to the attention of the Ambassador of Cameroon, who, the same day, hastened his return to Cameroon Akoa (1967).

4. The presbyterian church orthodox Cameroonian and the consequences of Presbyterianism

The term Presbyterian comes from the fact that the Church, after the reforms of Martin Luther, adapted a form of organization which rejects the hierarchy of the clergy to replace it with decision-making levels (from local to national). Thus, each local community has its parish council, and several parishes constitute a presbytery. However, the word orthodox according to its builders designates a Church which advocates a straight doctrine because of doctrinal deviations.

4.1. Precursors to the history of ÉPCO

They are marked by polemics which give a decisive bad influence on the history of Presbyterianism in Cameroon. Instead of a united Church, it is still on the road to separation that extends into cities, towns, families and marital homes. This leads to remarkable enmities and the interference of the Cameroonian government threatening the arrest of certain officials. The traces left by the 1967 persecutions are difficult to erase. In addition, to grasp the history of EPCO, it is necessary to first present the warning signs of the deviation. The Presbyterian Church of Cameroonian obedience became independent in 1957. It emerged from the ashes of the MPA and which forged its personality in its own way. After its independence, it remembers its history of its pioneers endowed with the zeal and unshakeable faith of its men and women convinced of the relevance of their mission.

Already, during the years 1955-1956, a little before the independence of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church, the American Missionaries presenting the claim for the autonomy of the Church by the nationals, had stopped sending students, pastors and many others in fundamentalist theological institutions (Princeton), opting instead for training in liberal theological schools. Faced with this situation, the missionary Louis Paul Moore, on the other hand, set about training theology students in Dager (Bibia). Two groups of students attend this dual training. They are: Moubitang A Mepoui, Mbe, André Biyong, Remy Bidja, Jean Andjongo Noa, Daniel Akono Nko'o, and Aaron Pythagore Mbom... Which led to Moore's dismissal in the parishes where he is working on the translation of the Bible into Bulu and Bassa. The warning signs of deviation are on the local level: the discrepancy in the interpretation of the word of God, because according to the Rev. Aaron Mbom, "some pastors understood the prophecy while others did not" Mbom (2010). On the external level, we note that since 1945, ecumenism was already at work in the West (in the United States of America, in Europe, etc.) buildings to underprivileged local pastors. They placed emphasis only in evangelism, setting aside offerings and other material aspects to avoid simoniacal practices in the lives of His servants. This has led to the poverty of local pastors. Here, we must mention the first demarcation of Catholic missionaries: hence the acceleration of membership in the World Council of Churches (WCC). Finally, we note the

immorality of local pastors, which manifests itself in the abusive use of alcoholism, debauchery, the love of money (greed), and greed... weakening of preaching, because pastors refuse or avoid talking about sin to the faithful because they are the main ones concerned. The consequence is the intrusion of what has been called "the social Gospel why? So what! It is for this reason that Pastor Dominique Epo Andjongo affirms: "I am afraid that the EPCO at the present time is in this analogous position with this last point on the deviation" Epo (SD: 2).

During its long journey, the EPCO has known successively as supervisors the American Presbyterian Mission and the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church. The latter were able to provide a solid foundation in the process of evangelization, even if its leaders confused the notion of ecumenism with other doctrines such as communism. Today we are evaluating the life of this Church and its walk throughout its history. How many stages covered, how many events experienced, how many difficulties and obstacles encountered and how many victories won. The year 2010 is a year marked by rivalries, progress within the EPCO with the definitive construction of the head office in Yaoundé (Ékounou, year of a crisis of dialogue and cooperation EPCO (2010).

Considering all the above, we can say that it was in 1961 that the Presbyterian Church in the United States asked the EPC to join the WCC. According to the testimony of Pastor Jean Amougou, a former student of the Evangelical College of Libamba:

In January 1961, when I was part of the choir of the evangelical college of Libamba, we went to perform at the meeting of the General Assembly of the EPC which was held in Nkongui (Makak) 11 km from Libamba. On the way back, during the morning service, Dr. Peace Robert, then director of the college, an American, complained bitterly to the students of the college that the EPC was seeking membership in the World Council of Churches. Our work here in Cameroon will be destroyed he said Jean Amougou (2010: 44)

We note that it was in January 1962, at the General Assembly meeting at Messa II (Yaoundé) that the letter from the United States was enlisted and adopted with the option of immediate membership of the EPC in the COÉ: hence the birth of the Committee for the Defense of the Authority of the Holy Scriptures and Presbyterian Tradition (CDASETP). From there we see the existence of two EPCs, one conservative Anti-Ecumenical and the other liberal Ecumenical. From 1963 to 1966, the group anti-ecumenical is deprived of responsibilities in the Church and operates underground. The tensions become more and more lively leading to the schism in (1967).

What interests us here is the nature of those who came out. They were made up of 13 pastors, several church elders, and a huge crowd of worshipers. This group, which formed a General Assembly, is at the origin of the current ÉPCO Mbom Church (SD: 29-30). However, we can say that the history of Presbyterianism in general and that of the EPCO in particular makes it possible to note that: Presbyterianism is not an absolute barrier against theological deviations. This is why we find that even a perfect organization can lead to doctrinal deviations: the case of the American Presbyterian Mission, which includes within its ranks millennial, pre-millennial and post-millennial, even ecumenists and anti-millennial. Ecumenists. Material problems have always been at the root of separations and schisms among Presbyterians. From birth to the present day, the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church is at all times confronted with problems of management of its property resulting in embezzlement, theft, breach of trust, etc. This could be because the functioning of the ministry of deacons is limited to the parish level (early church). Our intention is not to doubt for a moment the diaconal role assigned to pastors. If some

exercise it with wonder, it is not uncommon to note that the decisions taken deliberately by the judicial authorities are not applied at the level of the presbytery when it comes to questions related to finances: the case of “(Nkulébang)”. The formula of the Presbyterians is the use of the Bible in the right hand, the constitution and subsequent texts in the left hand. Its application is observed in different ways.

From 1967 to 1970, the anti-ecumenical Cameroonian Presbyterian Church went through a period of great underground persecution and the condemnation of certain pastors deemed subversive. This period is characterized by: the affair of the temples and places of worship, at the beginning of its existence, the anti-ecumenists were in the majority in the southern and central regions. These believe that these buildings are theirs by right, it is the same for the pro-ecumenical. The reasons for this state of affairs are as follows: in appearance, those who were more numerous rightly claimed the temples and places of worship. In reality, the reason for this claim was fundamental and veiled, because they already accepted liberalism, that is to say, they freely exhibited a style of life, a pastoral care that relegates the demands of the word of God to the second rank. To better understand the terms liberalism, let's follow this story lived by Jean Amougou.

4.2. The incubation period for the birth of the ÉPCO

There was initially a united family, but with the separation of 1967, this family found itself on both sides. On the one hand, a graduate from the theological school of Bibia who was to be consecrated pastor, alone on his side, and the rest of the family being anti-ecumenical. Within this family, there was a dilemma, should he have a party at his consecration as if everyone accepted ecumenism? Or do nothing to show the family's disapproval? To be clear, the family questions the theologian: here is the thesis of the theologian, taking the example of two brothers from the same family; one a catechist, the other a diplomat, he says the diplomat brother in practice; without restraint with his bosses and his fellows; the catechist brother stays in the village and does not participate in this kind of life. Should we say that the diplomat brother is not a Christian or a member of the Church? Must we say that it is the catechist alone who is a Christian and a member of the Church? It is necessary to free the Christian whatever his environment or his condition. Having understood what liberalism is, the family decided to celebrate him, Amougou (2010).

From there, we see from this story the reality of the spirit of liberalism and the theological deviation.

- The case of Pastor Jean Andjongo against the EPC, it has two aspects: at the level of the property and buildings of the Church. The EPC and the nascent Church had simultaneously assigned ministers of worship to the same places, thus finding themselves for the same office with the faithful on both sides as well as the celebrants. In places, the local administrative authority separated the antagonists or closed temples and chapels, or else dislodged the anti-ecumenical pastor: hence the growing unease. The causes of this malaise are psychological and political. On a psychological level, we can note that the point of view of the anti-ecumenical was minimized as well as their pastors are taxed as old and illiterate. On the political level, they were accused of opponents against national unity, because the adversaries sought to set up the administration and the highest authority in the country: hence the very great fragility of the anti-ecumenical EPC (1967). As a result, the appellation of “subversive has gained momentum, it is for this reason that Pastor Epo Andjongo declares:

- In the first quarter of 1967, Pastor Jean Andjongo Noa, secretary general of the anti-ecumenical EPC was invited to Metet for a nuptial blessing, the groom was anti-ecumenical; some members of the bride's family are ecumenical. A pastor from Metet who remained at the Ecumenical EPC invited Pastor Albert Nyemb, General Secretary of the EPC for the same nuptial blessing. But the latter could not do it, because almost the entire population was anti-ecumenical. Thus, at the temple of Metet, the nuptial celebration took place with the pastor Jean Andjongo Noa, but the next day the temple had been sealed in the night by the administrative authority (SD: 24).

- The false message through the tracts, the situation has become more and more difficult, because several lawyers advise the general secretary of the nascent Church to take the case to court. Indeed, while the decision of the Yaoundé court of first instance is awaited, from there arises the case of the wrong message. This message states that: "The property and buildings belong to the EPC, initial stop" Bikolo (SD: 4), this message was popularized in all the areas where the anti-ecumenicalism were established (Douala, Yaoundé, Ebolawa, Sangmélina, Metet, Ambam, or even everywhere in Cameroon). Thus, in the face of this situation, celebrations are organized on both sides, which has led to the interference of the cameroonian government. during this period, the Minister of Territorial Administration watched over religious organizations. Indeed, the administration was in favor of the ecumenical CFE on the grounds of national unity and certain ethnic affinities which favored some. According to Pastor Alfonse Binelé Ayissi: "In January 1967, Pastor Paul Moore, who had come to help organize the nascent Church, was arrested at his hotel in Douala and sent back. Because someone by these affinities would have translated his arrival in Cameroon" Binelé (2005). In the same vein, in 1971, Jules Marcel Nicole French Missionary was turned back at Douala airport, when he came to take part in the ÉPCO General Assembly in Nko'étyé at the Endam Tsanga presbytery (SD: 13).

In addition, at the time when the leaflets were circulating and because of the public rejoicing, we witness the arrest of the leaders of the Church, these are pastors, certain pioneers, men, women and some young faithful. Among which: Jacob Ebe, Jean Amougou (all later became pastors), Abel Ndjoumou Nko'o who was an administrator, André Obara Medjo, Ako'o Zo'o, Jean Eka'aban, Herman Endaman Mfenda etc. Epo (SD: 26). All this ended up in the military tribunal where all the pastors were acquitted, with the exception of Pastor Jean Andjongo Noa who received a two-year prison sentence. It is the same for the elder of the Church Moïse Mbock Koh sentenced to one year firm, Bilé Ze author or bearer of the leaflet and not having denounced the origin of the paper had three years of firm imprisonment. The hearing of the military court was presided over by the federal inspector Guillaume Nseke, the government commissioner acting as prosecutor Captain Atangana. The investigation was conducted by the police, in the person of Martin Mbarga Nguete, head of the public security division of the Federal inspection of the center south in Yaoundé and Church elder of the EPC Marie Goker. During the public hearing, the pastors had refused legal aid, but it was imposed on them ex officio. According to this verdict, the anti-ecumenical EPC enters the underground, some pastors who had joined resigned, and some went back to the EPC and others elsewhere. They are pastors Jean Emiang Amvela and Enoch Abenoyap, this clandestinely lasts three years, that is to say from 1967 to 1969 Epo (SD: 28).

Thus, two theological doctrines oppose each other: liberalism and biblical fundamentalism. Some are pro-ecumenical and some are anti-ecumenical. At the general assembly held in Messa (Yaoundé) in 1963, elections were held which resulted in a tie vote.

On the other hand, we note that no decision is taken during these meetings of Messa, parish of Yaoundé. From then on, the anti-ecumenical people organized themselves and founded a council initially called: Council for the Defense of the Faith (CDF), so Pastor Jean Ovono Alu was elected president and Joseph Clement Obam Etémé secretary. It was this office that represented anti-ecumenicalism at the ICCC World Council in 1966 in Berlin, Germany. The secretary general in office Mathias Meye me Nkpwele, inwardly partisan of the anti-ecumenists. This is why he did not activate the procedure for joining the EPC to the (COÉ).4. The clandestine life of the ÉPCO

Generally speaking, we can say that this period is characterized by the incubation and preparation of the new religious entity. This through the withdrawal of the ministers of worship and the establishment of the "(Nko'o meye'elan)" which is translated by "the trunk of prayer"

After the decision of the military tribunal, all the pastors abandoned places of public worship and retreated to their homes and to the bush. However, others remained in Yaoundé to coordinate the work of preparing the statute of the new Church, among which we have: the pastors Joseph Clement Obam Etémé, Jean Ovono Alu and the elder of the Church Moïse Owono Mbarga. The latter held the position of Magistrate of the seat at the time. It therefore participates in the creation of the current statute. It should be noted in passing that it is he who proposes the change of the qualifier "initial" to the word "orthodox" which receives the assent of all and which has been accepted by the supervisory authority. The Magistrate was assisted by a young intellectual, sympathizer originally from Nkolmetet named Scherel Albert Mbolo Mva. At the end of the term of Pastor Mathias Meye, on January 11, 1967, the Rev. Albert Theodore Nyemb was elected third secretary general of the EPC. The day after January 12, 1967, the young secretary made a declaration relating to the membership of the EPC in the Ecumenical Council of Churches. For him, this membership is one of these priorities. This attitude is considered an insult to the anti-ecumenical Ovono (SD: 21). From there, through the voice of the dean, Pastor Simon Mvondo Atyam solemnly declares the massive exit of the anti-ecumenicalism from the temple of Élat in these terms: Dear brothers, since we have already discussed ecumenism for a long time, but you have not listened to our demands. In view of the decisions and commitments of the new general secretary that all the EPC must adhere to the world council of churches. So, from this moment we separate ourselves from you. We will dream of ourselves in paradise (...). One should not despise the slightest problem, nor a little illness or a little man. So, since you despised us, when we said that we refuse this problem of ecumenism for a long time, but you refused to listen to us. I ask all the anti-ecumenical present in this temple to follow me Mbom et al (2000).

Automatically, the anti-ecumenical people meet in their general assembly next to the temple of Élat in a building located along the Ebolawa-Yaoundé Road: this is the beginning of the schism. Immediately, a provisional office is set up, composed as follows:

- a moderator Rev. Abel Nko'o;
- a secretary general, the Rev. Jean Andjongo Noa;
- a treasurer, elder Hermann Ntonga Meye Ovono (SD: 17).

During the assizes of this first general assembly, all the bases of a true Presbyterian Church are laid. Work is taking place in a spirit of cordiality and determination as if this schism is prepared, expected and made inevitable. At the end of this assembly, after a series of proposals about the name to be given to the new Church, it was this one that was retained: the Presbyterian Cameroonian Orthodox Church (EPCO). The continuation of the

life of the anti-ecumenical EPC is characterized by persecutions, the anti-ecumenical ones are judged of “subversives”, called to undergo corporal punishments resulting in the imprisonment of all the dissidents in various places of the forces of the order, then to the central prison of Yaoundé Angounou (SD: 9).

According to Josué Avebe, this situation was as follows:

Among the 105 subversives accused, only the dean Ako'o Zo'o succumbed from the first days of their imprisonment because of torture of all kinds. Then, all other dissidents are brought to the Yaoundé military court where many are released from other suspended sentences. Despite their release from prison, all anti-ecumenicalism continues to be persecuted until the day of the signing of their authorization signed on February 18, 1970 J. Avebe (2009)

However, Presbyterianism from the United States of America has a democratic form of government, inspired by John Calvin. At this level, it designates a system which consists in exercising authority by all the members of the religious community. It has a representative hierarchy, made up of pastors and church elders. This representativeness made of the pastor, the representative of God as his envoy and of the elders, representing Christians by what they choose. Despite the presence of democracy, the basis of the Presbyterian government is the word of God whose sovereignty it recognizes (Angounou Mvele (SD: 12-14). Here, each delegate acts and speaks in the place of those who have chosen him in conformity with the word of truth and according to the provisions of the ecclesiastical constitution. The mission of the Church is not to govern itself, it is based on the evangelization of peoples for the salvation of souls. This mission must be accomplished in order: hence the need for this Church government to have the status of lay people.

In any case, it was in a context marked by the hostility of their former companions that the dissidents of 1967 decided to live in autarky and to be autonomous. At this level, the historical truth holds that it is because of its membership in the COE that the EPC splits, many more less visible factors can also explain the implosion of this Church. Indeed, one cannot understand this fact which led him to the schism, without inscribing in the context of this time, other internal tensions which have already undermined the Church. In addition, a number of difficulties related to the particularly difficult material environment, encountered by the Church, as well as rivalries and tensions between its new leaders, also favored the schism of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church. These events have not failed to influence the dynamics of the evolution of this Church since then EPC (1967).

4.3. The various maneuvers of the anti-ecumenicalism

Proponents of theological fundamentalism justify the membership of the EPC in the COE by the desire of the leaders of the new generation of pastors to open up to the outside in order to access substantial material facilities, to distance themselves from vis-à-vis rigor and Christian ethics. The Christians of the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church consider these orientations of the ecumenical movement as “deviations” that must be challenged in order to preserve them from the liberal tendencies conveyed by their opponents. They see in this shift in the EPC, a situation similar to that which the fathers of the reform experienced. It should be noted that this EPCO, which broke away from the Mother Church to preserve its theological integrity and seek its official recognition, faced the same threat and experienced its first shocks. B. The Consequences of Presbyterianism within the EPCO are grouped into two main groups: distant and immediate consequences.

4.4. The distant consequences

They are consecutive to the Christian Moser affair. In reality, it is because of the transfer of the Louis Paul Moore Seminary from Nkolmetet to Koungoulou Essok. Initially, Church institutions and large settlements were planned to provide a balance in religious institutions.

In January 1974, during the General Assembly of Mindi mi Oveng, against all odds, the Rev. Daniel Akono Nko'o, director of the school of theology, gives a report, in which he explains the reasons which lead to no longer the house of his host, the elder of the Church Daniel Bitunu Eyenga. It was written that: "This elder possesses a mystical panther who wished to kill him...In addition, there was a deep valley difficult to cross to reach the site of the Louis Paul Moore seminary" Bikolo (SD: 17-18). As a result, the Assembly had to reject his report for three reasons:

- We still considered the planning of the goods of the Church with the installation of the printing press in Ebolawa, the head office in Yaoundé, and the seminary in Nkolmetet..

- This report could break the fraternal bonds within the new Church

- it was inconceivable that a pastor would encourage Christians to believe in mystical omens. It was with too much difficulty that the director was able to complete the school year in Nkolmetet. He preferred to travel back and forth daily on Metet-Mbalmayo Epo (2008).

In 1975, it was decided without debate to transfer the seminary to Koungoulou Essok (Mengong). This decision resulted in: widespread dissatisfaction of the Center-East Synod; the systematic refusal to this day to contribute to the affairs of this seminary; finally, the rupture of the spiritual bond that existed between the faithful of the ÉPCO. This behavior is the result of the confiscation of key positions in EPCO institutions by Pastor Dominique Epo Andjongo, who is both Secretary General and Secretary of Education: hence the weakening and decline of EPCO. This behavior is the result of the vocational crisis within the EPCO, because during his reign, he shaped two pastors without knowing the place of their formation. These are the pastors Thomas Awono Tsang and Jean Marie Menye that all the pastors are still looking for the origin of their theological training while they are forming in Koungoulou Mbom (2010).

This crisis is also at the origin of the weakening and aging of the first generation of pastors. From there, the new generation has difficulty managing the transition in a Cameroon where schooling becomes an imperative for the government. It is therefore time for young pastors to refuse to train in higher schools both in theology and lay because of the discourse of the (first pastors).

Thus, what interests us and makes us reflect is the underlying factor or motive of these crises. To help understand, let's take a brief look at what the "Minutes" of the ÉPCO General Assembly say in "*foé ya émo'o j'afas dulu ya Kirké ÉPCO*", that is to say the committee responsible for the smooth running of the case of the two years 1977 and 1987 which show that the ÉPCO respects the true path of the bases of Protestantism and fundamentalism left by the first generation of pastors for liberalism and ecumenism. For the pastors, their affairs were intimate without however vulgarizing them. Moreover, there were no disputes and lewdness between them. They kept all their decisions to themselves and supported each other. In a word, equality, brotherly love, mutual respect were the key words, but today all these attributes have disappeared. Nowadays, we see that all the

secrets of the ÉPCO are out there, through the quarrels, the legal complaints, the non-respect of decisions and the closing of parishes and chapels (minutes de l'église).

The year 2010 was marked by a strong crisis on the subject of the General Secretariat, a seat which divided all the pastors of the EPCO on the subject of the post of General Secretary. This position is a political position and not a religious one, because any pastor wants to greet the President of the Republic and return with an envelope. It is around the latter that the crises and rivalries arise within all the Christian Churches today.

4.5. The immediate consequences

Political scientists often say that conflict is part of the dynamics of societies and that it contributes to their evolution. When even too frequent and at an unreasonable rate, it weakens the said companies and accuses them of a risk of impression. Many observers believe that most of the problems facing the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church are the result of endless leadership disputes. This is probably true in a sense; but in truth, beyond these motives, perhaps not very noble, one cannot help but identify a motive far from being ignoble upon observation. A basic problem relating to the application and interpretation of the texts and the level of instruction are essential EPCO archives (2012).

In addition, the question of constitutionality is a question of elasticity similar to a children's game where everyone covers themselves with it in the slightest disagreement to defend their positions: this is the case of the 2009-2010 crisis on the subject of a plot of land belonging to the EPCO which is located at the head office in Ékounou for the construction of the duplex. Faced with the constant refusal of the Church to cede this land, the parish of Yaoundé Philadelphia left the role of the Yaoundé Sardes presbytery to register at the Ntem Philadelphia presbytery of the Sud-Cam Synod, an attempt condemned and rejected by the Church. This situation leads to a manifest rebellion, the perpetrators who committed these acts did so in defiance of the decisions of the supreme court of the General Assembly. The ÉPCO was then plunged into such turmoil for years to the point of culminating to a schism all the more so as the deformation makes naive populations believe that the others are in the process of wanting to create another Church.

In any case, it should be noted that the stakes of the crisis escape them and that they do not control the interests of the leaders. Everything seems to be evolving towards peaceful coexistence and towards appeasement: here is a new twist that is looming on the horizon in the life of the EPCO, already in turmoil EPCO (2012).

In addition, we also note the invasion of materialism within it. Initially, there were more men called and very few without a vocation. Nowadays, the EPCO has innumerable pastors without a vocation who are there only for the acquisition of material goods. This leads to a dizzying decline in spirituality. In addition it has become a Church of shocking formalism where the territoriality of presbyteries is threatened to be violated in urban areas. The loss of dignity and of the value of the evangelical witness is very visible because of the more or less low level of study that does not align with the evolution of society. The famous vocational problem inherited by the first pastors is still engraved in their minds, forgetting that theology is a spiritual matter. It is for this reason that these pastors are still considered "undereducated men" Mbom (SD: 36).

So, we notice that the male pastor has become vulgar, because he no longer validly assumes his ministerial duties in holiness. It is for this reason that the ÉPCO becomes like a simple company where we rely more on material goods. At this level, we can say that money is the thermometer of faith. Finally, there is instability within it leading to the

closure of parishes like that of Ékounou Philadelphia in Yaoundé, Douala Béraca in Douala etc. All these consequences lead to disorder and Presbyterianism in turmoil: it is the era of dechristianization within the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church and the fall of Epo fundamentalism (2008). All these consequences are the result of the level of education of the low pastors: hence their withdrawn character.

5. Conclusion

In short, it was a question of presenting the question of Presbyterianism within the Presbyterian Cameroonian Orthodox Church (EPCO). It should be shown that the EPCO is a Church that emerged from the 1967 schism within the EPC over ecumenism. Indeed, we find that Presbyterians very often forget that doctrinal belonging is better than the way of organizing. To be a Presbyterian is to be a true Calvinist, ready to denounce, to protest when the opportunity presents itself. In the constitution there is doctrine and government, even Calvinism and Presbyterianism. The use that Protestants make of this work accuses them. They are much more attentive to the government and discipline of the Church. But they do not give themselves enough time to learn the doctrine contained in the two catechisms. Now, we can say that Calvinism here is the way of believing (it is inward), while Presbyterianism is the way of ruling (outward). In order to avoid the turmoil of Presbyterianism, the Protestant must have a fair balance in the knowledge of religious identity. Modern Presbyterianism suffers because not all Protestants have met the five essential stages: a believer, a Christian, a true Reformed, a Protestant and a Puritan. It is time for a reform, based on the transition from archaic Presbyterianism to modern Presbyterianism in order to avoid further confusion and schisms within our Churches.

References

1. 1AA471, Cameroonian Presbyterian Church (1967). Conflict between rival factions, 1967. 2. Anonymous, The Restoration of the Gospel of Jesus Christ, "Book of Mormon Brochure," 2006, unpublished.
2. Akoa Abomo F. (1977). *History of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church from December 11, 1957 to January 1977: dream of the Cameroonian 20 years after independence*, Mvengue. Unpublished.
3. Akono Nko'o D. *Ecumenism and the Church*. unpublished, SL, SD.
4. Angounou Mvele J. *Historical account of the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church*. Unpublished, SD, SL.
5. Bikolo J. *Nkañete ya Kirké Presbyterian Cameroonian Orthodox*. Unpublished, p.4, SD, SL.
6. Binelé Ayissi A. *The ecumenical movement: a danger for the people of God*. SD, SL., unpublished.
7. Epo Andjongo, D. *The Presbyterianism. The case of ÉPCO*. 2008, unpublished, SL, SD.
8. *History of a Presbyterian Church in Africa*. Ebolawa, HMP, 1967, pp. 5-7, Unpublished.
9. Mbom A.P. *Authentic elements of the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church*. unpublished, SL, SD.
10. Mbom Obam L. Bite J.J. et al. (2000). *The History of the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church (EPCO)*, Ebolawa, Olson Press.
11. Mfom Éfa P. (1999). *Presbyterian Orthodoxy*. Koungoulou, Unpublished, SL.
12. Minutes of the Cameroonian Orthodox Presbyterian Church from 1977 to 2010.

13. Mvondo P. *Nkañete ya Kéké ÉPC aso melu me Ngôto Zambe akekui melu ma: 1833-1980*, Unpublished, SL, SD.
14. Ndjoumou Nko'o A. *Précis of the Presbyterian Churches in Cameroon*. unpublished, SL, SD.
15. Ovono Alu J. *Short and striking history of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church*. unpublished, SL, SD.
16. Pénékou J. (1996). Ecumenism and the future of the Churches. in *Spiritus* N°88, pp.97-99.
17. *Presbyterianism. Synthetic study*. unpublished, SL, SD.
18. Tsanga Bidjogo P. *History of the Church*. unpublished.
19. *The reform of the Cameroonian Presbyterian Church*. unpublished, SL, SD.
20. ***Dufour XL (1962). *Biblical Theological Vocabulary*. Paris, Cerf.
21. *** (2002). *The Universal Dictionary*, 4th, Paris, Hachette.
22. *** (2001). *Dictionaire. Le Petit Larousse*, Paris, PUF.

Orales sources

Name and Surname	Years	Professions	Places	Dates
Abessolo Njou'ou E.	65 years	ancien d'Église et chargé de la communication de l'ÉPCO	Yaoundé	21/09/2010
Amougou J.	76 years	Pasteur de l'ÉPCO	Metet	12/02/2010
Ango Nna.	91 years	ancien d'Église de l'ÉPC et fondateur de la grande chorale mixte Bulu de Messa II	Yaoundé	24/02/2012
Avebe, Josué	73 years	Enseignant retraité	Ebolawa	12-19/08/09
Beling Nkoumba.	77 years	ancien Maire de la CUÉ	Ebolawa	22/12/ 09
Binelé Ayissi.	57 years	Secrétaire général et pasteur de l'ÉPCO	Yaoundé	12/02/2005
Épo Andjongo.	60 years	SG et SÉDUC/ ÉPCO	Yaoundé	12/11/08
Sategue Fouda M.	63 years	Pasteur ÉPC	Yaoundé	12/04/08

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS AND PREVALENCE OF COMORBID HYPERTENSION AND DIABETES IN ALGERIA: EVIDENCE FROM NON COMMUNICABLE DISEASE RISK FACTOR STEPS SURVEY (2016-2017).

Abdellatif MOUSSOUNI^{1*}, Adel SIDI-YAKHLEF², Houari HAMD AOUI³

¹National Center for Prehistoric, Anthropological and Historical Research (CNRPAH, Tlemcen's station), Algeria. Email: abdellatif.moussouni@gmail.com

²University of Tlemcen (Algeria), Email: bioadel2005@yahoo.fr

³University of Ghardaïa (Algeria), Email: hhowarih@hotmail.fr

Abstract Arterial hypertension and diabetes mellitus are the most common non-communicable diseases in the world today imposing a heavy global burden on the healthcare systems. The objective of this study is to determine the prevalence of comorbid hypertension and diabetes, and its associated risk factors among Algerian population. This is a descriptive cross-sectional epidemiological study involving adults who were selected from NCDs risk factors STEPS Survey, conducted in Algeria. Differences in prevalence between hypertensives, diabetics and simultaneously hypertensive and diabetic patients were assessed using the chi-square test. We also looked at the role of demographic, socioeconomic, geographic and lifestyle factors of individuals' hypertensive/diabetic status using a logistic regression model. The median age was 52 years (IQR = 18). Whereas 52.0 % (CI: 49.2-54.8) of the sample had only hypertension, 21.7 % (CI: 19.2-24.0) had diabetes without hypertension and 26.3 % (CI: 23.8-29.1) had both diseases. The factors strongly associated with comorbid hypertension and diabetes includes elderly age group, obesity, marital status, and physical activity. Hypertension and diabetes are highly prevalent in Algeria. This emphasizes the role of the urgent quantification and monitoring of their risk factors, to plan appropriate preventive measures, to curb heavy burden of NCDs.

Keywords: Non-Communicable Diseases, comorbidity, Risk factors, STEPS survey, Algeria.

1. Introduction

Non-Communicable Diseases (NCDs) are rapidly increasing in both developed and developing countries. They have become the major public health threat for all strata of the society worldwide causing nearly 38 million deaths in 2012, and this number is expected to rise to 52 million by 2030 (WHO, 2015a).

Most adults have been diagnosed with more than one chronic disease. Currently, arterial hypertension and diabetes mellitus are among the leading contributor to global disease burden including the direct and indirect higher costs of treating cardiovascular events and fall among top ten causes of death globally (Poulter, Prabhakaran and Caulfield, 2015; WHO, 2014). Indeed, their frequent coexistence in the same person is not a coincidence, because they share pathophysiology aspects as well as multiple biological and environmental risk factors such as obesity, endothelial dysfunction, and vascular inflammation, arterial remodelling, dyslipidaemia, atherosclerosis, and lifestyle dietary (Petrie, Guzik and Touyz, 2018).

Furthermore, hypertension or high blood pressure (BP) is more common among diabetics, according to all epidemiological studies (NHBPEP, 1994). It is 1.5 to 3 times more

prevalent in the diabetic population than in non-diabetic age-matched persons (HDS, 1993). As a result, detecting and treating hypertension in diabetics, as well as vice versa, is one of the most efficient ways to prevent chronic complications. Arterial hypertension is the high common cardiovascular disease affecting 20% of the world's adult population and resulting in nine million deaths per year. Projections based on these data suggest that by 2025, this number is expected to increase by about 60% to 1.56 billion people worldwide (Kearney, Whelton, Reynolds et al., 2005). Data from epidemiological health surveys placed hypertension as the first cause of consultation in Algeria. Its prevalence is around 26-40% (TAHINA, 2005; Temmar, Labat, Benkhedda et al., 2007; Brouri, Ouadahi, Nibouche et al., 2018).

In 2019, according to the International Diabetes Federation (IDF), 54.8 million people aged 20-79 years living with diabetes in the Middle East and North Africa region. Several studies from different countries predict that the epidemic of diabetes will continue to increase over time (IDF, 2019; Brinks, Tamayo, Kowall et al., 2012). In Algeria, the prevalence of this disease is constantly increasing. It rose from 2.1% in 1992 (Bezzaoucha, 1992) to 14% in 2007 (Zaoui, Biémont and Meguenni, 2007).

The insights of numerous national and international research point to a concerning health situation in terms of the risk of increased morbidity and mortality related from hypertension and diabetes as well as their impact in Algeria socio-economic sector. Although the exact causes for the observed increase in the incidence of hypertension and diabetes are unknown, many risk factors have been associated with these diseases. This is most likely due to the changes in lifestyle factors such as: fast food diets with a high-fat and empty calories, excessive salt intake, physical inactivity, smoking, and alcohol consumption, gender, marital status, education level, locality, economic status. The increase in life expectancy contributed also to the explosion of these diseases (Mayega, Makumbi, Rutebemberwa et al., 2012). Many studies sustain that the current international policy led by the WHO and the United Nations consensus to improve care and strengthen health systems: access, early diagnosis, integrality, longitudinally and coordination. It is a necessary requirement for reducing and combating NCDs. It seems that studies focused on analysing the risk factors of hypertension and diabetes in the Algerian population are uncommon, with the majority of them taking place at the regional level. Given that the STEPwise surveys descriptive data are limited to the presentation of the different types of NCDs (hypertension, diabetes, obesity, and cancer) and their socio-demographic, economic and behavioural factors including nutritional risk factors. The present paper assesses, and explores the prevalence of hypertension, diabetes, and both diseases in the general Algerian population, and their associated risk factors, in order to provide information that can be used as a basis for the design of health policies and programmes that would promote a healthy lifestyle and appropriate planning to target preventive public health interventions.

2. Methods

2.1. Study design and sampling

This is a cross-sectional survey focused on adults aged 18-69 years which describes the research methodological aspects and present data of the burden of NCD risk factors according to the STEPwise Algeria approach. It was conducted in 2016-2017 by the Ministry of Health, Population and Hospital Reform - General Directorate of Prevention and

Health Promotion, in collaboration with the National Institute of Public Health with the support of WHO HQ-Geneva and the WHO- Algeria office.

The STEPS is a standardized tool, developed and recommended by the WHO monitoring the NCDs risk factors, morbidity and mortality. This tool consists of three sequential levels:

1) Collecting socio-demographic and behavioral information by pairs of investigators (doctor and health worker) using a standardized questionnaire. This data included: age, sex, locality (rural and urban), education level, marital status, occupation, tobacco and alcohol use, physical activity, diet, history of chronic diseases; 2) taking physical measurements of BP, height, weight and waist circumference; 3) performing biochemical tests on blood samples such as fasting blood glucose, blood lipids... (Riley, Guthold, Cowan et al., 2016; "Stepwise Algeria, 2016-2017"). The use of the same standardized questionnaires and protocols allows all countries to use the information produced by this system, not only to monitor trends in their own country but also to make space-time comparisons of indicators (through time and between countries) (Riley, Guthold, Cowan et al., 2016).

The STEPwise Algeria survey's main goal was to assess the frequency of these factors on a representative sample of 7450 adults, drawn at random from households across the country. Only 1173 of the 3299 participants in this survey on the NCDs risk factors were included in the statistical analysis because everyone had either hypertension or diabetes or both hypertension and diabetes.

The STEPwise official website provided the survey database and the survey report detailed the sampling processes ("Stepwise Algeria, 2016-2017"; WHO, 2005a).

2.2. Definitions and measurements

2.2.1. Definition of hypertension

According to the Algerian STEPS survey, high BP is defined as Systolic BP ≥ 140 mmHg and / or Diastolic BP ≥ 90 mmHg (WHO, 2005b) or patients currently taking antihypertensive medication. An automated BP measuring device (OMRON® digital device) was used to obtain BP readings. Three readings were taken at 3-5-minutes intervals after the participant had rested for 15 minutes. As recommended by the WHO, the average of the last two readings was calculated and used as the final BP measurement (WHO, 2005a).

The seventh report of the National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation and Treatment of Hypertension (JNC-7) guidelines (Lenfant, Chobanian, Jones et al., 2003) were used to classify BP in this investigation. Hypertension was detected based on self-reporting of any previous diagnosis of hypertension by a physician or health professional. Self-reported participants were also those who had been on antihypertensive medication for two weeks.

2.2.2. Definition of hyperglycemia

Diabetic is defined as people who had fasting blood glucose ≥ 126 mg/dl (≥ 7 mmol/L) according to WHO international standards (WHO, 2015b). The patient was considered diabetic in this study if he reported that he had been diagnosed by a physician/ health personnel and on anti-diabetic medications (self-reported).

2.2.3. Definition of Comorbid hypertension and diabetes

Patients with both hypertension and hyperglycemia simultaneously.

2.2.4. Definitions of risk factors

The hypertension and diabetes risk factors were selected from the STEEPS database. These were divided into three different categories:

- 1) Socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, education level, professional status, locality, socio-economic level expressed in monthly salary,
- 2) Behavioral variables such as tobacco consumption, dietary habits, and physical inactivity. The frequency of alcohol consumption was not included among the risk factors because of the low response rate of respondents in the database, especially women,
- 3) Clinical variables such as obesity and dyslipidemia.

For analysis convenience and results interpretation, education level, marital status, wealth index, occupation, body mass index (BMI), physical activity, fruit and vegetable consumption, smoking status, dyslipidemia were reclassified and recalculated into original data.

- The education level was classified into five groups: no formal education, primary, middle, secondary and university.
- The marital status was restructured into three categories: married, divorced/separated and widowed.
- The wealth index was estimated using the respondent's disclosed monthly income. The categories were created using the national guaranteed minimum wage as a starting point. This allowed us to divide the people into four groups, ranging from the least wealthy to the richest.
- The BMI was calculated using the formula, weight (in kilograms) divided by (height in meters squared). Obesity was defined as BMI ≥ 27.5 kg/m² (WHO, 2012).
- Physical activity behavior was assessed in three different domains: work, transport and leisure. The activities were divided into two categories: vigorous and moderate. "Vigorous-intensity activities" were those that required a significant physical effort and caused large increases in breathing or heart rate (HR). "Moderate intensity activities" were those that required only moderate physical effort and caused slight increases in breathing or HR. On this basis, an adult should perform at least 150 minutes of moderate intensity work, 75 minutes of vigorous intensity work, or 60 minutes of mixed vigorous and moderate intensity work per week. Participants were classed as physically inactive if their reported physical activity did not meet the WHO standard (WHO, 2018).
- Fruit and vegetable consumption was divided into two categories following the diet quality indicator: less than five servings per day and five or more servings per day.
- Cigarette smoking status was self-reported, with daily smokers, ex-daily smokers, and non-smokers being the three categories.
- Dyslipidemia was defined as either hypercholesterolemia (≥ 200 mg/dl) or hypertriglyceridemia (≥ 150 mg/dl) according to the National Cholesterol Education Programme (NCEP) standards for lipid abnormalities (NCEP, 2001).

2.3. Statistical analysis

The descriptive statistics were used to examine the study characteristics of the population as well as the prevalence of hypertension, diabetes and both diseases. The continuous variables were presented as median (P25~P75) while the categorical variables were expressed as percentages and compared using the Chi-square (χ^2) test.

The associations of individuals with hypertension and diabetic simultaneously to its potential predictor variables were assessed using bivariate logistic regression tests. In addition, multivariate logistic regression modelling was performed for all variables of interest showing a significant link with p-value <0.05. Adjusted odds ratios (AORs) with their 95% confidence intervals (CIs) and p-values were generated to determine the predictors of both diseases simultaneously.

Statistical analysis was done using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 25 (IBM Statistics, USA).

2.4. Ethics approval and consent to participate

The study was conducted in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations to Helsinki Declaration. Our study's objectives and procedures were based on data from the STEPwise survey, for which ethical approval was gained a priori from the Algerian Ministry of Health, Population and Hospital Reform - General Directorate of Prevention and Health Promotion according to the Executive Decree No. 92-276 of 06 July 1992 on the Algerian Code of Medical Ethics. Written informed consent was obtained from the participants.

3. Results

The study was carried out on 7,450 adults, of whom only 6,989 were interviewed, i.e., a response rate of 93.8% (3,082 males, and 3,907 females aged 18-69 years). We had to excluded 3690 people from our study because their files contained missing, outlier, or incomplete information including BP or blood sugar data. 1173 of the total 3299 individuals from the Algerian STEPwise survey were included in the statistical analysis.

The frequency distribution of the sample's socio-demographic, lifestyle, behavioral, and health variables is shown in Table 1. The median age of the population is 52 years (interquartile range = 18). The age group (45-59 years) represents the largest group in the sample with (42.0%) followed by the older group (60-69 years) with (28.9%), then the age group (30-44 years) estimated (23.6%), and finally the younger group (18-29 years) with (5.5%). There is a statistical significance in the difference of gender composition, with women being the majority (67.3%). Approximately a quarter of these participants lived in rural areas, with a predominance of demographic density especially in the northern geographical regions of the country compared to those in the south. More than three quarters of individuals (80.8%) were married.

As for the level of education, 28.0 % have no formal school. Among individuals with a formal education, 18.2% have a primary education, 20.8% have a middle level, 17.9 have a secondary school and only 15 % have completed a higher education. Regarding occupation, the most represented were housewives (42.2%), followed by the unemployed people (16.5%), government employees (14.9%), retirees (14.2%), self-employed (6.8%), and finally non-government employees (5.3%).

As regards the distribution of wealth index, the majority of interviewees (64.6 %) earn two times the minimum wage or less (lowest and second lowest), 24.1% earn between two and four times the minimum wage (middle and second highest), and 11.2% earn more than four times the minimum wage (highest). Tobacco use was distributed between 80.2

% of non-smokers versus 14.3 % and 5.5 % of ex-daily and daily smokers respectively. Of the total sample, the prevalence of individuals with obesity was 58.8% and 41.2% were normal. Furthermore, 53.7 % did not have dyslipidemia. The proportion of people who consume less than five portions of fruit and vegetables daily was estimated at 85.2%, while 44.6 % of the interviewees practice 150 minutes or more of regular moderate physical activities per week.

The frequency distribution of hypertension, diabetes, and comorbid hypertension and diabetes were displayed in Table 1. More than half of the users (52.0 % - CI: 49.2-54.8) studied have hypertension without diabetes, 21.7 % (CI: 19.2-24.0) have diabetes without hypertension and 26.3 % (CI: 23.8-29.1) have both diseases simultaneously.

The bivariate analysis shows a highly significant difference ($P < 0.001$) between the prevalence of the hypertension/diabetes /associated morbidity groups according to the categories of: a) sex mainly due to the high prevalence of hypertension (55.0%) and hypertension related with diabetes (27.5%) in women), b) age group (the correlation was observed between people having hypertension associated with diabetes and the last two age groups (45-59 years); (60-69 years), c) occupation (due to the high rates of hypertension and diabetes among retired, homemakers, self-employed, government employed), and d) BMI owing to the high proportions of hypertension (53.6%) and hypertension/diabetes (29.1%) among obese people. A significant association was also found between hypertension/diabetes status and the marital status divorced (40.0%) and widowed (37.9%), the education levels (uneducated, primary with a prevalence of 30.8 % and 31.3% respectively), as well as individuals were physically active less than 150 minutes per week. In addition, a high prevalence of diabetes was recorded among smokers (34.4 %) and past smokers (28.0 %). However, no significant relationship was found between individuals with hypertension and diabetes morbidity in the categories of locality, wealth index, Dyslipidemia, fruit and vegetable consumption.

Table 1 Socio-demographic and lifestyle characteristics of participants according to hypertension, diabetes, and both diseases

Adults with Chronic Diseases	Hypertension		Diabetes		Hypertension +Diabetes		TOTAL	Statistic	P value
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)			
	610	52	254	21.7	309	26.3	1173		
	CI 95 % (49.2-54.8)		CI 95 % (19.2-24.0)		CI 95 % (23.8-29.1)				
Variables									
Gender									
Male	176	45.8	116	30.2	92	24.0	384	24.704 ^a	<0.001
Female	434	55.0	138	17.5	217	27.5	789		
Age (years)									
Median (P25~P75)	50.1	(40.3~59.5)	51.1	(41.8~58.8)	57.1	(50.3~63.4)		70.467 ^b	<0.001
Age group (years)									
18-29	34	53.1	24	37.5	6	9.4	64	74.774 ^a	<0.001
30-44	183	66.1	62	22.4	32	11.6	277		
45-59	240	48.7	111	22.5	142	28.8	493		
60-69	153	45.1	57	16.8	129	38.1	339		
Marital status									
Never married	53	62.4	23	27.1	9	10.6	85	22.112 ^a	0.001
Current married/Cohabiting	494	52.1	208	21.1	246	25.9	948		
Separated/Divorced	20	44.4	7	15.6	18	40.0	45		
Widowed	43	45.3	16	16.8	36	37.9	95		
Level of Education									

No formal school	172	52.4	55	16.8	101	30.8	328	24.072 ^a	0.002
Primary school	105	49.1	42	19.6	67	31.3	214		
Moyen school	121	49.6	62	25.4	61	25.0	244		
Secondary school	103	49.0	55	26.2	52	24.8	210		
University	109	61.6	40	22.6	28	15.8	177		
Locality									
Urban	447	50.6	189	21.4	247	28.0	883	5.014 ^a	0.081
Rural	163	56.2	65	22.4	62	21.4	290		
Occupation									
Unemployed (able and not able to work) /Student/No paid government employee	99	51.0	47	24.2	48	24.7	194	45.964 ^a	<0.001
Non-government employee	106	60.6	43	24.6	26	14.9	175		
Self employed	35	56.5	13	21.0	14	22.6	62		
Home marker	32	40	33	41.3	15	18.8	80		
Retired	264	53.3	82	16.6	149	30.1	495		
	74	44.3	36	21.6	57	34.1	167		

Table 1 Socio-demographic and lifestyle characteristics of participants according to hypertension, diabetes, and both diseases simultaneously (Continued)

Wealth index (Family monthly income quintile)									
Lowest (less than or equal to SMIG)	114	56.4	30	14.9	58	28.7	202	11.437 ^a	0,178
Second lowest (More than to SMIG, less than or equal to 2x SMIG)	152	56.5	56	20.8	61	22.7	269		
Midle (More than to 2x SMIG, less than or equal to 3x SMIG)	62	51.2	27	22.3	32	26.4	121		
Second highest (More than to 3xSMIG, less than or equal to 4x SMIG)	31	56.4	15	27.3	9	16.4	55		
Highest (More than to4xSMIG)	38	46.3	17	20.7	27	32.9	82		
Smoking									
Never smoked	509	54.1	185	19.7	247	26.2	941	13.957 ^a	0.007
Past smoked	76	45.2	47	28.0	45	26.8	168		
Current Daily smoked	25	39.1	22	34.4	17	26.6	64		
Physical activity									
Low (< 150 Min/week)	311	47.8	142	21.8	197	30.3	650	13.570 ^a	0,001
High (More 150 Min/week)	299	57.2	112	21.4	112	21.4	523		
Fruit and vegetables consumption									
<5 fruit/veg/day	518	53.0	206	21.1	254	26.0	978	2.450 ^a	0,294
More 5 fruit/veg/day	79	46.5	41	24.1	50	29.4	170		
BMI (Kg/m2)									
<27.5 (Normal weight)	224	48.0	136	29.1	107	22.9	467	23.110 ^a	<0.001
≥27.5 (Obese)	357	53.6	115	17.3	194	29.1	666		
Dyslipidemia									
No	304	51.8	138	23.5	145	24.7	587	3.919 ^a	0.141
Yes	263	51.9	98	19.3	146	28.8	507		

NB: Continuous variables were presented as median (P25~P75) and compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test; Categorical variables were expressed as effectives /percentages and analyzed by the χ^2 test;

^a χ^2 test;
^b Kruskal-Wallis test;
 NS: not significant.

3.1. Associated factors of the prevalence of comorbid hypertension and diabetes

The multivariate logistic regression analysis is mentioned in table 2. It was performed to determine the factors correlated with comorbid hypertension and diabetes.

Table 2 Risk factors associated with hypertension and diabetes

Variables	Healthy (%)	Hypertension + Diabetes (%)	COR (95%CI)	AOR (95%CI)	P value
Gender					
Male	90.0	10.0	1	1	
Female	85.6	14.4	1.514 (1.168, 1.961)	1.294 (0.600, 2.787)	NS
Age group (years)					
18-29	98.6	1.4	1	1	
30-44	96.7	3.3	2.335 (0.969, 5.627)	1.700 (0.481, 6.014)	NS
45-59	80.6	19.4	16.366 (7.161, 37.404)	9.071 (2.681, 30.684)	<0.001
60-69	60.3	39.7	44.755 (19.397, 103.264)	24.700 (6.954, 87.734)	<0.001
Marital status					
Never married	98.0	2.0	1	1	
Current married/Cohabiting	86.3	13.7	7.812 (3.984, 15.320)	5.441 (1.818, 16.289)	0.002
Separated/Divorced	77.5	22.5	14.290 (6.150, 33.206)	8.608 (2.166, 34.206)	0.002
Widowed	66.0	34.0	25.314 (11.689, 54.821)	4.645 (1.313, 16.430)	0.017
Level of Education					
No formal school	75.7	24.3	6.058 (3.897, 9.417)	1.200 (0.578, 2.491)	NS
Primary school	81.1	18.9	4.395 (2.764, 6.989)	1.958 (0.957, 4.005)	NS
Moyen school	88.1	11.9	2.555 (1.606, 4.067)	1.630 (0.818, 3.251)	NS
Secondary school	91.2	8.8	1.826 (1.136, 2.936)	1.140 (0.574, 2.264)	NS
University	95.0	5.0	1	1	
Locality					
Urban	85.6	14.4	1	1	
Rural	91.4	8.6	0.554 (0.413, 0.743)	0.655 (0.414, 1.036)	NS
Occupation					
Unemployed (able and not able to work) /Student/No paid government employee	90.0	10.0	1	1	
Non-government employee	94.9	5.1	0.485 (0.296, 0.796)	0.468 (0.196, 1.117)	NS
Self employed	93.1	6.9	0.665 (0.358, 1.236)	0.894 (0.337, 2.369)	NS
	92.8	7.2	0.701 (0.383, 1.284)	0.610 (0.220, 1.690)	NS

Home marker	81.9	18.1	1.979 (1.399, 2.800)	1.100 (0.613, 1.974)	NS
Retired	72.9	27.1	3.345 (2.185, 5.122)	0.702 (0.313, 1.571)	NS

Table 2 Risk factors associated with hypertension and diabetes (Continued)

Wealth index (Family monthly income quintile)					
Lowest (less than or equal to SMIG)	84.5	15.5	1	1	
Second lowest (More than to SMIG, less than or equal to 2x SMIG)	89.4	10.6	0.645 (0.438, 0.948)	0.798 (0.500, 1.274)	NS
Midle (More than to 2x SMIG, less than or equal to 3x SMIG)	88.8	11.2	0.687 (0.433, 1.091)	1.101 (0.616, 1.967)	NS
Second highest (More than to 3xSMIG, less than or equal to 4x SMIG)	91.9	8.1	0.479 (0.229, 1.001)	0.824 (0.342, 1.984)	NS
Highest (More than to 4xSMIG)	84.3	15.7	1.011 (0.615, 1.663)	1.599 (0.824, 3.103)	NS
Smoking					
Never smoked	87.3	12.7	1	1	
Current Daily smoked	92.3	7.7	0.572 (0.343, 0.955)	0.751 (0.301, 1.874)	NS
Past smoked	83.4	16.6	1.367 (0.967, 1.934)	1.383 (0.728, 2.628)	NS
Physical activity					
Low (< 150 Min/week)	83.5	16.5	1.984 (1.550, 2.540)	1.471 (1.007, 2.149)	0.046
High (More 150 Min/week)	91.0	9.0	1	1	
Fruit and vegetables consumption					
<5 fruit/veg/day	87.6	12.4	0.804 (0.957, 1.117)	-	NS
More 5 fruit/veg/day	85.0	15.0	1	-	
BMI (Kg/m2)					
<27.5 (Normal weight)	91.7	8.3	1	1	
≥27.5 (Obese)	81.0	19.0	2.600 (2.021, 3.346)	2.334 (1.590, 3.425)	<0.001
Dyslipidemia					
No	89.7	10.3	1	1	
Yes	81.8	18.2	1.930 (1.505, 2.474)	1.200 (0.828, 1.740)	NS

After adjustment, the results showed that the factors associated with hypertension and diabetes were: age, weight status, marital status, and physical activity. Indeed, the risk of having both diseases increase more than nine times in the (45-59 years) age group (AOR=9.071; [2.681-30.684]; P<0.001), and more than twenty-four times in the (60-69 years) age group (AOR=24.700; [6.854-87.734]; P<0.001) compared to the younger age group (18-29 years). Obese people had a higher risk of developing hypertension and diabetes. When compared to normal people, they had a risk of more than two in the obese BMI category (AOR=2.334; [1.590-3.425]; P<0.001). The risks of having hypertension and diabetes among widowed, married, and separated individuals were respectively 4.645 ([1.313-16.430]; P<0.05), 5.441 ([1.818-16.289]; P<0.01) and, 8.608 ([2.166-34.206]; P<0.01) higher than that of single individuals. Adults physically inactive had almost one

and a half times higher risk of being hypertensive and diabetic than adults with 150 minutes or more of regular moderate physical activities per week (AOR=1.471; [1.007-2.149]; $P<0.05$). Therefore, none of the factors such as gender, education level, locality, occupational status, wealth index, smoking, fruit and vegetable consumption, and dyslipidemia seemed to influence the risk of developing hypertension and diabetes.

4. Discussion

In the context of the epidemiological transition study and its impact on health systems in North Africa, Algeria has been the focus of extensive national and international research on evaluating the burden of NCD risk factors. The most frequent chronic diseases in the world are hypertension and diabetes.

Using data from the Algerian STEPwise survey 2016-2017, this study was conducted on a representative sample in order to describe and identify socio-demographic factors related with the prevalence of comorbid hypertension and diabetes. The results of this paper indicated that 52% in the general adult population had hypertension, 21.7% had diabetes and 26.3% had both diseases.

Our population had a substantially higher incidence of comorbid hypertension and diabetes than some studies, which reported prevalence rates of 2% and 4.5% in Nepal and India, respectively (Pandey, Karki, Mehata et al., 2013; Tripathy, Thakur, Jeet et al., 2017). However, this proportion was comparable to that found in Brazil (27.1%) (Baldisserotto, Kopittke, Nedel et al., 2016). In Algeria, 33.6% was the rate of diabetics among hypertensives peoples compared to non- hypertensives. It was higher than the prevalence recorded in various studies, which ranged from 13-26.1% (Tripathy, Thakur, Jeet et al., 2017; Bhansali, Dhandania, Deepa et al., 2015). In addition, the proportion of hypertensives was more frequent in patients with diabetes (54.9%) compared with those who do not have diabetes. Literature reports some similar frequencies described in population studies Moroccan (54.4%) and that of western Algeria (53%) (Louda, Addi, Hallab et al., 2010; Dali-Sah, Dennouni-Medjati, Kachekouche et al., 2018). Similarly, several studies in Africa and worldwide have reported a high prevalence of hypertension in diabetes ranging from 50-70%, although most are clinic based (Ducorps, Bauduceau, Mayaudon et al., 1996; Howard, Bower and Wayne, 2006).

The multivariate analysis using logistic regression shows that the prevalence of comorbid hypertension and diabetes reported in this survey was associated with some socio-demographic and economic factors investigated.

The majority of individuals with hypertension and diabetes simultaneously were above 40 years of age. These findings are in line with previous publications from African and global populations (Howard, Bower and Wayne, 2006; Nejjari, Arharbi, Chentir et al., 2013; Gebreyes, Goshu, Geletew et al., 2018). According to some studies, this could be related to hormonal changes in both sexes, and harmful health habits (physical inactivity, inadequate diet) at different ages (Staessen, Celis and Fagard, 1998). Similarly, our results highlight that obesity is considerably associated with a high prevalence of concomitant hypertension and diabetes which is consistent with the findings found in North Africa (Nejjari, Arharbi, Chentir et al., 2013; Tailakh, Evangelista, Mentis et al., 2014; Maoui, Bouzid, Ben Abdelaziz et al., 2019) and around the world (Kyrou, Tsigos, Mavrogianni et al., 2020). This relation was frequently observed among women generally due to their hormonal profile (Chentli, Azzoug, Meskine et al., 2014). Increased blood flow to various vital parts of the body like organs and tissues in response to their increased metabolic

demands occurs as a result of weight gain due to improved living conditions and decreased physical activity. As a result, the artery walls will be subjected to increased pressure (Hall and Guyton, 2011). On the other hand, data from other countries do not reveal a relationship between high BMI and a low number of people with hypertension (Kavishe, Biraro, Baisley et al., 2015). Obesity can also cause a variety of metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease symptoms, as well as induce or aggravate insulin resistance (Kyrou, Tsigos, Mavrogianni et al., 2020). As in previous research, the rate of comorbid hypertension and diabetes in Algeria was found to be positively correlated with married, separated, and widowed status. This could be explained by the low socio-economic level of large families and negative effects and depression due to their experiences, especially for separated and widowed (Assaad Khalil, Megallaa, Rohoma et al., 2018; Yaghoubi, Mansell, Vatanparast et al., 2020). Some other research show that marriage has a protective effect in relation to the status of single or separated (Yaghoubi, Mansell, Vatanparast et al., 2020). Most authors probably believe that a marriage can provide social support to the members of the couple, allowing them to cope with the physiological stress of daily living.

In Algeria, there was a link between the prevalence of the low physical activity and the risk of developing comorbid hypertension and diabetes. Urbanization, work mechanization and transport lead to an increasing sedentary lifestyle with a strong increase in inactivity which in turn leads to the onset of obesity and hypertension problems. For diabetes, the reduction of physical activity is responsible for a decrease of glucose absorption by the muscles and a strengthening of the insulin resistance phenomenon (Poulter, Prabhakaran and Caulfield, 2015). There are also many additional studies that demonstrate the benefits of physical activity in the prevention and non-pharmacological treatment of individuals with chronic diseases. On the other hand, our study didn't found evidence of a significant association between the proportions of both diseases in regard to gender. This result agrees with what was discovered in Algerian Sahara (Temmar, Labat, Benkhedda et al., 2007). In contrast, others scientists discovered a higher average prevalence of hypertension and diabetes in males than in women. The gender differences could be explained by the molecular mechanisms underlying vascular, nervous system and kidney functions that led to hypertension (Navarro, Allard, Xu et al., 2015), while some studies found that the frequency of hypertension and diabetes is clearly more prevalent for women than for men, with the hormonal profile and postmenopausal status of women accounting for this difference (Maoui, Bouzid, Ben Abdelaziz et al., 2019; Chentli, Azzoug, Meskine et al., 2014; ESHRE, 2006).

Furthermore, our results contradicted several studies which indicated that smoking and poor diet like low fruit and vegetable consumption are a risk factor related to the increased prevalence of diabetes and the incidence of vascular diseases among patients with diabetes (Assaad Khalil, Megallaa, Rohoma et al., 2018; Liu, Li, Lin et al., 2020; D'Elia, De Palma, Rossi et al., 2014). This could be explained by a low percentage of current daily smoked and past-smoked compared to never smoked, and the Mediterranean diet which is defined as balanced and useful in lowering blood glucose and cholesterol levels, metabolic syndrome, and preventing cardiovascular events as well as diabetes (O'Connor, Hu, Steffen et al., 2020). Similarly, no association was found between a high prevalence of both diseases simultaneously and education, locality, occupation, and family monthly income quintile. These results not corroborate several reports explaining that these socio-economic determinants are considered as contributing factors to the development of hypertension and diabetes (Assaad Khalil, Megallaa, Rohoma et al., 2018; Liu, Li, Lin et al.,

2020; Ganguli, Grimm Jr, Svendsen et al., 1997). It is true that the low education level, lack of resources, particularly in developing countries, might have an impact on their general knowledge of how to prevent chronic diseases, access to and use of health services, and lead to unhealthy lifestyles. Also, numerous previous reports have noted that people living in urban areas have a higher risk of NCDs (Maoui, Bouzid, Ben Abdelaziz et al., 2019). The reason could be interpreted as a change of lifestyle in these urban areas including dietary habits like access to fast food, high-fat, energy-dense frozen food, and the availability of transport, all of which contribute to physical inactivity, whereas other studies (Nejjari, Arharbi, Chentir et al., 2013; Liu, Li, Lin et al., 2020) have established the link with the rural area. This is most likely due to the lack of screening as a result of the limited health infrastructure and the low level of education in these areas. In terms to dyslipidemia that is one of a major risk factor for many NCDs, the current study showed no evidence of a link with high rate of comorbid hypertension and diabetes. This was in contrast to the results reported in several studies that have demonstrated a powerful association between total cholesterol, HDL, and ischemic heart diseases, as well as diabetes (Assaad Khalil, Megallaa, Rohoma et al., 2018; Liu, Li, Lin et al., 2020; Mbaye, Yameogo, Kane et al., 2010).

Finally, this research provided important insights on some socio-demographic factors correlated with Algeria's high rate of hypertension and diabetes. These shared factors in the etiology of both diseases emphasizes the role of non-pharmacological intervention such as awareness actions, weight control, physical activity, and the introduction of healthy diet habits in order to reduce the burden of NCDs, and to enhance the quality of the services.

4.1. Study limitations

The present study has some limitations. First, this being a cross-sectional epidemiological design used in the Algerian STEPwise survey, although used for its speed, efficiency and suitability for NCDs, it may not establish the causal pathways between risk factors for hypertension and diabetes, or may it allow for the generalization of results to the whole population. Second, the study also does not give the idea whether diabetes occurred before hypertension or hypertension occurred before diabetes in the answers of respondents. In addition, because is a national survey, there is a possibility of recall bias. The true prevalence of hypertension and diabetes may be inaccurate, either because of under- or over-reporting resulting from self-reporting of these chronic diseases, or due to use for measuring blood sugar from capillary readings that remain less accurate than other laboratory methods. The data collected on diabetes does not distinguish between different types of diabetes, or because to a slight overestimation or underestimation due to the three measurements of systolic and diastolic BP which were taken only once a day. Moreover, the study did not include people over 69 years of age which may also skew the overall prevalence hypertension and diabetes in the population. Third, the variables analyzed in this study can only explain part of hypertension and diabetes determinants. Similarly, no research has been done on the association between genetic factors and high prevalence of both diseases.

5. Conclusion

The study reported a high prevalence of hypertension and diabetes among a large section of the adult Algerian population. The proportion of individuals suffering with these chronic diseases simultaneously also is increases significantly associated with elderly age

group, obesity, marital status, and physical activity. The majority of these risk factors are often avoidable or effectively managed by preventive interventions based on early diagnosis, lifestyle and dietary modification, weight reduction, physical activity through health education. As a result, the government and public health authorities should consider these crucial risk factors emerging from findings of this paper for health programmes/policy planning and implementation targeting different social strata in order to fight against chronic diseases and reduce the Burden of NCDs in the country.

References

1. Assaad Khalil, S.H.; Megallaa, M.H.; Rohoma, K.H.; Ismael, H.; AbouSeif, M.; Kharboush, I.; Elkaffash, D.; Hassanein, M.; Abdel Wahab.; M.M, Malaty, A. and Sallam, H. (2018). Prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in a sample of the adult population of Alexandria, Egypt. *Diabetes Research and Clinical Practice* 144: 63–73 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabres.2018.07.025>
2. Baldisserotto, J.; Kopittke, L.; Nedel, F.B.; Takeda, S.P.; Mendonça, C.S.; Sirena, S.A.; Diercks, M.S.; De Lima, L.A. and Nicolau, B. (2016). Socio-demographic characteristics and prevalence of risk factors in a hypertensive and diabetics population: A cross-sectional study in primary health care in Brazil. *BMC Public Health* 16(1): 573 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-3230-7>
3. Bezzaoucha, A. (1992). Le diabète sucré connu à Alger : fréquence et conséquences [Known diabetes mellitus in Algiers : frequency and sequelae]. *Diabete Metab (Paris)* 18(3) : 229-35.
4. Bhansali, A.; Dhandania, V.K.; Deepa, M.; Anjana, R.M.; Joshi, S.R, Joshi,P.P.; Madhu, S. V, Rao, P.V, Subashini, R, Sudha, V, Unnikrishnan, R, Das, A.K, Shukla, D.K., Kaur, T.; Mohan, V. and Pradeepa, R. (2015). Prevalence of and risk factors for hypertension in urban and rural India: the ICMR-INDIAB study. *J Hum Hypertens* 29(3): 204–9 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1038/jhh.2014.57>
5. Brinks, R.; Tamayo, T.; Kowall, B. and Rathmann, W. (2012). Prevalence of type 2 diabetes in Germany in 2040: estimates from an epidemiological model. *Eur J Epidemiol* 27(10): 791–7 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-012-9726-2>
6. Brouri, M.; Ouadahi, N.; Nibouche, D.; Benabbas, Y.; El hassar, M.; Bouraoui, S.; Abad, N.; Abreu, P.C. and Ikardouchene, L. (2018). Facteurs de risque cardio-vasculaires en Algérie. Une analyse du sous-groupe de l'étude "Africa/Middle East Cardiovascular Epidemiological". *Ann Cardiol Angeiol* 67(2): 61–66 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ancard.2018.01.003>
7. Chentli, F.; Azzoug, S.; Meskine, D. and El Gradechi, A. (2014). Gender discrimination for women with diabetes mellitus in Algeria. *Indian J Endocrinol Metab* 18(6): 804-10 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.4103/2230-8210.141351>
8. Dali-Sahi, M.; Dennouni-Medjati, N.; Kachekouche, Y.; Merad Boudia, H.; Benslama, Y.; Meziane, F. Z. and Meziane, A. (2018). Effets du furosémide et de l'indapamide sur l'équilibre ionique et métabolique des hypertendus diabétiques de type. *Médecine thérapeutique* 24 (6) : 441-7 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1684/met.2018.0747>.
9. D'Elia, L.; De Palma, D.; Rossi, G.; Strazzullo, V.; Russo, O.; Iacone, R.; Fazio, V.; Strazzullo, P. and Galletti, F. (2014). Not smoking is associated with lower risk of hypertension: results of the Olivetti Heart Study. *Eur J Public Health* 24(2): 226–230 [online] available at: <https://doi:10.1093/eurpub/ckt041>

10. Ducorps, M.; Bauduceau, B.; Mayaudon, H.; Sonnet, E.; Groussin, L. and Castagné, C. (1996). Prevalence of hypertension in a black African diabetic population. *Arch Mal Coeur Vaiss* 89(8): 1069–73. PMID: [8949381](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8949381/)
11. ESHRE Capri Workshop Group. (2006). Hormones and cardiovascular health in women. *Hum Reprod Update* 12(5): 483–497 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1093/humupd/dml028>
12. Ganguli, M.C.; Grimm Jr, R. H.; Svendsen, K.H.; Flack, J.M.; Grandits, G.A. and Elmer, P.J. (1997). Higher education and income are related to a better Na:K ratio in blacks: baseline results of the Treatment of Mild Hypertension Study (TOMHS) data. *Am J Hypertens* 10 (9 Pt 1): 979–84 [online] available at: [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0895-7061\(97\)00162-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0895-7061(97)00162-3)
13. Gebreyes, Y.F.; Goshu, D.Y.; Geletew, T.K.; Argefa, T.G.; Zemedu, T.G.; Lemu, K.A.; Waka, F.C.; Mengesha, A.B.; Degefu, F.S.; Deghebo, A.D.; Wubie, H.T.; Negeri, M.G.; Tesema, T.T.; Tessema, Y.G.; Regassa, M.G.; Eba, G.G.; Beyene, M.G.; Yesu, K.M.; Zeleke, G.T.; Mengistu, Y.T. and Belayneh, A. (2018). Prevalence of high blood pressure, hyperglycemia, dyslipidemia, metabolic syndrome and their determinants in Ethiopia: Evidences from the National NCDs STEPS Survey, 2015. *PLoS ONE* 13(5): e0194819 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0194819>
14. Hall, J.E, and Guyton, A.C. (2011). *Guyton and Hall textbook of medical physiology* (12 ed). Philadelphia, USA: Saunders Elsevier.
15. Howard, J.A.; Bower, K. and Wayne, P. (2006). Factors influencing the management of hypertension in type 2 diabetes. *Canadian Journal of Diabetes* 30(1): 38-45 [online] available at: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1499-2671\(06\)01004-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1499-2671(06)01004-5)
16. Hypertension in Diabetes Study (HDS): I. Prevalence of hypertension in newly presenting type 2 diabetic patients and the association with risk factors for cardiovascular and diabetic complications (1993). *J Hypertens* 11(3): 309-17 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1097/00004872-199303000-00012>
17. IDF. (2019). *International Diabetes Federation. Diabetes atlas*, 8th edition (2019). Retrieved 2021 March 23 from www.diabetesatlas.org/
18. Kavishe, B.; Biraro, S.; Baisley, K.; Vanobberghen, F.; Kapiga, S.; Munderi, P.; Smeeth, L.; Peck, R.; Mghamba, J.; Mutungi, G.; Ikoona, E.; Levin, J.; Bou Monclús, M. A.; Katende, D.; Kisanga, E.; Hayes, R. and Grosskurth, H. (2015). High prevalence of hypertension and of risk factors for non-communicable diseases (NCDs): a population based cross-sectional survey of NCDs and HIV infection in Northwestern Tanzania and Southern Uganda. *BMC Med* 13: 126 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-015-0357-9>
19. Kearney, P.M.; Whelton, M.; Reynolds, K.; Muntner, P.; Whelton, P.K. and He, J. (2005). Global burden of hypertension: analysis of worldwide data. *Lancet* 365(9455): 217–23 [online] available at: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(05\)17741-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(05)17741-1)
20. Kyrou, I.; Tsigos, C.; Mavrogianni, C.; Cardon, G.; Van Stappen, V.; Latomme, J.; Kivelä, J.; Wikström, K.; Tsochev, K.; Nanasi, A.; Semanova, C.; Mateo-Gallego, R.; Lamiquiz-Moneo, I.; Dafoulas, G.; Timpel, P.; Schwarz, P.E.H.; Iotova, V.; Tankova, T.; Makrilakis, K. and Manios, Y; Feel4Diabetes-study Group. (2020). Sociodemographic and lifestyle-related risk factors for identifying vulnerable groups for type 2 diabetes: a narrative review with emphasis on data from Europe. *BMC Endocr Disord* 20 (Suppl 1): 134 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12902-019-0463-3>

21. Lenfant, C.; Chobanian, A.V.; Jones, D.W. and Roccella, E.J. (2003). Seventh report of the Joint National Committee on the Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC 7): resetting the hypertension sails. *Hypertension* 41(6): 1178-1179 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.HYP.0000075790.33892.AE>
22. Liu, C.; Li, X.; Lin, M.; Zheng, L. and Chen, X. (2020). A cross-sectional study on diabetes epidemiology among people aged 40 years and above in Shenyang, China. *Sci Rep* 10(1): 17742 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-74889-x>
23. Louda, F.; Addi, H.; Hallab, L.; Chadli, A.; Elghomar, H. and Farouqi, A. (2010). Hypertension artérielle et diabète de type 2. *Diabetes and Metabolism* 36: A40-109.
24. Maoui, A, Bouzid, K, Ben Abdelaziz, A, and Ben Abdelaziz, A. (2019). Epidemiology of Type 2 Diabetes in the Greater Maghreb. Example of Tunisia. Systematic review of the literature. *Tunis Med* 97(2): 286-295. PMID: [31539085](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31539085/)
25. Mayega, R.W.; Makumbi, F.; Rutebemberwa, E.; Peterson, S.; Ostenson, C.G. and Tomson, G. (2012). Modifiable socio-behavioral factors associated with overweight and hypertension among persons aged 35 to 60 years in eastern Uganda. *PLoS ONE* 7: 7632 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0047632>
26. Mbaye, A.; Yameogo, N.V.; Kane, Ad.; Diack, A.; Ndiaye, M.B.; Diack, B.; Pessinba, S.; Thiam, A.; Dioum, M.; Hakim, R.; Diagne, D.; Kane, M.; Ndour, M.; Diao, M.; Diallo, A.; Diop, S.N. and Kane, A. (2010). Profil lipidique et risque cardio-vasculaire du diabetique de type 2 au Senegal. *ANGEIOLOGIE* 62(1): 25-29.
27. NHBPEP. (1994). National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group report on hypertension in diabetes. *Hypertension* 23(2) : 145-58; discussion 159-60. PMID : [8307622](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8307622/)
28. Navarro, G.; Allard, C.; Xu, W. and Mauvais-Jarvis, F. (2015). The role of androgens in metabolism, obesity, and diabetes in males and females. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 23(4):713-9 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1002/oby.21033>
29. NCEP. (2001). Executive Summary of the Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). *JAMA* 285(19): 2486-97 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.285.19.2486>
30. Nejari, C.; Arharbi, M.; Chentir, M.T.; Boujnah, R.; Kemmou, O.; Megdiche, H.; Boulahrouf, F.; Messoussi, K.; Nazek, L. and Bulatov, V. (2013). Epidemiological Trial of Hypertension in North Africa (ETHNA): an international multicentre study in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia. *J Hypertens* 31(1): 49-62. <https://doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0b013e32835a6611>
31. O'Connor, L. E.; Hu, E. A.; Steffen, L. M.; Selvin, E. and Rebholz, C. M. (2020). Adherence to a Mediterranean-style eating pattern and risk of diabetes in a U.S. prospective cohort study. *Nutr Diabetes* 10(1): 8 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41387-020-0113-x>
32. Pandey, A.R.; Karki, K.B.; Mehata, S.; Aryal, K.K.; Thapa, P.; Pandit, A.; Bista, B.; Dhakal, P. and Dhimal, M. (2013). Prevalence and Determinants of Comorbid Diabetes and Hypertension in Nepal: Evidence from Non-Communicable Disease Risk Factors STEPS Survey Nepal. *J Nepal Health Res Counc* 13(29): 20-5. PMID: [26411708](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26411708/)
33. Petrie, J.R.; Guzik, T.J. and Touyz, R.M. (2018). Diabetes, Hypertension, and Cardiovascular Disease: Clinical Insights and Vascular Mechanisms. *Can J Cardiol* 34(5): 575-584 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cjca.2017.12.005>

34. Poulter, N.R.; Prabhakaran, D. and Caulfield, M. (2015). Hypertension. *Lancet* 386(9995): 801–12 [online] available at: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61468-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61468-9)
35. Riley, L.; Guthold, R.; Cowan, M.; Savin, S.; Bhatti, L.; Armstrong, T. and Bonita, R. (2016). The World Health Organization STEPwise Approach to Non-communicable Disease Risk-Factor Surveillance: Methods, Challenges, and Opportunities. *Am J Public Health* 106(1): 74–8 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2015.302962>
36. Staessen, J.A.; Celis, H. and Fagard, R. (1998). The epidemiology of the association between hypertension and menopause. *Journal of Human Hypertension* 12(9): 587-592 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.jhh.1000670>
37. Stepwise Algeria. (2016-2017) survey: *Better knowledge of the health profiles of Algerians for the risk factors of non-communicable diseases*. Regional Office for Africa. Retrieved 2021 February 11 from <https://www.afro.who.int/fr/media-centre/events/enquete-stepwise-algerie-2016-2017-meilleure-connaissance-du-profil-de-sante>
38. TAHINA. (2005). *National Institute of Public Health. National health survey (Epidemiological transition and health impact in North Africa)*. Project [Contrat no ICA3-CT-2002-10011].
39. Tailakh, A.; Evangelista, L.S.; Menten, J.C.; Pike, N.A.; Phillips, L.R. and Morisky, D.E. (2014). Hypertension prevalence, awareness, and control in Arab countries: a systematic review. *Nurs Health Sci* 16(1): 126–130 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1111/nhs.12060>
40. Temmar, M.; Labat, C.; Benkhedda, S.; Charifi, M.; Thomas, F.; Bouafia, M.T.; Bean, K.; Darne, B.; Safar, M.E. and Benetos, A. (2007). Prevalence and determinants of hypertension in the Algerian Sahara. *J Hypertens* 25(11): 2218–2226 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0b013e3282dc7549>.
41. Tripathy, J.P.; Thakur, J.S.; Jeet, G. and Jain, S. (2017). Prevalence and determinants of comorbid Diabetes and Hypertension: evidence from Non-Communicable Disease Risk Factor STEPS Survey, India. *Diabetes and Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research and Reviews* 11 Suppl 1: S459-S465 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsx.2017.03.036>
42. WHO. (2005a). *WHO STEPS surveillance manual: the WHO STEPwise approach to chronic disease risk factor surveillance*. Retrieved 2021 February 14 from [WHO Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data/](http://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241546434)
43. WHO. (2005b). *Clinical guidelines for the management of hypertension*. Retrieved 2021 February 19 from <https://www.who.int/iris/handle/10665/119738>
44. WHO. (2012). *Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ) Analysis Guide*. Retrieved 2021 June 30 from http://www.who.int/chp/steps/resources/GPAQ_Analysis_Guide.pdf
45. WHO. (2014). *The top 10 causes of death*. Retrieved 2021 February from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs310/en/>
46. WHO. (2015a). *Global status report on non-communicable diseases 2014*. World Health Organization. Retrieved 2021 March 23 from <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/148114>
47. WHO. (2015b). *Definition and diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and intermediate hyperglycemia. Report of a WHO/IDF Consultation*. Retrieved 2021 June 28 from https://www.idf.org/webdata/docs/WHO_IDF_definition_diagnosis_of_diabetes.pdf

- 48.WHO. (2018). *Global Strategy on Diet, Physical Activity and Health: World Health Organization*. Retrieved 2021 June 30 from <https://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/pa/en/>. Accessed 22 Feb 2021
- 49.Yaghoubi, M.; Mansell, K.; Vatanparast, H.; Steeves, M.; Zeng, W. and Farag, M. (2020). Prevalence of Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes-Related Complications and Their Association with Determinants Identified in Canada’s Survey on Living with Chronic Diseases—Diabetes Component. *Canadian Journal of Diabetes* 44(4): 304-311.e3 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcjd.2019.09.001>
- 50.Zaoui, S.; Biémont, C. and Meguenni, K. (2007). Approche épidémiologique du diabète en milieu urbain et rural dans la région de Tlemcen (ouest algérien). *Santé* 17(1) : 15-21 [online] available at: <http://doi.org/10.1684/san.2007.0060>.

IMPACT OF ANGLOPHONE CRISIS ON BUI CATTLE INDUSTRY AND IMPLICATIONS ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT, NORTH WEST REGION OF CAMEROON

SHEY Dominic NFORYA¹, OJUKU TIAFACK², TCHAWA Paul³

¹Ph.D Student, University of Yaounde I (Cameroon), Email: shedominoforya@gamil.com

²Assocaite Professor, University of Yaounde I (Cameroon),

Email: ojukutiafack@yahoo.co.uk

³Professor, University of Yaounde I (Cameroon), Email: ptchawa@yahoo.fr

Abstract: *Bui Division is one of the hot spots of the Anglophone crisis in the North West Region of Cameroon. The escalating crisis which started in 2016 has severe impact on cattle grazing and related economic activities in the area. This study investigates the impact of the crisis on the Bui Cattle industry and implications on the development of the area. Cattle grazing is an invaluable economic activity in Bui Division. The precarious state of the Bui cattle industry has slowed the socio-economic development of the area. This situation calls for urgent actions to make the industry sustainable and promote rural development in the area. This study therefore examines the magnitude of the impact of the Anglophone crisis on the Bui cattle industry and how it affects the development of the area. The research method used in this study involved quantitative and qualitative approaches. Secondary data was collected from published and unpublished documents. On the other hand, primary data was collected through the administration of 600 questionnaires, interviews, field observation and recording of relevant data. The main findings of the study revealed that there is a decline in the Bui cattle industry. The decline has slowed down the rate of rural development in the area. This study proposes adoption of improved cattle production techniques and Cameroonian government stepping up measures to solve the Anglophone crisis as a way of making the cattle industry sustainable. These measures will rejuvenate the cattle industry and stimulate rural development.*

Keywords: *Anglophone crisis, Bui cattle industry, rural development, management strategies*

1. Introduction

Cattle production and related activities is an emerging industry in recent years that sustains the livelihood of many people across the world. Cattle production takes place in tropical and temperate savannahs of the world due to favourable environmental conditions in these areas. Throughout the world, the cattle industry is plagued by different problems such as land use conflicts and climate variability. In Sub-Sahara Africa, the cattle industry faces the problem of climate variability, farmer-grazier conflicts, expanding settlements into grazing zones and socio-political crises that breed insecurity thereby creating a tense atmosphere in grazing zones. The cattle industry refers to the different cattle production systems (intensive and extensive grazing systems) and related economic activities such as dairy farming, biogas production that depends on cow dung as raw material, veterinary services etc. In the Western Highland of Cameroon, the cattle industry is a major industry that promotes rural development. However, in some parts of this area, particularly in Bui Division, the cattle industry is plagued by different crises which thus compromise the role of the industry in promoting rural development. Authors on these opinions of unsustainable cattle production leading to slow rate of development include;

Ojuku et al (2020), Ngalim (2015), Nchinda et al (2014) and Fondufe (2011). These authors agree on the fact that conflicts in grazing zones compromise cattle productivity. The authors investigated on conflicts such as farmer-grazier conflicts, poor land tenure systems and climate variability in grazing zones. The conflicts are responsible for a decline in the cattle industry and thereby slowing down rural development. However, other authors such as Haman (2002) and Fogwe (1997) and (1990) associate the decline in the cattle industry to the growth of unpalatable pasture species and poor grazing methods. In another dimension, Hardin (1978) emphasized on tragedy-of-the-common in the use of common resources as being the cause of decline in the cattle industry. As crop farmers and graziers compete over the common resource of land, over exploitation of the land leads to degradation of range lands. This reduces nutritive and palatable pasture species available for cattle leading to poor productivity. However, these authors carried out their researches in different settings in which socio-political crisis was not considered as a serious problem plaguing the cattle industry. In the context of this study, the findings of these authors are less relevant. Although the Bui cattle industry is plagued by these problems revealed by these authors, the Anglophone crisis has more impact on the industry and rural development than land use and environmental problems as examined by the authors. Our main objective is thus to investigate on the magnitude of the Anglophone crisis on the Bui cattle industry and implication on rural development. We also aim at examining the prospects of the remedying the crisis on rural development of the area.

2. Statement of the problem

The Anglophone Crisis refers to a socio-political conflict in the two English-speaking regions (North West and South West) of Cameroon that became severe since 2016. The crisis has a negative impact on economic activities, particularly on the Bui cattle industry. However, the roots of the conflicts can be traced from Cameroon's constitutional changes since 1961 to 1984 (table 1). It should be noted that Cameroon was a German colony from 1884 to 1916. Germany was chased out of Cameroon by the allied forces during the First World War. This led to the partitioning of Cameroon between France and Britain. The section ruled by France became known as French Cameroon (East Cameroon) while that under British rule was known British Cameroon. Britain further divided her portion into British Northern Cameroon and British Southern Cameroon. British Northern Cameroon gained her independence by integrating with the Federal Republic of Nigeria while British Southern Cameroon (West Cameroon) gained her own independence by reunifying with French Cameroon in 1961.

Table 1: Brief historical evolution of Cameroon

Date	Historical event
1 st January 1960	French Cameroun (East Cameroon) became independent as La Republique du Cameroun
11 th February 1961	British Southern Cameroon voted in a UNO plebiscite to reunite with La Republique du Cameroun while British Northern Cameroon voted to integrate with Nigeria.
1 st October 1961	British Southern Cameroon (West Cameroon) became independent by reuniting with La Republique du Cameroun. The territory became known as the Federal Republic of Cameroon.
20 th May 1972	Cameroonians voted in a national referendum to change from a Federal State to Unitary State. The name of the country became known as the United Republic of Cameroon from 1972 to 1984.

4 th February 1984	The name of Cameroon became known as The Republic of Cameroon (La Republique du Cameroun)
-------------------------------------	---

Source: V.G. Fanso, 1989

The evolution of Cameroon constitution (table 1) has always created a suspicion of “colonialism” or “marginalization” in the minds of some Cameroonians who advocate for the rights of the Anglophones in Cameroon.

The immediate cause of the outbreak of the Anglophone crisis was a peaceful strike organized by common lawyers and teachers of English sub system of education in 2016. They were demanding for reforms to respect the core values of the common law and the English sub system of education practice in the two English-speaking regions of the Republic of Cameroon. The government attempted to quell down the strike but it degenerated into a serious situation beyond control. The lawyers and teachers went back to their respective work places but some people who want outright independence of the two regions (separatists or Ambazonians) from the rest of Cameroon took up arms against government forces. Since 2016, the fighting between the separatists and government forces in the two English-speaking regions has been ongoing. The fighting has serious negative impact on economic activities in the area. The Anglophone crisis has led to insecurity in the grazing zones, kidnappings and demand for huge ransoms for the release of the victims, massive out migration of graziers with their cattle to safe zones, poor execution of government investment projects and displace of vulnerable population. There is thus a decline in the cattle production which inevitably has a negative impact on the development of Bui Division. The labour force in Bui Division has reduced, council revenue has dropped while investors are scared of insecurity to invest in the area especially cattle production.

3. Regional setting

The study is carried out in Bui Division. Bui Division is located in the North West Region of Cameroon. It is located between Latitudes 6°15` and 6°25` North of the Equator and Longitudes 10° 45` and 10° 75` East of the Greenwich Meridian. Bui Division has an estimated surface area of 2,297 km². According to summaries from the six council development plans of Bui; the household survey in 2012 revealed the population of this area was **551,786** inhabitants. However, with a national population growth rate of 2.6 per annum, the population of Bui Division is estimated to be **810,021** inhabitants in 2030. This area shares boundaries in the South West with Ngok-Ketunjia Division, North West with Boyo Division, North East with Donga-Mantung Division and in the South East with West Region.

The relief of Bui Division is dominated by mountains with few plains that are less extensive. Generally the area is a high plateau which lies along the Cameroon Volcanic Line in the Western Highland of Cameroon. The area has an average height of about 1900 meters. The highest point in the area is Mount Oku (3011 meters), the second highest mountain in Cameroon after Mount Fako (4010 meter). Bui Division is situated in the tropical climatic zone, particularly the Sudan Type. Based on Koppen’s 1936 climatic classification, this climate is an Aw climatic type, with two marked seasons. These are the dry and rainy seasons. The dry season runs from November to March (four months) while the rainy season runs from April to October (eight months). The mean annual rainfall in the area is about 1600mm while the mean monthly temperature is about 24°C. These climatic conditions have favoured the growth of Tropical Guinea Savannah vegetation. This

relief, climate vegetation and drainage of this area present great potentials for cattle grazing in Bui Division.

4. Materials and methods

This research adopted a descriptive cross sectional survey method to investigate on the impact of the Anglophone crisis on the Bui cattle industry and implications on rural development. A stratified-random sampling approach was used to collect data from households in Bui Division. Thus the sampling unit for this study was the household. The sample size of the population was selected from 600 households within a total population of 12005 inhabitants involved in either cattle grazing or crop cultivation from 2017 to 2022. The rationale for the choice of the household was that it is easier to administer questionnaires per household than per individual in a population. Data was analyzed using softwares such as SPSS for statistic management, and EXCELL for production of tables and figures. The Chi Square Test was used to evaluate the association between dependent and independent variables. P value was set to be statistically significant at 0.05 of *Chi-square* (χ^2).

5. Findings and discussion

The Anglophone crisis has a severe negative impact on the Bui cattle industry. The findings of the research revealed that there is decline in the population of cattle grazed across the six sub-divisions that make up the area since the outbreak of the crisis in 2016.

6.1 Impact of the Anglophone crisis on the Bui cattle industry

There has been a fall in the population of cattle in Bui Division due to the crisis (table 2). The decline in the population of cattle is linked to insecurity created by the crisis.

Table 2: Evolution of population of cattle in Bui Division from 2010 to 2019

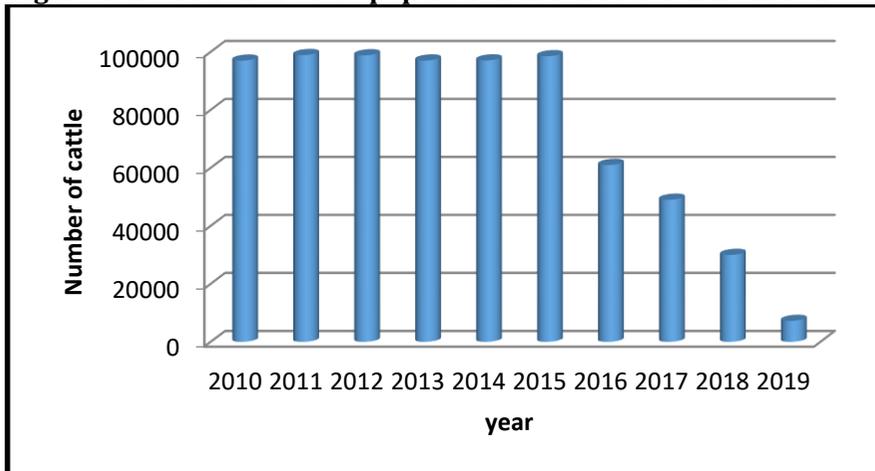
Year	Number of cattle per Sub-Division						Total	Comment with respect to the preceding year
	Kumbo	Jakiri	Noni	Oku	Nkum	Mbven	6	
2010	19021	20869	23957	7058	13026	13055	96,986	-
2011	19990	21008	24008	7030	12967	13896	98,900	Increase by 1,914 cattle
2012	19940	21017	23856	7028	13009	13961	98811	Decrease by 89 cattle
2013	19781	21315	21789	6980	13151	14007	97,023	Decrease by 1,788 cattle
2014	20012	21051	21987	7019	12998	13977	97044	Increase by 21 cattle
2015	20009	21340	22889	7089	13189	13981	98,497	Increase by 1,453 cattle
2016	19892	20012	22450	6911	13890	13230	96,386	Decrease by 2,111 cattle
2017	18976	19985	21009	5071	11987	11987	89,015	Decrease by 7,371 cattle
2018	16980	18550	19899	4890	9985	9005	79,980	Decrease by 9,706 cattle
2019	15842	14671	17978	5001	9672	9160	72,324	Decrease by 7,656 cattle

Source: Compiled from the six councils in Bui Division, 2019

It can be observed on table 2 and figure 1 that from 2010 to 2015, the total population of cattle in Bui Division was fluctuating slightly at a higher rate with average number of cattle registered by the councils at about 98,000. Since the outbreak of the Anglophone crisis in 2016, the total population of cattle dropped seriously. In 2021,

projection shows the total population of cattle in the areas is less than 10,000. Thus the Anglophone crisis has led to drastic drop in the population cattle in the area.

Figure 1: Evolution of cattle population in Bui Division from 2010 to 2019



Source: Compiled from the six councils in Bui Division

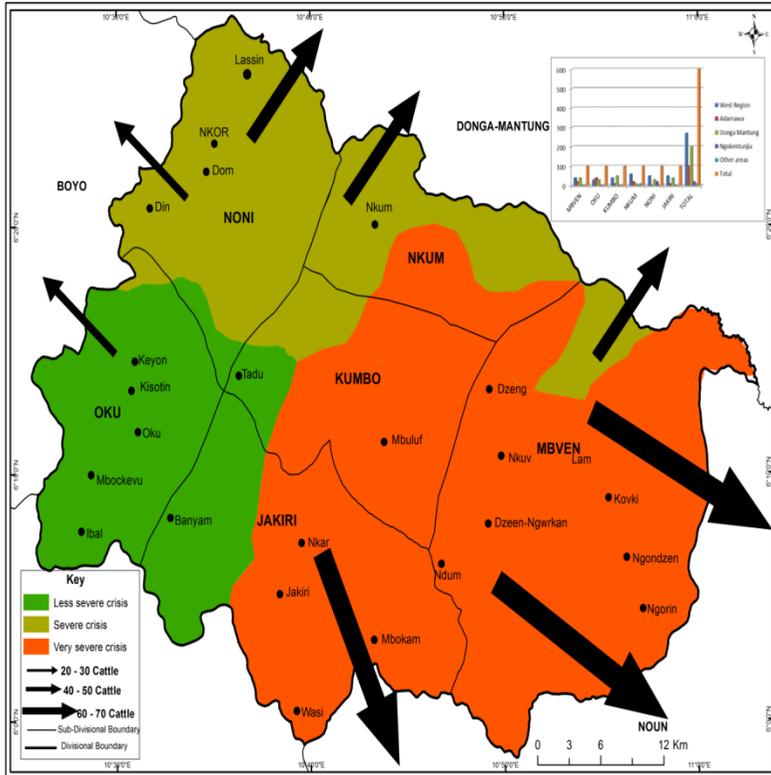
One of the main reasons for the decrease in cattle population in Bui has been the massive outmigration of major graziers (graziers with over 100 cattle) from the area to safe zones. As the Anglophone crisis deepens, some graziers are seeking refuge in areas such as West Region, Donga Mantung and Adamawa Region.

It should be noted that the West and Adamawa Regions are in the French-speaking part of Cameroon where fighting is not taking place. However, at the borders between these two regions with the North West, there has been frequent spill-over effect of the crisis but which have less negative effect on cattle grazing the areas. Furthermore, although Donga Mantung is in the North West Region, the activities of the separatist are not severe in the area as compared to Bui Division.

In effect, Donga Mantung serves as a refuge zone for graziers fleeing the conflict from Bui. Figure 2 shows the refuge zones that graziers from Bui Division have been targeting. The data was collected from graziers based in Bui Division following their communication with graziers who have migrated out of the area.

Graziers from different parts of Bui Division prefer different refuge zones. Generally, most of the graziers are migrating to the neighbouring West Region of Cameroon and Donga Mantung Division. From Bui Division, the graziers move with their cattle to Nwa and cross to the West Region. The second main destination of graziers fleeing the crisis is Donga Mantung Division. There is less fighting in this Division as compared to Bui and thus a refuge zone, figure 2.

Figure 2: Outmigration of cattle from Bui Division due to the Anglophone crisis.



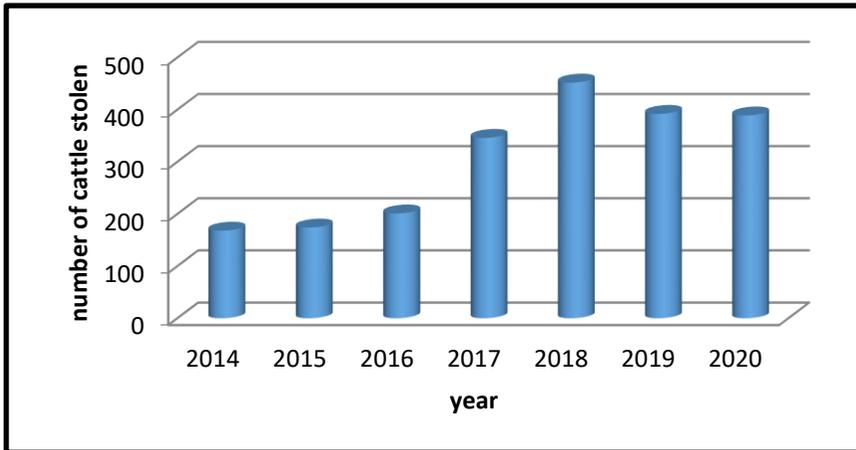
Source: National Institute of Cartography/field work, 2022

It can further be observed on figure 2 that the most severely affected sub-divisions by the Anglophone crisis are Kumbo, Mbven, Jakiri and Nkum while Oku and Noni are less affected. From highly affected areas, the number of cattle migrating out of the area is greater than from less severely affected areas such as Oku. The graziers target different zones for safety. Most cattle from Bui Division have been migrated to the Noun Division in the West Region of the Republic of Cameroon.

The Noun valley is in the French-speaking part of Cameroon which is not a conflict zone. Some cattle also migrate to areas such as Donga Mantung and Ngokentunja Divisions. Even though these Divisions are also in conflict from the Anglophone crisis, there are different reasons for some graziers in Bui Division seeking refuge in such areas. Donga Mantung is less affected by the crisis compared to Bui Division. The area thus appears to be relatively safe for cattle grazing than Bui Division. On the other hand, some graziers migrate to Ngokentunja mainly because they want to avoid hatred from their neighbours in Bui Division. It should be noted that some people have exploited the Anglophone crisis to settle scores with people they had differences even before the outbreak of the crisis.

Another negative impact of the Anglophone crisis on the Bui cattle industry has been increase in cattle theft in the area (figure 3). The insecurity created by the crisis has been exploited by thieves to steal cattle.

Figure 3: Evolution of cattle theft in Bui Division from 2014 to 2019



Source: Compiled from services of the DOs in Bui Division.

It can be observed on figure 3 that before the outbreak of the Anglophone crisis in 2016, the area had not registered up to 200 number of cows stolen within a year. In 2016, the number of cattle stolen went up to about 200. As the crisis escalated and prolonged, the number went up to over 350 in 2017 and above 400 in 2018. This is explained by the increase insecurity in the area that has been exploited by thieves to steal cattle. In 2019, the number of cattle stolen dropped below 350. This could be explained by the falling population of cattle in the area. This has reduced the accessibility of the thieves to cattle.

Furthermore, the Anglophone crisis has led to kidnappings of wealthy people especially graziers and demand for huge ransoms. The kidnappers use this method to force the graziers to sell their cattle and pay the ransom which ranges from 200,000 FCA to 15 million FCFA depending on the wealth value of their victim. This situation has discouraged most graziers to either abandon grazing or migrate out of the area.

The Anglophone crisis has also led to reduction in the provision of veterinary services that enhance cattle productivity. Veterinary services can be classified into four categories. They include:

- Clinical services which involves the treatment of sick animals and control of production limiting disorders.

- Preventive services which involves avoiding the outbreak of diseases. This has been achieved in Bui Division through periodic vaccination of cattle by veterinarians.

- Human health protection which involves inspection of cattle markets, the marketed cattle and their products such as meat. This has been achieved in the area by veterinarians found in all the six sub-divisions.

Since 2017, many veterinarians have left the place and only move there occasionally. This reduced the effectiveness in delivering above four services. The general result has been the spread of cattle diseases and consumption of doubtful quality of cattle products in the area. This poses a potential hazard to the population.

Table 3 and figure 4 show the summary of the impact of the Anglophone crisis on the Bui cattle industry based on responses of the graziers and crop farmers in the area.

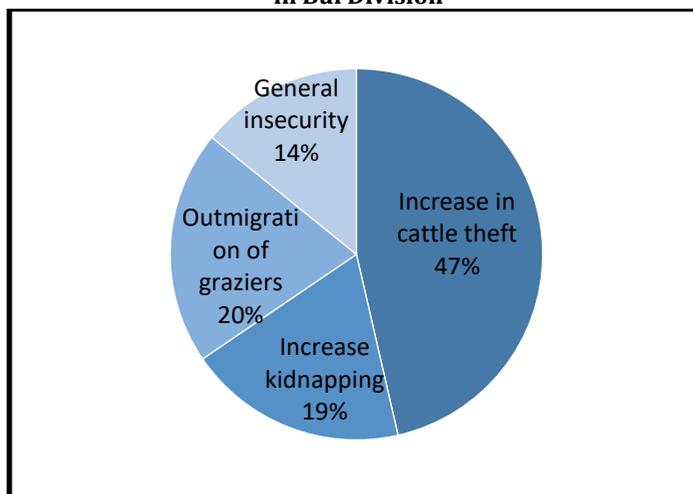
Table 3: Impact of the Anglophone crisis on Bui cattle industry

Sub-Division	Increase in cattle theft	Increase kidnapping	Outmigration of graziers	General insecurity	Reduction veterinary services	Total
MBVEN	30	17	15	5	5	67
OKU	30	5	20	22	20	97
KUMBO	65	40	25	10	10	150
NKUM	48	8	18	13	5	92
NONI	37	9	13	10	5	74
JAKIRI	40	22	17	15	2	97
Total	246	101	108	75	47	577

Source: Field work, 2021

It can be observed on table 3 that negative impact of the crisis is felt across the entire area. However, the extent to which a given aspect is felt is not the same across the area although increase in cattle theft is the main problem. A reduction in the provision of veterinary services is not a major problem in Jakiri whereas it is a major issue in Oku, Noni and Mbven. This could be explained by variation in the proximity of these areas from the Jakiri Veterinary School. The longer the distance, the greater the reduction in the services and the closer the area the lesser there is a reduction in the services.

Figure 4: Weighting of the impact of the Anglophone crisis on cattle grazing in Bui Division



Source: Field Work, 2021

It can be observed on figure 4 that main negative impact of the Anglophone crisis on cattle grazing in Bui Division is increase in cattle theft (36%) followed by outmigration of graziers with their cattle (22%). A reduction in the provision of veterinary services was considered by the graziers to be less serious. This could be explained by the high level of

illiteracy amongst the graziers in the area which prevents the graziers from considering the services important to them.

The annual sales of cattle in the four major cattle markets in the area have dropped significantly as a result of the crisis affecting the activity, table 4. There are four major cattle markets in Bui which operate on weekly basis. The markets include; Lassin Cattle Market that operates on Tuesdays, Mbiame Cattle Market that operates on Thursdays, Takijah Cattle Market that operates on Fridays and Wainamah Cattle Market that operates on Sundays.

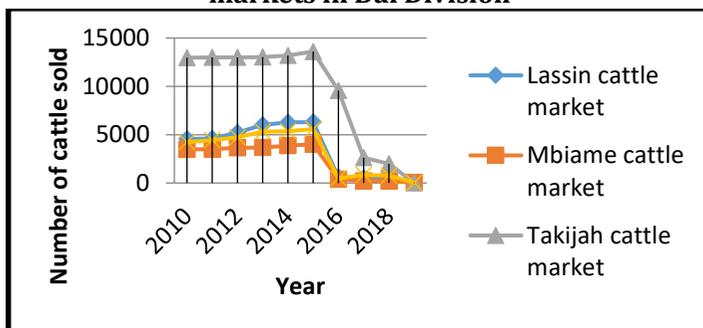
Table 4: Annual evolution of the number of cattle sold in the cattle markets (2010 to 2019) in Bui Division

Year	Cattle markets in Bui Division			
	Lassin	Mbiame	Takijah	Wainamah
2010	4560	3480	12960	4224
2011	4587	3495	13008	4429
2012	5221	3633	12996	4723
2013	6008	3658	13021	5322
2014	6267	3867	13207	5355
2015	6298	4008	13601	5578
2016	610	379	9580	479
2017	504	203	2621	823
2018	498	221	190	782
2019	13	34	Suspended operation	23

Source: Compiled from Nkor, Nkum and Jakiri Councils, 2019

It can be observed on table 4 and figure 5 that the number of cattle sold in the four major cattle markets in the area increased progressively from 2010 to 2016. This is explained by the same reasons under the evolution of the number of graziers and population of cattle in the area. From 2016, the number of cattle sold across the area dropped due to the Anglophone crisis.

Figure 5: Annual evolution of the number of cattle sold in the 4 major cattle markets in Bui Division



Source: Compilation from the Nkor, Nkum and Jakiri Councils, 2019

It should be noted on the figure 5 that in 2018, the cattle markets in Bui were almost shutdown. The total numbers of cattle sold in the four markets were insignificant as compared to the weekly sales in the markets during the previous years. Takijah cattle

market which is the largest in the area was completely suspended in 2018. The shutting down or below-capacity performance of the markets is explained by insecurity caused by the Anglophone crisis. During this period, most cattle were sold clandestinely and not in public places. In order to avoid being harassed by thieves on cattle market days, business in cattle became informal making it difficult to register the cattle sold. Besides this, many graziers moved out of the area thereby reducing the cattle sold. This situation presents the jeopardy in which future of the Bui cattle industry lays. The decline of the Bui cattle industry due to the crises affecting it has produced significant impact on level of income, employment, crop cultivation, infrastructural development and livelihood in the area.

6.2 Impact of the decline in the Bui cattle industry on income generation

The decline of the Bui cattle industry has let to fall in the level of income generated in this sector. Although some graziers rear cattle not for commercial purpose, it is evident that the commercial aspect of grazing has increasingly attracted people into the sector. Cattle grazing is a major source of income to individuals (graziers and butchers) and municipal councils in the area. The crises plaguing the Bui cattle industry have led to a fall in the income generated by the graziers, butchers and the councils. The price of cattle is not fixed. The prices vary depending on factors such as the demand and supply, the period of the year and size of the cow. However, the average prices of the cattle have been increasing progressively following the inflationary trends in Cameroon over the years. The total income generated in this sector over the years thus fluctuates as a function of the price per cow and total number of cattle sold at a given period (table 5.1 and 5.2).

Table 5.1: Evolution of income generated in Lassin and Mbiame cattle markets in Bui Division from 2013 to 2019

Year	Lassin market			Mbiame market		
	Cows sold	Average Price per cow (FCFA)	Total income (000 FCFA)	Cows sold	Average Price per cow (000 FCFA)	Total income (000 FCFA)
2013	6008	80000	480640	3658	80000	292640
2014	6267	80000	501360	3867	80000	303360
2015	6298	100000	626800	4008	100000	400800
2016	610	120000	73200	379	120000	45480
2017	504	100000	50400	203	100000	20300
2018	498	90000	44820	221	90000	19890
2019	13	90000	1170	34	90000	3060

Table 5.2: Evolution of income generated in Takijah and Wainamah cattle markets in Bui Division from 2013 to 2019

Year	Takijah market			Wainamah market		
	Cows sold	Average Price per cow (000 FCFA)	Total income (000 FCFA)	Cows sold	Average Price per cow (000 FCFA)	Total income (000 FCFA)
2013	13021	80000	2481680	5322	80000	425760
2014	13207	80000	1056560	5355	80000	428400
2015	13601	100000	1360100	5578	100000	557800
2016	9580	120000	1149600	479	120000	57480
2017	2621	100000	262100	823	100000	82300
2018	190	90000	17100	782	90000	70380

2019	Suspended operation	23	90000	2070
------	---------------------	----	-------	------

Source: Compiled and computed from the municipal councils in Bui Division, 2019

Table 5.1 and 5.2 gives an estimate of the annual income generated from the sales of cattle in Bui Division from 2013 to 2019. The total incomes are estimates because there are many other ways by which cattle are sold in the area which are not registered. The table is also computed on the assumption of average price for the cattle sold whereas the prices fluctuates based on size, period of the year and generally the demand and supply of the cattle. However, it can be noted that cattle is a major source of income in the area. In order to get a clearer view of the impact of the crisis affecting the Bui cattle industry on income generation, the totals of the income generated per year was computed from table 5.1 and 5.2 and shown on table 6.

Table 6: Evolution of income generated from the sales of cattle in Bui Division from 2013 to 2019

Year	Wainamah	Takijah	Mbiame	Lassin	Total
2013	425760000	2481680000	292640000	480640000	3680720000
2014	4284000000	1056560000	303360000	501360000	6145280000
2015	557800000	1360100000	400800000	626800000	2945500000
2016	57480000	1149600000	45480000	73200000	1325760000
2017	82300000	262100000	20300000	50400000	415100000
2018	70380000	17100000	19890000	44820000	152190000
2019	2070000	0	3060000	451170000	876300000

Source: Computed from table 5.1 and 5.2

It can be observed on table 6 that the sales of cattle generate billions of FCFA in Bui Division. In 2013, over 3 billion FCFA was raised from the sales of cattle. In 2014, the amount went over 6 billion FCFA and since then, the annual revenue from this sector has been dwindling to only 6.3million FCFA in 2019. Comparing 2014 and 2019 revenue, there is a loss in total revenue of over 5.37 billion FCFA. It should be noted that this fall in revenue has a multiplier effect on economic activities in the area. The fall in income inevitably affects the revenue generated by the municipal councils from grazing in the area. For a cattle herd of 2-15, the council levies a njangali tax of 300FCFA per cow. Any cattle herd that is greater than 15, the jangali tax per cow is 200FCFA. As the total number of cattle reduces in the area due to the crises affecting the activity, the council revenue from grazing is also reducing. This illustrates a negative financial impact of the crisis on the Bui cattle industry.

Variation in the income generated in the four major cattle markets in Bui Division is illustrated on figure 60. It can be observed on the figure that all the markets experienced a gradual increase in revenue from 2013 to 15. However, since 2016, there has been a rapid drop in the revenue generated from the sales of cattle across the four markets. This drop was not uniform across the sub-divisions. Wainamah and Lassin experienced gradual decrease in sales of cattle from 2016 to 2018. In 2019, the two markets started experiencing an increase in the sales of cattle. However, Takijah and Mbiame markets experienced a rapid drop in the sales of cattle from 2016 to 2019. Takijah Cattle Market

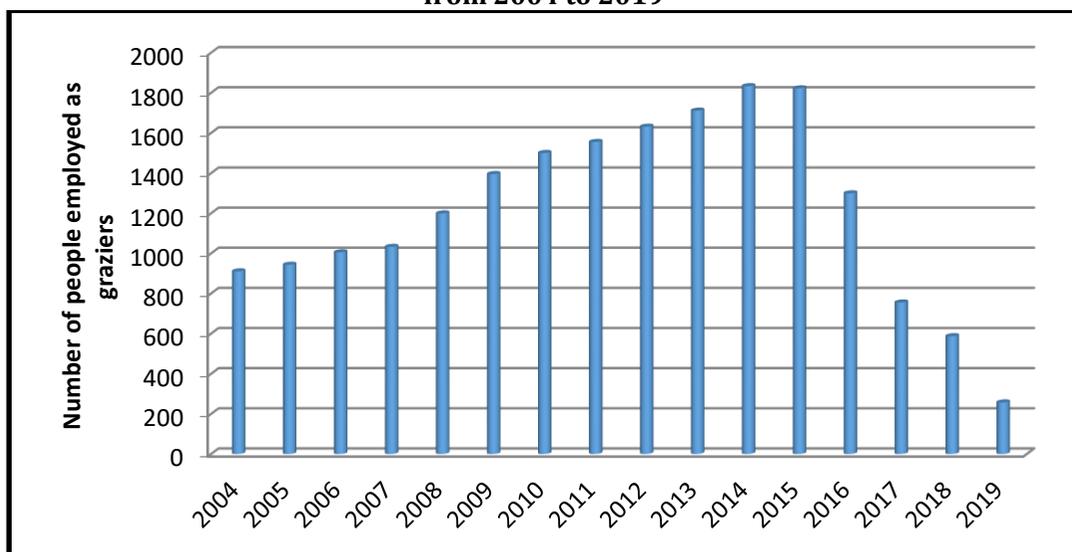
was the worst affected markets in terms drop in the sales of cattle. In 2019, the Takijah cattle market was completely shut down thereby suspending the sale of cattle.

6.3 Impact of the decline in the Bui cattle industry on employment

In Bui Division, agriculture and cattle grazing in particular has been a major economic activity that creates job opportunities for the active population. The active population is employed as graziers, butchers, brokers etc. As the Anglophone crisis deepens leading to a decline in the Bui cattle industry, there has been rising unemployment in the area.

In 2004, there were over **900 people** employed as **cattle graziers** in Bui Division. Over the years, many people joined the activity due to its lucrative nature. In 2015, 1833 people were engaged in cattle grazing in the area. These statistics are from the six municipal councils of the area who in the course of jangali tax collection record the number of graziers. Since 2016, there has been falling trends in the number of people employed by cattle grazing. In 2019, there were less than 257 people engaged in cattle grazing as graziers. This represents a **loss in jobs of 1576 job opportunities** (figure 6). The falling trend in the number of people employed in this sector is due to the crisis plaguing the Bui cattle industry. Many graziers are unable to adapt or mitigate the crises and in effect have been abandoning the grazing.

Figure 6: Evolution of number of people employed as graziers in Bui Division from 2004 to 2019



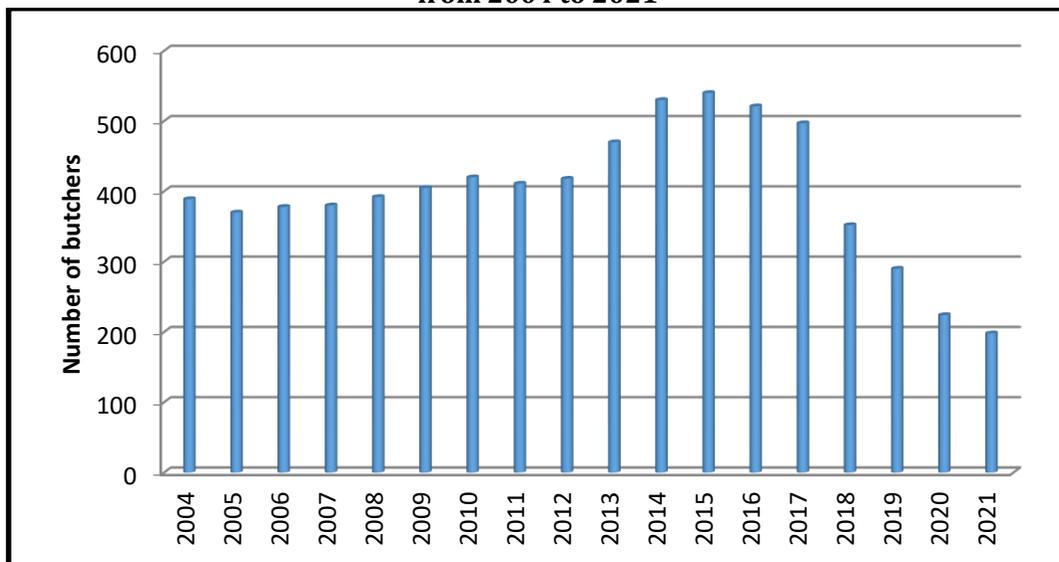
Source: Compiled from the six municipal councils in Bui Division, 2021

It can be observed on figure 6 that the number of graziers have been rising steadily in Bui Division from 2004 to 2015. During this period, the crises affecting the activity were the traditional ones such as land conflicts in the area. Graziers were able to adapt to the crises and continue grazing although the crises were reducing the productivity of cattle.

From 2016, the traditional crises were compounded by the outbreak of the Anglophone crisis that has created insecurity forcing many graziers to abandon the activity.

Between 2004 and 2015, the number of butchers in Bui Division increased steady. This helped in reducing unemployment in the area. Since the outbreak of the Anglophone crisis in 2016 the number of butchers have reduced gradually (figure 7).

Figure 7: Evolution of number of people employed as butchers in Bui Division from 2004 to 2021



Source: Compiled from the Sub-Divisional Delegations of MINEPIA in Bui Division, 2021

It can be observed on figure 7 that in 2016, there were 521 butchers in Bui Division. This number has been reducing steadily such as that in 2021, there were only 198 butchers. This represents a loss of 323 job opportunities in the area thereby adding unemployment.

Furthermore, cattle grazing also employ the population as **cattle brokers** in the different cattle markets across Bui Division. A cattle broker is someone in a cattle market who negotiates the price of a cow on behalf of the cattle seller and buyer. The broker mediates between the person selling the cow and one buying for the price to be agreed upon. The broker is usually well-informed about the existing prices of cattle around the area and thus guides in determining the price of the cow. He receives a commission for each cow sold through his negotiation. The cattle seller pays the broker an amount of about 2000FCFA while the buyer pays the broker the same amount. The commission received by the broker depends on the size and price of the cow. However, as the crises affecting cattle grazing in the area deepens, the number of people employed in this sector are also dwindling. The brokers operate in the four major cattle markets (Tarkija, Wainamah, Lassin and Mbiame) in Bui Division. Table 7 shows the evolution of the number of people employed as cattle brokers across Bui Division from 2004 to 2019. It can be observed on the table that from 2004 to 2016 there was general increase in the number of cattle brokers in the area. Beyond 2016 to 2019, there was drastic drop in the number of people involved in cattle commercialization.

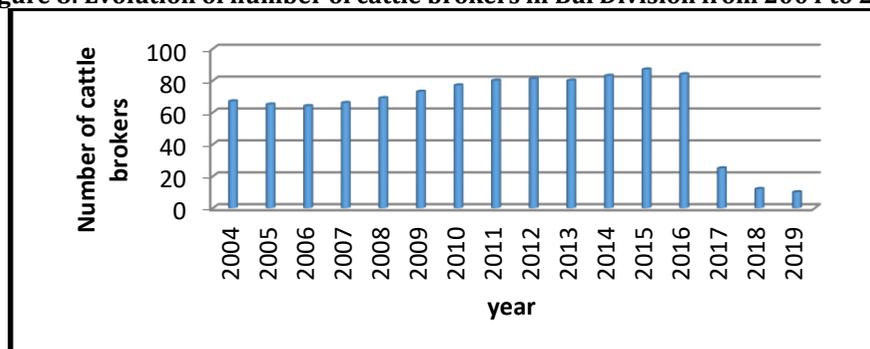
Table 7: Evolution of number of cattle brokers in Bui Division from 2004 to 2019

Year	Number of cattle brokers in the different cattle markets				Total
	Tarkijah	Wainamah	Lassin	Mbiame	
2004	98	87	78	67	330
2005	112	86	74	65	337
2006	108	88	79	64	339
2007	122	88	77	66	353
2008	128	116	83	69	396
2009	145	127	89	73	434
2010	144	129	88	77	438
2011	145	128	95	80	448
2012	158	130	104	81	473
2013	162	135	109	80	486
2014	182	142	103	83	510
2015	187	149	108	87	531
2016	179	144	89	84	496
2017	62	26	56	25	169
2018	45	19	22	12	98
2019	0	11	9	10	30
Total	1977	1605	1263	1023	5868

Source: Compiled from the Nkor, Jakiri, Mbven and Nkum Municipal Councils, 2019

It can be observed on table 7 and figure 8 that the total number of cattle brokers in Bui Division evolved and reached its peak in 2015 during which there were 531 people employed as cattle brokers in the area. After 2015, there has been drastic drop in the number of people employed in this activity. In 2019, there were only 30 people employed as cattle brokers in the area. This represents the lowest number of brokers recorded in the area over the period from 2004 to 2019. Comparing the employment of people as cattle brokers in 2015 and 2019, it can be noted that there was a loss in the number of jobs in the area of 501 job opportunities. The decline in the number of people employed in this activity is explained by the crises plaguing the Bui cattle industry. The Anglophone crisis compounded these crises thereby accounting for the drastic drop in number of cattle brokers since 2016.

Figure 8: Evolution of number of cattle brokers in Bui Division from 2004 to 2019



Source: Compiled from the Nkor, Jakiri, Nkum and Mbven Municipal Councils, 2019.

In a nutshell, the Anglophone crises plaguing the Bui cattle industry has led to rising unemployment in the area. The number of job opportunities loss in the area between 2015 and 2021 due to the crises affecting cattle grazing is over 2000, (table 8).

Table 8: Impact of the crisis plaguing the Bui cattle industry on employment

Activity	Year and employment situation		Number of jobs loss	%
	2015	2021		
Cattle grazing (graziers)	1833	257	1833-257= 1576	72.86
	540	454		
Cattle slaughtering (Butchers)	2015	2019	540-454= 86	23.16
	531	30		
Mediation in the cattle market (cattle brokers)	2015	2019	531-30= 501	3.98
	531	30		
Total number of jobs lost			1576+86+501=2163	100

Source: Field work, 2021

6.4 Impact of the decline of the Bui cattle industry on crop cultivation

The declining Bui cattle industry due to the crises affecting it has a spiral effect on crop cultivation in the area. The declining Bui cattle industry has a positive and negative effect on crop cultivation. On a positive note, the declining cattle industry has led to falling trends in the occurrence of farmer-grazier conflicts in the area. The number of farmer-grazier conflicts registered in the area have been reducing in response to the falling grazing activity, (table 9)

Table 9: Decline in the farmer-grazier conflicts in Bui Division from 2013 to 2017

Year	Number of farmer-grazier conflicts registered per sub-division						
	Mbven	Oku	Kumbo	Nkum	Jakiri	Noni	Total
2013	265	193	211	307	321	426	1723
2014	255	196	210	301	310	401	1673
2015	272	188	215	322	305	417	1719
2016	16	5	13	12	33	22	101
2017	10	4	8	9	26	8	65
Total	818	586	657	629	995	1274	5281

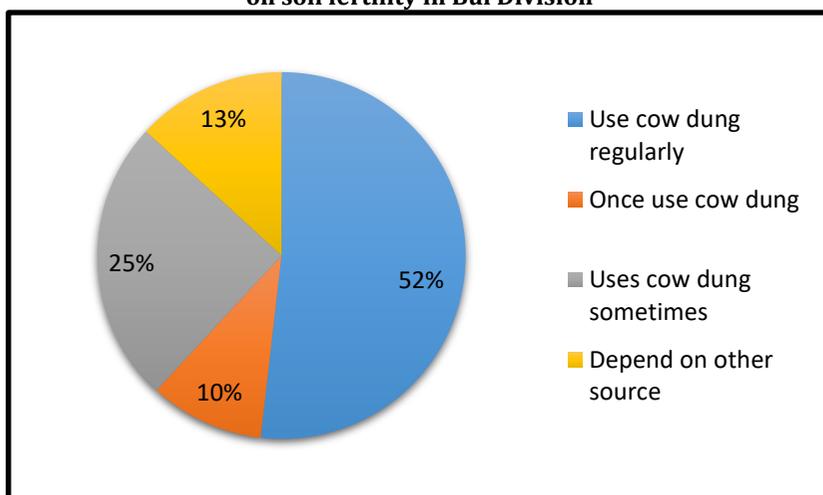
Source: Compiled from the six municipal councils in Bui Division

It can be observed on table 9 that from 2013 to 2015, the total number of farmer-grazier registered in Bui Division increased. As the crises affecting cattle grazing in the area deepens, the number of farmer-grazier conflicts recorded reduced drastically. The fall in the number of farmer-grazier conflicts is associated with decline in grazing. This has created a peaceful atmosphere for crop farmers to cultivate their crops. Furthermore, as many cattle graziers abandon grazing, some of the former graziers are joining crop cultivation in the area. The crises affecting the Bui cattle industry has thus led to falling trends in the number of farmer-grazier conflicts and also an increasing the population of crop farmers in the area.

On a negative note, the crises have led to falling crop productivity leading to food insecurity. There has been falling supply of cow dung (organic manure) on which many crop farmers depends on to enhance soil fertility. The farmers use rotational bush fallow system in the cultivation of the food crops. In this method, a farmer cultivates a piece of

land for 3-6 years and abandoned the farm to regain its fertility naturally while the farmer relocates to another farm. The farmers have permanent homes and thus during relocation to a new farm, farmers do not move with their belongings. The main indicator of low soil fertility which triggers relocation of crop farmers is dwindling of crop yields. Once farmers compare their output over the years and realize that it is reducing, the farmers seek for new farm sites elsewhere. A survey on the regularity of use of cow dung was carried out (figure 9)

Figure 9: Weighting of the use of cow dung by crop farmers to improve on soil fertility in Bui Division



Source: Field work, 2021

It can be observed on figure 9 that cow dung is a major source of manure to increase soil fertility in Bui Division. 62% of the 600 crop farmers who responded to the questionnaires use cow dung regularly while only 5% depend on other sources of manure. This illustrates the importance of cow dung to the crop farmers in the area.

The farmers obtain the cow dung from cattle through different methods. The various methods used by crop farmers to obtain cow dung include; night paddocking, purchase, peaceful negotiation with graziers to obtain the cow dung for free and from their paddocks for crop farmers who own cattle. The application of these methods varies across the six sub-divisions in the area

6.5 Impact of the decline of Bui cattle on Infrastructural Development

The Anglophone crises affecting the Bui cattle industry has a negative impact on roads construction and pipe borne water projects in the area. It should be noted that cattle grazing had encouraged the construction of some rural roads and pipe borne water projects to the benefit of the population. The Tadu Dairy Cooperative has constructed pipe borne water dams to supply water not only to its factory but also to surrounding areas. Taps have been installed in communities to reduce water crisis. These communities include; Mbowkinas (14 taps), Fahkui (15 taps), Tadu (7 taps), Tan, Mengu, Barare, Tarkan and Bamdzeng (5 taps each).

Some rural roads have also been constructed by the Tadu Dairy Cooperative and some other NGOs in the area such HEIFER. The aim of the road construction is to facilitate

the transportation of cattle and their products such as milk. Some of these rural roads include; Tadu-Fakui Road, Wainamah-Ntunir Road and the Vekovi-Tur Road. The six municipal councils in the area have also been actively involved in constructing and maintaining roads to link the grazing areas. Examples of these roads include the Tadu-Wainamah Road.

In a same vein, the electrification of some villages has been facilitated by the Tadu Dairy Cooperative. These are mainly villages under the small holder dairy development scheme. These villages include; Tadu, Vekovi, Kai and Takui.

However, as the Anglophone crises affecting Bui cattle industry deepens, the main agents behind the infrastructural development in the area have either suspended their activities or are now operating at less than 25% of its capacity. The decline in the activities of the Tadu Dairy Cooperative due to the crises affecting cattle grazing has a direct impact on the projects they either initiated or carried out already. The roads and water projects have been abandoned due to insecurity. The plans of expanding the projects have been suspended. The cooperative finds it difficult to pay its workers since they are no longer produce enough dairy products. As the number of cattle reduce in the area, the quantity of milk available for processing in the factories have also been dwindling. Similarly, investment projects carryout by the central government and municipal councils have not been fully executed in Bui Division due to the Anglophone crisis. The insecurity in the area scares away contractors from executing projects. This is particularly in the area of road construction, schools, water and electrification.

7. Government efforts to solve the Anglophone crisis

It should be noted that, to handle the Anglophone crisis which is one of the major challenges jeopardizing cattle grazing and the general functioning of economic activities in the North West and South West Region of Cameroon, the government has carried out the following:

- Granting most of the demands by the teachers and lawyers which were the immediate cause of the crisis. This included the recruitment of 1000 bilingual teachers in 2017 and redeployment of most French-speaking teachers from the government Anglo-Saxon schools.
- Creation of the National Commission for Bilingualism and Multiculturalism on the 23th of January 2017.
- Creation of a new bench for Common Law at the Supreme Court and new departments at the National School of Administration and Magistracy (ENAM) in March 2017.
- Holding of a Major National Dialogue between September 30th and October 4th 2019. The dialogue was aimed at discussed ways of solving the Anglophone crisis and other national issues.
- On the 24th of December 2019, the president of Cameroon, President Paul Biya promulgated the law to promote official languages in Cameroon, the law to institute the General Code of Regional and Local Authorities whose innovation was a special status granted to the North West and South Regions
- Decentralisation has also been accelerated in Cameroon. On the 7th of September 2020, President Paul Biya convened electors for the elections of Regional Councillors. The election took place on Sunday 6th of December 2020.
- Deployment of the military to fight separatists since 2016.

Despite the above measures put in place by the government to solve the Anglophone crisis, it has not ended. Insecurity still reigns in the area characterized by cattle theft, kidnappings and demand for huge ransoms and killing of people. This implies much still need to be done to solve the crisis and ensure a peaceful atmosphere for livestock production and cattle grazing in particular.

8. Recommendations

8.1 Diffusion of Improved Cattle Production Techniques

To sustain the Bui cattle industry and its productivity, intensive modern cattle production techniques practiced in Jakiri and Tadu should be extended to all parts of the area. This could include; opening of branches of the TDC or other graziers starting up a similar industry, extension of cross breeding and artificial insemination of cattle and opening of antennas of the Jakiri Veterinary School to all sub-divisions that make up the area. These efforts will lead to a gradual shift from extensive to intensive cattle production systems. It should be recalled that intensive production techniques are less vulnerable to some crises such as farmer-grazier conflicts and attack of cattle by diseases cattle theft. To achieve this diffusion, the government will also need to step in and improve on the transport network of the area. The few, narrow and seasonal roads linking Bui Division to other parts of Cameroon contributes in slowing down the diffusion of services that can boost the Bui cattle industry.

8.2 Alliance farming

The adoption of alliance farming can contribute to reduce farmer-grazier conflicts and also improves on soil fertility. Alliance farming involves arrangement between arable farmers and graziers in which both farmers benefit. As crop farmers harvest and evacuate their crops, graziers move into the farm with their animals on well-defined terms. The arable farmers and graziers consider each other in this method as brothers. In effect, this will reduce if not end completely the psychologically trauma the Fulanis are subjected to through stigmatization such as “foreigners”, “strangers” and “bush men”. Alliance farming can act as a uniting factor between the arable farmers and graziers. It can aptly be described as a win-win approach of handling farmer-grazier conflicts. The farmers benefit the cow dung which improves on the soil fertility thereby enhancing high output. The graziers on the other hand will use the farms for their grazing. Consequently *an alliance farming system* will be formed which will be beneficial to both farmers. This system reduces farmer-grazier conflicts and improves on soil fertility at the same time.

8.3 Organization of Dialogue Platform Regularly

A dialogue platform is a forum that brings together crop farmers, graziers and mediators to discuss and resolve conflicts between the crop farmers and graziers. It is a common ground for crop farmers and graziers to express their deep feelings on conflicts between themselves. Based on field findings, in areas where dialogue platforms had been organized such as Vun, farmer-grazier conflicts were reduced within five years after the meeting. It was after about five years that farmer-grazier conflicts started increasing in such areas. This study thus proposes regular organization of dialogue platform to ensure the resolutions of the forum remain fresh in the minds of the crop farmers and graziers.

The platform could be organized once annually based on the frequency of the occurrence of farmer-grazier conflicts in the area.

The divisional delegations of MINEPIA, MINADER, MINAT, MINJUSTICE and related bodies such as NGOs and other peace crusaders such as the Roman Catholic Church could be charged with duty to organize the dialogue platform in Bui Division. Conflict resolution experts and other related associations could be coopted to work with aforementioned bodies to ensure an effective dialogue platform is organized annually to resolve farmer-grazier conflicts in the area.

8.4 Government stepping up actions to solve the Anglophone crisis

All the resolutions of the major dialogue held in Yaoundé between September 30th and October 4th 2019 should be fully implemented. Another national dialogue involving leaders of the different factions such as the federalists and separatists could be convened to examine the crisis and propose more solutions. The Anglophone crisis is currently one of the main challenges plaguing the Bui cattle industry. Without a peaceful atmosphere, the Bui cattle industry is at the blink of collapsing.

Conclusion

The study, impact of Anglophone crisis on Bui cattle industry and implications on rural development has enabled us to draw some salient conclusions. Firstly, that the Bui cattle industry has huge natural and human potentials that if fully exploited will lead to rapid socio-economic development of the area and Cameroon at large. The climate, vegetation, drainage and relief of the area offer diverse opportunities for the Bui cattle industry. With a rapidly growing population at about 2.6% per annum; projected to be about 810,021 inhabitants in 2030, the natural endowment of the area can be exploited to provide jobs, revenue, protein, biogas and improvement on the transport network of the area. Secondly, that the Anglophone crisis is a major threat to socio-economic development of the area and Cameroon at large. Since 2016 that the crisis started, the Bui cattle industry has been on a persistent decline. The impact of the decline of this industry has largely been negative with extension on socio-economic development of the area. There has been rising unemployment, falling revenue generated from the cattle industry, suspension of investment projects and rising food insecurity in the area. If the aforementioned recommendations are applied, the Bui cattle industry will be rejuvenated thereby driving the socio-economic development of the area and Cameroon. However, if the current trends in the evolution of the industry continuous, the crises will reduce the Bui cattle industry to less than 10% of its current size resulting to poverty and other social ills.

References

1. Dongmo, J. (1981). *Le Dynamisme Bamiléké*. CEPER, Yaoundé .2vol.
2. Fanzo, V. (1989), *Cameroon History for Secondary Schools and Colleges, volume 2: The colonial and Post-Colonial Period*. London: Macmillan Publishers Limited, p.32
3. Fogwe, Z. (1997). *Landscape Degradation of the Kom Highland (North West Province, Cameroon): An Environmental Assessment*. Thesis of Doctorate de 3eme Cycle in Geography, University of Yaounde 1. p.41.
4. Fogwe, Z. N. (1990). *Ndop-Sabga Ggreat Erosional arc Physical Milieu, Land use and Erosional Risk*. Maitrise Dissertation, University of Yaounde.1. Pp. 115-125

5. Fondufe, S. (2011). *Bui Cattle Industry in Economic Development: Problems and Prospects*. PhD thesis Submitted in the Department of Geography in the University of Buea.
6. Fonjong, L., Sama-Lang, I., & Fombe, L. (2010). An Assessment of the Evolution of Land Tenure System in Cameroon and its Effects on Women's Land Rights and Food Security Perspectives on Global Development and Technology. *Global Journal of Social Sciences*. Vol. 22, p.227.
7. Haman, U. (2002). *Land use patterns and Conflicts between the Pastoralists and Crop Farmers: Case of Mezam Division, North-West Region, Cameroon*. Monograph University of Dschang, Cameroon. pp. 15-25.
8. Hardin, G. (1968). The Tragedy-of-the-Commons. *Science. New Series*. Vol.162.N^o 3859. American Association for the Advancement of Science, New York. pp.1243-1248.
9. Harsbarger, C. and NJI, A. (1991). Farmer-Grazier Conflicts in the Northwest Province of Cameroon. *Journal of Development Research*. Vol. 21, p. 187
10. MINEPIA, (1987/88). *Provincial Service of Animal Production and Industries Annual Report*. Northwest Province, Bamenda. Vol. 4.
11. MINEPIA, (1999/2000). *Bui Divisional Delegation, Annual Report on Livestock, Fisheries and Animal Industries: Development Strategy*. Cabinet Management, Yaoundé: Vol. 10
12. MINEPIA, (2015). *Annual Report of Livestock, 2015*, Yaoundé.
13. Nchinda, V. (2013). *Expert View. In Search of Common Ground for Farmer-Grazier Conflicts in the North West Region of Cameroon*. Vol.4
14. Ngalim, G. (2015). *Cattle Rearing Systems in the North West Region of Cameroon: Nkwemoh, C. Historical Trends on Changing Techniques and Strategies*. Master Dissertation in Geography, University of Buea. pp. 47-54
15. Ngwa, N. (1981). Settlement: Grazier or Agricultural land. A Confrontation of Interest in the North West Province of Cameroon. *Annual Faculty Letter*, N^o 10.
16. Nkor Council Development Plan, (2012). *Elaborated with the Technical and Financial support of National Community Driven Development Program*.
17. Nkum Council Development Plan, (2012). *Elaborated with the Technical and Financial support of National Community Driven Development Program*.
18. Ojuku, T. and Shey, D. (2020). Dynamics and impact of cattle grazing in Noni Sub-Division, North West Region of Cameroon. *African Journal of Social Science*, volume 11, Number 8, 2020. (p.147)
19. Tchawa P. (2002). Chains of Innovations by Farmers in Cameroon. In Farmer Innovations in Africa: A Source of Inspiration for Agricultural Development. *Earthscan Publications. Ltd London* pp104-209
20. Tchawa, P., Félix, N. & Jean-Marie, D. (2002). Participatory Technology Development in Cameroon: The Route and Milestone in the Process of its Institutionalization. Yaoundé, ETC ECOCULTURE.

WILLMOT'S AND KNIGHTS'S PERSPECTIVE ON LABOUR PROCESS ANALYSIS: SUMMARY AND DEBATE

Soufyane BADRAOUI

Associate Professor, PhD., Larbi Tebessi University, Tebessa (Algeria)

E-mail : Soufyane.badraoui@univ-tebessa.dz

Abstract: *The analysis of work as theory and practice occupies a central place in sociological, managerial and economic research and study. Marx's classic contributions are subject to criticism and even cognitive developments on the issue, where the evidence in the works of Braverman. Willmot and others represent a generation of scientists who reinforce the debate on the question; they have implanted pragmatic paths to overcome the LPT debate between Marxism and capitalism. Besides their important contributions about the theory in the fields of research on management and sociology of the work. This paper summary, review and explores arguments and debate on the labour process theory.*

Keywords: *LPT, Willmot, Knights, market, social dynamics, economics.*

1. Introduction

The power of human labour is presented as a construct on which production thorough capitalistic processes occurs. Human needs perpetuate the relevance of labour in that they ought to be satisfied to a substantial extent. The way labour power is shaped influences the dynamics of output in light of accumulating and utilizing capital. Giddens (1971) examines the Marxist framework in which labour is provided in exchange for a wage and holds that these labourers impoverish themselves because they sell their labor. With a view to this, the value of human labour is pertinent in the trajectory of development. Knights & Willmott (2016) examine the labour process and in turn, develops a thesis on the same. Furthermore, the authors put across arguments that are referential to the previous works on the relationship, integration, and divergence of various determinants such as human labour, policies, capital, market forces, and financial economics.

The dynamics of capitalist development are instrumental in the mystification present in the productive power of capital. Observably, the production matrix experiences revolutionalization there by eliminating the less fit and less efficient capitalists out of the market. The point at which interaction among capital and human labor is at optimum is when demand is reflective of the products or outputs. However, these elements seem to attract concerns in light of working class in the modern societies (Knights & Willmot, 2016). Referentially, this paper summary, review and explores arguments and debate on the labour process theory.

2. The authors' thesis and arguments

Knights and Willmot contend on the issue of labour from the craft industry. The way capital accumulates to levels of reorganizing the labour process is inclined to dynamics of monopoly capital. Essentially, a blend of technical skills, conceptual skills and subordination revitalizes the labour process. This concurs with the rigorous analysis that Braverman performs to establish that the production process is continuous so long as the

factors e.g. capital and labour have their place (Braverman, 1990). Furthermore, the authors adopt an interventionist approach regarding the strategy used in management. They distinguish the effect of managerial authority from the actual output by those involved. Seemingly, affirmations are given to support the idea of responsible autonomy, thereby creating a divergence from the functionalism of Marxist philosophy (Knights & Willmott 2016). The formulations by other sociologists form the foundation for extending the discussion through a thesis. In reference to Hassard et al. (2001), control of capitalist mechanisms in the market for the modern societies is dependent on the operations but not submissive to them.

The research questions are confined to deskilling, the capitalist labour market, and managerial strategies. A reconceptualization around these constructs brings a display of the arguments by the authors. The points of convergence and divergence from the works of sociologists can be explicitly identified. While Marx emphasizes the place of labour, Knights & Willmott (2016) contextualize the debate to bring on board the organizational structures and climate. Relatedly, labour power is differentiated from labour in that the former implies potentiality while the latter shows actualization. In questioning Braverman's view of Taylorite ideas, the researchers put across that the labour process paradigm leaves pertinent considerations. Notably, Taylorism implied that the pressures from the market be suppressed by adjusting the labour markets (Meiksins, 1994). Essentially, they affirm that it is the employer growing need to control the laborers in unrealistic ways, which are the origin of management in modern societies. Knights & Willmott question the rationality of management operations, place of labour prices in management, and the correlation between strategy and outcomes.

To substantiate the contentious issues raised against Taylorism, the authors imply that a focus on product market and inter capitalist competition. However, cognizance of linkages from labour problems, relations, and development need to be taken. In addition, inter-managerial competition is an area of concern in that ideologically, the market practices challenge the position and niche of other groups offering managerial authority (Friedman, 1990). Notably, the authors incline their arguments to the efficiency of production processes and determinants. Affirmatively, they put across that the management design and social structure of organizations are complementary and possess of symbiotic kind of existence (Willmott, 1990). This argument is further reinforced by their reflections on the utilitarian and normative progression of production-related activities. Furthermore, they propose that information is a foundation for managerial operations (Friedman, 1990). However, they question several perspectives such as physical separation which limits visual inspection, the congruence of manager's and subordinate's skills, and insulation of the production line. They focus on observability from the perspective of the manager.

The authors argue that the labour process theory can still provide a fertile general framework for understanding how work is organized in light of capitalism. They bring out the relevance of politics of production to show that synchronizations within the legislative regimes are elemental in the capitalistic concerns. While questioning the theoretical foundation, which was to large extent idealized by Braverman (1998), the authors support the propositions by Kelly and Garcia (1985). The issue of deskilling is exported in that it propels the control debate. With the aid of core theory which examines the formative inputs from sociologists e.g. Braverman and Friedman, the authors put across that the labour process is a central part of the experience of men in the economy. In addition, capital

revolutionizes the production process with a view to market mechanisms (Burrell, 1990). These points offer criticism to the earlier formulations, which in some tend to focus on actual labour, competition, and managerial strategies.

In concurrence with the ideology that labour process theory argues in favor of control imperative i.e. sub-regulation of labor process by factors beyond market mechanisms, the authors assert that managerial practices must be conceptualized to shield the overall structure (Edwards, 1990). Agreeably, the authors are at this point submissive to the concerns around differentiating the labour analysis and capitalistic production (Burawoy, 1990). However, they continue to assert that much focus is the process that leads to the two. The place of workers remains core in the author's main points he navigates through the giant intrigue of deskilling (Thompson, 1990). To ground this, the authors examine the conflicts arising from labour and capital. It brings in the aspect of social formations which operate under a mode of production, an evidence well discussed in many contributions (Taylor, 1974; Romagnolo, 1975; Gimenez, 2019). In addition, under the dynamics of production, organisation, and experiences of workers (Cole, 2019), authors of LPT agree with the call for orientations to manage conflicts at the workplace, where *"The new techniques allow management to rationalize knowledge and work, but not through obtrusive Taylorist and bureaucratic means, while mobilizing and manipulating the subjectivity of employees"* (Thompson, 2001).

3. Notes on the author's main points and arguments

Primarily, the work by the authors is built on strong foundations evident from the way they examines related formulations. The propositions made show factuality with a view to the labour process. For instance, the authors examine the ideologies conceptualized by other sociologists such as Marx, Braverman, and Friedman. The integration of these ideas reinforces the output from the author. Ideally, the authors employ a developmental approach to the concerns around labour and capital (Strinati, 1990). They sum up conclusions from various authors and in turn, makes a stance.

While much of the work revives around an examination of earlier formulations, I agree with them that capitalism regimes in modern societies should not sideline the traditional works e.g. craft. From a constructive angle, authors embrace the impressive contribution of sociologists. With the decoding the Braverman's perspectives, a grounded trajectory for the work is achieved. Encouragingly, the incorporation of totality productions relative to monopoly capitalism sets an inclination (Elger , 1979). They relatively focus on the holistic capital labour process.

However, it is observable that the interaction between labour, capital, and politics creates a flexible but wide framework to discuss modern capitalism. In my humble view, the authors fail to direct energy towards the aspect of control in that the arguments revolve around the politics of productions and managerial strategies. The assumptions that dominate many areas many concern future researchers due to their instrumentalism (Burawoy, 1990). For instance, a generalization that organizational structures are rigid is quite sensitive in making developments to this work. Furthermore, aspects of modernity in labour are not wholly encompassed in the discussion. As many critiques of Braverman ideologies hold, the working class in modern capitalistic societies attract pertinent concerns (Elger , 1979). This is because the working class influence capital which in turn restructures the labour process. There is discontentment in the railed considerations of employee relations at the workplace which may not necessarily be capitalistic (Meiksins,

1994). Regrettably, the authors do little to integrate this aspect alongside technology and practical application of the propositions. Despite this, the author has done great in exploring the dynamics of capitalist development.

4. Conclusions

The debate around labour is wide thus attracts inputs from different advancers of sociology. In this context, the authors look into capitalist development from diverse perspectives. The control of this process is attributed to the interaction of market forces, the revolutionization of labour markets, and capital accumulation. The authors extend the discussion to social formations that form part of the production line (Thompson, 1990). Agreeably, the authors do much in supporting the thesis while taking note of externalities. The way they have developed propositions through critiques and affirmations contributes to the relevance of the discussion. The contextual analyses of aspects within the labour process are transformative in the modern societies.

References

1. Braverman, H. (1998). *Labor and monopoly capital: The degradation of work in the twentieth century*. NYU Press.
2. Burawoy, M. (1990). *The politics of production*. London: Verso.
3. Burrell, G. (1990). Fragmented labours. In *Labour process theory*. Palgrave Macmillan, London. Pp. 274-296
4. Cole, M. (2019), Value-Form Theory and Labour Process Analysis , AFEP-IIPPE International Conference – Lille (3-5 July), https://afep-iippe2019.sciencesconf.org/data/pages/Details_v18.pdf
5. Edwards, P. K. (1990). Understanding conflict in the labour process: The logic and autonomy of struggle. In *Labour process theory*. Palgrave Macmillan, London. Pp. 125-152.
6. Elger, T. (1979). Valorisation and ‘deskilling’: a critique of Braverman. *Capital & Class*, 3(1), 58-99.
7. Friedman, A. (1990). Managerial strategies, activities, techniques, and technology: towards a complex theory of the labour process. In *Labour process theory*. Palgrave Macmillan, London. Pp. 177-208
8. Giddens, A. (1971). *Capitalism and modern social theory: An analysis of the writings of Marx, Durkheim and Max Weber*. Cambridge University Press.
9. Gimenez, M. E., & (2019). *Marx, Women, and Capitalist Social Reproduction*, Marxist-Feminist Essays, Publisher: Brill.
10. Hassard, J., Hogan, J., & Rowlinson, M. (2001). From labor process theory to critical management studies. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, 23(3), 339-362.
11. Kelly, M. P. F., & Garcia, A. M. (1985). The making of an underground economy: Hispanic women, homework, and the advanced capitalist state. *Urban Anthropology and Studies of Cultural Systems and World Economic Development*, 59-90.
12. Knights, D., & Willmott, H. (Eds.). (2016). *Labour process theory*. Springer.
13. Meiksins, P. (1994). ‘Labor and Monopoly Capital’ for the 1990s: a review and critique of the labor process debate. *Monthly Review*, 46(6), 45-60.

14. Romagnolo, D. J. (1975). II Imperialism and Dependency: The So-Called "Law" of Uneven and Combined Development. *Latin American Perspectives*, 2(1), 7–31.
15. Strinati, D. (1990). A ghost in the machine?: The state and the labour process in theory and practice. In *Labour Process Theory*. Palgrave Macmillan, London. Pp209-243.
16. Taylor, J. (1974). Neo-Marxism and Underdevelopment—A sociological phantasy. *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 4(1), 5-23.
17. Thompson, P. (1990). Crawling from the wreckage: The labour process and the politics of production. In *Labour process theory* (pp. 95-124). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
18. Thompson, P. (2001), Organizational Control, in: *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, Pages 10926-10930. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-043076-7/04224-8>
19. Willmott, H. (1990). Subjectivity and the dialectics of praxis: Opening up the core of labour process analysis. In *Labour process theory*. Palgrave Macmillan, London. Pp336-378.

PROVIDING DRUG USE TREATMENT IN ROMANIA AMONG CHILDREN WHO HAVE COMMITTED A CRIMINAL ACT AND DON'T HAVE CRIMINAL RESPONSIBILITY

Elena MANEA (MIRCEA)

Ph.D. Student, Doctoral School of Social Sciences and Humanities,
University of Craiova (Romania)

E-mail: maneaelena91@yahoo.ro

Abstract: *The connection between drug use and crime is studied and recognized by specialists in the field, but aspects of this relationship are even more worrying when we talk about juvenile drug users who have committed criminal acts and especially minors who don't have criminal responsibility. The phenomenon of juvenile delinquency is not a new one and over time, it has taken different forms, depending on the particularities of each era, the socio-economic situation and the cultural model. However, the opening of Romania's borders after the events of 1989, also meant the opening to illicit drug consumption, a phenomenon that represented a novelty element for Romania and that is becoming more obvious in our society. The need to protect the delinquent drug user may seem, at the level of common sense, a paradox, but a juvenile drug user who has committed a criminal offense may become a future delinquent adult with serious drug addiction's problems. However, precisely by protecting the minor who has used drugs and committed an illicit act and with early intervention, that child has a chance to become a responsible adult, with values and basic rules related to the society in which he lives. The difficult subject of minors who commit crimes but don't have criminal culpability is covered in this article. The legal standards, methodological regulations and instructions related to the particular intervention to (re)integrate young drug users who committed a crime but did not have criminal responsibility are examined.*

Keywords: *juvenile delinquency; child protection; drug use treatment; substance use; policy*

1. Theoretical framework

1.1. Definitions, classifications and types of drugs

Drugs are natural or synthetic substances, licit or illicit, used by consumers for the action they have on the psyche, either as inhibitors or as stimulants of mental activity. Drugs change sensations, perceptions, thinking, attention, will and imagination, generating disorders in the emotional, emotional and behavior of those who use them (Abraham and Ţuca, 2012: 6). The World Health Organization (1994, p. 34) defines the drug as a substance in solid, liquid or gaseous form, the use of which becomes habitual and directly affects the nervous system and the brain, changing the feelings, thinking, perception, mood and / or state of consciousness of infidelity and distorting the image of the surrounding reality

Addiction is a result of regular drug use, and is represented by the consumer's desire and need to administer drugs constantly. The physical dependence manifests in the form of a pathological condition and consists in the body's need to use drugs, in order to avoid disorders that occur with the cessation of substance use (withdrawal syndrome / servitude). Psychological dependence (desire) is manifested by changes in behavior,

accompanied by the compelling desire to consume, in order to remove the mental discomfort produced or to obtain a state of well-being (Abraham and Ţuca, 2012: 7).

As it was given in the ranks previous, drugs can be represented by any type of substances that can affect on the body. The delimitation is made between two types of drugs:

- the licit ones (nicotine, alcohol and caffeine);
- illicit drugs on the territory of Romania, which will be presented in the following lines.

According to the Romanian legislation, drugs are plants and substances drugs or psychotropic or mixtures containing plants and substances entered the tables no. I-III of Law no. 143/2000 regarding prevention and fight trafficking and consume illicit drug, that are substances under national control. Those include high risk drugs, that include heroin, MDMA, cocaine, LSD, etc. and risk drugs, among which we find cannabis (art. 1., Law no. 143/2000).

Illicit drugs may vary depending on the effects they have on the nervous system, due to their composition. In other words, each substance acts differently, and the sensation that the consumer feels under the influence of psychoactive substances are, therefore, different:

- Cannabinoids (marijuana, hashish) represents probable the most popular drug worldwide. Cannabis Sativa is the only species from which they are obtained psychoactive preparations for human consumption. THC and his metabolites are the main ones responsible for the effects cannabis products. Effects take 60 minutes, and consumers states a state of relaxation in this time. It was observed the fact that in humans, after many weeks of consumption in large doses and with administration of each four hours, interruption suddenly provoked irritability, restlessness, insomnia, loss in the weight and temperature increase (Cicu, Georgescu and Moldovan, 2007: 167-172);

- Opiates are substances that have properties similar to opium and morphine. In the year 1898 was synthesized diacetylmorphine, known and under the name of heroin. Opiates effects are in mainly on the central nervous system and on intestinal tract. Immediately effects declared by consumers are a state of relaxation and euphoria. The acute abstinence syndrome (withdrawal) is between 12 and 24 hours after the last consumption (Cicu, Georgescu and Moldovan, 2007: 48);

- Stimulants (cocaine, amphetamines, synthetic drugs-MDMA, etc.) have the effect of producing alert sensations, improving intellectual return, energy, feeling of diminished fatigue, having effects between 1 and 3 hours (and cocaine 20 minutes). At the disappearance of the pleasure effects, may be a feeling of decline, having exactly the reverse effects previously described: depression, fatigue, irritability, drowsiness (Cicu, Georgescu and Moldovan, 2007: 95);

- Hallucinogens produce change on perceptions, especially on visual perceptions, from distortions and illusions, even true hallucinations. Effects of the psychic are notable and there is an avalanche of ideas and difficulty in the expression them. The person feels that minds drop the body and that there is a union of the ego with the Universe. Consumers call this one "trip" experience. They were described cases of serious injury and even and death in subjects who believed that in the time of their " journey " can fly and they threw themselves out of the window. Besides, they can appear and so - called "bad trips" that can cause a sensation intense fear, anxiety and even and panic (Cicu, Georgescu and Moldovan, 2007: 147-154);

- Sedatives, hypnotics and anxiolytic are psychotropic substances, which are issued with a medical prescription. They are capable to change mental or affective functions. Psychotropic substances include medicines and also drugs of abuse. Anxiolytic substances (benzodiazepines and buspirone) and hypnotics can be addictive and with abusive consumption, can induce psychiatric disorders in the intoxication period or in the abstinence period. They are used in the treatment of anxiety disorders and in the panic disorders, like antidepressants (Cicu, Georgescu and Moldovan, 2007: 191);

- New psychoactive substances (NSP's), known in Romania as "ethnobotanicals" or "legal drugs". These substances are divided in the two categories: mixtures of chemicals and plants for smoking and powder mixtures, that can be injected or snuffed. Substance use of new psychoactive substances can determine serious health problems, materialized through: loss of appetite, decrease in the weight, personality disorders, physical exhaustion, etc. Also, after a while and depending on the frequency of consumption and the of administration, these substances can cause the consumer's death (Botescu, 2011: 10-11).

1.2. Deviance and juvenile delinquency

Deviance can be defined as a non-normative behavior that, if it is detected, can be subject to formal or even informal sanctions. Sociologists have defined deviance as being any type of behavior that the majority of a group find it as unacceptable. Deviants are those who engage in behavior that don't follow the norms in an approved direction, in a sufficient level to exceed the tolerance limits of a social group (Jenness and Goodman, 2006: 135). Deviance is everything that contradicts the public image of the "normal". Therefore, no deviant conduct can be defined, except through the cultural norms of a certain society (Rădulescu, 2004: 83-84).

Delinquency is considered to be a form of deviance. The Romanian sociologists, Dan Banciu and Sorin M. Rădulescu (2002, p.37), appreciate that juvenile delinquency and a special form of deviance, and the notion designates a behavioral disorder, representing the minors that find themselves in conflict with the norms of coexistence socially accepted. Shaping the moral of the minor is dependent on primary experiences primary which he appropriated, in his family at first, after which in school, in the group of friends, that may significantly influence its formation and behavior, but his moral conscience as well. According to the Romanian Criminal Code in force, a 14-year-old child has no criminal responsibility (Romanian Criminal Code, art. 113). Also, the deed provided by the criminal law committed by a minor, who at the date of its commission did not meet the legal conditions to be criminally liable, is not imputable (Romanian Criminal Code, art. 27). The age of the criminal responsibility can be between 14-16 years, only if it is found that the minor who committed the criminal act acted with discernment, and in accordance with article 113 of the Romanian Criminal Code, he is criminally responsible after the age of 16.

Regarding children who commit crimes but are too young to be considered criminally responsible, Romanian legislation provides that the legal representatives (parents or legal guardians) to be the first to carefully supervise the child, to assure a well development and pass moral values and sociable fundamental. With other words, the parents are the ones who have to deal with the child's growth and model his behavior. In the absence of the parents, their extended family is called and, as the last solution, it appeals to the community services (specialized services and institutions).

2. Statistical data on drug use among minors and juvenile delinquency

According to the National Antidrug Report, in Romania, in 2020, in a proportion of 9.1% (313 individuals), the clients of drug treatment services are minors. Most of them declared cannabis as the main drug of use (67.1%), while 24.3% of them were in treatment services due to the problems caused by the consumption of new psychoactive substances. The rest of the minors admitted for treatment are consumers of inhalants or solvents — 1.6%, heroin — 1.6%, cocaine — 0.6% and amphetamines — 1%, methamphetamine - 0.6%, ecstasy — 1%. More than a quarter (27%) of minors admitted for treatment started taking drugs before they turned 15, with the lowest declared age of starting using drugs being 4 years. The most common route of administration of the main drug was smoking / inhalation (91.3%), this being in direct correlation with the type of drug consumed (cannabis and new psychoactive substances). Among the minor beneficiaries, however, are 1.6% who declared the administration of the drug by injection. Almost 9 out of 10 minors admitted for drug treatment used these kinds of services for the first time (86.3%), being referred to them mostly by research bodies (45%). In similar proportions, juvenile drug turned to specialized services on the initiative of family or friends (22%) or at the urging of other medical or social services (19.4%), here including minors referred by the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection* (Agenția Națională Antidrog, 2021: 91)

Regarding the prevalence of drug use among the 16-year-old's who attend school in Romania, according to the results of the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs, realized by the National Anti-drug Agency in partnership with the Ministry of Education, in 2019, the lifetime prevalence of any illicit drug is 12.4% (Agenția Națională Antidrog, 2020: 11).

According to the Romanian Police data, from the totality of the individuals investigated in the files that were declined to the prosecutor's office, in 2021, there were involved in criminal acts 6292 minors, from which 740 were under 14 years old. In 2020, there were involved 6567 minors, from which 703 were under 14 years old, and in the year 2019, 837 children under 14 years old out of 8622 minors (<https://www.politiaromana.ro/ro/utile/statistici-evaluari/statistici>). As can it be seen, with small variations and taking into account the pandemic context of the years 2020 and 2021, which generated restrictions of freedom of movement through the imposed lockdown measures, the number of minors under 14 years old in recent years involved in criminal acts is almost the same and did not change very much - 740 in 2021, 703 in 2020 and 837 in 2019.

3. Romanian legislation, internal procedures and guidelines regarding the child who has committed a criminal act and has no criminal responsibility

3.1. Romanian legislation regarding the child who has committed a criminal act and has no criminal responsibility

The Romanian Family Code (Art.97) specifies the fact that both parents have the obligation to exercise their parental rights in the best interest of their child. In Article 1 of the Romanian Family Code, it is provided the fact that State support's the family consolidation and development, through economic and social measures. From this point of view, non-granting any kind of support (material, financial, informative) for the family, and especially for needed families and those who are found in difficult situations, those issues reflect on the children, and this aspect can lead to social exclusion sociable and juvenile delinquency.

Law 272/2004 regarding protection and promotion of children's rights is Romania's main law for the field of child protection. The protection measures of the children who are in need: placement, placement in the emergency regime or specialized oversight (art. 59, Law 272/2004).

Chapter V is dedicated to the protection of the child who committed a criminal act and does not have criminal responsibility. Law 272/2004 (Art.84, Paragraph 1) provides the fact that in case in which a child under 14 years of age, or in the case a child who has up to 16 years and has no discernment, responsible for the measures that must establish is the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection* in whose territorial unit lives the child. Measures that must be taken in this case are: placement and oversight specialized. It is considered that the minor who has no criminal responsibility and committed an illegal act does not have the ability to realize the social consequence social of his deeds, and he is very easy to influence and handling (UNICEF, 2006: 89).

According to Art. 84, Paragraph 2 of Law no. 272/2004, the Child Protection Commission is authorized to establish the protection measures are the members of (in case in which it exists the legal representative's agreement), or of the court (in case that the agreement of the child is missing). When the protection measures are established, there must be taken in account the level of social danger of the committed deed, the environment in which the child grew, the conditions that favored committing the deed, and also, the risk of repeating the commission of an act provided by criminal law.

In the time in which surveillance measures are established, the minor will remain in the family but, conditioned to follow some obligations such as: attendance school courses, ban on attending some seats or ban on having any kind of connection with certain people (in case in which these places / people can influence their behavior in a negative way), attendance of day services (in which specialists can supervise evolution), attendance of counseling sessions, psychotherapy or medical treatments, etc. (Art.85, Paragraph 1, Law 272/2004). According to UNICEF (2006, p.91), the child's obligations must be established depending on the particularities of each case in the part, through the conclusion's reports prepared by the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection*. These obligations are not a standard, and the specialist that decides on these measures has the possibility to impose any other obligations, obviously in the law conditions law which guarantees the child's protection.

Also, in case in which maintenance in the family is not possible, or in the case in which the child does not fulfill the established obligations, there is the possibility to order the placement in the child's extended or substitute family (Law 272/2004, Art.85, Paragraph 2).

At the same time, in the cases in which the deed committed by the child presents an advanced level of social danger, it is ordered investment of the child in a residential specialized unit, for a determined and as much as possible, limited period of time, according to art. 86 (Law 272/2004). This type of measure is considered to be a drastic one, which consists in removing the child from his family. That is why this type of measure must be taken as the last alternative and only after a careful and meticulous analysis of the case, taking into account his superior interest, but also how the family determine the social, mental and emotional development of the child (UNICEF, 2006: 93).

These services have as objectives prevention and fight of deviance behavior of minors, education in the spirit of respect towards moral values, towards society and the law, raising children's awareness to the factors which can affect their good development

and, depending on the case, school, social or family reintegration. To achieve these objectives, services can organize counseling sessions (individual and group) and psychotherapy sessions (individual and group), according to art. 4 of Decision no. 1439 of September 2, 2004, regarding specialized services for the child who has committed a criminal offense and has no criminal responsibility.

These services for children who have committed a criminal act and are not criminally liable may be: residential services and specialized day care centers (guidance centers, who ensure supervision and support for the child's social reintegration), as well as family-type services that have the obligation to organize a specifically training for the persons or families who are in difficulty, aiming to ensure the projection the child who committed criminal acts criminal doesn't have the age of criminal responsibility (Decision no. 1439/2004, Art.5-7).

Romanian codes, laws and regulations in this sector serve as a model for the activity of the specialists, representing also the basis for the professionals whom working the juvenile justice and the child protection sector, with the children who committed a criminally act and are not criminally liable. Regulations promote the image of a child who has committed crimes due to sociocultural and economic factors, a child who can be rehabilitated, re-educated and not punished, so that he can become a responsible adult. In addition, regulations specify the important role of the specialists that are working in the sector of the social rehabilitation of children and the importance of the specialist's in studying the factors that determined the child to commit a criminal act, but also analyzing the child's environment, his interactions with the important people in his life and how those people influenced his delinquent behavior.

3.2. The procedure in the case of a child who committed a criminal act, but don't have criminal responsibility

Procedures in the case of a child who committed a criminal offence, but is not criminally liable, must take into account the protection of the mental, physical and moral development of the minor and the action in his superior interest. As said before, according to the Romanian Criminal Code a 14-year-old child has no criminal responsibility and the age of the criminal responsibility can be between 14-16 years, only if it is found that the minor who committed the criminal act has discernment; and after the age of 16, he has criminal responsibility. Discernment is established by forensic institutions (Alexandrescu and Muntean, 2005: 143). Even thus, police must begin the criminal investigation of the crime committed by the minor who has no criminal liability. Also, police has the obligation to notify the Prosecutor's Office. The police identify the perpetrators, take statements from them and from witnesses and draws up the report on the circumstances in which the deed took place. The prosecutor assists in carrying out the criminal investigation acts or performs them personally. The police must contact the social services if they have not identified the child's parents, or, as the case may be, his legal guardians. Minors are assisted in hearings by a social worker (Duță, Dumitru, Fiscuci, et al., 2009: 11-46). He has the obligation to accompany the minor to ensure that his rights are respected, that he has been actively listened to and that breaks have been taken to narrate the incident. The specialist must also take into account to eliminate the factors that may cause stress or fear to child, informing the minor about the purpose of his hearing and the perception of the prosecutor and police officers as having a benevolent attitude and understanding. The social worker who accompanies the child to the hearings must ensure that the authorities have taken into

account the particularities of the minor's age, asked appropriate questions and created a favorable climate (Luca and Pivniceru, 2009: 16-22).

„Failing to meet the conditions to be criminally liable, the prosecutor notifies the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection*, which is responsible institution regarding the correction of the delinquent behaviors of the minors” (Duță, Dumitru, Fiscuci, et al., 2009, 14-15). It proposes, within a maximum of 30 days, the establishment of a measure, through the Commission for Child Protection, if there is the consent of the parents, or the courts, if there is no parental consent. The multidisciplinary team re-evaluates, once every 3 months, the case and proposes modification, maintenance or the end of the protection measure that has been given (Alexandrescu and Muntean, 2005, 145). After receiving the request for the establishment of the protection measure, specialists from the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection* have the obligation to draw up an Individualized Protection Plan, giving priority to keeping the child in the family (Duță, Dumitru, Fiscuci, et al., 2009: 25). Any type of decision or action relating the protection of a child who is in this situation, must consider the permanent contact of the children with their family.

3.3. Measures and services that are provided in order to protect a child who committed a criminal offence, but is not criminally liable

The services are provided within the case management. Case management in social work is a method of coordination and integration of social and educational services and medical, management and organization of specific interventions carried out by specialists from the multidisciplinary team (Cojocatu and Cojocaru, 2008: 24). According to *Order no. 288/2006 for the approval of the Mandatory Minimum Standards on case management in the field of child rights protection*, the case manager is designated by the Director of the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection*. The case manager collaborates with the other case managers from the special protection services, these being represented by the specialists from the residential services.

Once a case is identified, a detailed assessment of the child's situation is made, following which the services are planned and interventions. In case a minor protection measure has been instituted for the minor, an Individualized Protection Plan is drawn up, and in case it is established keeping the children in the family, but they need prevention services, the Service Plan is made. The two plans made are detailed and operationalized in the Specific Intervention Plan, which provides for the provision of services targeting both the child and parents or any other person important to the child. During all this time, in order to achieve the aims of the Specific Intervention Plan, the progress of the registration is monitored and re — evaluated. The case is closed if the objectives have been achieved and the finalities proposed within the established intervention plan (Cojocaru and Cojocaru, 2008: 27).

The measure of placing the minor in the extended family or with a foster parent is a temporary one. Likewise, the placement of the minor in a residential service is also a temporary one. The application of the specialized supervision measure is ordered if is possible to keep the minor into his family (Law 272/2004, Art. 85).

The services provided to the child who has come into conflict with the criminal law, but is not criminally liable are the day services, the family type services and the residential type services (Duță, Dumitru, Fiscuci, et al., 2009: 21-86):

- The day services — which are materialized in counseling centers, support centers for parents, day centers and monitoring services, centers for guidance and support of the minor's social reintegration, ensuring the development and recovery of the child and his family. Day services target minors who have been placed in specialized supervision. Access to these services is based on the Individualized Protection Plan, mentioned above. Day services target children who have remained in the family of origin, providing recreational and social activities for children, school guidance, psychological counseling and rehabilitation of minors, of course, with the support of parents. The day centers draw up for each child a program for the development of social life skills, make up educational programs at individual and group level with the aim of learning the rights, but also obligations citizens. Also, within the day centers are organized school courses, meant to support children in the educational process, but also health education courses, children getting to better understand the elements of a healthy life, but also the consequences of negative practices, such as alcohol consumption and hallucinogenic substances, smoking, lack of hygiene and other negative practices;

- Family-type services — which aim at the temporary placement of the child in families. These type of services also ensure the maintenance of the child's relations with the family of origin or with other relevant persons in his life, except for the situations in which the parents or persons may endanger an harmonious development of the minor;

- Residential services – have the responsibility to provide accommodation, food and hygienic conditions for the child, enrollment in the education system in case the minor is deprived of education, providing medical assistance, providing opportunities to spend free time, ensuring minors' access to information, ensuring their participation group activities, but also the provision of individualized programs, adapted to their needs. Residential services support the development of the minor's social life skills, plan educational activities in groups or individually, and are informed that any rights they have, automatically involve a responsibility and provide counseling and psychotherapy. It is also supported to keep in touch with parents and other persons important to the child, in so far as they do not constitute a danger in order to achieve the purpose of the measure ordered.

3.4. The relationship of the professional with the minor who committed a criminal act, but who is not criminally liable

Juvenile delinquency is often accompanied by aggressive behavior, lying, theft, a tendency to destroy and defy. In many cases they can affect the well-being of society, but also the inner well-being (Butler and Kerfoot, 1992: 58). Any attempt to rehabilitate minors who are in conflict with criminal law consists in presenting the reasons why that act was disapproved by society (Canton and Eadie, 2004: 215). Interventions in cases of minors who committed a criminal offense and are not criminally liable must address the multiple causes of his antisocial behavior. All specialists involved must take into account three essential aspects: the need of reintegration services, the need for individualized treatment, adapted to the child's situation and the need for continuity in changing the child's needs (Lager and Mather, 2000: 238). Representing a profession that promotes social justice and the protection of human rights of both victims and perpetrators, social work has the role of combating the destructive impacts of delinquency (Coggins, Holley and Vakalahi, 2001: 91). From here, it is easy to understand the paradox of the idea of protecting a child who has an antisocial behavior.

If the specialist is approached by the parent or the legal guardian, it means that he is aware and quite worried about the child's situation. This may also indicate that the situation has been going on for some time and that the parent has tried to apply some form of control over this type of behavior, but has failed (Butler and Kerfoot, 1992: 62).

According to Lager and Mather (2000, 238-260), there are 5 stages in working with juvenile delinquents, the authors highlighting the importance of a strong and warmth, but firm relation between the professional and the minor:

-The first stage of the intervention is represented by the immediate establishment of a relationship with the minor and as far as possible with the family, or as the case may be, his legal guardians. This relationship must be one based on warmth, authenticity, empathy, mutual respect and trust. Also, according to Berg (1994, 58-59), the professional must have a series of skills to be able to build this relationship. He must have an open mind and even try to transpose himself into the person of the delinquent child in order to understand him. It is also essential that the specialist knows what is important for the child. The client, in turn, must know the expectations that the specialist has from him, expectations that must be realistic and in accordance with the present reality of the child. Always with a warm, friendly voice and a positive attitude, the specialist must find in the child's past his successes, accentuate them and discover how he succeeded. The professional must avoid controversy and be prepared to apologize for any kind of mistake or misunderstanding he or she causes. Paradoxically, but this gives credibility and strength to the relationship that the specialist builds with the minor.

-The second stage is to assess the situation briefly and concisely, on all levels with which the child interacts, such as members of the nuclear family, extended family members, school, group of friends, ways of spending free time or any other relevant aspect of his life. In working with a minor who has committed criminal acts but is not criminally liable, the professional has the responsibility to explore the child's universe and its situation from the perspective of the ecological system. The main objective is to ensure a comprehensive assessment of the major areas with which the minor intersects, the influence of those areas on him. Data can be collected from several sources: from the child, from his family, from the group of friends, neighbors, etc. The professional's own observations are also relevant.

-The third stage is the intervention plan. The professional focuses on the strengths of the different systems with which the child interacts, but also on his strengths. Once the problems and needs of the minor are identified, the professional elaborates a plan to solve the problems. The minor and his family must be assured that the professional has the best intentions.

- The fourth stage of the the intervention is the implementation of the. The specialist continuing to apply his interviewing skills. His intervention must focus on the multiple determinants of delinquent behavior, ensuring the provision of services in the child's natural environment. The professional can address directly the intrapersonal factors, but also the systemic factors, represented by the family, the school, the group of friends, anything can influence the delinquent behavior of the minor. Because these factors may act differently from one child to another, the intervention must be individualized and flexible. A major goal is to empower parents with skills and the resources needed to independently address the difficulties that arise in educating children. The specialist must provide individual counseling, which focuses on personal, family and family issues school, always ready to provide support, feedback and encouragement for behavior change. Also, the

orientation of the child towards a psychotherapist must be taken into account , the latter being specialized in psychodynamic therapy , representing the promotion of insight , the expression of feelings; client-centered therapy or cognitive-behavioral therapy, by understanding dysfunctional behavior.

-The fifth stage is the evaluation of the results and the conclusion of the rehabilitation process of the juvenile delinquent. The conclusion of this process should be a decision taken by mutual agreement between the profesional and his client. Last but not least, in the last stage, the profesional must take into account the perspective of the systems that can continue to support the child. As for the family , it should be aimed at a target group facing the same problems

4. Romanian legislation, internal procedures and guidelines regarding minor drug user's treatment

4.1. Romanian legislation regarding minor drug user's treatment

The Romanian Law 272/2004 has only one chapter dedicated to the protection of children against drugs, which is article 93. According to this article, the child has the right to be protected against illicit use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances and that it is forbidden to sell solvents to children, without the consent of the parent or another legal representative. Also, art. 93 states that The *National Anti-Drug Agency*, in collaboration with the *Ministry of Labor, Family, Social Protection and the Elderly* and other authorities, has the obligation to take appropriate measures for: preventing the use of children in the illicit production and trafficking of these substances; raising the awareness of the general public and of children on this issue; supporting children and their families, through counseling and guidance- if necessary, of a confidential nature, but also through the development of policies and strategies to ensure the physical and mental recovery and social reintegration of drug addicted children; further development of systems for collecting real data on the occurrence of drug use in children, as well as on their involvement in the production and illicit trafficking of drugs and the development of a public information system that reduces tolerance in terms of drug use and helps to recognize the first symptoms of drug use, especially among children.

Also, the *Decision of the President of the National Anti-Drug Agency no. 16/2006 for the approval of the Mandatory Minimum Standards on case management in the field of drug user assistance* has only one chapter who is addressed to children. Chapter III states that, in case of a child's evaluation for inclusion in an integrated assistance program, the case manager collaborates or ensures the collaboration with the *General Directorates of Social Assistance and Child Protection*. Also, if the minor for whom the prosecutor ordered the assessment did not reach the age of 16, the case manager requests the participation of delegate guardianship as well as the parents or legal guardian at any meeting for the assessment. In case the prosecutor requests the evaluation of a minor, the case manager collaborates with the body that carries out the social investigation ordered by the criminal investigation body. Also, it must be mentioned that the provisions of the Standards of the National System of Psychological and Social Medical Assistance of Drug Consumers in Romania (2005) does not address to minors.

4.2. Romania's methodology on adolescent's drug user's treatment

Given the lack of guidelines and standards in the field of juvenile drug users in general, and juvenile drug users that committed a criminal act and don't have the age of

criminal responsibility, in particular, in 2016, through an effort of non-governmental institutions and organizations with responsibilities in the field, a methodology has been launched. The target group of the methodology are minors and adolescents using drugs, or at risk of drug use, designed to provide specific guidelines to specialists and practitioners who come into contact with minors.

The methodology is addressed to adolescents between the ages of 10 and 18 that use drugs, including rare drug use situations in children under 10 years of age. Unlike adults who use drugs and who can turn to specialized services on their own, adolescents in the same situation can access these services only with the consent and direct involvement of their parents / legal representative. For this reason, it is important to identify them actively and as early as possible, before they become addicted and suffer from the consequences of drug use (ARAS and UNICEF, 2006, 14). The methodology provides for the provision of services adapted to the needs of minors, such as: medical services (mental health centers, pediatric/detoxification departments of hospital type and emergency units), psychological services (that may be provided in specialist outpatient clinics, mental health services, social services and independent forms of practice), social services (without accommodation, such as the Center of Prevention, Assessment, and Antidrug Counselling/day centers, or with accommodation, such as residential centers type or therapeutic communities) and educational services (educational and extracurricular activities).

The methodology provides the necessary framework for the provision of integrated assistance services to consumers cases, by involving all institutions and, as the case may be, professionals who can, through their activity, come into contact with juvenile drug users, whether they have committed or not, criminal acts. The methodology proposed by ARAS and UNICEF (2006, pp. 13-27) describe the following steps for assuring specialized treatment:

The pre-treatment stage:

- Active Identification: in schools (observing students' behavior), by Family doctors (through the annual health examination, for the cases of those who do not attend school) and by any of the professionals who come into contact with the adolescent in the services, being observed if possible behavioral changes / signs of drug use;
- Passive identification: at the direct request (of the adolescent or his legal representative)

In the case of the minor who addresses to the services alone, he or she will be registered based on his personal identification number. In this first meeting, information will be provided and also, a motivation and support session take place, so that at the next session, the minor is accompanied by the legal representative. If the adolescent does not return to the next scheduled meeting, is going to be notified the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection*.

The stages of providing services are:

1. Carrying out the assessment;
2. Planning the assistance — setting the Individualized Plan of Assistance;
3. Providing the services specified in the Individualized Plan of Assistance;
4. Monitoring and evaluation of the plan;
5. Social (re)integration — psychological, social and educational services must take into account the development of independent living skills, including social skills,

motivation and the ability to learn and take on responsibilities appropriate to their age and situation. Regarding the school reintegration, the aim is to ensure a limited circuit of information as possible on user's behavior, in order to avoid exposing the adolescent to forms of violence or labeling.

Situations that are subject to the *General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection* intervention are for the street children, for the children who have disabilities, children who are victims of abuse and for those who require or have special protection measures, here including the juvenile offenders who don't have criminal responsibility.

5. Conclusions

Both the legislator and the authorities and non-governmental organizations involved in the field have taken measures to ensure the normative and methodological framework in the field of treatment and socio-educational (re)integration of drug users who have committed a criminal act, but also the establishment models of good practice in the field and guidance of specialists in dealing with adolescents at risk.

However, as it has been observed from the analysis of the legislation norms and methodologies, the provision of treatment for drug users who committed criminal acts and have no criminal liability can be achieved only by merging separate regulations. Also, very important, as highlighted by the methodology for juvenile drug users, is the collaboration between institutions and NGO's working in the child protection sector and those working in the field of drug addiction treatment. Dealing with a complex issue (drug use and delinquent behavior) of a child who is in full formation of moral and social values, the intervention must also be complex and multisectoral, providing integrated services (medical, psychological, social and educational) in order to meet the multiple needs of the child.

Also, in addition to the working procedures and normative aspects, the relationship of the specialists with the children they work with is very important. Children are not interested in the procedural aspects, but they need to feel an authentic, well-intentioned and firm relationship with the specialist, otherwise there is a high risk that the child refuses the cooperation with him and therefore, the whole process can be lost. At the same time, collaboration between the specialists (social worker, doctor, psychologist, educator, occupational therapist, etc.) involved is imperative, in order to ensure of the multiple needs of the beneficiary and adapt or change the services provided when the situation requires it.

However, the difficulty of accessing this target group should be highlighted. The young drug user who has committed a criminal act, but has no criminal liability, can be obliged to attend counseling sessions, psychotherapy or medical treatments, only through Law 272/2004. For parents who are really involved and concerned about raising and educating their child, but who are overwhelmed by the situation in which their child entered, it is also very important to receive support to develop their parenting skills, so that they will not be found in the paradoxical situation to be considered that they were neglecting their own children, only in view of the fact that they could not cope with his behavior.

Therefore, beyond the services that are provided for the treatment of the child drug user who has committed a criminal act, but is not criminally liable, the prevention component is very important. This component is imperative to be realized, for all parents, regardless of their social level, in order to create from the beginning a harmonious

relationship with their child, but from which the child can understand the meaning of the rules and limits and consequences that may arise when they exceed certain limits.

References:

1. Abraham, P. (coord.), Țuca, E.C. (2012). *Despre droguri de la A la Z. Ghid practic de prevenire și informare în domeniul adicțiilor*, Bucharest: Oscar Print
2. Agenția Națională Antidrog, (ANA). (2005). *Standardele sistemului național de asistență medicală, psihologică și socială a consumatorilor de droguri*
3. Alexandrescu, G., and Muntean D. (2005). *Drepturile copilului. Între principii și realitate*, Bucharest, Salvați Copiii Organization
4. Banciu, D., and Rădulescu, S. (2002). *Evoluții ale delincvenței juvenile în România-Cercetare și prevenire socială*, Bucharest: Lumina Lex
5. Berg, I.K. (1994). *Family based services. A solution-focused approach*, New York: W.W. Norton&Company
6. Botescu, A. (2011). *Evaluarea riscurilor asociate consumului de substanțe noi cu proprietăți psihoactive în rândul copiilor și tinerilor din România*, Bucharest: Alpha MDN
7. Butler, A., and Kerfoot, M. (1992). *Problems of childhood and adolescence*, London: MacMillan
8. Canton, R. and Eadie, T. (2004). *Social Work with young offenders: Practising in a context of ambivalence*, în Lymbery M., Butler S., (coord), *Social work ideals and practice realities*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 200-221
9. Cicu, G., Georgescu, D., and Moldovan, A. (2007). *Concepte de bază privind tulburările datorate consumului de substanțe*, Agenția Națională Antidrog, Bucharest
10. Codul Familiei din 1953 (actualizat până la data de 25 noiembrie 2010)
11. Codul Penal al României din 17 iulie 2009 (LEGEA nr. 286/2009)
12. Coggins K., Holley L.C., and Vakalahi F.H. (2001). *Issues of Crime and Delinquency for Child Welfare*, in Lawson, H.A.; Lawson, K.B. and Salle, A.L., (coord), *Innovative Practices with vulnerable children and families*, United States of America: Eddie Bowers, 91-103
13. Cojocaru D., Cojocaru Ș., (2008) *Managementul de caz în protecția copilului. Evaluarea serviciilor și practicilor din România*, Iași: Polirom
14. Decizia nr. 16 din 2 octombrie 2006 pentru aprobarea Standardelor minime obligatorii privind managementul de caz în domeniul asistenței consumatorului de droguri;
15. Duță, T., Dumitru, S., Fiscuci, C., et al. (2009). *Ghid pentru practică. Promovarea drepturilor copiilor care au săvârșit fapte penale și nu răspund penal*, Bucharest: Reforma Justiției Penale Foundation
16. Hotărârea nr. 1.439 din 2 septembrie 2004 privind serviciile specializate destinate copilului care a săvârșit o faptă penală și nu răspunde penal
17. Jenness, V., and Goodman, P. (2006), Deviance, in Turner, B. (ed.), *The Cambridge Dictionary of Sociology*, New York: Cambridge University Press, 135-141;
18. Lager, P.B., and Mather, J.H., (2000), *Child welfare: a unifying model of practice*, Australia: Brooks/Cole Publishing
19. Legea nr. 143 din 26 iulie 2000 privind prevenirea și combaterea traficului și consumului ilicit de droguri
20. Legea nr. 272/2004 privind protecția și promovarea drepturilor copilului

21. Luca, C. and Pivniceru, M.M. (2009). *Perspectivă psihologică asupra etapelor audierii copilului*, in Luca, C., and Pivniceru, M.M. (coord) *Ghid de audiere a copilului în procedurile judiciare*, Bucharest: Hamangiu, 16-48
22. Ordinul nr. 288/2006 pentru aprobarea Standardelor minime obligatorii privind managementul de caz în domeniul protecției drepturilor copilului
23. Rădulescu, S.M. (2004). *Dicționar selectiv. 100 de termeni "cheie" în domeniul patologiei sociale, criminologiei și sociologiei devianței*, Bucharest: Lumina Lex
24. UNICEF. (2006). *Manual pentru implementarea Legii nr. 272/2004 privind protecția și promovarea drepturilor copilului*, Bucharest: Vanemonde
25. World Health Organization. (1994). *Lexicon of alcohol and drug terms*, Office of Publications, Geneva, Switzerland : World Health Organization
26. ***Agenția Națională Antidrog, (ANA), (2020), Studiul în școli privind consumul de alcool, tutun și droguri ilicite în România – ESPAD 2019, Bucharest [Online]. Available at: http://ana.gov.ro/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/ESPAD-2019_3.pdf
27. ***Agenția Națională Antidrog, (ANA), (2021), *Raport Național privind situația drogurilor. România – evoluții și tendințe*, Bucharest [Online]. Available at: http://ana.gov.ro/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/RN_2021.pdf
28. ***ARAS, UNICEF (2016), Metodologia de lucru cu adolescenții la risc și consumatori de droguri, Bucharest [Online]. Available at: <https://arasnet.ro/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/ARAS-UNICEF-RAP-CERCETARE-ADOL.pdf>
29. ***<https://www.politiaromana.ro/ro/utile/statistici-evaluari/statistici>

INVESTIGATING THE SITUATIONS AND CASES THAT CAUSE VIOLENCE IN THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Maria PESCARU

Associate Professor, Ph.D., University of Pitești (Romania),

Email: mariapescaru@yahoo.com

Abstract: *Specialists in the field of education found that, from a statistical perspective, violence represents the most frequent form of school deviance. The phenomenon of school violence, according to the official statistics of different states, has experienced a spectacular rise in the last three decades, so it is necessary to intensify the concerns in researching. Modern education must deliver to society not only well-informed graduates, but people who possess skills and tools that allow them to adapt to the economic and social demands of life, with a well-defined axiological system. The research was carried out on a sample of 174 secondary school students. The main objective is to investigate the current forms of violence existing in the educational environment of the school, to discover the causes that generate violence in the school environment to develop appropriate ways to reduce aggressive behavior. The applied questionnaire includes three sections, the first asking for some identification data (gender, class, age), and the other two 42 items regarding traditional violence and violence in the online environment.*

Keywords: *violence, education, education system, behavior, victim*

1. Introduction

The World Health Organization defines violence as “the threat or intentional use of physical force or power against one's own person, against another, against a group or community, which causes or has a high risk of causing trauma, death, psychological harm, a maldevelopment or deprivation” (Curelaru, Mihai, 2013: 12).

Violence leaves deep traces for the whole life, influencing the emotional, cognitive, psychological development and behavior of the person, whether we are talking about the aggressor, the victim or just a witness. Violence weakens students' connection with school, increases their sense of insecurity and fear.

Most acts of violence in schools go unrecorded or reported and often go unnoticed or forgotten for a short time. In some situations, they are disapproved by the management of the school unit, by the teaching staff, and nothing is done to prevent and combat them. Schools' efforts are mostly focused on controlling major event violence, with less attention being paid to promoting civilized behavior in interpersonal relationships.

Sensation seeking is a factor that can motivate the students to engage in aggressive behavior. Some researchers identify four causes of sensation seeking: boredom, lack of inhibitions, the desire to live new experiences, the search for adventures and adrenaline. Negative affects (anger, inability to accept criticism, tension, worry, fear) often acquire behavioral valences, being released through an anger-aggression syndrome. (Whitson, Signe, 2016: 112)

From the beginning of schooling, both teachers and children can observe physical and mental traits in some peers that can become indicators of future violent behavior (big, strong, lacking empathy, careless, uncooperative). The hierarchy between the boys in the junior classes is established on the basis of their physical strength. They realize that their popularity depends on the physical strength demonstrated through various games in

which they participate: friendly fights, fights, games with police officers, thieves, superheroes, etc. Regarding psychological traits, the most popular theory regarding the profile of the aggressor refers to the level of self-esteem. (Depino, Catherine, 2013: 78)

A classification of bullying would be that which combines the two criteria physical/non-physical and direct/indirect. A person can indirectly, through the manipulation, spreading malicious rumors, rejection, marginalization, isolation bring serious harm to another person. The development of digital technologies has led to the development of cyberbullying. E-mail, cell phone, computer, social media accounts, video cameras are the means through which harassment of a person can be done. Although most attacks on the Internet occur outside the school space, during free time, if students and/or teachers are involved, they are considered to be a form of school violence.

A study analyzed the impact of a continuous professional training program on the *prevention of aggressive-bullying behavior at the level of school communities* on the perceived seriousness, the probability of reaction and the intervention strategies used by teachers toward the aggressors and victims of the bullying aggression (Grădinaru, T., 2021:197-234) and aimed at: bullying behavior - specific form of violence between students, recognition of the protagonists in bullying aggression, strategies to prevent bullying behavior.

We all agree that a school must be a space where every child and every teacher must feel safe. But is it so? Do we treat others as we would like to be treated? As responsible adults, it is our duty to protect children through education, through positive examples against any form of violence against them by adults or other children.

The purpose of the research consists in investigating the current forms of violence existing in the educational environment of the school, noticing the possible changes in the aggressive behavior of students, because that a large part of socialization activities have moved to the cyber environment, discovering the causes that generate violence in the school environment with a view to developing appropriate ways to reduce aggressive behaviors.

The objectives of the research were to identify and adapt a tool for evaluating the forms of violence in the school environment appropriate to the specifics of the school and the particularities of the age of the students; investigate the opinion of secondary school students regarding the prevalence of traditional and cyber violence; compare the frequency of traditional violence with that of cyber violence; assess the gender-specific role of students involved in traditional or cyber violent behavior.

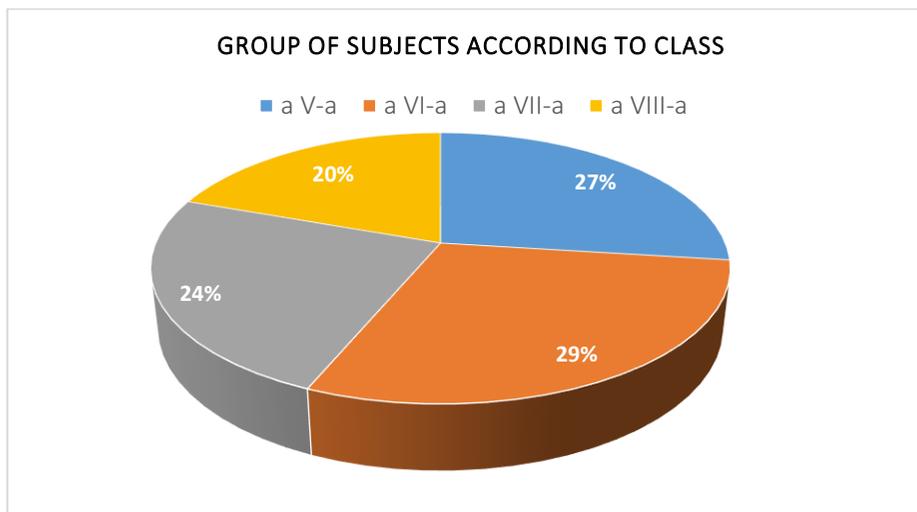
Main hypothesis: There are differences in the manifestation of traditional and cyber violence in urban middle school students, differently according to their biological sex.

Compared to the main hypothesis (previously formulated), the following *secondary hypotheses* were also developed:

1. There are significant differences between the frequency of traditional and cyber violence in the roles of aggressor, victim, witness among secondary school students;
2. There are differences in the manifestation of traditional school violence depending on the biological gender of the student;
3. There are differences in the manifestation of cyber violence according to the gender of the students.

The research sample consists of 174 students from the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. Of these, 81 subjects were female (47%), and 93 subjects were male (53%).

Figure 1. Graphical illustration of subjects by class of origin



2. Research methodology

The research variables were the following:

Independent variables: biological sex, with two categories: male and female.

Dependent variables: traditional violence, cyber violence, both with victim, perpetrator, witness dimensions.

In conducting out the study, an opinion survey was used, based on a questionnaire. For this research I did not develop my own questionnaire but decided, after a long study, to use an already validated instrument, namely the Questionnaire for the evaluation of forms of violence in an educational context -EFAVICE- 42 (Grigore, A. N., 2016: 241-245).

The applied questionnaire includes three sections, the first asking for some identification data (sex, class, age), and the other two 42 items were grouped as follows:

Section II	A (items 1-7)	victim
Traditional violence	B (items 8-14)	aggressor
	C (items 15-21)	witness
	A (items 22-28)	victim
Section III Online (cyber) violence	B (items 29-35)	witness
	C (items 36-42)	aggressor

Study participants were asked "How often... in the last year of school:

- has a colleague bullied/teased you, laughed at you in an upsetting way?
- has a colleague hit or pushed you with bad intent?
- has a colleague threatened you with physical violence/beat you?
- has a colleague excluded you from an activity that you wanted to participate in?
- has a colleague made fun of you or imitated you?
- has a colleague insulted or nicknamed you?

- has a colleague spread false rumors about you?"

The above items were reformulated for the perpetrator and witness situations.

Example: Item 1 (he bullied you)→item 8 (you bullied)→item 15 (you witnessed bullying).

The third section of items exactly follows the model of the second, only that the items target violence in the online environment, being grouped into three divisions, corresponding to the situations of victim, aggressor and witness, respectively.

To measure the frequency of violent actions, the chosen questionnaire uses a Likert scale, widely used in various studies, with each respondent being asked to give an answer on a scale from 1 to 6,

Never	Once or two times	A few times	About once a week	A few times a week	Daily
1	2	3	4	5	6

Testing procedure: The questions from the questionnaire were entered into a Google form and then distributed by the leading teachers to the groups of students of the secondary school classes, after the school counselor explained to the students the objectives of its application, how to complete it, as well as the fact that the completed data are confidential and the questionnaire is anonymous. Students were advised to read each question carefully and answer them honestly.

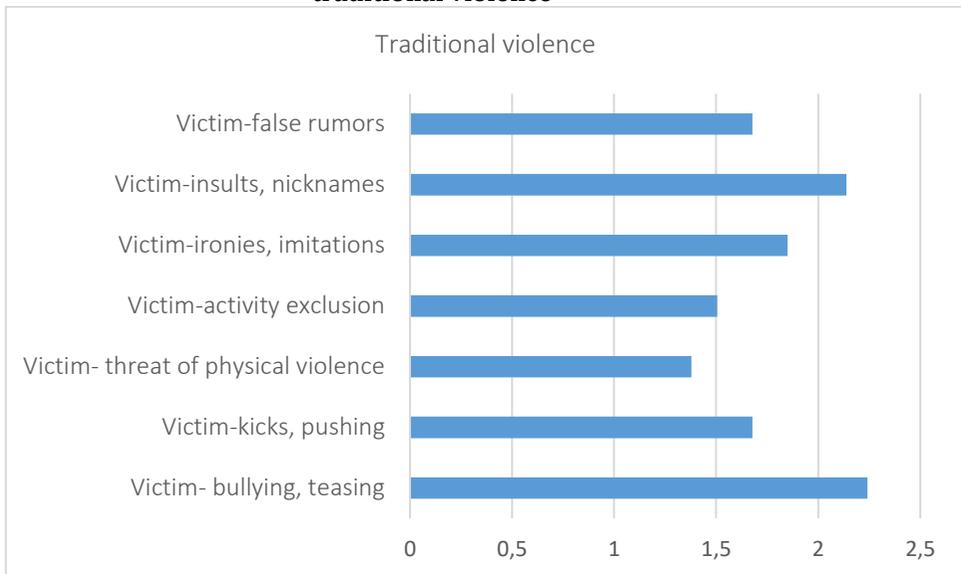
3. Analysis and interpretation of results

42 items were analyzed in terms of the averages obtained.

Table 1. Averages obtained on the items of the scale Victim of traditional violence

	Item	No. Respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Victim-bullying, teasing	I ₁	174	1	6	2,2413
Victim-kicks, pushing	I ₂	174	1	6	1,6781
Victim-threat of physical violence	I ₃	174	1	6	1,3793
Victim-activity exclusion	I ₄	174	1	6	1,5057
Victim-ironies, imitations	I ₅	174	1	6	1,8505
Victim-insults, nicknames	I ₆	174	1	6	2,1379
Victim-false rumors	I ₇	174	1	6	1,6781

Figure 2. Illustrating the average obtained from participants as a victim of forms of traditional violence

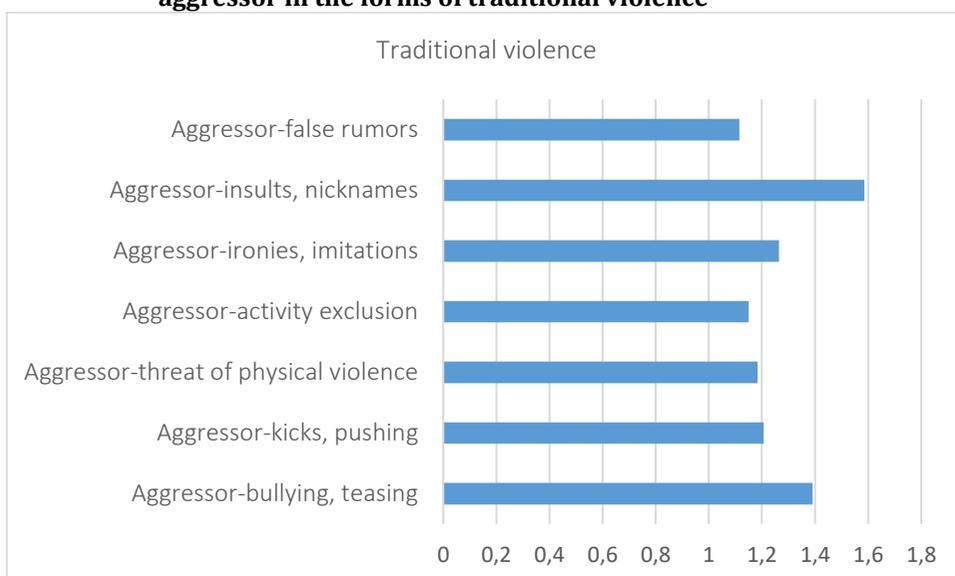


Analyzing the graph above, it can be seen that the most frequent forms of violence felt by the victims are harassment and teasing, closely followed by insults and nicknames, then by ironies and imitations. There was no shortage of physical violence, with punches and kicks following closely behind.

Table 2. Averages obtained from the Aggressor scale items in traditional violence

	Item	No. Respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Aggressor-bullying, teasing	I ₈	174	1	6	1,3908
Aggressor-kicks, pushing	I ₉	174	1	6	1,2068
Aggressor-threat of physical violence	I ₁₀	174	1	6	1,1839
Aggressor-activity exclusion	I ₁₁	174	1	6	1,1495
Aggressor-ironies, imitations	I ₁₂	174	1	6	1,2643
Aggressor-insults, nicknames	I ₁₃	174	1	6	1,5862
Aggressor-false rumors	I ₁₄	174	1	6	1,1149

Figure 3. Illustration of the averages obtained by the participants in quality of the aggressor in the forms of traditional violence

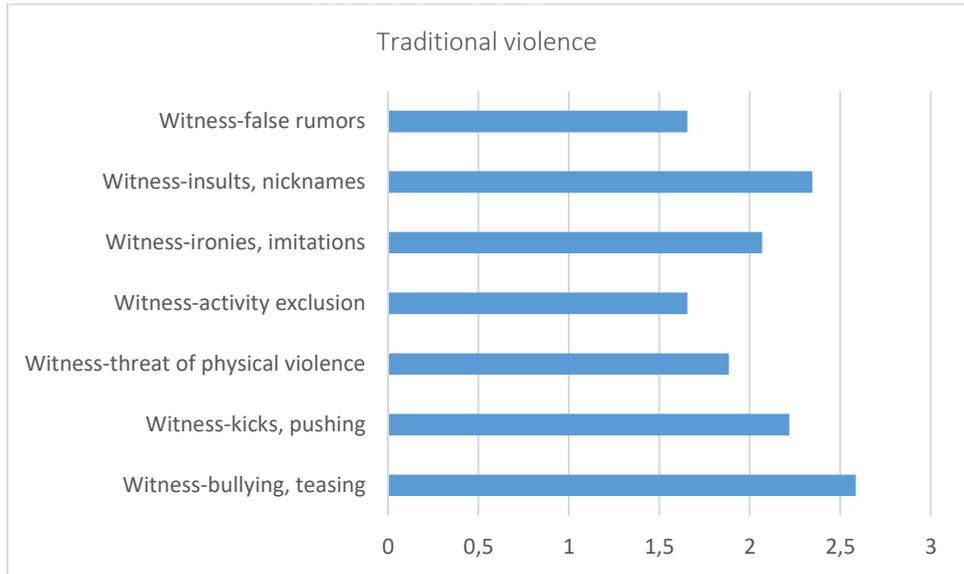


As can be seen from the graph above, the most frequent types of violence declared by the aggressors are insults and nicknames, followed by bullying, teasing and ironies, imitations, a fact that confirms the victims' statements.

Table 3. Averages obtained on the items of the Witness scale in traditional violence

	Item	No. Respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Witness-bullying, teasing	I ₁₅	174	1	6	2,5862
Witness-kicks, pushing	I ₁₆	174	1	6	2,2183
Witness-threat of physical violence	I ₁₇	174	1	6	1,8850
Witness-activity exclusion	I ₁₈	174	1	6	1,6551
Witness-ironies, imitations	I ₁₉	174	1	6	2,0689
Witness-insults, nicknames	I ₂₀	174	1	6	2,3448
Witness-false rumors	I ₂₁	174	1	6	1,6551

Figure 4. Illustrating the averages of participants' experiences of witnessing forms of traditional violence



The reports of student witnesses do not differ from those of victims and aggressors, maintaining the same hierarchy: bullying/teasing, insults, nicknames. A slight increase can be seen among hits and tackles, the average of which exceeds 2.2.

The items of the three scales of traditional violence, analyzed in relation to the averages obtained, lead to the following results: The most frequent forms of traditional violence are bullying, teasing, insults, nicknames, ironies, imitations; physical violence (hitting, slapping) is present among students, on the witness scale, its average exceeds the value of 2, positioning itself in the immediate vicinity of the other forms of violence.

Table 4. Averages obtained on the items of the Cyberviolence Victimization scale

	Item	No. Respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Victim-offensive messages	I ₂₂	174	1	6	1,8735
Victim-threat messages	I ₂₃	174	1	6	1,1954
Victim-stalking, intimidation	I ₂₄	174	1	6	1,2643
Victim-impostors	I ₂₅	174	1	6	1,4367
Victim-transmission of sensitive information	I ₂₆	174	1	6	1,2413
Victim-block access to the group	I ₂₇	174	1	6	1,3563
Victim-impostors of their own identity	I ₂₈	174	1	6	1,2183

Figure 5. Illustrating the averages of participants' experiences of being a victim of forms of cyber-violence



The most common types of cyber violence reported by victims are offensive messages, and the least common are threats.

Table 5. Averages obtained on the items of the Cyberbullying Aggressor scale

	Item	No. Respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Aggressor-offensive messages	I ₂₉	174	1	6	1,3218
Aggressor-threatening messages	I ₃₀	174	1	6	1,0344
Aggressor-stalking, intimidation	I ₃₁	174	1	6	1,0574
Aggressor-impostors	I ₃₂	174	1	6	1,0689
Aggressor-transmission of sensitive information	I ₃₃	174	1	6	1,0919
Aggressor-block access to the group	I ₃₄	174	1	6	1,1379
Aggressor-impostors of their own identity	I ₃₅	174	1	6	1,0114

Figure 6. Illustrating the averages achieved by participants as aggressors in forms of cyberviolence

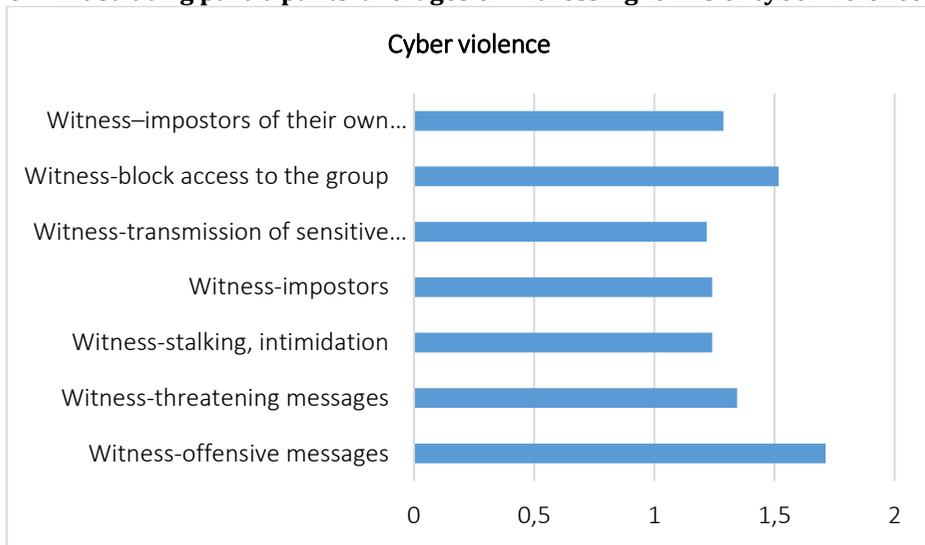


The analysis of the results reported by the aggressors shows that the most frequent forms of aggression in the online environment are still offensive messages, but the average value is somewhat lower, followed by the blocking of access to the group and the transmission of sensitive information.

Table 6. Averages obtained on the items of the Witness in cyberviolence scale

	Item	No. Respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Media
Witness-offensive messages	I ₃₆	174	1	6	1,7126
Witness-threatening messages	I ₃₇	174	1	6	1,3448
Witness-stalking, intimidation	I ₃₈	174	1	6	1,2413
Witness-impostors	I ₃₉	174	1	6	1,2413
Witness-transmission of sensitive information	I ₄₀	174	1	6	1,2183
Witness-block access to the group	I ₄₁	174	1	6	1,5172
Witness-impostors of their own identity	I ₄₂	174	1	6	1,2873

Figure 7. Illustrating participants' averages of witnessing forms of cyberviolence



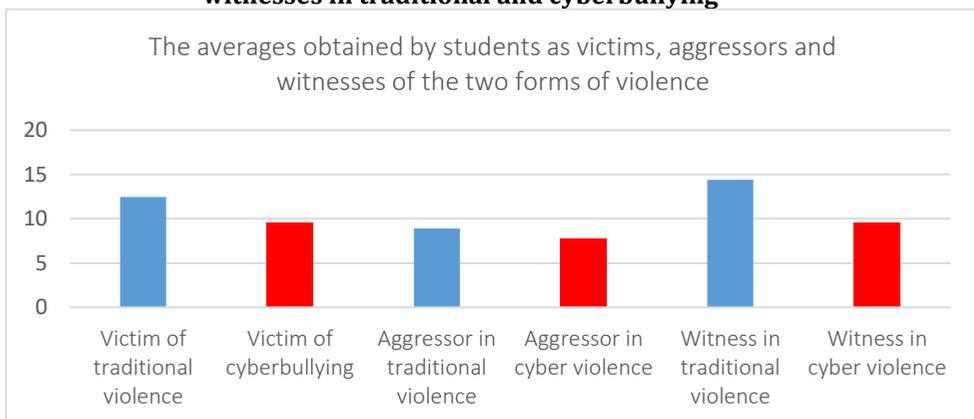
And from the perspective of the witnesses, we notice that offensive messages are in the first place, followed by blocking access to the group. The items of the three scales of cyber violence, analyzed according to the averages obtained, lead to the following results: The most widespread forms of cyber violence are offensive messages followed by stalking/intimidation, impostors, blocking access to the group.

Statistical testing of hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: *There are significant differences between the frequency of traditional and cyber violence in the roles of aggressor, victim, witness among secondary school students.*

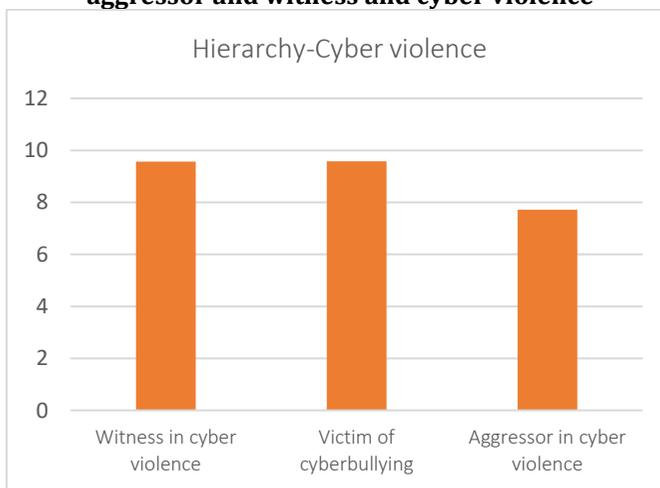
To verify this hypothesis we compared the variables in pairs: traditional violence with cyber violence, aggressor in traditional violence with aggressor in cyber violence, witness in traditional violence with witness in cyber violence.

Figure 8. Graphical illustration of the averages' sum of students as perpetrators and witnesses in traditional and cyberbullying



We checked if there are significant differences between these roles in the students' perception and found the following: there are significant differences between the averages obtained between the dimension of traditional violence and cyber-violence, there being a greater number of victims of traditional violence than of cyber-violence; There are differences between the aggressor dimension in traditional violence and the aggressor in cyberviolence, with the traditional one having a higher average. There is a smaller difference between the two averages, which leads us to the fact that those who physically bully tend to bully online as well; There are significant differences between the witness dimension of traditional violence and the witness dimension in cyber violence. This is where the biggest difference between the two averages is noted. In both forms of violence, the witness-victim-aggressor hierarchy is preserved.

Figure 9. Hierarchy of averages' sum obtained by students as victim, aggressor and witness and cyber violence



Hypothesis 2: There are differences in the manifestation of traditional school violence depending on the biological sex of the student.

In order to verify the effect of biological sex on the roles of aggressor and witness in traditional violence, we compared in pairs the averages obtained for each category separately.

Table 7 Averages obtained on the items of the scale Victim of traditional violence

	Victim-bullying, teasing	Victim – kicks, push	Victim-threat of physical violence	Victim-activity exclusion	Victim-ironies, imitations	Victim-insults, nicknames	Victim-false rumors
Boys	2,1827	1,6344	1,3548	1,4731	1,7956	2,0967	1,6344
Girls	2,3055	1,7289	1,4074	1,5432	1,9135	2,1111	1,7283

Analyzing the statistical data obtained, we note that girls show a greater tendency to victimization than boys.

Hypothesis 3: There are differences in the manifestation of cyber violence according to the sex of the students.

In order to verify the effect of biological sex on the status of victim, aggressor and witness in cyber violence, we compared the averages obtained for each category separately.

Table 8. Averages obtained on the items of the Cyberviolence Victimization scale by biological sex

	Victim-offensive messages	Victim-threat messages	Victim-stalking, intimidation	Victim-imposters	Victim-transmission of sensitive information	Victim-block access to the group	Victim-imposters of their own identity
Boys	1,8377	1,1827	1,2473	1,4086	1,2258	1,3333	1,2043
Girls	1,9135	1,2098	1,2839	1,4691	1,2592	1,3827	1,2345

Analyzing the data we find that, as in the case of traditional violence, the role of victim is shared almost equally between boys and girls, with a greater tendency of victimization among girls.

Table 9. Aggressor in cyber violence

	Aggressor - offensive messages	Aggressor - threatening messages	Aggressor-stalking, intimidation	Aggressor - imposters	Aggressor-transmission of sensitive information	Aggressor -blocking access to the group	Aggressor - imposters of their own identity
Boys	1,3010	1,0322	1,0537	1,0645	1,0860	1,1290	1,0107
Girls	1,3456	1,0370	1,0617	1,0357	1,0987	1,1481	1,0123

Sex differences in cyberbullying are almost imperceptible. We note that girls have the dominant role here, slightly surpassing boys in some categories, with the exception of aggressors-imposters. So we can conclude that girls and boys are equally cyberbullying boys.

Table 10. Witness in cyber violence

	Witness-offensive messages	Witness-threat messages	Witness-stalking, intimidation	Witness-imposters	Witness - transmission of sensitive information	Witness-block access to the group	Witness-imposters of their own identity
Boys	1,6774	1,3225	1,2258	1,2258	1,2043	1,4946	1,2681
Girls	1,7530	1,3703	1,2592	1,2592	1,2345	1,5432	1,3086

Regarding witnessing cyber violence, we can see from the graph above that there are no significant differences between the averages obtained from female and male respondents. Girls witness slightly more cyberbullying than boys. Cyberbullying is a real behavior among middle school students. Traditional bullies tend to show aggressive behavior in the online environment as well.

Conclusions

The initial hypothesis, by which we asserted that there are differences in the manifestation of traditional and cyber violence in secondary school students from the urban environment, differently depending on their biological sex, was partially confirmed. After analyzing the statistical data, it was found that traditional violence registers higher values than the cyber one, the hierarchy of the three roles being the same in both forms: witness-victim-aggressor. Regarding biological sex, there are no significant differences in either traditional or cyber violence. There are higher reports for the witness dimension in the case of both forms of violence for the girls variable and higher reports for the aggressor-hitting, groping dimension for the boys variable. Simultaneously, there is also a greater tendency for girls to be victimized compared with boys.

Cyber violence, although registering lower values, is constantly increasing. The study conducted on the prevalence of current forms of violence among secondary school students allowed the identification of the intensity with which they manifest. The differences identified between girls and boys (victims, aggressors or witnesses) allow the development of recommendations that must be taken into account by both teachers and parents, as well as principals and school counselors. The study also has numerous of limitations, such as: the study was conducted in a single school and only with secondary school students; The lack of a previous similar study with which possible comparisons can be made; The study also did not cover teacher-student, parent-teacher, teacher-teacher violence and does not provide data on the psychosocial climate in the school. The application of the same questionnaire, as well as similar ones, in the following years will also provide data on the trends of increasing or decreasing forms of violence in the school.

I previously mentioned that the motivation for this research was the fact that in that school there were only sporadic reports or recordings of violent actions, being able to conclude that it is close to the desired school without violence. Beyond the small values obtained (rarely the average exceeding the value of 2 out of 6), analyzing the individual answers of the students surveyed and finding that there are students who were offended, nicknamed, teased several times a week or ridiculed daily, I can conclude that violence, in both its forms - traditional or cybernetic - exist and can leave deep traces in children's souls.

References:

1. Curelaru, Mihai (2018), *Benchmarks for analysis and intervention*, Iași: Alexandru Ioan Cuza University Publishing House
2. Debardieux, Eric, (2010), *Violence in school - a global challenge?*, Iași: The European Institute Publishing House
3. Depino, Catherine, (2013), *Violence in school. Help your child cope with it*, Bucharest: Trei
4. Grădinaru, Tudorița, (2021), *Bullying-type aggression. Psychopedagogical milestones for effective prevention*, Iași: Alexandru Ioan Cuza University Publishing House
5. Grigore, Ana-Nicoleta, (2016), *Violence in an educational context. Current forms*, Iași: Alexandru Ioan Cuza University Publishing House
6. Whitson, Signe, (2016), *The phenomenon of bullying. 8 strategies to end it*, Bucharest: Herald.

THE FAMILY – A FUNDAMENTAL INSTITUTION OF SOCIETY

Silica-Valerica FLOREA

PhD Student, Faculty of Sociology and Social Work,

University of Bucharest (Romania)

E-mail: floreavalERICA1996@yahoo.com

Abstract: *This article's aim is to discuss the notion of family, seen as a fundamental institution of society and found in all societies. It was not long before the family was considered the only and ideal form of human coexistence and married life was the safest form of marital stability. Over the years, the meaning of the family has taken on different forms and, over time, families have changed. Each family has its own style of communication, relationships, adaptation but especially of functioning, which leads to the perpetuation of the existence of the family institution in all societies. Thus, the functional structure of the family has changed over time and has developed so that its members can live together and interact as efficiently as possible. The society comes to take over some of the responsibilities of the family, to create an environment conducive to the functioning of the family through various mechanisms to encourage this phenomenon. This article is a reflection on the fundamental institution of society, with the family, being a reflection on how it works in society and aiming at the functional relationships encountered within the family.*

Keywords: *family; couple; marriage; family functionality; family relationships.*

1. Introduction

Not so long ago, the family was considered the only and ideal form of human coexistence, and married life the most secure form of marital stability. Over the years, the meaning of the word "family" has taken different forms, and with the passage of time families have changed, the differences between different types of family varying over time from one society to another. To date, the family has been the most familiar social phenomenon known to all social actors, and people form families in all societies, and they vary widely.

Following previous research, many researchers have pointed out that the family is not only a factor contributing to the stability of a society, it is a phenomenon known to many social actors, which, through its consequences, the balance and well-being of the entire society are ensured. I want to highlight this issue so that the institution in question, the family, can be understood by all of us, regardless of its form of organization and formation. Moreover, I wanted to highlight the main types of relationships found within the family and how its members relate to each other.

2. Married couple and family

Once people choose the family as their only form of cohabitation and start their own family after having "broken away" from their family of origin, they tend to respect the customs and values of the societies from which they come, and at the same time as the family, marriage appears. To start a family, individuals must form a couple, a couple born out of the attraction and preferences of certain individuals. Along with the interactions between individuals come to feelings, and these lead to the formation of the couple-marriage-family triad.

Cristian Ciupercă and Iolanda Mitrofan (1998, p. 13-14) state that the feeling is not specific to young people because it is linked to the decision-making factor, teenagers being driven by sexual attraction and not by sentimental attraction. In keeping with the act of decision-making, the couple's dynamic perspective emphasizes both the physical and psychological factors. The first is manifested through eroticism manifested through behavior, and the psychological one feeds the relationship, leads to its development over time, but especially to marriage. The same sociologists define the couple as "a bipolar, biopsychosocial structure, based on mutual interdeterminism (the partners satisfy their needs, stimulate, support, develop and realise themselves as biological, affective and social individualities, one through the other)", thus arriving at an antagonistic typology of the couple that can be harmonic, stabilizing and satisfying, or disharmonic, unsatisfying and distorting, tending toward the dissociation of the couple (ibid: 14).

In the case of the typology of stable couples, the above mentioned factors often lead to the emergence of another social phenomenon, marriage. From a civil law perspective, Apostu Iulian (2013, p. 249) defines marriage as "freely cohabiting union between a man and a woman between whom is established equal legal rights and obligations". We note from this definition the decisional character of a couple because marriage is understood as "a freely entered into a relationship". What makes the difference between a couple and marriage is that, by its very nature, marriage involves several consequences (social, emotional, moral, legal, etc.), which differentiate it from a simple couple. Simultaneously, the modern couple implies the emergence of a phenomenon not exactly accepted by all societies, namely: freedom of choice, which implies that love becomes an essential criterion, and the notion of couple will become synonymous with affective considerations and matches based on sex. This has led to the disappearance of the old structure for choosing partners: "marriage of convenience, business marriage" (Biron, 1975 apud Mitrofan, 1989).

The legal perspective makes marriage legal to start a family. From a psychological perspective, marriage is understood as a psychological relationship between two individuals (considered a complicated construct), consisting of subjective and objective data, which are heterogeneous (Jung, 1994 apud Ciupercă și Mitrofan, 1998). Simultaneously, people are different, and through marriage they must bring into harmony all the aspects in agreement that they have with each other, but even the marriage considered the most successful cannot completely omit the individual peculiarities, so that the states of the two partners are almost identical, say the two researchers. However, the two conclude that by marriage we mean a lived experience, which can only be understood from within an experience (ibid: 16).

With the advent of marriage comes to the family, one of the most widespread social groups. Maria Voinea (2005, p. 7) considers the family as a group of social actors united by marriage or filiation, or by kinship. Group partners live a common life together and have similar feelings, aspirations and interests. The family is a fundamental natural and social group, which is specific to all societies, in which various relationships are manifested, the fundamental ones being those of marriage or kinship. We note from this definition that the family is a form of human community that can be formed because of several social phenomena, including marriage and kinship, which is specific to all societies, a characteristic that shows that the family is one of the most important social phenomena encountered. Within the family members communicate and relate to each other, and as a rule they live under the same roof and form a single household (ibid: 10).

From the viewpoint of Islamic society, one of the most distinctive features of Muslim society is the paramount importance it gives to the institution of the family. The institution of the family is considered the cornerstone of a healthy and cohesive society. However, in contemporary times, the nature, function and structure of the family have been subject to many questions. Sexual permissiveness and similar types of behavior, such as homosexuality, the living relationship of unmarried couples, are considered equally legitimate expressions of the family unit. Islam takes a moderate stance, arguing that the family is a divinely inspired institution, with marriage as a component of excellence. Islam calls every act of extramarital sex as sinful and forbidden (haram) and makes it a criminal offense. The fundamental case is that these acts undermine the very root of society. However, Islam recognizes that the sexual impulse is very natural in its composition; that is why it regulates a certain law that does not overlook man's sexual drive, but institutionalizes it through marriage. This means keeping men and women at the constraints of moral bonds. Moreover, sexuality is perceived as one of the intrinsic components of human life that should be regulated and disciplined through appropriate guidance. This faculty of human beings cannot be left ungoverned because everyone will act according to his own whim. Moreover, Islam perceives the institution of the family as the basis of the entire socio-cultural structure and a self-sustaining mechanism to ensure a sense of morality, support the upbringing of children and strengthen family ties as inevitable for the social, ideological and cultural stability of the whole (Wagay, 2019: 6). Men, women and children need a permanent and sustainable institution to fulfil their role in society. For survival, protection and support, socialization and societal identification of the individual, the family is the institution that can handle the whole process.

Additionally, the family is an institution that provides security to the individual in a world of uncertainty, awareness of rights and obligations have begun to be seen in the discourse of individuals about themselves. It goes hand in hand with the process of individuation in a changing society, influenced by exposure to other cultures and the environment. The debate on family values was generated against just such a background at the end of the 20th century. As a result, concern for the family has moved to the centre of the political arena. Threats to the family, on the one hand, and salvation through the family, on the other hand, are the two most prominent themes in recent family policy discourse (ibid: 20).

When the family is at a standstill, this institution becomes a subject of interest for many researchers. The family must be regulated because it is the key to solving most of society's "diseases". The sociological function of the family is to facilitate the process of procreation. Certainly, a helpless baby should have some assurance of physical and emotional support to survive, and in some cases a pregnant woman may need others to help her if complications arise. From an evolutionary perspective, the institution of marriage serves as a mutually beneficial arrangement between men and women, giving women the security of male support and companionship to bear and raise children and giving men the security that children are theirs, along with the promise of male sexual loyalty in exchange for female sexual exclusivity. Moreover, families play a vital role in transmitting explicit rules of social order, involving instructing children in the general concepts of right and wrong and explaining appropriate behavior in various social situations (ibid: 21).

The family is an important structure in the development and shaping of society. It is in the family that one learns how to exercise authority and obey authority, and from the

family these virtues are translated into the state. The filial relationship is strong in every family. The African social system and culture realize and understands this, which explains the primacy of the family in the economic and social security of society.

Aristotle in ancient Greece postulated the view that the family is the foundation on which the state is built. He argued that nature intends man to live in society, that there are three types of natural associations. The first is the family, which is that an association established by nature for the satisfaction of daily needs and for the sake of the propagation of the human race. The second is the village, which is the coming together of several families for the provision of more than daily wants or needs. For Aristotle, villages evolve in response to needs that transcend everyday needs and cannot be met at the household level. In a family, there are human needs that cannot be met at the village level. Therefore, the third natural association that evolved as a result is the state. The village is not self-sufficient. It cannot adequately meet human needs. The state thus appears as a higher form of association. There is, a merger of several villages into a complete community, large enough to be self-sufficient. For Aristotle, state formation is therefore a gradual process, starting with the family. The family is thus the foundation of society (Aristotel, 1972 apud Badey și Jaja, 2012).

From another perspective, the family is seen as being conditioned in terms of organization and evolution by the society in which it is formed, and is thus guided by the social norms of each form of state organization. However, the interaction between each individual social actor and the communication between each member of the family to which different social roles and status are associated remains stable and perpetual among each generation. We can say that the family is the basic cell of every society because it is sustained by the satisfaction of each function. Inevitably, with the passage of time, the family will raise the issue of the existence of specialized assistance that can help it overcome moments of impasse because the equality between partners and the interchangeability of their roles lead to conflicts that shake the family institution (Mitrofan, 1989: 13-22).

3. Family - the core of society. Different approaches to the family

Seen as a social institution, the family is the basic cell of any social mechanism, which is why its actions are important for society, their consequences have a significant impact on the proper functioning of society. The family seen as an institutional framework does not highlight how individuals interact, how they make decisions and the opinions of its members. From a situational viewpoint, the notion of family highlights the behavior of individuals in relation to different external factors and brings to the fore the idea of adaptation of individuals to different types of stress, either internal or external: fortuitous separation of partners due to causes such as wars, long distance commuting, poor health, various natural disasters, etc. This increases the notion of "family coping capacity" to these stresses. Numerous authors have studied this issue and highlighted how vulnerable the family is, but also how easily it can regenerate when put under the pressure of various stressors (Mitrofan, 1989: 31-33).

When we talk about the dynamics of the notion of family, we are talking about the changes that occur in it. Over the years, the family has taken different forms and there has been a transition from a traditional structure to a modern one that redefines marital statuses and roles and highlights their evolution. The roles of partners in the modern married couple have migrated from the family seen through the prism of social rules and

norms to rules based on equality and mutual affection. So husbands and wives end up changing each other's roles in modern societies. The notion of family is associated with different typologies, which will be detailed in a later chapter. At the same time, the family in seen as an interactional system is the family whose members interact with each other, stressing the idea of interdependence of the attitudes and behaviors of the married couple. Through interaction spouses fulfil each other's family roles (ibid: 33-46). From here we can associate the family with the legal aspect, which defines the notion of family with a group of persons that is regulated by the legal framework and between whom there are rights and obligations. The rules concern how to conclude a marriage, establishing paternity, relationship concerning children and parents, rights and obligations of both spouses, inheritance issues, etc. "The family is a formal group, regulated by laws and other legislation." (Voinea, 2005: 7). Thus, relationships established within the family can be between spouses, between parents and children (ascendants and descendants), between descendants (children of the same family) and between kinship relationships established between members of a couple and other persons (between in-laws, brothers-in-law, etc.). Nowadays, the notion of family is understood as the only group of people formed on the basis of mutual love and the state has the obligation to find and regulate this institution so that family members can exercise their roles properly (ibid: 8-9).

4. Family - methodological approach. The main theories of the family

As the years go by, the family becomes not only the essential cell of society, but a powerful factor in the development of the entire social mechanism. Over the years, with the emancipation of women, the family no longer follows the traditional model in which the woman is in charge of raising children and the man is the source of income and the head of the family; the family goes through a continuous process of adaptation, which is why different ways of approaching the notion of family have emerged and each theory that has emerged highlights certain structures of family life according to the evolution of the social apparatus and how the family exercises its functions. The following lines will present some of the methodological approaches of the family institution.

From a developmental theory perspective, theorists of this approach analyze the notion in terms of individualism and family life. Life cycles in which the most important variables are the psycho-sociological reactions of individuals or social groups are arranged in common sequences, and the time intervals in which changes in family structure and functioning occur are specified (Apostu, 2013: 79). Sociologist R. Hill divides the family into 5 stages: the stage of the couple without children (partners are concerned with ensuring mutual comfort, focus on relationships, perform their roles, building the necessary level of solidarity); the stage of the marital couple with preschoolers (priorities are readjusted, roles are reassessed, the function of socialisation is performed, the phenomenon of child-rearing occurs); the stage of the couple with schoolchildren (parents focus on raising the child's level of education, high tensions may arise between partners); the stage of the return to the single couple (young adults leave home, the marital couple exercises its degree of solidarity, parental role duties are diminished) and the stage of decline (of widowhood, loneliness) (priorities are reassessed according to needs, the appearance of grandchildren leads to a return from a state of loneliness (Mitrofan și Ciupercă, 1998 apud Apostu, 2013).

Functionalist theory assumes that no matter what the situation, any family must perform certain functions and perform certain roles. From the perspective of this theory

the family can be understood as functional or dysfunctional. Parsons argues that action can oscillate between five variables that are categorized into several subsystems:

- affectivity or lack of it;
- group or self-orientation;
- universalism or particularism;
- quality or achievement;
- specificity or divisibility (Parsons, 1951 apud Voinea, 2005a).

Systemic (holistic) theory tries evaluating the family considering the following elements that compose it: structure, functions, etc. The family is seen as a balanced system in which all personalities are valued, interacting, internally interrelated, interdependent relationships, etc. The holistic approach to the family is closely linked to the functional approach. It looks at internal and external factors that make a family emotionally dysfunctional. Theorists R. Cromwell and D. Olson adopts a model of circular causality that includes cohesion and adaptability (Apostu, 2013: 83-85).

The historical perspective analyses the notion of the family in relation to previous generations or aims to analyze the family in terms of the transformations that have occurred over time. When we talk about the extended family, we can associate it either with good functionality or with divergences whose consequences could have been the dissolution of the family. Elements contributing to family stability are highlighted. Various patterns of family functioning were identified. Theorists of this paradigm suggest different adaptations of different types of cultures and do not focus on internal family behavior which may differ from one family to another (ibid: 5-7).

From the perspective of the structural paradigm, the family is analyzed in terms of its structure and the relational mechanism that is seen as the factor causing the changes that may occur. The theory aims to move from a traditional institutional structure to a modern democratic one. This perspective attaches particular importance to the notion of the social role that family members perform. Theorists Olsan, Spreakle and Russel believe that taking on new roles highlights the adaptability of partners (ibid: 87-88).

A final paradigm of the notion of family concerns the interaction between partners (interactionist theory). The theory is about the continuous evolution of the family. The notion of intersubjectivity appears, which the theorists Charles Hertton Cooley and Georges Mead highlight the idea of self. All notions lead to personality development of family members. It is the interaction of individuals through which personality is created that is tracked. Sociologist E. W. Burgess argues that the emancipation of women and their enlistment in work has led to the interdependence of the roles of partners. The notion of a happy family is thus highlighted because the personalities of all family members are outlined (ibid: 88-89).

5. Family typology

The family is the fundamental unit of society. It is the foundation on which this state is built. It is also the fundamental institution in African cultural heritage and philosophy. This study shows that African philosophy still exists in many African nations. Cultivating and promoting family ethics and values such as love, caring, loyalty generosity obedience, sincerity and so on in individual families would gradually transcend and

transform the entire nation. Finally, it argues that family ethics and values must be cultivated to preserve the important institution of the family (Badey și Jaja, 2012: 1). Over time the notion of "family" is understood differently with social change, progress and development. If the family is a phenomenon encountered in all societies, it takes on different meanings depending on the societies to which it belongs, so that we arrive at a very clear typology of this notion. Different norms emerge among families, and so marriages come to be classified according to several factors.

C. Ciupercă and I. Mitrofan (1998) considers that by family we can understand the union of two nations between which there are no co-blood ties. Based on this idea, the union can be either endogamous (the partner is chosen from the same community, group, race, etc.) or exogamous (the partner is chosen from outside the group to which he/she belongs). Endogamous marriage is particularly common among traditional societies where, due to social pressures, individuals are determined to choose partners who are similar to them.

To develop the typology of families, the rules of location create three types of families/marriages: the patrilocal, the matrilocal and the non-local family. Patrilocality refers to the establishment of the new spouses' residence together or close to the husband's parents, the families of origin, whereas matrilocality refers to the establishment of the residence together or close to the wife's parents. Neolocality refers to the establishment of a neutral residence, different from that of the families of origin (ibid: 16). The two sociologists state that today the most common marriages are non-local or matrilocal marriages. Neolocation is emerging against the backdrop of deep urbanization and industrialization in society, but neolocal marriages lead to various difficulties among families because many societies are traditional and less permissive, and xenophobia is common (Mihăilescu, 1993 apud Ciupercă și Mitrofan, 1998).

Another criterion for typifying the family is the historical perspective, thus creating the monogamous and polygamous family. The most common of these is the monogamous type, which is constituted by the relationship of two opposite-sex partners who ensure their comfort and intimacy on the basis of a two-way functional system, oscillating between role asymmetry, hierarchy or equality. The polygamous type, assumes that the relationship between the partner and the other(s) is based on a distinct cultural system that has written rules for each member. Polygamy can be of two kinds: polyandry - a woman is married to more than one man, and polygyny - a man is married to more than one woman (Apostu, 2013: 75-76).

Another typology that distinguishes between families is the one based on the criteria of belonging, so there are families of origin (cosangvina, the family in which the individual is born and grows up) and families of procreation (conjugal, constituted by the partners' own marriage). The degree of comprehensiveness of the family group represents a different type of family, so that the family can be nuclear, consisting of husband, wife and their children, or extended, comprising several generations living under the same roof. In addition to these two typologies, we can also distinguish families according to the criterion of the exercise of power and patriarchal families (authority held by the eldest man or husband), matriarchal families (authority held by the eldest woman or wife) and egalitarian families, in which authority is exercised equally by the two spouses which is also the most common type of family (Ciupercă și Mitrofan, 1998).

A special type of family is the single-parent family, created either by the occurrence of accidental situations, divorce or the refusal of one parent to get involved. It is "a small

family group, consisting of a single parent and his or her children", which involves the emergence of problems relating to family functionality because it is necessary for a single parent to take over all functions (Apostu, 2013: 68).

Over time, the family has changed, we come to talk about the notion of extended family, which becomes the nuclear family. On the other hand, there may be families in which there are children (parental family) or families in which there are no children (non-parental or single-parent families). The parental family is the type of extended family that has very close relationships with the outside world based on the existence of socially imposed rules that family members accept, essential rules. This type of family has an authoritarian structure lead by a chief, within which there are several generations, their roles are precisely predefined, partners are chosen by the parents according to their economic and social status, and following traditions is a nonnegotiable obligation. Marital stability is a phenomenon specific to this type of family, leading to the fulfillment of all social roles and status. In this type of family, the rules are present and respected (ibid: 62-64).

On the other hand, the nuclear family is the family made up of two spouses and their children, and therefore has fewer members than the extended family. All the other family types discussed above are nuclear families, the considerable difference between extended and nuclear being the increased level of conformity and degree of intimacy through the shrinking of the nucleus, the family being smaller. The partners can adapt more easily to each other's needs, equality being the basis of the nuclear family, along with the social role changes of the partners, who are constantly willing to adapt to the changes that occur. This type of family is based on mutual emotional support between spouses, with protection, security and constant communication. Roles, hierarchical relationships are flexible, with partners negotiating with each other. A specific type of nuclear family is the blended family, a type of family reconstituted following an unfortunate accident suffered by a partner (separation, divorce, death). It is a family within which many difficulties can be encountered, caused by the previous experiences of the partners (ibid: 64-65).

6. Functional relationships in the family

Each family has its own style of communication, relationship, adaptation, but above all of functioning, which leads to the perpetuation of the family phenomenon in all societies. Thus, the functional structure of the family has changed over time and developed so that its members can live together and interact as effectively as possible. The State ends up taking over some of the responsibilities of the family, to create an environment as conducive as possible for the family to function and various mechanisms to encourage this phenomenon. Some of the functions of the family are taken over by these mechanisms, and some arise only to the family, which Parsons considers beneficial to the family because it has come to perform the functions that have fallen to it very well. In a society that is constantly developing and adapting it is very difficult to create a functional cliché of the notion of family.

Following his research, Apostu Iulian (2013, p. 24-25) discovers that many researchers have tried to classifying family functions into several categories, so that "the functional perspective highlights the actions of the family group from several perspectives".

The first view found is that of researcher Jaques Sabran, who looks at family functions from two perspectives: physical and cultural. According to the classification offered by Sabran,

the physical functions of the family include the reproductive, economic and protective functions, while the cultural functions include the socialization and emotional dimensions of the couple (ibid: 25).

The same sociologist names R. Hill proposed the classification of family functions into 6 categories: the function of physical subsistence of the members by procuring resources; the function of ensuring family descent - reproduction or adoption; the function of socializing children for adult roles - ensuring integration into society; the function of preserving and maintaining family order in social relations outside the family - ensuring belonging to a group; that of creating and maintaining solidarity by performing domestic tasks; and the function of producing and distributing goods and services within the family group (Voinea, 2005 apud Apostu, 2013).

The first typology considers the classic aspects of family life, which also includes elements of the emotional sphere. This approach includes many shortcomings that lead to difficulties in researching the issue of family functionality in depth. Within the typology provided by R. H., out of the sum of the six functions, three of them have economic directions and three emphasize the traditional aspect, the typology being "tributary to traditionalism" (Apostu, 2013: 26).

Henry H. Stahl offers a complex typology of family functions that considers several all aspects of family life. It divides functions into those of an internal nature and functions of an external nature. The former include the biological and health functions (reproduction, emotional security, ensuring the hygienic and health needs of biological development, etc.), the economic function that refers to guarantee the necessary resources for the family, the solidarity function, the family having common goals and the educational/socialisation function. In the latter category, Stahl defines the processes of personal and social development of each family member as part of the functions of an external nature (Voinea, 2005 apud Apostu, 2013).

The economic function of the family has undergone various changes over time, before anything else, it was associated with the patriarchal system of the hierarchy. In decades past, children worked alongside their parents for a living. In modern society, the economic life of the family has undergone transformations, so work is moving to the city, young people are eager to learn to create successful careers to ensure financial stability for the family. If we were to define the economic function of the family, it is the generation of income so that the needs of individuals are met, and the household is organized on the basis of a common income (Voinea, 1996: 46). Young families tend to separate from the extended family in order to increase privacy and independence. The family must now be based on principles involving the collective involvement of both parents and children. The home becomes a real space for relationships, where the children learn most of their social roles. There are many families even today that, when we talk about the economic factor, it is provided by one member of the family, but there are also families in which all members contribute to the financial increase of the family (Apostu, 2016: 12-16).

When talking about the biological function of the family, sociologist Apostu Iulian says that it can become a subsystem of the economic function, but we cannot always make this association. The category of biological functions includes hygiene and health problems of family members and food needs that are essential in providing the basic necessities of life (Voinea, 1996: 46). The physical and mental health of the family must be ensured once the family has been established. In terms of ensuring sexual behavior within the family, the focus is on ensuring the sexual needs of partners, but we are also talking about procreation

(Voinea, 2005: 23). In the past, sexual relations were accepted only after the conclusion of a marriage, the sole purpose being reproduction. Over time this has changed with the emancipation of women. Family sexual rules were guided by the Church and a woman's virginity was valued by both sexes, girls who were sexually active before marriage were not at all accepted by the social model (Ciupercă, 2000: 14). A paradox is that a woman's social reputation was recognized by her ability to resist advances from men, while a man's reputation consisted of the number of conquests achieved (Giddens, 2000: 14).

Researcher Iulian Apostu presents that the present studies show that nowadays the exercise of sexuality is viewed differently nowadays, but it creates not exactly favorable consequences. The age of onset of intimacy has decreased, but with it the abortion rate has increased. In 2014, abortions accounted for 13.9 per thousand; the age group with the most abortions is 20-39 years old. The 22-24 age group also has a significant share (22.8 per thousand) (Source INSSE apud Apostu, 2016). Nowadays, satisfying sexual needs help maintain relationships between couples, and failure to do so can lead to the dissolution of the couple. Reproductive function is the foundation of a family and this is the importance of the institution of the family in society (Pescaru, 2004 apud Apostu, 2016).

As far as the socialization function of the family is concerned, this involves involving parents in the upbringing of children and taking on the full role so that the child is socialized. Family is about ensuring emotional security, trust, mutual support, continuous protection and its members should develop their personality permanently. The family provides the cohesion and communication and cooperation necessary for interaction between its members and free society. The child is instilled within the family with the fundamental values of society and the deviant ones (Voinea, 1993: 63). The family must have as a sub-function the duty of integrating children into society, which is why the values of society must be instilled by parents from an early age. The child will internalize the notion of a norm and will apply it, will know what constitutes desirable behavior and will not follow it, thus ensuring the smooth running of society. Communication between parents and children is key to this process, with parents setting an example for their children so that the family climate is as healthy as possible (Apostu, 2016: 22-23).

Parents must advise their children and be with them continuously. Parents must play the role of mediators between children and society, the fundamental purpose of providing the function of socialization being the creation of an interpersonal personality, which is how others see our personality, which is derived from the interactions between members of a group and the degree of involvement of each member in achieving the proposed goals (Mielu Zlate, 2008 apud Apostu, 2016). After the whole socialization process, the child is ready for interaction in society, having internalized society's values.

According to Apostu Iulian, the function of solidarity is the one that involves a very long process of relationship, high capacity of tolerance and adaptation of the partners of the marital couple and their problems can be solved much easier (ibid: 27). Solidarity function contributes strongly to the emotional development of family members. Solidarity involves a lengthy process because it requires the partners to relate sufficiently and to discover common values, to tolerate each other and to adapt to each other. The climate of solidarity is "the most important dimension of married life" because problems between partners can be overcome much more easily (ibid: 28). When conflict arises in a family, marital solidarity decreases, marital solidarity being a function in addition to the other 3 mentioned above. The higher the degree of solidarity within the family, the more stable the

couple is in the long term. Solidarity is formed over time by overcoming obstacles. This can increase depending on the time the partners give each other (ibid: 29).

Over time, women's desire for emancipation has increased significantly and this has been a factor in the decline of marital solidarity because it has involved activities outside the family. The economic function is also significantly affected because the woman thus becomes independent and the social function is also significantly affected because, due to her career, the woman could no longer take care of her children sufficiently (Mitrofan și Ciupercă, 2002 apud Apostu, 2016).

When talking about functionality, we cannot avoid recalling the concept of conjugal solidarity, which is a family function that describes the internal cohesion of the conjugal group, appreciating the relationship between partners, the level of fusion and common goals.

Regarding the functionality of the family in the situation of the deprivation of liberty of a spouse, in a 2019 study addressing the Israeli Supreme Court's decision to uphold the ban on family visits to Gaza prisoners imprisoned in Israel and affiliated with Hamas, the researcher examines the Court's decision in light of applicable international law. Israel's Supreme Court rejected the petition to lift the ban because it held that, under Israeli law, prisoners are not entitled to family visits because prison inherently involves substantial limitations on the prisoner's personal liberty, freedom of movement and scope of interaction with the outside world and visits are not considered part of the prisoner's recognized rights. Therefore, the Court said, family visits are a privilege. As such, they are not subject to constitutional review (human rights) and may be refused by executive action, provided that the decision of the executive authority is based on relevant considerations and is reasonable and proportionate. In addition, the ban has been subject to periodic review. The Court then turned to international law. It held that, since there is no absolute prohibition under international law on the denial of visits to detainees, an analysis of international law would have led to the same conclusion as an analysis under Israeli administrative law (Ronen, 2021: 1273). We see, then, how prisoners are denied one of their most desired and important rights, the right to be visited by family. Although family relationships are poorly maintained due to the incarceration of one partner, the Israeli state has banned prisoners from seeing their families, a legislative provision that can break up families. We see how maintaining functional family relationships is impossible if such a measure exists.

However, a detailed examination under international law of the prohibition of family visits would have led the Court to a different conclusion from that one it reached. The Court would have found that the guaranteed right to family life includes visits by close family members. As with most rights, the right to family visits may be subject to restrictions, but it cannot be annulled or restricted in a way that violates the prohibition of collective punishment. Additionally, the Court allegedly found that the ban on visits by close family members of Hamas-affiliated Palestinian prisoners serving sentences for security offenses, imposed pending the negotiation of a prisoner exchange, nullified the right to family visits, violated the right to family life and constituted collective punishment (ibid: 2021).

Conclusions

As we have seen, the family is a form of human relationship found in all societies. It is the key central element in the proper organization and functioning of the state and the

most important phenomenon found in society. The health of a society depends on the very existence of the family, which is implicitly followed by the functional relationships found within each family. Regardless of the type of family found within an established society, the institution of the family contributes to the establishment of order and peace in a state, being the "rudder" of the state because it is in the family that the values and customs of a society are transmitted.

Therefore, regardless of the type of family and the organization found at the level of the study institution - the family, the state is also a key element in ensuring family harmony because it takes over part of the family's duties and develops various mechanisms for its proper functioning. However, most of the attributes are cultivated and nurtured by the family itself, the main values for societal harmony being instilled within the family, the family and state being two notions that compose and complement each other.

References:

1. Apostu, I. (2013). *Căsătoria între stabilitate și disoluție*. Bucharest: Tritonic.
2. Apostu, I. (2016). *Familia românească – evoluția socială și provocări contemporane*. Bucharest: Tritonic.
3. Ciupercă, C. (2000). *Cuplul modern: între emancipare și disoluție*. Alexandria: Tipoalex.
4. Ciupercă, C. and Mitrofan, I. (1998). *Incursiune în psihosociologia și psihosexologia familiei*. Bucharest: Press Mihaela S.R.L.
5. Giddens, A. (2000). *Transformarea intimității: sexualitatea, dragostea și erotismul în societățile moderne*. Bucharest: Antet.
6. Jaja, M. J. (2012). The primacy of family institution in African Philosophical Thought. *European Journal of Academic Research*, 1 (2): 23-30.
7. Mitrofan, I. (1989). *Cuplul conjugal. Armonie și dizarmonie*. Bucharest: Științifică și enciclopedică.
8. Ronen, Y. (2020). On prisoners, family life and collective punishment: The Namnam case. *International Review of the Red Cross*, 102 (915): 1273–1292.
9. Voinea, M. (1996). *Psihosociologia familiei*. Bucharest: University of Bucharest Publishing House
10. Voinea, M. (2005). *Familia contemporană. Mică enciclopedie*. Bucharest: Focus.
11. Voinea, M. (2005a). *Familia contemporană*. Bucharest: Focus.
12. Wagay, S. A. (2019). Institution of Family in Islam. *Islam and Muslim Societies: A Social Science Journal* 12 (2): 16-21.

FARM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE DIVERSIFICATION STRATEGIES IN FARM PRODUCTIVITY ENHANCEMENT IN THE NORTHWEST REGION OF CAMEROON

FONDZE Gilbert BAMBOYE¹, NDZIE SOUGA Clotaire², KONGNYUY Anastasia
KININLA³

¹Faculty of Letters and Social Sciences University of Douala (Cameroon)
Email : fonbanboye@gmail.com

²Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS), Université de Yaoundé (Cameroon)
Email: clotario1980@yahoo.fr

³Geography Department, University of Maroua (Cameroon)
Email: anastasiakong26@yahoo.com

Abstract: *Population growth has induced a reaction by farmers to circumvent the undesirable inability to provision for its needs. Farm management technique innovation and diversification are enlisted as major strategies employed by farmers in the North West Region (NWR) of Cameroon to raise farm productivity. This work sets out to identify and examine the various innovative techniques evolved and/or adopted in farm management within the fields of economic and population geography. The quest for data to achieve the set objectives bears on the precept that rapid population growth accounts for the diversification of the agricultural system of the region. Data to respond to the preoccupations raised lies within the farmer households and agricultural promotion agents of the region. The data was collected using the cross-sectional approach using a sample survey of farmer households. The data collection instrument was a structured questionnaire administered to sample households and interview guides for resource persons. Participant observations were equally used to capture field data onsite. Data tabulated respecting set or generated modalities and expressed in terms of absolute values and percentages for analyses. The resulting analyses highlighted a variety of farm management techniques used as strategies by the farmer to augment farm productivity. While a melange of new and old techniques is used in a diversified mix in the region, the mid altitude areas concentrate a greater variety of techniques than the low and high altitudes, and the forested areas predominate in the use of natural sources of farm manuring techniques than the grassland areas. Tilling, planting, soil fertility and farm water management techniques have evolved tremendously and while reliance on some old techniques is reducing, the new techniques have not completely overshadowed the old, demonstrating the diversified mix of the farm management technique situation of the NWR of Cameroon.*

Keywords: *Farmer household, farm management techniques, diversification strategies, North West Region, Cameroon*

1. Introduction

The rapidly growing population of the NWR at one point undermining the production capacity of farm land to cater for food needs orchestrated reflections towards indigenous and external innovative strategies reminiscent to diversify the agricultural system. Diversifying the agricultural system through technique change was and is considered to be the required booster to provision for the needs of the population through the farm, which happens to be the principal economic base for more than 80% of the households. Farm diversification strategies can take several forms. Scoones (1998)

categorises strategies into agricultural intensification and extensification; livelihood diversification that includes both paid employment and rural enterprises; and migration for income generation and remittances. Using the multiple source of innovation model, which emphasises that agricultural innovations are derived not only from agricultural institutions but from multiple sources including farmers, innovative research practitioners, research-minded administrators, NGOs, private corporations and extension agents (Biggs 1990), this work tries to identify and examine the various farm management technique diversification strategies applicable in the region. In the multiple source model, perspectives of the users of technology are seen as important in helping to develop and transfer locally usable innovations (Hardon-Baars 1997). Here, farmers are then no longer considered to be recipients but actors who influence and provide resources in the process of technique diversification as in the study area under population pressure, which is hypothesised to be the driving force behind farm management technique diversification.

The high density, increasing from 56.5 h/km² in 1976 through 71.6 h/km² in 1987 (Lamlen, 1994, 24) to 77.7 h/km² in 1991 (6th development plan 1986-1991, p. 4) and the resulting pressure on agro-pastoral resources began compromising the vitality of agricultural productivity to keep pace with the various food and cash needs of the farming households. This became threatening to the goal of achieving food self-sufficiency and reducing poverty among farming households. It is in the event of these conditions that farmers and support agents consciously or unconsciously worked out agricultural innovations techniques aimed at diversifying the agricultural system. This included the introduction and use of new and highly productive methods and techniques by indigenous people or by some external intervention.

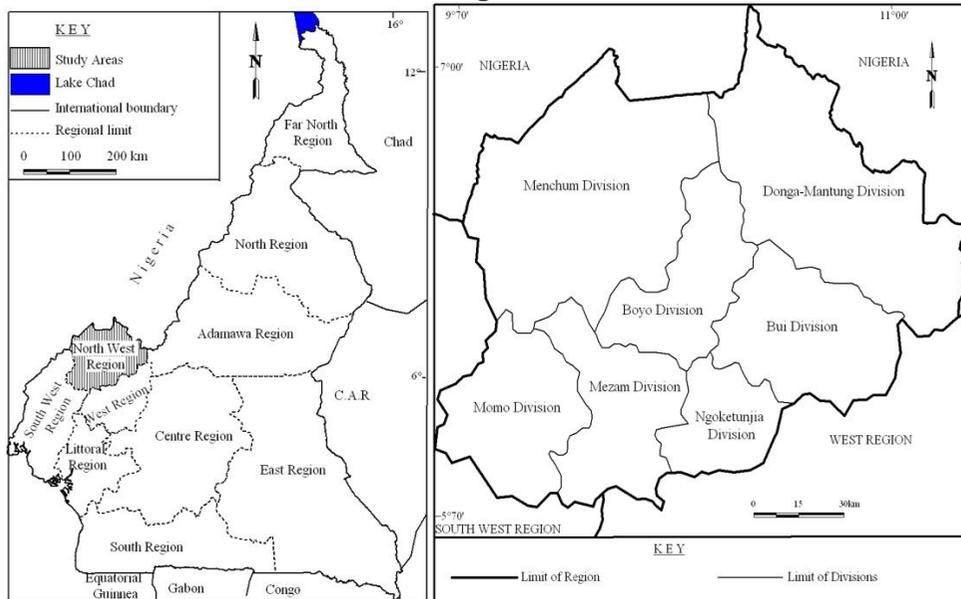
The integrated development of the perimeters of Wum and the opening up of 3,000 ha of land for swamp rice cultivation in Ndop are examples of innovative projects (4th five-year development plan 1976-1981, pp. 250- 254), within the frame of external interventions. Tackling soil fertility issues by developing a system of night paddocking on farm land in Upper Babanki (Tchawa, 2001, p. 104) is a recent example of indigenous intervention. Such innovative measures seek to increase and multiply farm food and cash opportunities in order to ensure food self-sufficiency, sustenance and the satisfaction of the increasing demands of the fast growing off farm populations within and without the main farming areas in the region and beyond. Satisfying the food needs and then the cash needs of the general population and of the farmers, respectively, requires developing and applying the various methods and techniques associated with the different diversification types.

2. Methodological approach

2.1. Location of the study area

The North West Region (NWR) is one of the ten regions of the Republic of Cameroon. Geographically, it lies approximately between latitudes 5°70' and 7°14' North and longitudes 9°64' and 11°21' East (Figs. 1). It covers a surface area of about 17300 km². The region shares boundaries with the South West region to the south west, West Region to the south, Adamawa to the east and the Federal Republic of Nigeria to the west and north.

Fig. 1a: Location of the North West Region in Cameroon and 1b: The North West Region



2.2. Study design and sampling unit

The study uses a cross-sectional research design using a cross section of farmer households to collect data representative of the general situation on the ground. This approach fits this study considering that the population is highly homogenous in character and the sampled households at a particular place and time at a single blow was apt to capture the required information to address the issue. The sampling unit is, thus, the household considered to be the basic micro-level unit of analysis in this study. The households are seen as the basic institutions within which resource sharing and exchange among individuals takes place (Bruce and Lloyd 1995) and innovative ideas based on experience are generated. Considering the household “as a co-residential unit, usually family-based in some way, which takes care of resource management and primary needs of its members” (Rudie, 1995: 228), this work tilts its household integration towards it in order to be closer to the African and Cameroonian context of household that considers the immediate family members and possible ramifications in the extended context that may even include individuals from different blood lines but in one residential unit.

2.3. Data collection approaches

Several approaches were adopted to access the required data. Starting with existing literature to be abreast with documented knowledge on technique innovation and diversification that enormously guided the subsequent approaches to be adopted on the field, the research team progressed to design appropriate field attitudes requisite to

successful and objective data collection. Data collection on the field proceeded by way of a survey of the target population made up of farmer households at the first place and interviews of resource persons in the second place. While participant observations were used to capture data on the spot on the different techniques used, survey questionnaires were structured to capture opinions about variations in the techniques generated and used by the farmer households and on those introduced by the external agents. Questionnaires also captured opinions on the contributions of each of the sources of diversification techniques to household farm productivity. Views of the different resource persons, mainly drawn from among external intervention agents, were gathered by way of semi structured interviews granted to assemble data on their particular contributions and the opinion on the effectiveness and efficiency of such intervention strategies in diversifying the households out of precarious conditions. These informants considered as resource persons came from government services, NGOs, individuals and the traditional rulers who are custodians of the land.

Before getting into the sampled households, the region was classified into Sub-Divisions and a sample of these Sub-Division constituted the focus from, which the individual sample household were drawn. The sample Sub-Divisions were drawn based on their agro ecological locations in order to represent the mainly forested areas of the south west of the region and the mainly grassland areas as well as the low lying and the high altitude areas. This was aimed at identifying the spatial variation in attitudes towards adaptation to techniques and evolving novel indigenous techniques in the region.

2.4. Data treatment and presentation.

Data was codified and tabulated based on concrete modalities outlined at the onset for quantitative data and on generated modalities after data collection for qualitative data. Considering that the data was both categorical and discrete, codification of qualitative data into the different categories and modalities was done and the data expressed in terms of absolute values and percentages. Quantitative data on its part was simply organized according to response modalities found on the questionnaires. All of the data was interpreted in terms of percentages and presented in tables, charts and graphs. Observed and photographed phenomena was classified into corresponding illustrative groups and phenomena distinguished on the photos using different letters to which explanations are given. It is through these tables, graphs, charts and photographs that results are presented and discussions made based on opinions gathered on the field and as per existing knowledge.

3. Results and analysis

3.1. Farm management technique diversification

Farm management techniques play a great role in farm output and when pressure on farmland results in diminishing output vis-à-vis the needs of the population, strategies are sought by farmers to improve the farming techniques for cropping activities. In the NWR, there has been noticeable changes and diversification in the various techniques used in farming activities and these changes range from farm preparation through soil fertility enrichment, to irrigation and crop harvesting techniques used in the different ecological units of the region. The manner in which farm plots are prepared significantly determines

farm performance. Pressure on land resulting in land scarcity in the NWR has, therefore, resulted in 75% of farmers changing farm preparation modes in order to ensure sustained productivity at acceptable levels to satisfy household needs.

3.1.1. Farm clearing technique diversification

Fire that used to be the main farm clearing tool is giving way to the cutlass. The switch from is linked to ecological and environmental concerns of protecting and preserving soil nutrient quality and organism sustenance rather than to desire for better and less strenuous tools. The use of cutlasses for clearing is found to have evolved from the traditionally artisan fabrics of the local blacksmiths to industrially manufactured more resistant and solid brands that came with colonisation. These dynamics seeks to enhance performance and increase the area cleared per cultivation season.

Plate 1: Various clearing techniques identified in the field



Photo 1: Farmer spraying grass with chemicals to wither it for crops to be planted in Baba 1, Ndop.
A: - previously sprayed area, **B:** - spraying can.
C: - farm cleared using fire and crops planted in Ndop 18/02/09

Photo 2: Farm plot cleared using the cutlass in Mbam valley Bui division. **D:** - farmer holding the cutlass used, **E:** - cleared grass piled up in furrows 18/02/08, **F:** farmer clearing with a cutlass in Ber-Jakiri 07/03

Recently, inability of the cutlass to ensure timely clearing of large surfaces for more yield as per the increasing demands has led some farmers to adopt herbicides in farm clearing. Herb selective herbicides (Roundup) are increasingly used to clear large expanses of land at short notices in areas around the Ndop plain (Photo 1). This new technique is fast gaining prominence due to its clearing capacity and efficiency over the cutlass in spite of the associated destructive environmental implications. Although these new techniques are used, the fire still plays a great clearing role, especially in newly opened farm plots found on steep slopes or in thick-forested areas. The cutlass equally remains the principal farm-clearing tool (photo 2). These techniques are, therefore, used in association with each other either by the same individuals or by different individuals in the same or different localities, indicating the diversified nature of clearing techniques in the NWR in search for better yield.

3.1.2. Farm tilling technique diversification

Tilling with hoes has so far remained with little changes and the way soil preparation in terms of ridging is done has witnessed significant modifications. Mass tilling that generally characterised farm preparation technique in the late 50s and early 60s consisted in burning all the cleared grass, softening the ground and sowing seeds. The limits of this

technique soon became evident especially with the erosion of the loose unprotected soils exhausting the plots faster. Burning of the grass also reduced the enrichment capacity of the organic matter of the soil that results from the decay and decomposition of the unburnt grass. This led to a change from mass tilling of the soil to ridging. Construction of ridges is energy and time consuming and for this reason, farmers in Momo, Menchum, Boyo, and Mezam adopted tilling across the contours that is easier (photo 3). With the issue of soil nutrient enrichment solved to an extent by ridging, the manner of ridge construction remained problematic for increased yields. Ridging across contours lead to much erosion of nutritive soil mater, reducing farms vitality. Farmers guided by agricultural field technicians evolved the contour ploughing techniques to mitigate soil and nutrient erosion (photo 4). While ridging is accepted and generally practiced in Bui, Donga Mantung and Ngoketunjia divisions, mounds (photos 6) are still widely used in Momo, Menchum and parts of Mezam divisions.

Plate 2: Various forms of ridging and the use of oxen identified in the area of study



Photo 3: Mixed contour and slope wise ploughing in Nkum subdivision (Bui division).



Photo 4: Contour ploughing on steep slopes in Nkum Subdivision (Bui division).



From left to right.

Photo 5: Tiny mounds on steep slopes with soil held in position by stones and sticks in Widikum to counter soil loss.

Photo 6: Normal mounds constructed in the usual manner of farm preparation in Esu.

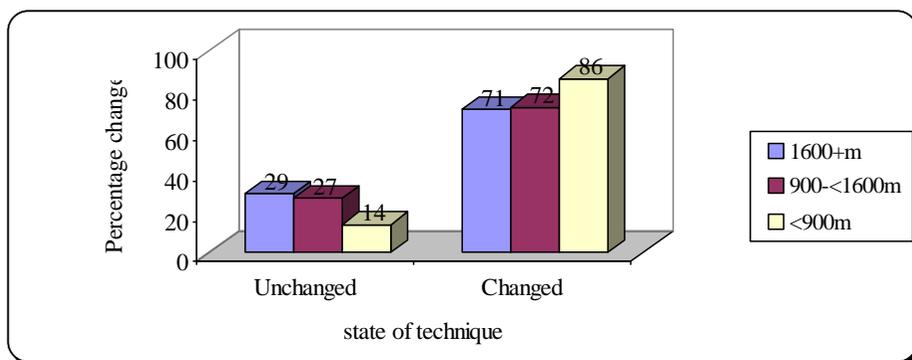
Photo 7: Evidence in the use of animal traction in the study area both for tilling and for transportation (Mbonso).

In Momo division today and particularly in Batibo subdivision, famers are moving away from large ridges of about 50cm wide to smaller ridges of less than 30cm wide in a bid to economise soil and increase the number of ridges per farm plot to reduce plant density per ridge and increase it generally. Some are currently abandoning short ridges (2m) to longer ridges (4 to 6m). This checks erosion by limiting the number of water conduits on the farm and increases the total farm area under crop. On steep slopes in some parts of the North West Region, as in Widikum in the Momo Division, soil is piled in tiny mounds and held in place by stones and sticks from scattering (photo 5) just as in Sierra Leone where stick-bunding and stone-bunding have been used to prevent soil erosion on steep slopes in the mountains of the Freetown peninsula (Binns in Gleave, M.B, 1992). This is to counter the steep gradient and the skeletal nature of soils on these slopes.

A significant proportion (75%) of the farming households has implemented these changes and almost every household has changed the tilling technique in one way or the other. The traditional modes of land preparation have not completely been discarded as terrain conditions on certain steep slopes compel farmers to stick to mass tilling while conservatism equally explains the continuous application of some old-fashioned tilling techniques though at the same time embracing and applying the new ones.

Empirical field data reveal that the area within the agro-ecological zone between 900 and 1600m above sea level records the highest proportion of change (36%) and it is in this zone that the farming activities are highest and the greater farming population concentrates. These areas are characteristically and comparatively, hospitable to settlement and to farming activities by virtue of their moderate climatic conditions as compared to the hot and humid climatic conditions of the low altitude areas and to the cold and dry climatic conditions of the higher altitude areas. This is by the agro-ecological zones found above 1600m a.s.l. (21%) and by those found in low altitude areas with 18%. The disparity in proportion of change for agro-ecological zone notwithstanding, a specific analysis of the situation in the field by individual agro-ecological zones shows a general change in the techniques of farm preparation experienced by farmers. In the agro-ecological zones of more than 1600m, 71% against 29% of farmers have changed their technique. Between 900m and 1600m, 72% against 27% and in areas at less than 900m 86% against 14% have experienced change (fig. 1). Comparatively, significant differences of 15% and 14% exist between the low altitude areas and the high altitude, and mid altitude areas, respectively in the magnitude of change in land preparation techniques (fig. 1). These changes reflect efforts by farmers to increase farm yields and counter pressure mounted by the population on the agricultural resources of the NWR.

Figure 1: Percentage change in tilling techniques by agro-ecological zones



Source: Bamboye 2011, field verifications and confirmation in 2017.

Animal traction is an exogenous technique introduced and used by farmers in some of the villages in the region (photo 7). This technique that is suitable for low lying flat land areas relies on oxen to plough land for cultivation. This technique increases the surface area cultivated by farmers. Although not well embraced yet, the technique marks a stage in the diversification of the agricultural system largely explained by the need for provisioning more needed food. Animal traction is a technique similar to the mechanised technique but limited in work capacity compared to the use of tractors. This explains why

some farmers aiming at large-scale production are opting for the mechanised techniques of farm management.

Agricultural mechanisation in tilling is gradually but continuously gaining ground in the NWR involving 1% of the farming population (table 1). In Mezam, Menchum and Ngoketunja Divisions, some farmers currently use the ploughing machine to till large hectares of land to cultivate maize and other crops. This indicates a gradual increase of investment in the agricultural sector that had remained rudimentary and subsistent for the past decades. These machines are hired from local institutions in charge of agricultural projects and programmes. The UNVDA created in 1976 to develop the agricultural perimeters of the Ngoketunja area and MIRUDEP created in 1994 to multiply improved seed species especially maize in Wum to boost farm output in the entire region are some of these institutions. A plough at MIRUDEP is hired to a farmer a few kilometres from the project area at 32000 CFA francs and some 20km away from the project area at 40000 CFA francs and beyond that distance at 45000 CFA francs to plough a hectare of land. Farmers are increasingly investing in agricultural technology leading to increasing diversification in farm management techniques as previous and newly developed techniques operate alongside.

3.1.3. Crop planting techniques

Crop density on farms significantly influence crop performance and output. The higher the density the lower the quality of the yield and farmers in the NWR have learnt the lesson from experience and are desperately working out planting technique strategies to maximise quality yield. The most important strategy is to reduce crop density on the farm, leading to the introduction of planting distances reminiscent of plantation agriculture thus dissociating from undefined and mass sowing on ridges that used to obtain. Generally, now, farmers plant crops respecting set intervals along and across the ridges. This technique gives plants ample spacing making it possible for them to maximally explore the soil nutrients around and grow with little competition from neighbouring crops.

Plate 3: Crop disposition on ridges in an improved system of mixed cropping



Photo 8: Disposition of crops on ridges with beans (A) occupying one edge of the ridge, Potatoes (B) the middle and Maize (C) the other edge in Nseh-Kumbo.



Photo 9: Beans, (D), leeks (E) and huckleberry (F) occupying different portions of the same ridge in Kidjom Ketingo- Tubah.

This technique is further organised into a plant mix wherein several crops are planted on the ridge in associated but with individual and specific crops, occupying specific

portions of the ridges without inter mingling with each other. With this organisation, maize occupies one edge of the ridge throughout the length of the ridge, potatoes the middle portion of the ridge and beans the other edge (photos 8 and 9). While potatoes may maintain its middle ridge position for several years, maize and beans are planted in rotation year after year with maize occupying one edge of the ridge this year and the other the next years and vice versa for beans (Bamboye, 2016). This technique while providing enough air for the plants and maximum opportunity for crops to absorb substantial nutrients from the ground, also contributes in enriching soil fertility by way of the nitrogen fixing role played by beans planted in rotation with maize on the same ridge. This, therefore, results in increased output on the same piece of land, reducing the desire for more land in a bid to circumvent land scarcity caused by rapid population growth. This technique is generally common in the region and practiced by more than 60% of the population.

3.1.4. Weeding techniques

Weeding techniques are equally diversified even if this is not wide spread. Weeding that essentially involved the removal of weeds and allowing them on the furrows to rot evolved to mulching. This serves as a soil fertility enriching mechanism and water retention technique aimed at vitalising crop growth and performance. Relatively, a low proportion (3%) of the households (table 1) uses mulching as a new technique of farm management. This technique has always been used by most of the farmers but with variations in the manner of application. Of late, farmers especially those cultivating cassava and rice that require little or no mulching use crop discriminatory herbicides to weed, particularly, the onion grass from rice fields and from tomato farms. This is very common in the Ngoketunjia and Mezam Divisions. Weeding by spraying is time saving making it possible for more time to be reallocation to other activities. All of these go a long way to increase farm output as confirmed in the field. While a majority of the farmers still uses hands and the hoes for farm weeding, a significant proportion is gradually diversifying and moving out of these traditional techniques leading to a mix of weeding techniques currently applicable in the region.

3.1.5. Soil water enhancement techniques

Dependence on seasonal variations for soil water became a limiting factor in the farming system especially during off-seasons and eroding soil on the farm during on-farm seasons. Presently, through the application of a variety of techniques elaborated by farmers and other diversification agents, soil water content is gradually controlled. The techniques including irrigation (12%), agroforestry (2%) and contour bunding are increasingly used by most farmers in the region (table 1).

Table 1: Farmers using new techniques and type of new technique used

New technique use Technique type	Using				Total	
	Yes		No		N°	%
	N°	%	N°	%		
Mulching	36	3	0	0	36	3
Machines	14	1	0	0	14	1
Fertilizer/Manure	594	57	0	0	594	57
Irrigation	120	12	0	0	120	12
Mixed farming	110	11	0	0	110	11
Crop Rotation	30	3	0	0	30	3

Agroforestry	26	2	0	0	26	2
None	0	0	112	11	112	11
Total	930	89	112	11	1042	100

Source: Bamboye 2011, field verifications and confirmation in 2017.

Irrigation techniques have extended the capacity and limits of agricultural production such that some areas now operate intense farming all year round. Santa and Tubah Subdivisions are typical for irrigation imprints. Irrigation modes, here, range from the most rudimentary to some of the modern ones.

In areas such as Tubah and Santa with steep slopes, water is tapped from streams at their sources and channelled down slope by gravitational pull to farms in defined and guided channels allowing it to freely circulates in furrows (photo 10), during the dry season. Water is equally collected in shallow pools dug along these channels around farm and family labour is used to water crops on the farm using dishes and plates (photo 11) on a daily basis at early stages of plant germination. Some farmers use worn-out corrugated sheets or backs of banana and/or plantain stems linked to pipes (Photo 12) to channel water down slope into the farms where it collects equally in pools and dishes or watering cans are used to water farms (Photo 14). These procedures still require a lot of energy thereby reducing the amount of time needed to increase the acreage under cultivation since each farmer is vying for higher yields. This manner of watering using dishes also results in much soil sprinkled on plants making them very dirty and unattractive for consumption during harvest especially vegetables and green spices. This explains why local sprinklers (Photo 13) are adapted from the imported types for irrigation.

The sprinklers that have existed in Tubah Subdivision for less than ten years now have the advantage of irrigating about five times the area within about one fifth of the time required by manual sprinkling. The mode is equally advantageous in that it releases tiny and lighter droplets of water that fall gently on the surface of the soil and gradually percolate into the soil, therefore, avoiding the negative effect of digging and plastering up the soil and exposing it to erosion as is the case with the modern industrial type of sprinklers. The adapted sprinklers are connected to pipe conduits of about one centimetre in diameter tapping water from sources at higher altitudes and running down steep slopes at gradients of at least 20 to 25%.

Plate 4: Different modes of applying the irrigation technique



From left to right.
 Photo 10: Water flowing down slope freely circulating in-between ridges for irrigation in Tubah.
 Photo 11: Child family labour used in watering crops with water collected in pools on the farm using a dish in Tubah.
 Photo 12: Using backs of banana plant, and pipes for irrigation.



From left to right.
 Photo 13: Water spinning out from locally adapted sprinkler for irrigating farms in Tubah
 Photo 14: Using a watering can for irrigation in Santa
 Photo 15: Mechanised irrigation system in Santa. Water pump for use top right, and farmers watering crops down left.

This gradient provides the necessary flow speed and force required to spine the sprinklers attached to the end of the conducting tubes in the farms found at heights of about one to two metres above the ground depending on the radius to be irrigated. That is for a smaller radius of about five to seven metres the sprinkler is raised to about one metre above the ground and for a larger radius of more than ten metres the sprinkler is at two metres at least above the ground to sprinkle the entire area. The speed at which the sprinkler spines depend on the slope gradient and the distance from the point of capture to the point of discharge. The steeper and longer the slope, the faster the rate of sprinkling and the lesser the time spent on the farm for irrigation and the shorter the period water is deviated for farm purposes and vice versa, but with a gentler slope and a greater distance between the capture and discharge points the rate of sprinkling is equally significant. At the point of capture, the pipe conduits are affixed to funnels made out of plastic bottles in which are placed filtering pieces of materials that capture debris and largely allow only clean water to get into the pipes in order to avoid blockage inside the pipes. This technique is, therefore, well adapted to and used in areas with steep slopes and that is why in other areas especially in the Ndop plain, Wum and Esu areas and some parts of Santa with gentle slopes and low-lying ground, other modes of irrigation are largely applied.

Motorised water pumps (Photo 15) are increasingly used in the study area for irrigating large farms of commercial garden crops essentially during the dry season. The engine pumps water through a supplying tube into a collecting tank on the water pump and then sends it out through the discharge conduit, which is controlled at one end by the farmer to ensure an even spread on the farm (Photo 15). This also saves time making it possible for larger portions of land to be cultivated in the dry season and conveniently managed to produce the desired harvest. This is common in the Ndop and Wum plains and in the Santa valleys. Irrigation systems have thus evolved so much and each time with

adaptations to minimise the quantity of water needed but increase its efficiency so that more farmers are benefiting from it using minimal quantities of water.

Contour bunds are an enlargement of the ridging technique that has existed for several years in the region. The necessity of this technique has been born from the increasing cultivation of steep slopes due to scarcity in arable land. Very steep slopes that cannot withstand erosion under traditional small size ridges of 35cm wide and 20cm high require the construction of special large ridges known as contour bunds. These extremely broad ridges of about 65 to 70cm wide and 45 to 50cm high are constructed on farm plots at intervals determined by the size of the farm and the slope gradient. Very high gradients will require several contour bunds to be able to counter erosion on farms. These contour bunds hold rainwater in place thereby increasing infiltration, reducing runoff and the rate of soil erosion on farms. The technique is still used by few (2%) farmers in the region as it has just been introduced but is gradually gaining recognition. The contour bund technique is practiced in association with the cross-bar technique. The cross-bars are tiny ridge-like elevations perpendicular to the main ridges constructed some one metre apart across every furrow in the farm. These techniques all aim at containing rainwater on the farm and increasing the infiltration capacity of the soil. This creates possibilities for an increase in the area put under cultivation and contributes to increases in yield.

Agro-forestry associating environmentally friendly tree species with crop cultivation is practiced to enhance soil water, boost soil fertility and as feed supplement for animals. Farmers are more interested in the green manure species proposed by some NGOs, such as Forest and Agro-forestry Promoters. These annual plant species generate leaf fall that decay and increase soil fertility. These species include *Sesbania sesban*, *Cajanus cajan*, *Caliandia*, *Leuccana*, *Acaccia augustissima* and *Cassia-spectabilis*. Ten nurseries existed in Bamunka-Ndop alone in 2009, different individuals for onward planting bought 7100 seedlings and by June 2010, 1100 seedlings had already been bought well ahead of the pick tree-planting period in September (FAP, 2010). This indicates the high demand for agro-forestry products in the region today. These trees are equally a source of wood highly needed by farmers for various domestic uses, reducing much reliance on wood in the wild. Some of the tree species are feed to animals and source of nectar for bees to produce honey, thereby, promoting bee farming that is increasingly gaining ground in the agricultural and forest management landscape of the region. Some species planted in catchment areas protect them from erosion and increase permeability. Some of these include *Maesopsis*, *Vitex*, *Soreidia*, *Canarium*, *Mahogany*, *Caliandra*, *Vocanga*, *Albizia*, etc. The choice of agroforestry, therefore, has significant environmental advantages in green manure species and water catchments enhancement.

3.1.6. Soil fertility enriching techniques

Significant changes (75%) in farm management techniques are observed in soil fertility enriching techniques. Permanency in the farming system at 87% imposed by shortages in land to support shifting cultivation at 2% and prolonged rotational bush fallowing at 11% have necessitated the development and use of techniques capable of sustaining soil fertility. Farmers in the region currently use a variety of manure types and the intensity of use varies from one agro-ecological zone to the other.

Green manure, one of the oldest types of manuring system used by farmers is still largely used in the region irrespective of the agro-ecological zone. The proportion of farmers using this type of manure varies from 31% in altitudes above 1600m, through 25%

between 900 and 1600m to 24% at altitudes less than 900m. The high use of green manure in the region especially in high altitude areas is explained by the abandonment of fire in land preparation for farming. Farmers are increasingly applying green manure to enrich soil fertility. Field data reveals that the largest proportion (16%) of farmers preferring green manure first in soil fertility enriching is found in the higher altitude areas. The larger proportion of 14% is found in the low altitude areas while a large proportion of 7% is in the middle altitude areas.

Plate 5: Some identified components used to enrich soil fertility in the Region



From left to right.

Photo 16: Farmer emptying dung from bags on the farm in Nkum.

Photo 17: Animal dung pile ready for application in Babba 1. Ngohketunjia. This is transported from distant grazing fields.

Photo 18: Bags of chemical fertilizer ready for use in Santa.

Photo 19: Bags of industrially manufactured compost type animal manure used in Pinyin.



Photo 20: Fire still constitutes an important component to enrich soil fertility in Pinyin as smoke streams up from grass covered with soil on ridges and burnt

The situation in the average altitude areas is because farmers in this zone embrace several types of manure, which they use almost at the same level of intensity whereas the other zones rely only on particular types of manure systems used than the others. Green manure, chemical fertilizers, and animal manure are used in the same proportions of 7% as the principal means of enriching soil fertility in the mid altitude areas. The disparity in the proportional use of green manure as the main source of maintaining soil fertility is significant at 10% in the high-altitude area and 7% in the low altitude areas vis-à-vis the mid altitude areas.

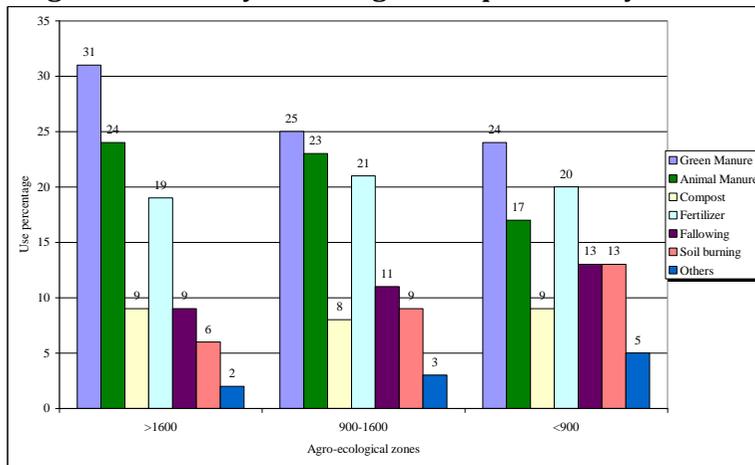
The reason for this proportional imbalance in the degree of using various manure type in the average altitude areas is explained by the high concentration of diverse agricultural activities. This zone is most favourable to agriculture and accommodates the largest agricultural population. Animal manure comes second in importance to green manure as used in soil fertility enrichment generally in the region at the proportion of 24% in the uplands, 23% in the middle lands and 17% in the lowlands. These proportions vary from 11% in the high altitudes to 8% in the average and low altitudes (fig. 2).

The high proportion recorded in the high-altitude areas is generally accounted for by the grazing preference of the area. Grazing in these areas provides possibilities for farmers to access cattle dung freely collected from grazing land or negotiating with graziers to collect from paddocks with some material or financial compensation. In the low land areas, most farmers using animal manure benefit from animal droppings during transhumance in the dry season and other domestic animals. This is only possible in areas

where farmers and graziers cordially coexist otherwise these droppings are burnt and destroyed by some graziers and animals chased out of farm plots and at times killed by farmers in areas mutually repulsive to the activities of each other. Increase in the use of animal manure in the study area has also been made easier by a new understanding between cultivators and graziers where farmers create night paddocks that initially depended on cattle borrowed from Mbororo graziers in Kejomketingo. Some of the farmers now own cattle that they use on their plots for the purpose of manure. In the system, cattle sleep over in fences erected by farmers and partitioned to allow cattle movement from one compartment to the other every other day. This ensures an even deposition of droppings all over the farm plot to fertilise it. After three to four weeks, the plot is allowed for the droppings to decompose before tilling and cropping.

This has been in operation since the early 1980s. Some farmers in other areas such as in Bui Division carry animal dung from distant hilly areas on head loads and/or on wheelbarrows and trucks to their farms and others use the motor cycle to transport it from distant areas to farms. Some have involved in the rearing of small livestock that provides the needed droppings applied on their farms.

Fig. 2: Soil fertility enriching techniques used by farmers



Source: Bamboye 2011, field verifications and confirmation in 2022.

Another form of animal manure used in this area originates from fowl droppings mixed with waste from poultry farms and prepared in compost form. This type is well prepared in an industrial manner, packaged in bags in Douala, and sold to farmers around the Mezam Division at prices ranging between 2500 and 5000 francs per bag of 50kg depending on the forces of demand and supply. These are all types of manure that came into use after 1985 meaning that their introduction and use has proved its worth (Photos 16 and 17 above).

Chemical fertiliser is another type of soil fertility enriching technique used by farmers in the NWR today (Photo 18). Although it has been in use for quite some time, its use was restricted to coffee and other tree crops. The application of chemical fertiliser on food and short cycle crops is an innovation in the soil fertility enriching techniques. The difference in terms of proportion of chemical fertiliser used in the region is not significant ranging from 21% in the average altitude areas through 20% in the low altitude areas to

19% in the high land areas. While a majority of the users in the upland and midland (7%) areas consider it in the first position, those of the lowland largely use it as a third option (7%) meaning that most of them lay credence to other source of manure than fertilizer (fig. 2). The low application of fertilizer in third position after green manure and animal manure is explained by the expensive nature of the substance that was sold at 20.000 francs up from 6000 francs in the early 1990s and at 45 to 50 000 francs now in 2022 making it practically impossible for some farmers to purchase.

Other types of manure used include the compost at 9% for both the uplands and the lowlands and 8% for the average altitudes. This is insignificantly used due to the time and cost involved in producing quantities required to effect major increases in farm output. Fallowing and soil burning are still largely practiced in the lowland areas at 13% each and by only 11% and 9% in the midlands and the uplands, respectively. Soil burning is still appreciated and practiced by only 9% and 6% of the farmers in the midland and uplands, respectively (fig. 2). The greatest proportion of farmers still engaged in fallowing is found in Menchum particularly in Fungom Subdivision around Esu. Soil burning although at a diminishing scale is widely practiced in the region especially in newly opened farms. The grass is covered with soil and burnt (photo 20) for vegetable cultivation in the grassland areas and for the cultivation of cocoyam in the forest and transitional agroecological zones of the region. Other types of manure substances include wood ash collected from fireplaces (photo 20) at home and applied under crops especially during weeding. The low land areas comparatively use more of it (5%) than the midland areas (3%) and the upland (2%) areas (fig. 3). This helps first to increase soil fertility and to repel destructive ants. Generally, the agricultural environment of the North West Region is currently characterised by great diversity in soil fertility enriching techniques applied at different scales by individual farmers in all the agro-ecological zones (fig. 3).

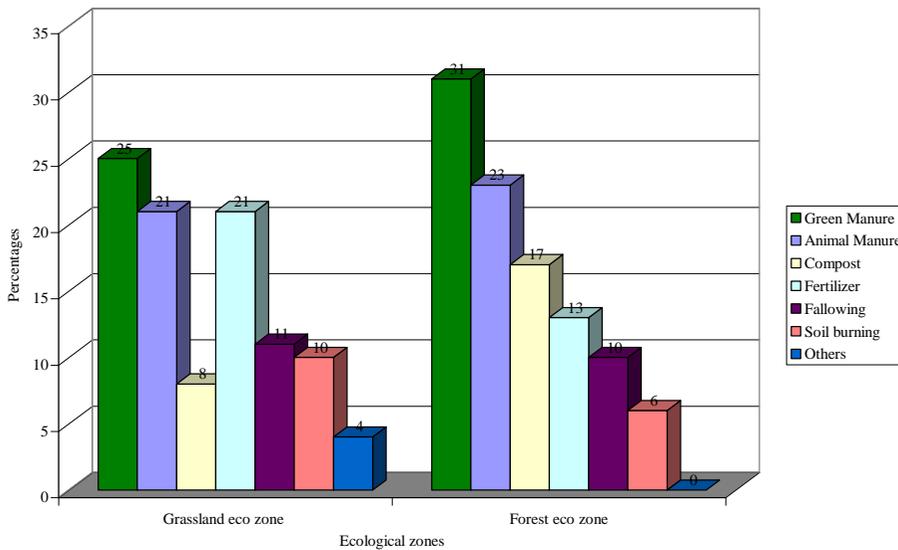
Diversification of soil enrichment techniques in terms of grassland and forest ecological zones presents certain disparities and preferences. It is realised that farmers in the forest areas apply more (31%) of green manure than in the grassland areas (25%). They equally use more of animal manure (23%) and compost manure (17%) compared to 21% and 8% in the grassland areas, respectively (fig. 3). The grassland zones on their part use more of chemical fertilizer (21%), (11%) and soil burning (10%) against 13%, 10% and 6% for the forest zones, respectively (fig. 3).

The disparity in preference for the type of manure mainly used is linked to the influence of vegetation. In the forest zones, farming is carried out under tree canopy in forests that continually drop-dead leaves that are easily gathered into ridges and tilled without much strain in clearing as in the grasslands. The leaves due to the hot and humid nature of these areas decay faster without need for burning. This is unlike the grassland ecological zone, especially in the hilly areas where farmers need to muster lots of energy in clearing, an activity that prompts most farmers to resort to some burning in order to gain time or to reduce the amount of grass cleared from the farm plots. This explains the high proportion of farmers at 10% who use the fire as a means of enriching soil fertility.

The high use of animal manure in the forest zone compared to the grassland is explained by a long tradition of rearing small livestock for traditional and other social obligations imbedded in their cultural fabrics. Pigs, especially, are reared in confined structures and this readily provides the needed animal manure when necessity arises. This has not been the case in most of the grassland largely characterised by open field rearing with preference, especially for goats and sheep. This rearing technique allows for little

accumulation of droppings that can provide farm manure. It also demands more rearing ground and highly competes for land, therefore, limiting the scale of rearing for want of land. In the forest areas, pigs and fowls are feed with kennel cake and slush that are readily available and abundant in addition to other farm leftovers. Dependence on animal droppings from cattle limits the capacity of using it in large scales by great proportions because cattle is reared by a small number of the Mbororo population on hill tops at times far off from farming areas making transportation difficult and very constraining.

Fig. 3: Disparity in techniques used by vegetation zones



Source: Bamboye 2011, field verifications and confirmation in 2022.

The type of principal activities carried out by the farmers explains the high proportion of farmers (17% against 8%) that uses compost manure in the forest areas. The processing of palm nuts into palm oil, which is one of the main activities of farmers in the forested zones, produces many types of chaff that are readily mixed with grass into compost pits to produce manure that is used on farms. These natural provisions are lacking in the grass-field areas making the compost process time and energy taking and costly for insignificant results. This explains why very few farmers venture into it in the grassland areas. Farmers in the grassland ecological zones have a broad diversity in the types of manure techniques than farmers in the forest areas as they employ other forms of manure (4%) such as wood ash not identified in the forest areas. They also depend highly on artificial sources of manure techniques while at the same time conserving the ancient traditional techniques at higher proportions (fig. 3). It is also realised that there is a steady drop in the preference for the various types of manure with the very natural sources taking the lead and the other more ecologically damaging technique receive lesser preference in the forested zones than in the grassland zones. While demonstrating the highly diversified nature of soil enriching techniques in the grassland zones, most of these techniques seem to be leaving much to be desired in terms of environmental sanity. Farmers in the forest areas contrarily prove to be more natural and environmentally protective in their choices of techniques as they are largely ecological and biological than those in the grassland areas.

3.1.7. Mixed farming techniques

Mixed farming, one of the new techniques adopted in the region of late involves mutually benefiting association of small livestock and crop cultivation with crops providing feed for the animals and animals providing manure for the crops. It makes up for 11% of farmers applying new techniques of farming (table 1). Examining the specific element of mixed farming, the analyses reveal a greater proportion (71%) of farmers practicing it (table 2) contrary to 11% in the analyses of the element on general change in techniques used in the agricultural system of the NWR today (table 1).

Table 2: Farmers practicing mixed farming by main activity and length of time.

Practicing/activity mainly concentrating on N° of years in mixed farming	Crop		Animal		No		Total	
	N°	%	N°	%	N°	%	N°	%
0-3	102	13	14	2	0	0	116	15
4-6	130	17	8	1	0	0	138	18
7-9	82	10	6	1	0	0	88	11
10+	194	25	16	2	0	0	210	27
None	0	0	0	0	232	29	232	29
Total	508	65	44	6	232	29	784	100

Source: Bamboye 2011, field verifications and confirmation in 2022.

Empirical evidence shows that 34% of farmers have been practicing mixed farming for less than 10 years and 27% for more than 10 years (table 2). This indicates that many farmers have just embraced or are embracing the practice to broaden the agricultural base and reap maximum profit. The newfound crop/animal association is greatly improving farm yields and household incomes as more is produced for consumption and the market. Of the farmer households involved in mixed farming, 65% concentrates more on crop cultivation and only 6% consecrates more on rearing. This is because the farmers mainly involve in small life stock including goats, sheep, pigs, rabbits, guinea pigs and poultry most of which demand limited care or are reared in small quantities. Only 29% of the farming household is not involved in this practice yet. This demonstrates the level of diversification in the perspective of the agricultural system.

3.1.8. Crop rotation farming techniques

Crop rotation is one of the newly applied techniques of enriching soil fertility and enhancing farm space in the study area. Although not yet accepted and practiced in a large scale by farming households, farmers practicing it are realising increases in output on the same farm plot without desiring to increase farm size spatially. In addition to the on-ridge rotation of several crops discussed under cropping techniques earlier, there is veritable movement of crop types across farm plots on the same farm in succession from one cultivation year to the other. Some farmers rotate crops and animals on seasonal bases. There is also seasonal rotation of crops cultivated on the same piece of land common in areas where swamp rice cultivation is possible. This mostly involves the rotation of maize and rice or soya beans on the same plot with one, especially maize, occupying the normal on-season cultivation period and the others coming later in the off-season period due to their nature requiring sunny and dry conditions to ripen. Soy beans on its part is mainly planted by farmers in the Mbo plain to revitalise soil fertility through their nitrogen fixing

effect in preparation for a better output in maize cultivation. This technique sufficiently replaces the need to apply any other form of manure again among these farmers.

These different techniques, especially the newly introduced ones, are very accommodating to each other and are easily mastered by the farmers in the NWR. It has been noticed that all farmers associating and practicing a couple of these techniques have witnessed a two or threefold, and even fourfold increase in the agricultural production, which makes it possible for them to ensure food self-sufficiency. It is also noted with satisfaction that marginal lands are sustainably farmed thanks to new farm management techniques. This enables farmers to cultivate same farm plots longer, avoiding close interval clearing or fallow practices shortening the time for regeneration and population movements in search of arable land that often creates conflict among resource users.

4. Discussions and Conclusions

Circumspection of the general trend towards new techniques used in the North West Region reveals that significant proportions of crop cultivators (69%) have been using new techniques for less than 10 years while only 16% have been using new techniques for more than ten years. There is empirical evidence that the desire for technique change in the agricultural system of the study area is currently high with 56% of cultivators who have been applying new techniques only for a maximum period of eleven years now. It is also evident that the situation of change is general with 86% of farmer households applying one or more of the identified new techniques and only 14% of them yet to embrace technique change. The general trend towards admittance and use of new farming techniques is increasing significantly enough to admit the conclusion that the agricultural system of the North West Region is largely diversifying in its techniques of application. It is also concluded that the search for new techniques is invariably linked to the desire to produce more in order to provision the rapidly growing population. This ties with the hypothesis that rapid population growth accounts for the diversification of the agricultural system of the region. This is the position taken by the neo-classical economist upholding the view that population growth is a positive impetus for technological progress (Boserup, 1965). It holds that population pressure is necessary for development to take place (Boserup, 1965; Amin Samir, 1972). It patronises agricultural technique diversification as an ultimate option to increasing output in a situation of population pressure by stating that a high population growth rate increases the resources by way of innovations and, therefore, promotes development. Boserup (1965) considers population growth as a necessary step towards innovation and increase growth. In the agricultural sector, these innovations, set the bases for various diversification endeavours. This equally ties with the perception of the medieval period considering population numbers as constituting the wealth of nations. This stand was widely accepted and abided by the Mercantilists who commanded the opinion on economic matters in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries as they felt that a large and growing population would be beneficial to the state and to the ruling class (Overbeek, 1973). The rapid rate of population growth, which is the principal force behind agricultural technique diversification, is credited for its contributions in advancements in the agricultural development of the area and for the resulting agricultural progress in ensuring the socio-economic development needed to fight against the dehumanising poverty that has been enslaving this population.

The scale of diversification in agricultural techniques in the region demonstrates the capacity of growing populations to adopt and to adapt productive techniques in an

environment with limited agricultural resources to produce enough to satisfy their needs. This shows the strength of a rapidly growing population in generating and ensuring development in the agricultural system as well as in the other aspects of social and the wider scale of economic development through variation and application of more productive agricultural techniques in order to escape from the Malthusian trap of a vicious cycle, which, holds that humans, like other forms of life, tended to reproduce in numbers greater than could be easily supported by available resources. It considers population growth fundamentally detrimental to the global system (UN, 2001) and argues that if existing patterns of population growth and resources use continue, they would lead to environmental breakdown and economic collapse (Orians and Skumanich, 1997). The current example of the North West Regions gives reason to consider such environmental breakdown and economic collapse to be farfetched at present levels of farm management technique diversification.

References :

1. Amin, S. (1972). Underdevelopment and Dependence in Black Africa: Historical Origin, *Journal of Peace Research* 9(2): 105–120.
2. Biggs, S.D. (1990). A multiple source of innovation model of agricultural research and technology promotion. *World Development* 18: 1481-1499.
3. Binns J. A. (1992). Traditional agriculture, pastoralism and fishing. In: Gleave M.B. (Eds). *Tropical African Development, England, Longman Scientific and Technical*, 153-188
4. Boserup, E. (1965). The conditions of Agricultural Growth: The Economics of Agrarian Change under Population Pressure. *New York, Aldine Publishing Company*.
5. Bruce J. and C. B. Lloyd (1995). Finding the ties that bind: beyond headship and household. In: Arno van der Avort, Kees de Hoog and Pieter Kalle (Eds.) *Single Parent Families. The Hague: The Netherlands Family Council*, pp.60-90
6. Bamboye, G. F. (2016). Crop production diversification and livelihood enhancement among farmer households in the North West Region of Cameroon. Book Chapter in : *Pour une géographie rurale de l'action. Mélanges en hommage au Professeur Joseph Gabriel ELONG*. Editions Clé, Yaoundé.
7. Bamboye, G. F. (2011). *Population Change, Agricultural Diversification and Environmental Dynamics in the North West Region of Cameroon*. PhD Thesis, University of Yaounde I.
8. Hardon-Baars, A. (1997). Users' perspectives: Literature review on the development of a concept. *UPWARD Working Paper Series No. 4*, Los Baños, Laguna: UPWARD.
9. Lamenn, B. S. (1994). The Present Situation and Future Prospects of the Population of the North West Province. *Yaoundé, Unpublished*.
10. Orians, C.E. and M. Skumanich (1997). The Population-Environment Connection: What does it mean for Environmental Policy? *U.S Environmental Protection Agency*.
11. Overbeek, J. (1973). Mercantalism, Physiocracy and Population Theory. *South African Journal of Economics. Volume 41, Issue 2*, pp. 108-113.
12. Rudie, I. (1995). The significance of "eating": co-operation, support, and reputation in Kelantan Malay households. In: Wazir Jahan Karim (Ed.) *'Male' and 'Female' in Developing Southeast Asia*, Oxford: Berg Publishers, pp. 227-247.

13. Simon, J. (1981). *The Ultimate Resource*. Princeton, New Jersey, Princeton University Press.
14. Scoones, I. (1998). Sustainable Rural Livelihoods. A Framework for Analysis, *IDS Working Paper No. 72, Brighton: IDS*.
15. Tchawa, P. (2001). Chain of innovation by farmers in Cameroon. In: Reij, Chris and Ann Waters-Bayer (Eds). *Farmer Innovation in Africa: A source of Inspiration for Agricultural Development*, London, Earthscan Publication Ltd.
16. U.N. (2001). *World Population Monitoring 2001: Population Environment and Development (ESA/P/WP.164)*. Draft. New York. Population, Division of Economic and social Affairs, UN.

IN-EQUALITIES AND VISITS BACK THE THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF VISITING THE HOME-VILLAGE

Angela PRINCIOTTO

PhD student at Universidad de Santiago de Compostela (Spain)

Email: angela.princiotto@libero.it

Abstract: *This paper provides a discussion of the therapeutic potential of migrants' visits back to their home-village that can be understood as a healing tool for the emotional dimension. By analyzing letters excerpts of migrants to the USA and Australia of the post WWII period, In-equalities appear to characterize their migration experience. Therefore, by focusing on the prefix In as having both the meanings of "opposite of" and "inside", In-equalities are theorized as both a condition of sameness and difference between members of the same group. Moreover, Inequalities considered as social inequalities, offering different opportunities to members of different social classes, appear to be among the reasons for leaving the home-village. This results in a condition of In-equality, i.e. sameness for the members of the same class, that is to say that of peasants as victims of social injustice who can find in emigration a way to access resources that are prevented in the home-village. Therefore, leaving can be perceived as a compelling resolution. This means that for the protagonists of the exodus, feelings such as pain and loss are inextricably part of their experience, highlighting how suffering and nostalgia constitute a condition of In-equality among migrants, that is to say a widespread state among members of the group. However, differences also exist among members of this group. Thus, a gap resulting in Inequalities, i.e. lack of equality, is that related to the possibility/impossibility of visiting the home-village that can have an impact on the subject's psychological wellbeing.*

Keywords: *migration, visits back, pain, in-equalities, emotions.*

1. Introduction

The discussion for this paper is part of my PhD research that is focused on emigration from my home village, S. Angelo di Brolo, in Sicily. The title of my research is "We are both Italians of the opposite sides of the world, a comparative analysis of diaspora and distance", where the concept of distance is not only used to refer to geographical spaces, as I have studied a transnational community and the research was conducted in five sites: Perth (Australia), New York (USA), Zurig (Switzerland), Velbert (Germany), Northern Italy, but also to time distance, as the different destinations correspond mainly to different waves of migration. Therefore, I consider the concept of distance as connected to the historical period of departure as well as for contextualizing the migrant in the host environment, hence as a geographical distance from the home-village and temporal distance from departure which have an impact on the frequency of visits back, resulting in In-equalities in the relationship with the home-village. Moreover, we need to be aware that in the distance of time, memory, in its selection work, can mythologize the meaning of events. Thus, the temporal distance from the last visit and the possibility or impossibility to attend events that are considered important for the individual can affect their psychological wellbeing, becoming a source of discomfort that can result in illnesses, such as a depressive disorder. Furthermore, a state of anxiety can exacerbate the feeling of nostalgia when migrants and/or expats find themselves in circumstances of impossibility of going back, emphasizing the healing potential of the return visit.

The approach for the collection of data is based on the grounded theory, and it is mainly a qualitative research, based on a mixed tools method employing: semi-structured interviews, participant observation and digital ethnography as I have taken notice of some posts on Facebook of people from S. Angelo. For the interest of this paper I have focused on the written correspondence of siblings from Sant'Angelo who migrated to Reading (USA) and Perth (Australia) in the WWII postwar period. As the letters are written in Italian but showing the influence of the Sicilian dialect which is used in everyday communication, I provide the excerpts' original version in order to put also an emphasis on the language used by the author, but also an English translation that is my work, trying to catch as much as possible of the meaning carried in the original.

2. Background

According to the Family Systems Theory, family can be conceptualized as a complex, dynamic and changing cluster of parts, subsystems and family members (Hammond, 2010). Notwithstanding that all families share cultural common traits, each family has their own family cultural uniqueness, consisting of the shared norms, values, symbols, way of life that are passed down from one generation to another (Hammond, 2010). In this panorama, it appears relevant to reflect on important developments in contemporary family life with a need for studies on intimacy and family life, that is to say the way people connect to each other (Dermott and Seymour, 2011). As mobility has become much more a feature of contemporary life, an increasing number of people are separated from kin members by distance and national borders (Baldassar and Merla, 2014). Therefore, transnational families have been conceptualized in order to reveal how families are affected by mobility (Baldassar and Merla, 2014). The importance of focusing on the family in migration studies has been highlighted by Baldassar (2007), as well as the need of focusing on the practices and discourses of long-distance care. Notwithstanding that today people can use virtual media in order to be present in each other's life, long-awaited letters was the means used in the past by transnational family members to stay in touch (Baldassar and Merla, 2014).

As shown by Borges and Cancian (2016), scholarly attention has turned towards letters written by migrants as a way to incorporate their perspective in the studies about migration. Missives are, in fact, considered by researchers as catalysts of mass migration as they are the ideal source to learn about the experiences of migration, reasons of emigration, migrants' daily life and issues of settlement. In this context, letters are a powerful means to reveal affects and feelings connected with the separation from kin members and wishes of reencounters, thus playing a relevant role in negotiating family relations in which visiting the home-village can be also considered in its potential therapeutic role against feelings of nostalgia and loss that are inextricably part of the exodus experience.

Loretta Baldassar's well-established research on "visits home" (2001) demonstrated how migration is best understood as a set of transnational processes in which the return visit is central. At the same time, she highlights how it is paramount to compare and contrast the role of visits home in different historical periods and for diverse generations. Drawing on this, the aim of this paper is to investigate the role of visits back and their healing potential in migrants of the postwar period to the USA and Australia by analyzing letters excerpts as well as demonstrating how the return visit can be understood as an example of conditions of In-equalities.

3. Discussion

As maintained by Faist (2019), inequalities occur when people can access valuable goods more easily than others because of their social position. Concerning emigration, debates about its connection with inequalities are ubiquitous, ranging from the causes at the basis of departure, to settlement issues in the host environment which means conflicts between the native population and newcomers but also between natives and returnees in the homeland as a result of a changing perception of membership. In this context, migrants' visits back to the home-village can become a useful means to question how asymmetries are produced and reproduced in the course of the exodus experience.

Moreover, Taylor et al. (2014) have highlighted the connection between inequalities, deprivation and psychological outcomes. In the case of emigrants, despite the experience abroad in most cases ensures better economic conditions, a condition of deprivation is that linked with the wishes of going back to the land of origin and the anxiety deriving from the impediment of doing so, especially in circumstances of high emotional impact, i.e. the loss of loved ones. In this panorama, writing practices in the context of transnational families can be a powerful tool in order to reveal the emotional outcomes resulting from the deprivation of visiting the home-village.

In their work, Taylor et al. (2014) showed how the association of inequalities and deprivation can result in higher risk of psychological disorders. In most cases, inequalities are associated with variations in economic wellbeing (Taylor et al, 2014). However, inequalities in general terms derive from the exclusion of accessing resources as well as practices that are relevant for the individual. Thus, considering how relevant for most migrants the return to the homeland is, it can be assumed that the impediment of going back can be considered a risk factor that can affect the individual's health, resulting in health inequalities. Therefore, concerning the word in-equality, I want to focus on the prefix In- that suggests both the meaning of "opposite of" as well as "inside", while equality comes from the latin *aequalitas*. When related to people, it refers to individuals having the same status, rights or opportunities. With regard to migrants, it can be used in order to emphasize both a state of sharing the same condition as protagonists of the same experience of separation from home and loved ones that results in a shared feeling of nostalgia. Therefore, this status is what I refer to as In- equality, where In suggests the meaning of a similar condition that derives from being part of the same group. However, not always members of the same group have the same opportunities, hence resulting in inequalities where In has got the meaning of "opposite of", emphasizing a condition of lack of equality. For the interest of the present paper, inequalities are mainly understood as those related to the circumstances of going/not going back to the home-village that can affect the individual's wellbeing.

First of all, between other findings, my study demonstrates how social inequalities are at the basis of the choice of leaving. In fact, in addition to stories about inequalities in the community of Sant'Angelo told during interviews, also testimonies of this kind are preserved in written documents as some extracts from letters demonstrate. The following is an excerpt of a missive from a lady written in the years prior to the choice of leaving to the USA. It shows how belonging to the peasants class would expose them to the condition of being subjected to the whims of more powerful people.

finoggi siamo col cuore nero tu non puoi immaginare la pena che tengo nel mio cuore che ancora non ci ha dato nessuna risposta [...] noi non ci volessimo fare capire che ci abbiamo una protesta così necessaria che saremo in sospetto che forse questo disgraziato campieri darà male informe verso a noi con qualunque persona che lui parra perché abbiamo ricordato di una volta noi eravamo già decisi a prenderci un giardino qui vicino e era di un capitano e lui mi à rotto la traccia [...] mi à detto così andateci ora dal capitano vedete se volodà più il suo giardinodopo che lui chisà che cosa cià detto di contrario.”

04/06/1949

We are so sad, you cannot imagine the sorrow I have got in my heart as he has not answered yet [...] we don't want him to understand that we need that [land] so much as we would suspect that that wretched *camperi* will give bad information about us with everyone he will talk to as we remembered about one time that we had decided to rent a garden nearby and he worked in order to interrupt the negotiation [...] he told me now go to see the captain see if he gives you the garden after who knows what he said against us.

Foremost, this extract demonstrates the existence of educational inequalities shading light on the author's class and cultural background as there are mistakes in her way of writing, showing the influence of the use of sicilian dialect for everyday communication that was common in lower classes whereas proper Italian was employed only by well educated rich people. Therefore, this testimony is illustrative of the interconnection between class privilege, educational privilege and economic privilege (Faist, 2019). Secondly, it shows hierarchies of power. In fact, peasants were not only subjected to the landowners, but also to intermediaries in the social ladder. Here the figure of the *camperi* emerges, a private guardian of cultivated lands, who was subjected to the landowner's power but willing to show his privilege by abusing weaker people, in this particular case by impeding them to rent a piece of land that seems to have been necessary for the family's economic stability. The *camperi*'s attitude is that of disempowering this peasant family by impeding them to access resources that could allow them to progress in the social ladder, thus reaffirming their conditions of marginalization. Therefore, the legitimation of inequalities that emerges in the excerpt and the perception of being victims of social injustice might have had an influence in considering emigration as the only possible choice for improving the family's economic status.

Noteworthy, in the context of the village, social and financial inequalities were at the basis of the relationship between people living in the countryside and those from the village center and were reiterated by more powerful people in order to ensure personal wellbeing. Therefore, class was a discriminating factor that determined access to valuable resources and privileges as it is confirmed in the following extract of a letter from an emigrant to Perth:

Qua per i giovani ce sempre un avvenire, e poi non sono superbi come da noi, e in specie quelli cani del paese, che ancora a noi lavoratori della terra ci chiamano i vedani di campagna.

07/11/1979

Here young people have got a future and people are not arrogant as they are in our village, especially those dogs from the center who still call us who work the land *vedani* (peasants) from the countryside.

This testimony highlights how what the migrant considers most valuable in the host environment is the existence of more equal social conditions, what he calls *avvenire*, meaning having the possibility to access resources he would be prevented from in the home-village where the social divide between those who lived in the town center and those in the countryside prevented the last ones to change status, or to access financial resources, therefore power, resulting in privileges that were prerogative of a few, that is to say resulting in conditions of inequality that were hard to change.

Even though migration paved the way for improving economic conditions in the foreign country, thus improving the migrants' socio-economic status, it underlined the rise of inequalities between those who stayed and those who left. In the host country, the migrant could more easily access better working conditions, higher incomes, better housing conditions than he potentially would access in the village or others of the same social class who stayed in the home-village could. However, that of vulnerability was a common condition for the migrant who had to find strategies in order to deal with the host environment, an environment that was unusual to him as it is evident in the following:

[...] sono stato sempre infelice del primo giorno che orivato qua [...] di quanto pene e guai che ò traversato eò rinchiuso in questo cuore orivato che neanche ciò le forze discrivere a tutte

09/01/1970

[...] I have always been unhappy since the first day I arrived here [...] because of the sorrow and troubles I have been through and I have got in my heart, I got to the point where I don't even have energy to write to everyone.

In these words, the source of distress seems to be attributed to the emigration experience appointed as an experience of suffering. However, emotional sorrow seems to affect the body. As maintained by Eisenberg and Kleinman (1981), the experience and expression of pain is different in diverse cultural groups. These experiences can be communicated through somatic, psychological, or interpersonal idioms, with symptoms affecting organ systems. Moreover, as emphasized by Del Vecchio Good et al., pain is "an intimate feature of lived experience of individuals in the context of their social world and historical epoch" (1994, 2). Nevertheless, conditions of pressure perceived in the host environment could threaten psychological wellbeing, resulting also in episodes of hysteria especially in particular circumstances, as in the case of the death of kin members. An episode reported by one of my informants is that of a lady having a nervous crisis as a result of opening a letter containing a picture of her father's funeral, thus becoming aware of his death after his burial, hence becoming conscious of having been unable to attend a loved-one key life-cycle event. When unable to attend such events, especially of grief, the sense of guilt for the separation from family members must have been amplified with a need of finding therapeutic responses. In fact, the following illustrates a cultural elaboration of pain highlighting the modes of facing it in the peculiar context of migrants far away from their kinship:

Tanto mi trovo pazzo dalla pena e ti prego vedi se puoi avere una fotografia per ricordo che là desidero tanto dei genitori celavevo elò fatto fare più grande.

09/01/1970

I am crazy from sorrow and I beg you if you can send me a picture as a memory as I want it badly, I have one of our parents and I had it made bigger.

What is expressed in this excerpt is that the psychological impact of the loss of a kin member can be mitigated by symbolically reducing the distance from loved ones through the materiality of an image representing the deceased. However, pain experienced at times of losing loved ones can be treated in different ways as it can be considered a transitory mood associated with an event. In fact, Kleinman and Good's work (1985) questions to what extent depression is a cultural category as cross cultural research offers evidence of variations in depressive mood, symptoms and illness. Moreover, they focus on the matter that describing how it feels to be grieved or melancholy in another society leads straightway into analysis of different ways of being a person in radically different worlds.

In this panorama, a source of distress for the protagonists of the exodus experience is the lack of involvement in the lives of loved ones, thus linked to the practical difficulties of being together. Therefore, for migrants, in particular those of the last century, distance from the home-village was/is a relevant component resulting in inequalities as it was/is a critical factor for more or less frequent visits to the home-village. However, in the condition of separation from the home-village, nostalgia was a common feeling. Hence, nostalgia is usually an emotional state shared by this particular group resulting in a characteristic of in-equality implying a condition of sameness among members of the group, that is to say experiencing forms of emotion that are not part of the repertoire of others. Nostalgia as a feeling of loss deriving from separation from loved ones and from the home-village is integral to the emotional world of this group. However, in some cases, the emotional discomfort can result in abnormalities in the functioning of the body. As reported by an informant, her mother was usually suffering from various symptoms of illness, such as stomach problems, headaches etc. but check ups did not show any evidence of disease, therefore the physician suggested a trip back to the home-village as a treatment. In relation to episodes of this kind, it becomes relevant to highlight how circumstances of abnormality can be culturally conditioned (Eisenberg and Kleinman, 1981) and some illnesses might require a special therapeutic response. In fact, it can be assumed that the distress linked with the exodus experience could emphasize depressive tendencies that might have somatic manifestations. Thus, the return visit can have a healing potential as a way of treating emotions of missing and longing that are experienced in the absence of loved ones.

As maintained by Baldassar (2008), emotions of missing and longing as integral features of the kin-work can also become manifest physically, through the body. As she points out, 'emotion' is defined as the inward, experiential side of feeling, and "affect" as its more behaviourally manifested expression. Therefore, visits back can be understood as a practice through which emotions of missing and longing become manifest and are 'put in action' "as physical co-presence allows people to act out and express their sense of closeness or intimacy, showing with their bodies that they still know each other and confirming through touch that they are really okay" (Baldassar, 2008, 261).

Drawing on this, it can be assumed that the impossibility of going back means that a set of physical and emotional needs are not fulfilled and this can result in a somatic manifestation of discomfort as it is expressed in the following extract:

lò scritto a lui e pure attè di farmi sapere in quali mesi era più comodo che potevamo venire e neanche a queto ò auto risposta [...]la salute è vero che non miaiuta ma mi forzava per rivedere a tutti ma con quelle notizie cheò ricevuto mi sono amalata di più non poteva venire più sul serio mi anno lasciato tutte le mie forze un scoraggiamento che mià venuto e un dispiacere terribile, che non cera più rimedio che potevo fare più un viaggio è ancora sono così nono potuto fare più un viaggio una pena che mistà portando al cimitero, ma nò per questo subito o cambiato pensiero ma tante altre cose che mi hanno sopraggiunto che mi trovo troppo male

28/03/1980

I wrote to him and to you too to let me know in which months it was more suitable for you for us to come, but I did not get any answer. I was not in good health, it's true, but I would have made an effort in order to see everyone again but with the news I got, I got even sicker and it was not possible for me to go. I ran out of physical strength, I got terribly sad, there was no remedy anymore, I could not face the trip anymore. It is still the same, I could not do a trip anymore, a sorrow that is bringing me to the cemetery. But I did not change my mind straightway but also other things have happened that I am in a very bad condition.

In this testimony, it appears evident how the writer's emotional state is claimed to be affecting the physical one. Even though she asserts that her health status was not good enough in order to face a long journey, the aim of physically meeting loved ones again seemed to be prevailing. However, it appears that she got no response from those who remained behind about being re-accepted in their household, thus resulting in the pointlessness of the visit back. The perceived lack of interest from the other side of the family about the trip back, together with other not well specified news, seems to have affected the writer's emotional state resulting also in physical symptoms. Moreover, what is implicit in this testimony, is the need to conform to a depressive behavior, in order to show to the other the hardship of the individual's choice- either that of leaving or staying put.

Another important dimension of the visit experience is its potential for disappointment and disillusionment. Visits can be problematic and they can also affect the visitor's physical health as the following testimony of a migrant visiting his family in USA before going back to Italy shows:

ci siamo riabbracciati con dispiacere che rivato malato lui dici che sia rovina sopra lapparecchio [...] sono stati 30 ore solo sopra lapparecchio estato un viaggio troppo lungo, forse estato pure il viaggio come penza lui perché pure il dottore cià detto di non viaggiare, il fatto stà che sarà rovinato e non ciè stato mezzo di migliorare mi dispiacio tanto per voi che lo aspettavo contanta gioia

09/04/1987

We hugged with sorrow as he was ill when he arrived. He said he got sick on the plane [...] they were on the plane for 30 hours, it was such a long journey. Maybe it was because of the trip as he thinks, as the doctor told him not to travel. The problem is that he is ruined as there is no way to get better. I am so sorry for you who were waiting for him with such joy.

Even though from this extract the migrant's health conditions seem not good enough for him to complete his journey back to his roots and the doctors suggested him not to travel, my informants revealed that he did go back to Italy, despite his physical conditions. Thus, this decision can be understood as demonstrating that fulfilling emotional needs can be in some cases more relevant than physical ailments. As illustrated by Baldassar (2008), the feeling of nostalgia, often referred to as a type of heartache, of longing and missing is commonly expressed as a desire to be with kin or to be back home. Indeed, it has long been understood that returning home can cure the terrible ailment of homesickness: the word nostalgia derives from the Greek verb nostos, which means to return. Hence, the way to manage the heartache of longing for and missing is through sensual contact and co-presence, in other words, through feeling the presence of people and places involving all of the five senses. The expressions of longing and missing or absence and loss thus appear to be manifestations of the emotional need for reunion and return or co-presence.

Conclusions

Through the analysis of emigrants' letters excerpts that showed conditions of social and economic inequality in the home-village, we illustrated that migration could be conceived as a solution in order to open up the opportunity of improving those conditions. However, migration can be seen as creating both circumstances of both in-equality (similar conditions inside the group) and inequality (lack of equality). As for migrants the return visit is central in the set of transnational processes of their experience, the possibility/impossibility of going back can be seen as a discriminating factor of inequalities in the group of migrants. As longing for being together with loved ones affects all senses, the return visit, through feeling the presence of loved ones and being in affective places. can cure the ailment of homesickness. Therefore, the fulfillment of the desire to return can prompt also to dismiss physical ailments.

References:

1. Baldassar, L., and Merla, L., ed. (2014). *Transnational families, Migration and the Circulation of Care: Understanding Mobility and Absence in Family Life*, London and New York: Routledge.
2. Baldassar, L., (2008). Missing Kin and Longing to be Together: Emotions and the Construction of Co-presence in Transnational Relationships. *Journal of Intercultural Studies*, in Vol. 29 (3): 247-266.
3. Baldassar, L., (2007). Transnational families and Aged Care: The Mobility of Care and the Migrancy of Aging. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, in Vol. 33 (2): 275-297.
4. Baldassar, L., (2001). *Visits home. Migration experiences between Italy and Australia*. Carlton South Victoria: Melbourne University Press.

5. Borges, M., and Cancian, S., (2016). Reconsidering the migrant letter: from the experience of migrants to the language of migrants. *The history of family*, in Vol. 21(3): 281-290.
6. Del Vecchio Good, M. J., Brodwin, P., Good, B., Kleinman A., ed. (1994). *Pain as a Human Experience: An Anthropological Perspective*. California: California University Press.
7. Dermott, E., and Seymour, J., ed. (2011). *Displaying families. A New Concept for the Sociology of Family Life*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
8. Eisenberg, L., Kleinman, A., ed. (1981). *The Relevance of Social Science for Medicine*. Holland: Reidel Publishing Company.
9. Faist, T., (2019). *The transnationalized social question: Migration and the Politics of Social Inequalities in the Twenty-First Century*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
10. Hammond, R., (2010). *Sociology of the family*. Online: Smashwords Edition.
11. Kleinman, A., Good, B., ed. (1985). *Culture and Depression: Studies in the Anthropology and Cross-Culture Psychiatry of Affect and Disorder*. California: University of California Press.
12. Taylor, P., Shevkin, M., Bentall, R., (2014). The Impact of Social Deprivation on Paranoia, Hallucinations, Mania and Depression: The Role of Discrimination Social Support, Stress and Trust. *Plos one*, 1-11, (online) available at: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0105140>.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Elena-Otilia ȚÎROIU

Ph.D. Student, Doctoral School of Social Sciences and Humanities,
University of Craiova (Romania)

E-mail: tiroiuotilia@yahoo.com

Abstract: *Organizational culture of the school is based on a system of values and concepts, shared by all of its members, that determines their behaviour and guides the school's activity. Knowing the organizational culture characteristics is achieved through socialization. By socializing, getting in touch with other human beings, one gradually becomes a knowledgeable, self-aware being accustomed to the ways of being of that culture. Socialization connects different generations. Education is an aspect of the socialization process through which people achieve the behaviours necessary to participate in social life. In other words, the culture of an educational institution could be defined as the set of values, beliefs, aspirations, and behaviors of the members of a school, which prevails within, developed over time and it directly and indirectly conditions its functionality and performance. The educational culture that accompanies an institution in its journey toward change, is a group process in which all members of society learn new ways to lay the foundations of education, understanding that it is a lengthy process based upon the formation of prosocial behaviours and habits among students. Socializing through education, within the school as an organization, involves the transmission, appropriation, internalization and application of cultural, scientific, philosophical, ethical, economic values.*

Keywords: *organisational culture, cultural values, socialisation, organisation, educational institution, prosocial behaviour.*

1. Introduction

The members of an organisational culture are the people who are the ones building up the culture and contribute to the development of the organisational culture. The attribute of an organisation, its integral part, exerts a strong influence on its team members, transforming their behaviours through norms and values. Thus, the elements of a healthy and successful organizational culture should include elements such as a clear mission statement, a concise vision that defines medium and/or long-term objectives, establishing rules and regulations, necessary skills and abilities, such as integrity, trust, effective leadership, effective processes, rewarding results, client/student orientation, effective communication, organization logo and/or symbol as identifying elements.

The culture of a school is essential during the process of change. The assimilation of culture aims at a sustained effort to socialize individuals, their determination to adopt an appropriate behavior in accordance with the values and beliefs considered correct by that specific culture.

Today, the school (meaning from kindergarten to university, including postgraduate programs) offers a level of education that raises more and more concerns globally, but also within each community that assumes a development perspective. The school, as a conservative institution in essence (because its role is to preserve the past of human knowledge by passing it on to future generations), inevitably lags behind the knowledge society. The shift from focusing on encyclopedic knowledge to skills is trying to alleviate this inadequacy. As we strive to provide an inclusive, positive learning

environment, there is a need to change concepts and attitudes towards student discipline. The starting point is the belief that this type of behaviour, positive social behaviour, can be learnt. To develop a positive organisational culture within the schools and communities, it is important to promote positive relationships with others (Dumitru & Ciucă, 2019).

The new philosophy of the discipline at the school level aims at the positive discipline of the students, of the class of students, creating a positive school climate and a supportive environment for the growth and personal, social and academic development of the students. Discipline implies teaching, focusing on prevention and remediation. It means for education a different type of behaviour management (positive discipline of students), as opposed to the traditional approach based on fear, intimidation, punishment, or aggression of any kind. The culture of the school can change either implicitly, without changing it, or explicitly with the deliberate introduction of norms and values that support the change.

The motivation of this study comes from the need to assess the current situation in Romanian schools regarding the process of internalization of cultural values by students in the learning process within the school organization.

2. Schools as organizations: key characteristics

People are part of various organisations, interacting daily, making decisions about their personal daily activities or about their roles and responsibilities. The human being cannot live alone, isolated from his fellows and to achieve his goals, he must live in interaction and association with them. The concept of organization, according to Erhard Friedberg (1997, p. 397), refers, on the one hand, to a social object, and on the other hand, to the social process underlying human activity. Everyone knows the social object because it is an integral part of our daily environment, being its dominant feature. Public administration, industrial, commercial, and service enterprises, as well as political parties or associations of all kinds, whose employees, members, activists and/or clients constitute organizations, i.e., formalised, and hierarchical human ensembles, to ensure cooperation and coordination of the activities of their members for achieving given goals (Giddens, 2000). In modern society, according to Anthony Giddens (2000), organizations play a much more important role in our lives than in any other previous era. As sources of social power, organizations can individually submit to imperatives that they cannot resist. An organization can be defined as an association of people, large, formed to achieve certain goals. Examples of organisations include business corporations, government agencies, schools, universities, hospitals, prisons, etc.

Modern society is more than ever a society of organizations (Zamfir, 2006). The most active subjects of the rapid development of modern society are economic, educational, scientific, and political organizations. Organizations have a deep impact on our lives. "Organization is a rational, institutionalized form of interaction between a group of people, driven by their interest (or their motivation) to achieve a common goal" (Preda, 2006, p. 17), even though members needs, desires, drives, expectations, and aspirations are distributed differently (Tabacaru Dumitru, 2021).

Therefore, a great number of sociologists believe that an organisation is a structured system of interaction between people toward common goals. Therefore, Zamfir (1999) and Vlasceanu (1993) crystallized when defining organizations several features: (1) an organization includes a group of human beings; (2) there are one or more explicitly stated goals, usually considered common to all members of the organization, (3) there is a

form of rational, institutionalised structuring of the constituent parts of the organization, (4) all members of a group interact with each other to achieve those common goals; (5) within the organization, all members should behave according to the social order.

One of the striking structural features of modern society is, as noted by Parsons (1956) the relatively wide distribution of organizations with specialized functions, which launches the formal organization research program and outlines the first elements of an analytical framework. Parson (1956) believes that organizations are systems, or rather, subsystems with various functions of the social system that includes them. Therefore, they have the same formal properties as other social systems, even if they are designed to achieve specific goals, such as the production of goods and services, the education of young people, or national defense - goals specific to businesses, educational and military services. Organizations achieve these goals through the relationships they maintain with the environment in which they operate. The relationship of interdependence between the different components of the social structure is important in achieving goals, hence we need each other.

An attempt to integrate the specific elements of several theoretical perspectives is the model of school organization proposed by Davidoff & Lazarus (2002). Both researchers attempted to capture the specificity of schools as organisations, focussing on the curriculum as a guiding factor. They argue that schools are a special category of organizations because they have specific educational goals and objectives, methodological ways of achieving those goals, and therefore specific characteristics in the relationship between the various components of organizational life. The specificity of educational goals and the global vision of education influence how a school is organized and how it functions. Among the indicators of a qualitative educational organisation, Bayne-Jardine & Wood (2000, 2005) highlighted the following one: an effective management, the trust of employees, students, parents, authorities and institutional partners of the educational institution, organizational commitment of all employees, low absenteeism and low staff turnover, effective management of financial resources, and teachers' professionalism. The efficiency of school institutions begins to be defined not only by specifying indicators but also from a systemic perspective. Additionally, Reynolds et al., (1996, 2005) argue that the efficiency of a school institution is reflected by the extent to which the school organization, as a social system, achieves its goals, without registering negative effects on the means and resources available, and without applying unnecessary pressure on its members.

In any school, there are elements specific to an organisation, such that everyone should work under optimal conditions for the whole system to work efficiently. Any malfunction or failure of a component will have a negative impact on the operation of the entire system.

From the perspective of the two researchers Davidoff & Lazarus (2002), the key elements of a school organisation are organisational culture, its identity, strategy, structures and procedures, technical support, human resources, leadership, and management style, as well as the context in which the school functions. All elements are highly interconnected, and the main difference between them reflects explanatory needs rather than the actual dynamics of the system.

3. Elements of organizational culture

The organisational culture of a school refers to the values, attitudes, beliefs, norms, traditions, and customs that have developed over time in a particular school unit and they

were transmitted from generation to generation with the aim to ensure the functioning of the respective school institutions. According to experts Nicolescu & Verboncu (1999, p.402) the organizational culture of a school can be defined as “a set of values, beliefs, aspirations, expectations and behavior patterns that have emerged over time in each organization, which prevails within or directly determines them and indirectly functionality and performance”.

Apart from highly formalized aspects such as written structure and procedures, the culture of a school organization reflects how things are conducted in such an institution. A well-known definition of culture was developed by Shein (1990), where culture is a pattern of values, beliefs, and all fundamental assumptions that were developed by the group while trying to solve its problems of adapting to the external environment and maintaining its internal integrity, a template that has worked long enough to be considered valid, which is transmitted to a new generation of students as the correct way to perceive, think and emotionally respond to problems encountered.

A strong organizational culture of a school can significantly improve the quality of educational processes and the effectiveness of the school, if the values, beliefs, practices, norms, and models adopted by the members of the institution are consistent with the mission of the school (Davidoff & Lazarus, 2002; Sallis, 1993/2005).

The organizational culture of the school refers to the mission and vision of the school, the values, attitudes, beliefs, norms, traditions, and customs formed over time in a particular school unit and passed down from generation to generation to those who make the corresponding school institute function. The organisational culture of the school units can be analyzed from the perspective of two distinct perspectives: normative culture (formal aspect) and expressive culture (informal aspect).

The normative culture refers to the set of rules, norms, regulations, hierarchies, that are formal since they are registered in the documents regulating the activities of the respective types of school unit.

The expressive culture is expressed through the set of experiences, feelings, aspirations of the persons who form the team of the respective school units, their organisational ethos; the symbolism of the organisation (rites, rituals, specific ceremonies).

Moreover, we can state that the organisational culture of a school can be defined as “a set of values, beliefs, aspirations, expectations and behavior developed over time in each organisation, which predominates within it and directly and indirectly conditions its functionality and performance” (Nicolescu & Verboncu, 1999, p. 402).

The specificity of the school culture as a social organization can be analyzed by referring to the following levels, as well as to its content aspects: mission, vision, main assumptions, organizational cultural values, and cultural norms. The key points indicate how the organizational culture is oriented as it refers to the "philosophy" of the staff of the institution regarding education and its relevance for the individual, the social significance of the school institution, the role of the teacher, etc.

For example, the belief that a person improves through education or, conversely, that education cannot significantly influence students with hereditary potential unfavorable for certain subjects, or that the social background of school children could explain the results, are well-known. Other aspects refer to the dominant concept regarding the nature and characteristics of truth: who determines the truth within an organization? Is the truth the prerogative of even more experienced members, or should it be the result

of consensus? Depending on the answer to such questions, in some organizations there may be a tendency to respect authority, hierarchy, or, conversely, more respect for autonomy, individualism and openness to self-management, in an institution where everyone feels responsible for everything that happens. and they all form a "family" in which every member takes care of the others. The values of the school culture express the most widespread opinions in a school unit regarding what is desirable for the respective schools to be more efficient. They express the focus of the school staff on innovation or conservatism, orientation on the quality of the educational process, or on the formal fulfillment of the obligations assumed.

Organizational behavioral norms represent another form of manifestation of the school organizational culture. Some examples are (1) formal norms, concerning the behavior of school employees in situations essential for the activities of the school unit; stated in the internal rules or in any decisions made by the school management, and (2) informal norms, established over time by the employees themselves, spontaneously, unregistered in any regulation, but which establish ways of behaving in different contexts, of great importance for all of them; (they express, for example, *what not to do*, e.g., *do not criticize your colleagues in front of parents or students or to complain to the principal* etc.).

The vision is a short and simple aspirational description of what an organisation or school wants to pursue and/or achieve in the medium or long term. It defines the desired future state of the organization, i.e., it describes what the organization wants over time. Vision answers a basic question: where do you want to be in the future? A vision statement is always future-oriented, challenging, and inspiring. It sets the organisation's long-term goals, serves as the basis for a comprehensive strategic plan, motivates employees, attracts new experts, helps focus on the organization's efforts and helps institutions differentiate themselves from their competitors.

A *mission* statement is a statement that emphasizes the organization's main purpose and guides the organization's day-to-day decision-making activities. Mission statements remain the same over time, although a company may update its mission statement. A good mission statement sets the desired direction for the entire organization. It clearly states what is important and what is not, and which directions will be served and how. The mission statement also answers the questions: What do we want to do? When are we going to do it? How are we going to do it?

The *mission* concept was introduced around 1970 by Peter Drucker (1970). He stated that "an organization is defined not by its name, statute, or articles of association, but by the mission of the organization. Only a clear definition of the mission and purpose of the organisations allows realistic goal setting. The realisation of the mission was achieved through the mission statement. According to Peter Drucker, the mission reflects the fundamental purpose of the organization, which explains the reason for the existence of this organization in relation to its main partners (Drucker, 1986, 1989, 2001). Similarly, it is considered that the mission statement should capture the primary purpose of the organization, in line with the values and expectations of stakeholders, and answer questions such as, "What kinds of businesses are we involved in?" (Johnson et al., 2008). Thompson & Strickland (1990, p. 24) considers that "a well-formulated mission should answer several questions such as who the company is, what it does, and where it is going", while Welch (2005) considers that "a mission statement is a short statement, usually a sentence reflecting the organization's main purpose, identity, distinctive capabilities that enable it to gain a competitive advantage, and how the organization seeks to create value

for stakeholders, such as shareholders, employees, customers. ". The mission informs managers and employees about the value system and the general objectives of the organization.

In practice, the mission is often confused with the object of the activity. In fact, there is a big difference between the object of the activity and the mission. A company cannot become a leader in its field of activity without a clear definition of what it wants or does not want, and the relevance of its future activities. The formulation of the mission aims at personalizing, individualizing an organization. The mission is materialized into goals, and strategies and action plans are developed for their implementation.

The mission statement is characterized by the following aspects: it has a broad scope, not referring to numbers, percentages, monetary values, or objectives; it has at most 250 words, it is inspirational, suggesting the pulse of satisfaction that people could have because of the organization's activity, it gives the feeling of sustainability.

Vision can serve as a strong motivating factor for the members of the organization, but for this, all participants must consider it achievable and consistent with the core values of the organization.

"The vision statement guides the organization in a clear set of directions and future expectations" (Kaplan & Norton, 2008).

Vision is a concise statement that defines the goals of an organization in the medium and long term (three to ten years). The vision should be oriented to the outside of the organization and express, in terms of aspirations, how the organization wants to be perceived by others in the future. As no organization remains static, the vision offers a strategic direction. The vision should be ambitious, challenging, evoking strong and compelling, with clear mental images of the desired future stages, but equally perceived as achievable, to stimulate employees, to make them realise their full potential. According to Collins & Porras (1991), well thought out vision has two main components: a basic ideology and a vision of the organisation's future. The ideology of an organization aims at the link that holds the components of an organization together and determines its sustainability, clarifying what this means and why this organization exists. The formulation of an organization's mission and vision must precede strategy development (Thompson & Strickland, 1992). If a vision statement defines a development strategy, it should not only be a simple statement of aspirations, but also provide a clear direction for the strategy, including measurable results and targets.

4. Typology of organizational cultures at school level

The most famous classification of organizational cultures belongs to Handy (1985). He distinguishes between the power-type, role-type culture, the task-oriented culture, and the person-type culture. In a culture of power, control and authority are in the hands of one person. This type of culture is typical of small organizations. Among the strengths of such a culture can be mentioned rapid reactions to crises or opportunities, a high level of productivity, and strict supervision of work. Among the possible disadvantages, it is mentioned the arbitrariness of decision-making, constant pressure, resentment from those who have less power, high staff turnover. In a role culture, there are well descriptions of the positions, roles, and relationships between them. Periodically, the organization will rearrange the roles and relationships between them, depending on the change in priorities and will redistribute individuals in these roles.

Decisions on the actions of departments are taken at the top by a small board of directors. The characteristic features of this format are rigidity, stability, and the clarity of the actions that the employees undertake. The opportunities for advancement are limited, which determines a hierarchical structure unchanged over a long time. Among the advantages, we mention the clarity of roles, tasks, relationships, high quality of work, members' feeling of importance for the organization. Among the possible disadvantages, we note difficulties in solving unforeseen problems and in changing the structure, refusing unpredictable or unplanned actions; delays in making decisions or implementing actions. A goal-oriented culture emphasises the accomplishment of professional tasks, whether by an individual or a group. In such an organization, the most important thing is the achievement of goals through a single mobilization of all members. Among the advantages of this culture, we note the flexibility and focus on solving problems. The downsides include the difficulty of managing changes in roles or relationships that must effectively complete unique tasks. In person-type culture, the interests of individuals or small groups take precedence. Experts in these organizations believe that managers have little control over them. This may include insignificant firms focused on the ability of an individual to develop an organisation (law firms, consulting firms, private medical practices). Among the advantages, we note the high satisfaction with the personal needs of the members of the organization, the existence of friendly, sincere, and respectful relations between members. The disadvantages include the difficulty of introducing new programs with high speed and decision-making; but also, wasting time on divergences of objectives and interests.

At first glance, it could be argued that role-type cultures are very common in Romanian schools, based on the argument that this type of culture has a high degree of compatibility with highly formalized structures such as educational institutions. But the conclusion would be hasty in the absence of rigorous research in this regard because, depending on the leadership style promoted, other types of cultures may predominate. For example, an authoritarian leadership style could generate a culture of power, while a participatory style could foster a task-oriented culture. As mentioned previously, the culture of a school is determined by internal and external factors.

The culture of a school reflects the culture of the society in which the school exists. It is strongly influenced by the characteristics, values, preferences of its members (Schein, 1990), as well as the leadership style promoted by Marks & Printy (2003). Starting from the model of cultural dimensions systematized by Hofstede (1980), Gavrilyuk & Gavrilyuk (2011) analyzed the preferences of Romanian teachers in terms of power distance, collectivism-individualism, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and time perspective dimensions. The obtained results showed a massive power distance at the level of teachers in Romania, even higher than the results obtained from samples from the Romanian population, indicating a tense and distrustful nature among teachers with different hierarchical levels. Regarding the individualism-collectivism aspect, Gavrilyuk & Gavrilyuk (2011) identified the presence of the collectivist pole, which denotes the fact that, in Romania, teachers value belonging to significant social networks. The score on the masculinity - femininity dimension emphasizes the value of relationships and conviviality to the detriment of perseverance and performance. When it comes to avoiding uncertainty, teachers fear change, seeing it as a threat rather than an opportunity. Finally, the temporal perspective of teachers in Romania seems to be focused on the "here and now," with little concern for the more distant future.

5. Conclusion

Schools represent a special type of organization: they have specific educational purposes, specific ways of achieving goals, and therefore have a specific organizational life. Exploring the definition suggested by Cristea (2004), we might argue that a school represents an organization whose main mission is to maximize the student's personality, during a specialized learning process, created simultaneously as a teaching, learning and assessment mechanism.

The success of a school organization depends on several factors related to the students' characteristics, teachers' engagement, and curriculum aspects. Davidoff & Lazarus (2002) propose a model of the school as an organization by analyzing the impact of eight factors in the development of the school institution: organizational culture, its identity, strategy, structures and procedures, technical support, human resources, leadership, and management style, as well as the context in which the school functions. All elements are strongly interconnected and must be in place for a school to function as a successful institution.

Organizational culture is important because it can support or affect the efficiency of the activities and the fulfillment of the institution's goals (Johns, 1998). Ambitious goals are set in vain by the management if the values and beliefs of the organization's members do not sustain them. In this situation, the mission officially described and supported has no real value and will not be truly fulfilled.

Organizational culture is a central element in school unit dynamics because it determines and reflects how the different subsystems of the school function. A transformational leadership style, the internalization of values consistent with the school's mission and the implementation of procedures for insertion and socialization of new members of the organization are some key factors in developing a strong organizational culture to support the vision of the school.

An organisational culture is a system of values and concepts, shared by all employees of an organisation, which determines their behaviour and the school activities. School culture can change either implicitly, without planning, or explicitly, with the deliberate introduction of new norms and values that support the change.

Schools have well-established missions and roles, and their opening frontier towards their environment can be variable. Schools are organizations strongly rooted in the community, the status of the school organization, its social functions and the specific competencies of the human resources involved in the education system make schools the promoters of the community partnership. The school and the community must assume new types of relationships, without giving up the basic elements that define their identity. We believe that a school does lose its identity in a network of partnerships but offers services that meet the needs of its members, it develops, it becomes an organization that "learns".

References:

1. Boudon, R., ed. (1997). *Tratat de sociologie*. Bucharest: Humanitas.
2. Chelcea, S. and Țăran, C. (1990). Psihologia comportamentului prosocial. in S.Chelcea (ed.). *Psihologia cooperării și întraajutorării umane*. Bucharest: Militară.

3. Constantinescu, M., Chirlesan, G., & Dumitru Tabacaru, C. (2019). School climate behavior management in Romanian schools. *Social Sciences and Education Research Review (SSERR)* 6(2): 149-164.
4. Constantinescu, M., Constantinescu, C., and Dumitru, C. (2017a). Social work and protection of abused and neglected children. *Revista de Asistență Socială* 3: 39-49.
5. Constantinescu, M., Constantinescu, C., and Dumitru, C. (2017b). Development of parenting skills by implementing the Program "Strong Families". *The European Proceedings of Social & Behavioural Sciences EpSBS* 23: 1347-1354 [online] available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2017.05.02.165>
6. Cristea, S. and Constantinescu, C. (1997). *Sociologia Educației*. Bucharest: Hardiscom.
7. Dumitru, C. and Ciucă, R. E. (2019). Understanding school bullying. *The European Proceedings of Social & Behavioural Sciences EpSBS*, LXVII, 437-444, [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2019.08.03.52>
8. Evertson, C. M. and Neal, K. W. (2006). *Looking into Learning-Centered Classrooms Implications for Classroom Management*. National Education Association.
9. Giddens, A. (2000). *Sociologie*. Bucharest: All.
10. Goodman, N. (1992). *Introducere in Sociologie*. Bucharest: Lider.
11. Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and Organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 10, 15-41 [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00208825.1980.11656300>
12. Păun, E. (1999). *Școala. O abordare sociopedagogică*. Iasi: Polirom.
13. Preda, M. (2006). *Comportament organizational*. Iasi: Polirom.
14. Roth, M., Dămean, D. and Iovu, M. (2009). *Succesul școlar la intersecția factorilor sociali*. Cluj: Presa Universitară Clujeană.
15. Segal, J. (1999). *Dezvoltarea inteligenței emoționale*. Bucharest: Teora.
16. Tabacaru Dumitru, C. (2021). Motivation and its challenges to learning. *Studia Universitatis Moldaviae, Științe ale Educației*. 9(149), 43–48. [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5779525>
17. Way, N., Reddy, R. and Rhodes, J. (2007). Students' perceptions of school climate during the middle school years: associations with trajectories of psychological and behavioral adjustment. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 40: 194–213.
18. Zamfir, C. and Chelcea, S. (2006). *Sociologie-manual preuniversitar*. Bucharest: Economica Preuniversitaria.
19. Zamfir, C. and Vlăsceanu, L. (1993). *Dicționar de sociologie*. Bucharest: Babel.
20. Zamfir, C. (1999). *Spre o paradigmă a gândirii sociologice*. Bucharest: Cantes.
21. *** <https://pbissmissouri.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/MO-SW-PBS-Tier-1-2018.pdf> retrieved at 25.05.2022.

PERCEPTIONS ABOUT EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ACCESS TO QUALITY ACADEMIC TRAINING, THROUGH ONLINE EDUCATION

Ecaterina Sarah FRĂSINEANU¹, Mihaela Aurelia ȘTEFAN²

¹Associate Professor, Ph.D., University of Craiova (Romania)

Email: ecaterina.frasineanu@edu.ucv.ro

²Associate Professor, Ph.D., University of Craiova (Romania)

Email: mihaela.stefan@edu.ucv.ro

Abstract: *The equal opportunities are needed for humanitarian, ethical, democratic, social, economic, political, legal and, of course, educational reasons. Through our study we aimed to make an analysis of how the students related to the principle of equal opportunities for access to their training activities. We referred to the COVID 19 pandemic period, when recourse was made to the online education, which the respondents experienced in the academic year 2021-2022 and to the post-pandemic moment, of returning to education face to face. Thus, the ascertaining data provided by the micro-survey based on a questionnaire applied in a university in Romania, highlight a recent experience, expressing opinions and attitudes that may be useful in designing the future educational practices. By taking into account the situation of confrontation with changes, novelties, requirements, which can be classified as inequalities of access opportunities for students, it is determined the awareness, either of the attitudes of capitalizing on opportunities or of giving up in the face of difficulties. The results highlighted the competition of the professional activity, in which more and more students are engaged, in the quality of the academic training activity, but the possibility to participate in the online activities reduced the inequalities felt in the face-to-face educational situation. The proposals and explanations of the students contribute to facilitating the success of the main educational actors: students, but also teachers or managers in higher education.*

Keywords: *socio-educational equality; chances of access; pandemic period COVID 19; online university education; quality of training.*

1. Theoretical foundations in approaching the socio-educational equality

In the essence, the equality of chances refers to the fact that human beings are free to develop their personal abilities and to choose, without limitations imposed by the strict roles.

The observation of the inequality of opportunities is attributed to Boudon (1973), who first showed that in the Western world of the 1960s and 1970s, to which he referred, the educational system and the choices that students make repeatedly can lead to inequalities of chances. Also, to bring to the fore this issue, notable remains the report on the equal educational opportunities in America (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson et al., 1966), which explained that the material resources are not correlated with the achievements and the influences of socio-educational environment created by teachers and colleagues are important.

In an extended plan, we agree that the efforts to reduce the existing inequalities at the educational level/do not guarantee the reduction of social inequalities (Forsé, 1997), which is closely linked to the inequality of social opportunities.

In Romania, the access to all levels of education, as well as the principle of equity and quality are promoted by the National Education Law (2011), with its subsequent

amendments, in Articles 2 and 3. Ensuring equal opportunities, as an ideal to which it tends, understood in a complex, interpretive way, as capitalizing on diversity, correlates itself with the avoidance of inequalities and discrimination of any kind: gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, religion, age, sexual orientation, socio-familial and economic status, state of health, personal beliefs, physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic condition etc. It also makes references to the respect of rights and duties of educators and students, because the education must be accessible, open to all. In this respect, in 2019, Țoc proposed an integrative approach, in which the decentralized educational policies should be implemented or Voinea (2019) advanced the idea that the transformative learning should be initiated at the level of teachers.

2. Forms of equality. Equal access opportunities

An essential form of equality is the equal access opportunities (Dupriez and Vandenberghe, 2004), but there are many other forms of equality, such as the equal treatment, equal outcomes/achievements and equal impact.

According to the European Research Group on the Equity of The Education Systems, (in French, GERESE), an accessible and equitable education system for all is the one that “treats all students as equals and promotes a fair society, in which the essential goods are distributed according to the rules of justice and which favours the collaboration among individuals from equal positions” (2005: 12). We may deduce from this that, through collaborative interactions, it is possible to harmonize the efforts to ensure several forms of equality in education.

Of course, the concerns about the access opportunities of the higher education students focus on them as the main actors coming with a status, educational concepts, socio-economic possibilities, level of training, but, as external factors, also act teachers or educational institutions which students attend and they may have unequal funding, may show professional skills at unequal levels, have uneven local environmental conditions, create more or less motivating learning environments, establish strong or weak community relationships (Downey, 2016).

Considering the difficulty of implementing the equal opportunities, much debated in the sociological domain, so as to avoid the positive discrimination, to achieve the equity, it can be concluded that it becomes a reality if the class barriers are removed and if there is a democratization of education (Vlăsceanu, 2011).

3. The academic context and the quality of students' training

The access to higher education is open for any period of life, and for the current Romanian higher education is maintained what Vlăsceanu (2005) observed: the main criteria that dominated in the classical higher education, selective and elitist criteria, were replaced by increasing the mass participation.

Like the society, the social context, the relationship created in the academic education (and not only), should be cohesive, shares common values, norms, rules, to achieve the assumed goals. We find, however, that, especially during the pandemic of 2020-2022, the proportion of students who allocate more time to the paid work than to the study is increasing.

During the online activities, the access to the information and communication technology was unequal, requested immediately, for pre-university education being reported inequalities in terms of the ownership of the educational equipment (Botnariuc,

Cucoş, Glava et al., 2020). However, the access to technology is not identical to its use in terms of training results, and, for an optimal adaptation, both students and teachers lacked the digital skills (Ceobanu, Cucuş, Istrate et al., 2020).

Beyond the digital skills, the self-management skills of learning, self-learning, inclusive, the learning attitudes are unsatisfactory or at least changing. The recommendations for the post-pandemic educational recovery focus on both components: remedying the learning, but because the social isolation was a unanimously named difficulty, the component focused on authentic socialization should not be neglected (Dalu, 2021).

The quality of students' training is related to the value of their learning outcomes, as an internal factor and it is conditioned by the convergence of educational initiatives, as an external factor. In order to evaluate the quality, references are made to sustainable development in education (Sterling, 2001), to efficiency and performance, to the fulfilment of the expectations of the beneficiaries and of the criteria established by the factors that audit the obtained results. The quality, according to the National Education Law (2011), refers to: agreed reference standards, good national and international practices.

4. The sample and the chosen research time

In 2021, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) showed that the crisis situation accentuated the inadequacies and inequalities in the education systems, from those regarding the internet access and computer skills to the lack of support and the fact that the real training needs are not taken into account. The OECD pointed out, that, following the lessons learned, it is still possible to show resistance to change.

The research time we referred to was the academic year 2021-2022 (excluding holidays), when the activity was mainly conducted online. More precisely, we considered the first semester (14 weeks of teaching activity), to which were added another 3 weeks of evaluation activities. We specify that another month, meaning 4 weeks from the second semester, there were online teaching activities, then, the teaching-learning activity, as well as the evaluation activity passed in the face-to-face regime, for 13 weeks. We noticed that the period of return to regular education and the previous way of working required a moment of adaptation (not of the same difficulty as the initial adaptation in March 2020 to online education), which inspired us to initiate empirical research and determined choosing the sample of subjects.

The sample consisted of 184 students and master students, who were in their final year of study at their faculty or master's degree and, at the same time, they followed the training program as teachers (level I, level II). The sample was diversified in terms of specializations and homogeneously selected for each of the following six fields: philological, socio-human, arts, exact sciences, natural sciences, technical field. There was a natural heterogeneity in terms of age, place of residence (urban/rural), gender (male/female), marital status (unmarried, married, divorced, widowed). The subjects were between 22 and 55 years old, most of them young. The age with the highest frequency was 24 years (48%), and as a gender distribution, 33% of the subjects were men and 67% were women; 65% live in urban areas, another 35% have a permanent home in rural areas; in the majority, they are unmarried (86.3%), while 13.55% are married (and 0.05% widowed).

5. The goal and the pursued hypothesis

To see if there are equal or unequal chances in education in each historical-social stage is a fully justified research goal, and Neagu (2009, p. 56) showed that "(...) as the degree of complexity of society in general and of education systems in particular has increased, the access to education has become an objective whose achievement seems more and more distant ". Even the system of indicators is difficult to be established and applied, and the objective analysis is performed not only by the comparison with the objectives of the country's own education system, but also by comparison with other similar education systems in other countries (idem, 2009).

The main hypothesis was that, during the pandemic, the students and master students faced a series of difficulties, novelties, which can be classified as inequalities of access opportunities (internal or external), accompanied by proactive, adaptive attitudes, to capitalize on opportunities or, on the contrary, maladaptive, to give up in the face of challenges. The secondary hypothesis was that a large part of the subjects in the university environment focused more on the professional working time, than on the actual studies.

6. The applied methodology

Through various methods such as comprehensive surveys, at European and international level, the macro-indicators have been followed to express the situation of equal opportunities. Some of these indicators were the gross rate and the net school enrolment rate, the school life expectancy, the transition rate to education levels, but, from arguments closely related to social change, it is clear that the system of indicators remains indefinite.

The results of other research consulted (Bîrzea, 2005; Neagu, 2009; Jigău, Horga, Novak et al., 2014; European Commission, 2018; Mogonea and Mogonea, 2021) indicate a series of shortcomings, signaling existing inequities and unsatisfactory results at the level of pupils or students. For example, Mogonea and Mogonea (2021, p. 108) noted that "Especially in the context of the pandemic caused by the SARS-CoV 2 virus, the problem of ensuring equal opportunities in education for all students, regardless of their level of education, background, social or financial status, is even more acute etc. "

Therefore, by the micro-questionnaire applied in a university in the Southwestern region Oltenia, we referred to the investigation of the possible inequalities acting from the outside (socio-material-economic type), but also to those of the internal type (competition with other professional activities in which the students are involved, the passive attitude, the conception of the usefulness of studies, etc.). In constructing the questionnaire we used 13 questions, such as: filter, closed, open, to motivate the opinions and attitudes expressed, to measure their intensity, to choose from several variants, to control (to verify the truthfulness of the answers), with subjective answers, as proposals and factual. In applying the research tool, we considered the condition of maintaining our neutrality and adaptation to the specifics of the subjects (Chelcea, 2001).

7. Results obtained

The students and master students included in the sample knew the issue of the equal opportunities, at least from the curriculum of their Psycho-pedagogical training (at discipline The Pupils Classroom Management and Sociology of Education) or from the social meaning on which we insisted on them to reflect, therefore, in the introductory part of to the questionnaire, we explained the phrase used.

By question 1 we aimed to find out if the online academic activity during the pandemic ensured opportunities for access to quality training for all students. The 39% of the respondents chose Yes, 55% of them chose No and 6% of our subjects said they were undecided (I don't know).

The explanation of those who consider that there were equal chances of preparation (training itself and independent study), requested by filter item 2, referred to the following considerations: higher education students had the minimum means to participate in activities (personal smartphone) or alternative technologies (laptop, personal computer); the learning materials were easy to find in the platforms used, and the search for information was stimulated in this way.

During the pandemic period, those students who depended on the shuttle service/means of transport or their jobs benefited from the possibilities to participate in the didactic activities. Also, conditions, criteria, equal activity requirements were perceived, transparently communicated through the officially agreed means. Many students in this category appreciated the efforts made by their teachers, who, through asynchrony, offered them more support than in the face-to-face teaching option. In the synchronous way of working, the teachers initiated debates and exercises that facilitated a thorough learning.

From another perspective, there was an institutional support and they received useful feedback on how the online platforms served them to achieve the expected results. That is why some students mentioned that the chances of accessing quality training depended largely on their interest and solicitude. An interesting answer given by students who perceive a situation of equal access, was that the way of conducting education during the last academic year protected them from viral risks to their health.

For the 55% of the students, who perceive the situation in education as inequality of access opportunities, in general, the categories of learners indicated by the filter item 3, were inventoried and ranked in the form of the following table (Table 1):

Table 1: The main categories of students for whom the access chances are perceived as unequal

Categories of people - students	Rate *(%)	Rank
Those without technical and material resources	88%	1
Those with low incomes	64%	2
The uninitiated in the field of digital skills	49%	3
Those shy, non-communicative, socially isolated	41%	4
Those who have to work	27%	5
Those without family support	27%	
Those of another nationality, of another ethnicity	19%	6
Those with health problems	11%	7
Those with disabilities	8%	8
Those in rural areas	7%	9

(*Note: Simultaneously, several answer options could be chosen.)

We find that the learners whose access is considered unequal are diverse, most often (first place), being invoked the case of those lacking technical and material resources. Both those who have to work and those without the family support are categories of an equal ranking (5th place), and by the fact that the list of choices allowed for another answer, the

students identified, on the last place (9th place), the category of people from rural areas. From our point of view, there are many commonalities among these categories of people

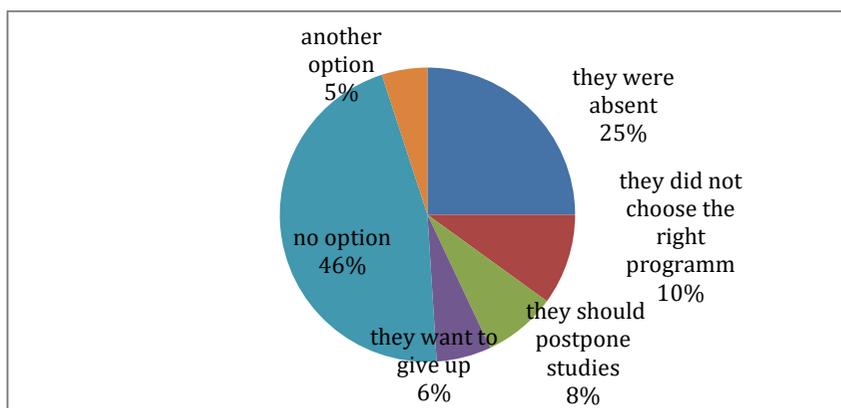
By question 4, we were interested if the students/master students worked during the academic year 2021-2022. From their answers, we found that 48% worked full time, 15% worked part time and 37% did not work. It can be concluded that many of them worked (63%), this being a growing phenomenon among students and confirms the secondary hypothesis, according to which there is a time competition between the professional activity and studies themselves.

The question no. 5 investigated the performance attributed to the study programs followed, as a perspective that students have on their real chances of employment in the future. Thus: 29% predict the existence of chances at a very high level; 35% – at level high; 30% – at the average level and 6% – at the low level. All the subjects were optimistic, there were no choices for the level at all. The levels very high, high and average totalized 94%, and this confidence in one's own employment opportunities on the labour market, as a result of studies, is gladdening.

By the item 6 we wanted to find out if the subjects made changes to the location where they studied (for example, if they moved from the student camp/rented residence at their home). 41% of them made changes of location, but most, another 59%, did not change location.

Using the item 7, we asked the participants to carry out an awareness/reflection exercise on the situation of the quality of the online education during the pandemic period, from a strictly personal perspective. The wording of the request was as follows: "During the online teaching activity, during the pandemic, I realized that: ...". Several answer options were offered, including their exclusion or the possibility to add another answer. The results provided by the students were interesting from a Psycho-socio-pedagogical point of view, and a graphic representation of them is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Situations made aware by students during the online teaching activity



From the previous chart it can be seen that many students (46%) do not express their awareness, reflections, but it is also considerable the percentage of 25% of the people who recognized the absenteeism. We appreciate the different, sincere answers (the 5%), which showed shortcomings: during the online activity the students were very tired, their health suffered, their learning motivation decreased, they felt the lack of the social

interaction, but they also presented the advantages encountered: to find that the chosen study program is very appropriate, to participate successfully in both academic and professional activity.

The item 8 was a complex one, by which we asked the subjects to appreciate the extent to which they were satisfied with the teachers' support, for different aspects (Table 2).

Table 2: The appreciation of teachers' support, from the perspective of students and master students

Aspects of teachers' support	Level (expressed as %)				
	Very much	Much	Average	Low	At all
How much they helped them stay motivated	58%	19%	14%	5%	4%
How well they informed them about the organizational changes	51%	18%	16%	8%	7%
How much they provided technical support in online education	48%	24%	19%	7%	2%
How much they provided useful tasks for effective learning	45%	22%	15%	10%	8%
How much they made available the necessary teaching materials	56%	17%	17%	7%	3%
How much they answered the questions or provided guidance in teaching-learning	54%	19%	11%	4%	12%
How much they provided guidance in the evaluation	62%	14%	14%	7%	3%
How clearly they communicated the deadlines for carrying out the tasks or for evaluations/exams	56%	22%	13%	7%	2%
How much support they have given to help disadvantaged people/people in difficult situations	50%	21%	15%	8%	6%
How flexible they have been in order to allow combining work, family life and study	48%	26%	11%	7%	8%

The Table 2 shows an appreciation of support at the very much and much levels, very close or above to 70%. The contribution of teachers is considerable for guiding the evaluation and specifying the deadlines for completion of the tasks, and, on the other hand, but without significant differences from other aspects, is the low extent to which they answered to the questions and provided guidance in teaching-learning.

Regarding the access to the necessary means for training (laptop, telephone, printer, headphones and microphone, good internet connection, learning materials, stationery, ergonomic furniture), surveyed by the item 9, we found that 81% of the subjects had these means, and 19% had them partially. There were no students without the means invoked.

The main learning support, the item 10 (with single choice) came from: the teachers, for 53% of the research participants; family, for 18%; colleagues, for 16%; other acquaintances – 4% or was obtained with the help of the existing tutorials on the Internet – 6%, or by their own effort – 3%.

The item 11, regarding the options for carrying out the activity, which the students expressed for the next academic year, led us to clearly delimited proposals/options: online – 16% of the sample; face to face – 29%; mixed (both online and face to face) – 55%. Although, there was the answer option "I do not know the answer", all subjects made choices.

A very important item of the mini-questionnaire, the item 12, was correlated with the items 1, 2 and 3, by requesting to properly assess how much the students had equal chances of access to a quality academic training. We were able to verify that those who estimated, from the beginning, that the beneficiaries of the training had equal chances (39% of the subjects), consistently granted, also in the personal case, the level very much; those who considered that there is inequality of access opportunities (the majority of 55%), choosing certain categories, at the item 3, they assessed, in the personal case, the situation at the much, average or low level. Even the 5%, who initially did not comment on the general level of equality or inequality, have now chosen for their own case.

There were no people to assign the level at all. Giving numerical values (score) to the four answer possibilities (4 points for very much, 3 points for much, 2 points for average, 1 point for low and 0 points for at all), we obtained an average of 3.23 points, which means that one's own perception of equal opportunities is slightly above average. By this, we consider that the hypothesis formulated by us is confirmed, that, during the pandemic, in the online activity, the students encountered difficulties and faced changes, which they perceived, to an average extent as inequalities of chances for a quality academic training.

The questionnaire-based survey was useful for us to clarify the explanation of how to report to the inequality of access opportunities: thus, the fact that students are professionally employed and had the opportunity to participate in online activities reduced the inequalities found in the situation of face to face education. Even from those who did not work, but had low incomes, those who were in another location, including those of other nationalities or those with health problems, there was a restructuring of the perspective, by assessing the strengths of the online education to be accessible, convenient, fast, low cost, at your own pace.

In addition to the item 12, the item 13 inventoried the students' comments, suggestions, proposals for improving the equal access to quality training. Among the multiple points of view expressed, we enumerate: the intensification of the communication of teachers with their students, especially, about the organizational conditions; emphasizing the practical nature of the training activity, using more modern, activating methods; encouraging the collegial collaboration of students/masters; flexibility of the academic curricula.

In the foreground were recommendations that we consider very relevant, such as: conducting training courses for teachers and students, for the development of the digital skills; creating the schedule so that the training time is capitalized (without congestions or lost time); increasing the institutional capacity to award the merit and social scholarships, to differentiate the support in terms of transport or accommodation costs, to invest in the online university infrastructure; the use of the assignments and materials assigned online to enable the working students to continue to participate in teaching.

8. Discussions and conclusions

Beyond the objective limits of our research approach, which used empirical tools and a small natural sample, through our contribution we established that certain ways

proposed by the beneficiaries of the teaching activity, such as taking into account the work context in that students are employed and the use of online learning facilities are useful for preventing the prejudices, intolerant attitudes, so as to avoid/reduce the inequalities perceived at the average level by students. They referred, both to the adaptations they make (deepening, responsibility, increased participation, openness to communication) and to what teachers can do (from which they received, but still expect, the most support) or to the support of the university organization, which needs modernizations of the training platforms.

We note that the verification of digital skills, the use of the new technologies of information and communication, at the entrance to the higher education system, but also the provision of training courses for students and teachers, the use of the support staff, including more qualified colleagues, is a viable proposal.

Also, because some students do not know or because some teachers do not provide the learning materials, the generalization or at least the more intensive use of the system for finding course/seminar materials, on university platforms, like systems in other countries, represents a solution that should be developed in the future and that students will specifically capitalize on, from the beginning of the training.

Given the fact that the equal opportunities for access to quality training are multi-determined, we expect that the registered proposals could be transferred to other areas of activity, apart from education, and the issue itself remains open to investigations.

References:

1. Bîrzea, C. ed. (2005). *Sistemul național de indicatori pentru educație. Manual de utilizare*. Bucharest: The Ministry of Education and Research, Rural Education Project Management Unit.
2. Botnariuc, P., Cucos, C., Glava, C. et al. (2020). *Școala online. Elemente pentru inovarea educației. Raport de cercetare evaluativă*. Bucharest: Universității Publishing House. [online] available at: https://www.psih.uaic.ro/wp-content/uploads/sc_onl_rap_apr_2020.pdf.
3. Boudon, R. (1973). *L'Inégalité des chances. La mobilité sociale dans les sociétés industrielles*. Paris: Armand Colin.
4. Ceobanu, C., Cucos, C., Istrate, O. et al. (2020). *Educația digitală*. Iasi: Polirom Publishing House.
5. Chelcea, S. (2001). *Metodologia cercetării sociologice: metode cantitative și calitative*. Bucharest: Economică Publishing House.
6. Coleman, J., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C.J. et al. (1966). *Equality of Educational Opportunity*. Washington, DC: U.S. GPO. [online] available at: <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED012275>
7. Comisia Europeană. (2018). *Monitorul educației și formării 2018 România*. [online] available at: https://education.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/document-library-docs/et-monitor-report-2018-romania_ro.pdf
8. Dalu, A.-M. ed. (2021). *Învățarea la distanță. Studiu cu privire la activitățile educaționale desfășurate în România în perioada suspendării cursurilor față-în-față*. Bucharest: Trei Publishing House.

9. Downey, D.B. (2016). Fifty Years since the Coleman Report: Rethinking the Relationship between Schools and Inequality. *Sociology of Education*, 89(3): 201-220. [online] available at: <http://soe.sagepub.com>
10. Dupriez, V., and Vandenberghe, V. (2004). L'école en Communauté française de Belgique: de quelle inégalité parlons-nous? Les cahiers de recherche en éducation et en formation, 27: 3-25 [online] available at: <https://halshs.archives-ouvertes.fr/halshs-00603505/document>
11. Forsé, M. (1997). *La diminution de l'inégalité des chances scolaires ne suffit pas à réduire l'inégalité des chances sociales* [online] available at: <https://www.ofce.sciences-po.fr/pdf/revue/6-63.pdf>
12. GERESE. (2005). *L'équité des systèmes éducatifs européens: un ensemble d'indicateurs*, Service de pédagogie théorique et expérimentale, Université de Liège [online] available at: <http://www.aspe.ulg.ac.be/schoolequity/docpdf/2005FRANCAIS.pdf>
13. Jigău, M., Horga, I., Novak, M. et al. (2014). *Sistemul național de indicatori pentru educație. Ghid metodologic*. Bucharest. [online] available at: https://nou.siphd.ro/doc/resurse_virtuale/resurse032.pdf
14. Mogonea, F., and Mogonea, F. R. (2021). Equal opportunities in education – a condition of a democratic society. *Revista Universitară de Sociologie*. Craiova: Beladi Publishing House. [online] available at: http://www.sociologiecraiova.ro/revista/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/RUS-3_2021-108-116.pdf
15. Neagu, G. (2009). Măsurarea șanselor de acces la educație. *Paradigma calității vieții*. Mărginean, I., Precupețu, I. eds., Academiei Române Publishing House: 65-88. [online] available at: DOI:[10.13140/2.1.4642.0164](https://doi.org/10.13140/2.1.4642.0164)
16. OECD. (2021). *The state of school education. One year into Covid pandemic* [online] available at: <https://www.oecd.org/education/state-of-school-education-one-year-into-COVID.htm>
17. Sterling, S. (2001). *Sustainable Education: Re-Visioning Learning and Change*. Schumacher Briefings. [online] available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/289505456_Sustainable_education/link/609bf59e458515a04c59a648/download
18. Țoc, S. (2019). Inequality and social reproduction in Romanian education. *Revista Inovație socială*, 2. Quality of Life Research Institute. Romanian Academy. [online] available at: <http://www.inovatiiasociala.ro/en/2019-9-2-1/>
19. Vlăsceanu, L. (2005). *Asigurarea calității în educație*. UNESCO-CEPES. [online] available at: <http://www.ad-astra.ro/library/papers/vlasceanu.pdf>
20. Vlăsceanu, L. (2011). *Sociologie*. Iasi: Polirom Publishing House.
21. Voinea, M. (2019). Rethinking Teacher Training According to 21st Century Competences. *European Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, 4 (3). [online] available at: <https://doi.org/10.26417/341umm27o>
22. ***Legea Educației Naționale. (2011). [online] available at: https://www.edu.ro/sites/default/files/legea-educatiei_actualizata%20august%202018.pdf

THE GEOPOLITICAL MAPS OF THE ROMANIAN IDENTITY

Radu BALTASIU

Professor PhD, University of Bucharest; Romanian Academy

Email: radu.baltasiu@gmail.com

Abstract: Civilization also means a self-imposed order, as part of personal liberty. Personal liberty implies the awareness of the Other, as a person and as space. The Other is not merely an individual, it is a collective actor. That is, order is about mapping space – the shape of the collective Other. The highest social function of mapping space is culture. The specialized institution/instrument of culture to deal with the social order by mapping the actual, the past, and the possible social space is the Atlas, with its historical, sociological, anthropological, etc. maps. Culture offers people space awareness, that is, the ability to know the meaning of space and a sense of personal and collective belonging. The most obvious instrument for doing so is the Atlas. Here I will present some geopolitical maps regarding the Romanian Ethnic Space structured under three categories: ethnic evolution, geopolitical pressures on the Romanian space and the significant-densities of the Aromanians to the south of the Danube. Part Two will represent some of the most significant maps by Simion Mehedinti – the founder of modern Romanian geography and a forefather of geopolitics.

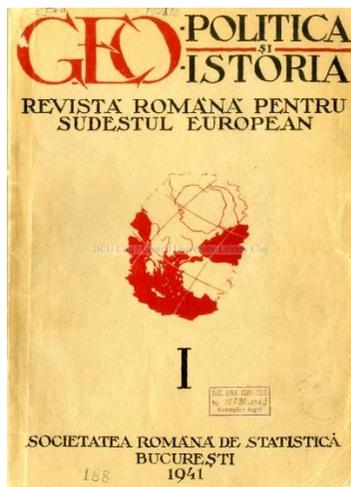
Keywords: Geopolitics, Geohistory, Romanian Ethnic Space, Aromanians, Significant-Density Theory, Maps

Motto:

“... we [Romanians] are born to behave ... geopolitical.”³

³ The context of the quote is the following: “All the members of this State, primarily its ruling class, have to always think of them [of the five critical elements of the geopolitical situational awareness: the borders, the ability to project power, including economic power, some degree of autarchy, political independence]. But all these, let's note, are concerns and are notions of a strict and par excellence geopolitical nature - and they are only understood and lived through geopolitics. And, then, isn't it superfluous to ask ourselves if the flower of this young discipline must be planted in the glaze of the Romanian mind? Yes, we can say that we were born to be ... geopolitical.” („Toți membrii acestui Stat și în primul rând pătura lui conducătoare, trebuie să-și aibă gândul mereu ațintit la ele. – Dar acestea toate, să observăm, sunt preocupări și sunt noțiuni de ordin strict și prin excelență geopolitic - și ele numai prin geopolitică se fac înțelese și trăite. Și, atunci, nu e oare superfluu să ne mai întrebăm dacă floarea acestei tinere discipline trebuie răsădită și în glastra cugetului românesc? Ba, putem spune că suntem născuți să fim ... geopolitici.”), *Geopolitica și Geoistoria ...*, an I, nr.1, p.3

Some theory



The geopolitical perspective of history is the presentation of the evolution of territorial identity. This aspect, in its turn, is of practical relevance in conducting foreign affairs and in other issues of national security. The Geopolitical perspective of history, or Geo-History was established in Romania with the work of Ion Conea, Anton Golopenția, Gheorghe Brătianu, Mircea Vulcănescu and Sabin Manuilă mostly during the Second World War, in “Geopolitics and Geohistory. The Romanian Magazine for South-East Europe” (1941-1944). If Geopolitics is about compulsory geographical crossings („vaduri”), geohistory is about history explained by geography⁴.

We see that geopolitics is not only a Science per se. Geopolitics is, and must be, applied Science, an administrative science multiplier. **To think geopolitically means to understand that Romania is a state of European necessity („stat de necesitate europeană”). This sentence endorses the link between the large context (Europe, the country is „European”) and precise and precisely localized timed actions („necessity”):**

“Romania has the good fortune - and the misfortune, of course - to stand at such a geopolitical crossroads. We are what Nicolae Iorga called: a state of European necessity. ... Our Romania lives and speaks here not only for itself. ... It means, therefore, that more than anywhere else, the watch at such [key] points must always be awake (your watch, that of the well-founded one). ...” (*Geopolitica și Geoistoria*, an I, nr. 1, p.3) ⁵.

The five critical elements of this situational/geopolitical awareness are, broadly speaking:

1. the border
2. power projection
3. economic vitality abroad

⁴ „... geopolitics is nothing but, to a large extent, the geohistory of the present (by geohistory we must understand that as much history, Romanian or any other, as can be explained by geography), as geohistory itself is nothing but the geopolitics of the past.” (...,geopolitica nu este altceva decât, în mare măsură, geoistoria prezentului (prin geoistorie trebuind să înțelegem acea atâta istorie, românească sau oricare alta, câtă se poate prin geografie explica), după cum geoistoria însăși nu este altceva decât geopolitica trecutului.”), *Geopolitica și Geoistoria*, nr.1, p.4

⁵ „România are norocul – și primejdia, natural – de a sta la o astfel de răspântie geopolitică. Suntem ceea ce Nicolae Iorga numea: un Stat de necesitate europeană. ... România noastră trăiește și vorbește aicea nu numai pentru dânsa singură. ... Înseamnă, deci, că mai mult decât oriunde aiurea, veghea în astfel de puncte [cheie] trebuie să fie mereu trează (veghea ta, a celui așezat).”

4. some degree of autarchy
5. political independence (ibid.)⁶

That is, thinking geopolitical at the geographical crossroads means thinking of the concepts and ideas listed above. The third and fourth elements of the situational awareness imply that **geopolitics is not only a matter of foreign policy. Geopolitics is also about the internal coherence of a society**: the ability to provide, to deploy a satisfactory economic action, that is, to identify and manage country's resources to produce goods and services able to maintain the internal social coherence – that is, its internal national security – societal security.

The Romanian Ethnic Space (RES)

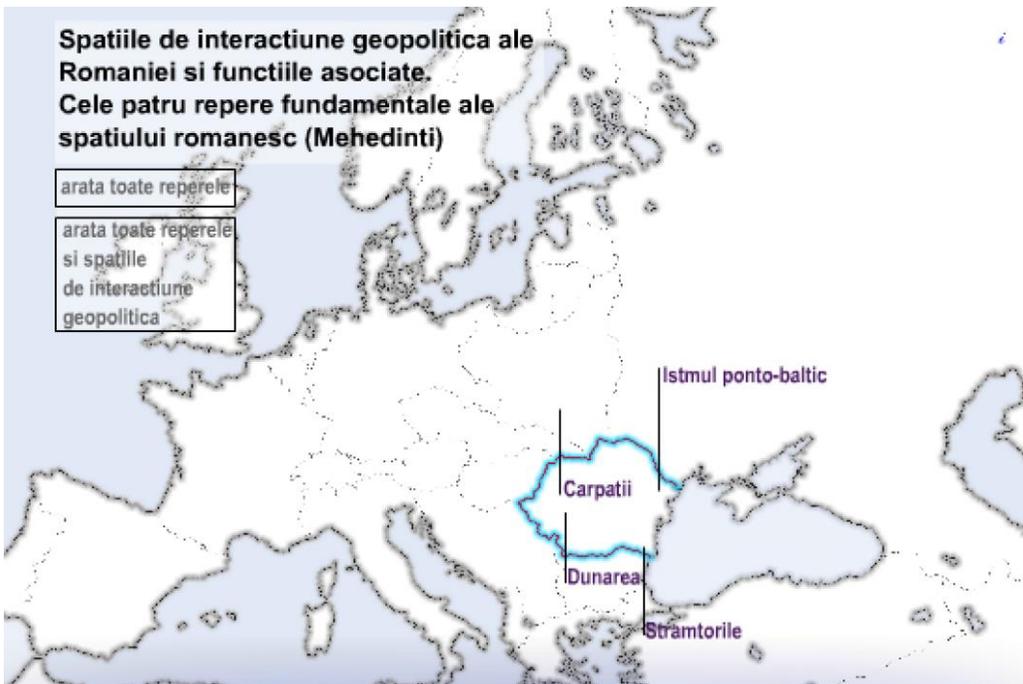
Romanian Ethnic Space (RES) is defined as the area of constant inhabitation over many historical cycles on a certain territory, from the Adriatic toward the Bug River. The RES includes the Ethnogenesis Area (EA) – Vatra, that is the area where the present-day people were formed. Ethnogenesis is the acculturation process by which the basic determinants of the present-day Romanians were formed. There are three keypoints in the evolution of the RES: The Pre-Roman, the Roman-post-Roman, and the Forming of the modern Balkan States. The RES is linked to the rest of the world by four façades: Carpathians, the Danube, the Forest and Straits of Bosphorus.

The pre-Roman state of RES is about the deep strata of pre-Indo-Europeans (i.e., the Cucuteni culture of 7000 B.Ch.) and Thracians; it is followed by the first contact with the Roman Empire in the 2nd and 1st centuries B. Ch of the Thracians (Dacians) in Dobrudja and South of the Danube.

The Roman and post-Roman are about the interval between the Roman conquest of the Decebalus' Dacia, North of the Danube, including the coming of the Slavs and Bulgarians, when proto-Romanian was formed. After the Roman retreat from Dacia in the 3rd century, the Byzantine Empire regained some sort of control over the Romanian Plains North of the Danube, especially during the reign of Constantine the Great and Justinian, and Dobruja was part of or dependent to the Empire until the 13th century (with Noviodunum-Isaccea as a naval base).

⁶ „Idea de hotar, de putere și apetit economic internațional, de autarkie și independență, trebuie purtată acolo mereu în conștiințe, ca o obsesie.” Idem, p.3

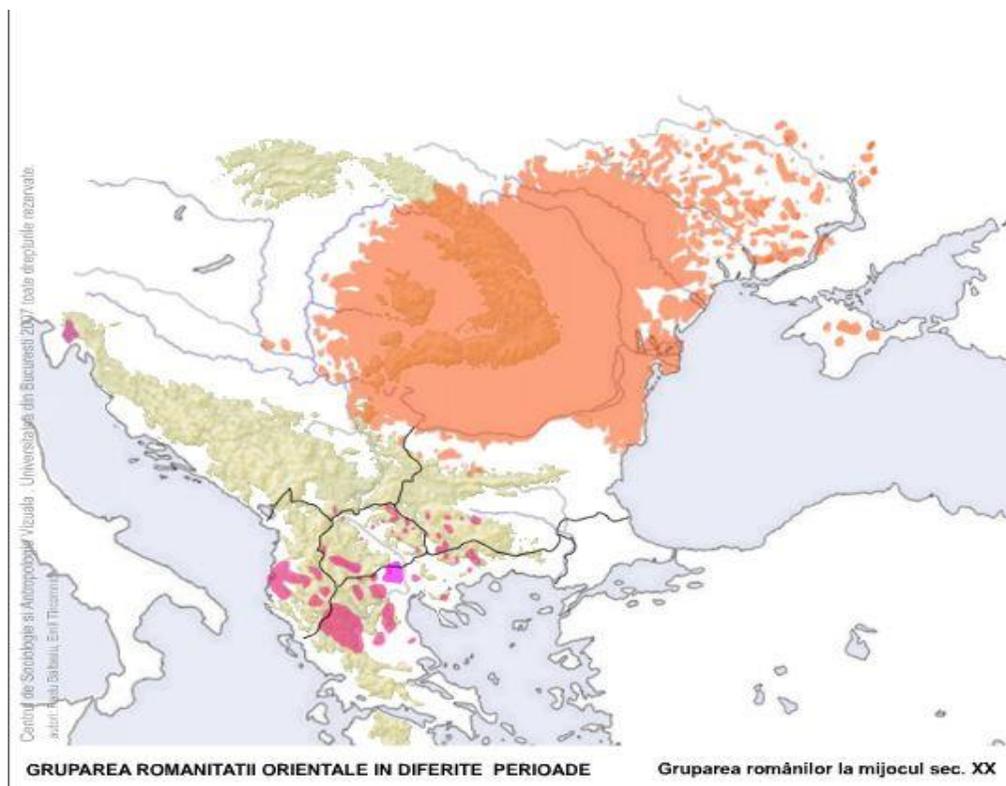
South of Danube when the Roman armies conquered Dacia. Christianity was already part of the Roman civilization.



Map 2 The main geopolitical interactions of the Romanian space after Mehedinți: the façades: the Carpathians, the Black Sea, The Danube and the Straits. (The fifth is The Forest, not present on this map, the forest which links the Romanian territory North of the Danube with the Southern territory – the Caraorman forest).

We should note that the proto-Romanian language was already formed when the Slavs and Bulgarians divided the Romanian Space in Northern and Southern parts of the Danube somewhere between the 6th and 9th centuries. To understand the geopolitical and historical evolution of the Romanian Ethnic Space, we shall operate with the Mehedinți's theory of façades. These are strategic openings and historical conditioning factors. There are three „internal” façades: the Carpathians, the Forest, the Danube and the Black Sea. And one “external”: The Straits. We shall note that the Black Sea, together with the Nistru river is part of the Ponto-Baltic Isthmus, a geopolitical complex meant to alleviate if not to stop the pressures from the Russian space.

I. The Maps of the Romanian Ethnic Space⁸



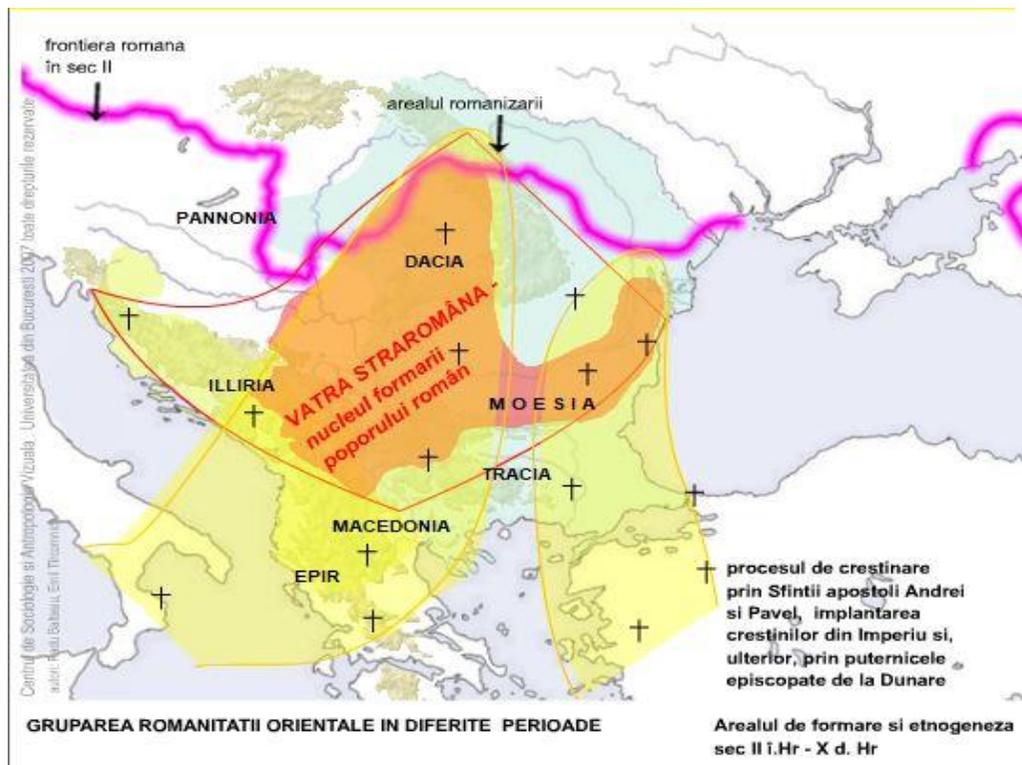
Map 3 The Romanian Ethnic Space in the middle of the 20th century. The Daco-Romanians are located North of the Danube, excepting Timoc (Serbia and Bulgaria) – in pink, while the Macedo-Romanians are located South of the Danube – reddish pink. After “Spațiul istoric și etnic românesc”, Ed. Militară, București, 1992 (1942), Map LX

Oriental Romanity is a Thracian-Dacian Romanesque ethnic structure that stretches from the Adriatic to beyond the Bug, in today's Ukraine, across the Carpathian Mountains - from today's Bohemia (Czech Republic) to Timoc (today's Serbia-Bulgaria), and beyond.

The Romanization process began with Rome's advance into the Balkans and ended before the collapse of the Danube line in 580-602 since we have the recording of the phrase

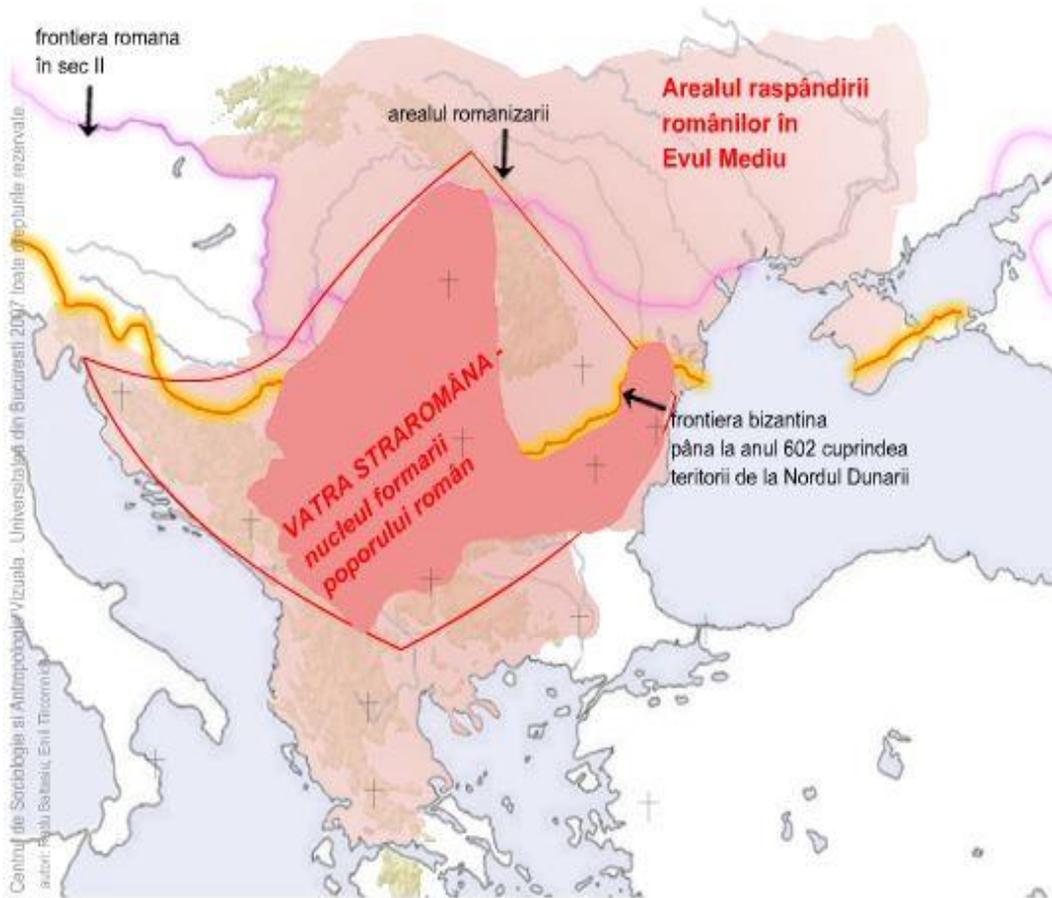
⁸ Maps are extracted from the following digital works: Radu Baltasiu, Ilie Bădescu, „Geopolitica”, Beladi, 2007; Radu Baltasiu, Emil Țîrcomnicu, „Aromânii, parcurs istoric și prezent”, Beladi, 2008, and from Radu Baltasiu, Ovidiana Bulumac, „Istoria Socială, actualitate și problematică”, Editura Universității din București, 2016, cap. 10, „Romanizarea, romanile populare, aromânii”.

"Torna, torna, fratre" - according to Byzantine chronicles, the oldest evidence of the Proto-Romanian language, long before the separation of the Romanian space by the Slavs.



Map 4 The Christianizing of the Daco-Thracians, part of the Romanization process. Ethnogenesis of thraco-illyrians was started in the 2nd century B.C..

The logic of the acculturation process called Romanization helps us to understand that *Romanization* did not happen only between the conquest of Dacia (106) and the Aurelian retreat (271), but with the initiation of cultural and economic contact phenomena of the Roman conquest of Illyria. The Romanization process begins in the 3-2 B.C. centuries, with the conquest of Illyria and Macedonia (Thrace) by Rome and lasted long after the Aurelian retreat, through the permanent exchanges between the Roman Empire (later the Byzantine Empire) and the Daco-Romans on the Danube and Carpathian axis. It should be noted that the Roman Empire (Byzantine) recaptured the Danube line in depth, on the line Tr. Severin-Curtea de Argeș-Ploiești-Galați, in 4th century (Constantine's Wall or Novac's Furrow), and Byzantium had military bases in Dobrogea until the 13th century. (Dobrogea



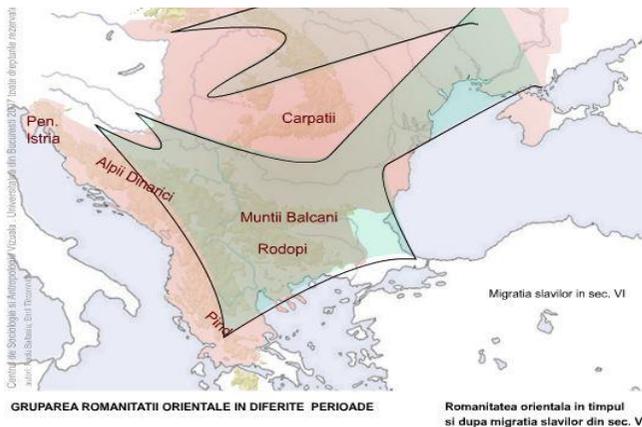
GRUPAREA ROMANITĂȚII ORIENTALE ÎN DIFERITE PERIOADE

**Arealul de formare și etnogeneza
sec II î.Hr - X d. Hr**

Map 6 The Core of the Romanian Ethnogenesis. After "Spațiul istoric și etnic românesc", Ed. Militară, București, 1992 (1942), Map XXXVI



Map 7 The proto-Romanians before the arrival of Slavs (the 6th Century A.D.)



Map 8 The Arrival of the Slavs and the beginning of the fragmentation of the Oriental Romanity (around 6th Century A.D.) Some theories argue that in the first phase of the Slavic flooding of the plains, the proto-Romanians were retreating to the mountains – natural fortresses (Papanace, Murnu, Capidan).

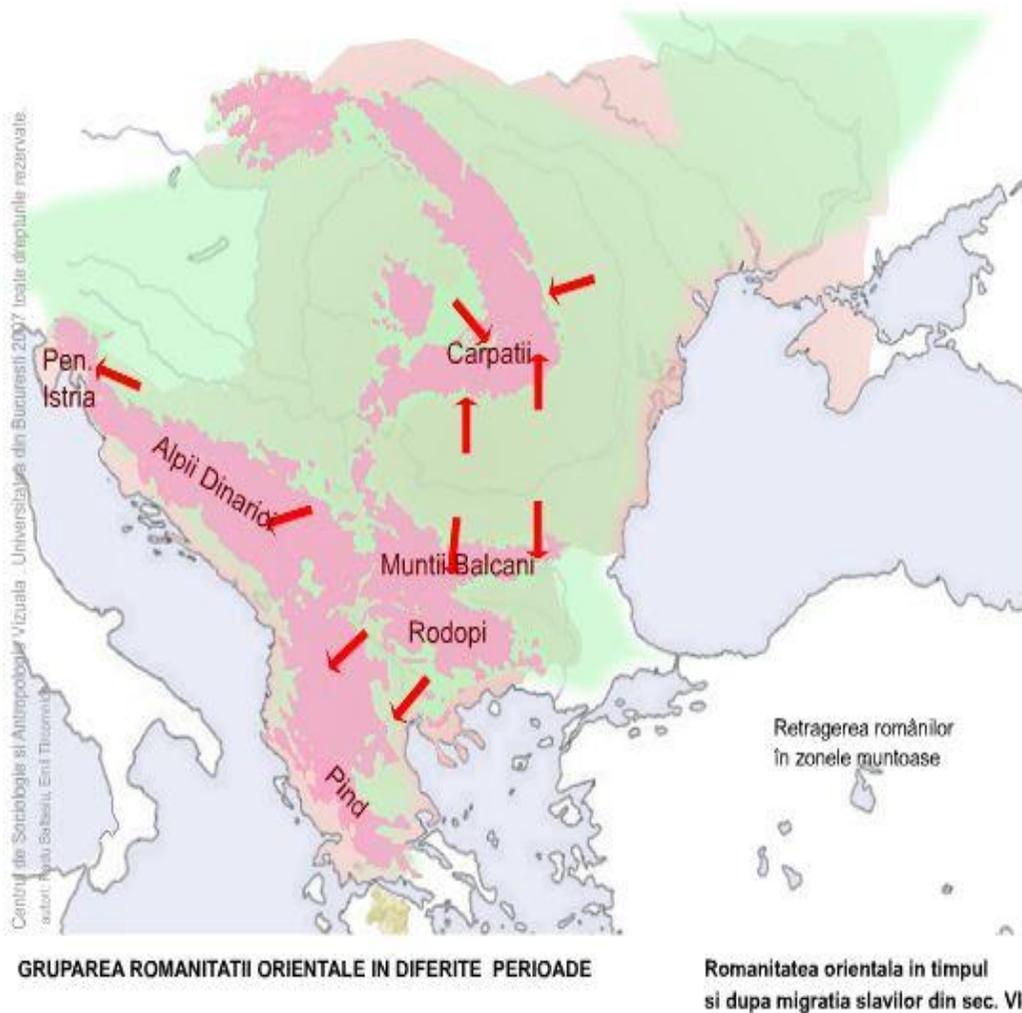
The Romanian language is already formed when the Slavs came, in the 6th century. The Romanian people appear in the IV-VIII centuries AD by assimilating Slavic and Turkic (Bulgars) migrants. The formation space of the Romanian people has as its axis the Danube - on both banks, and the Carpathians.

By the advance of the Slavo-Bulgars, starting with 6-7th centuries, the Eastern Romanity is divided in two, having relatively different

evolutions: the Daco-Romanians and the Macedo-Romanians (Aromanians, Istro-Romanians, Megleno-Romanians). Cause: the settlement of the Slavo-Bulgars on the axis of the Danube.

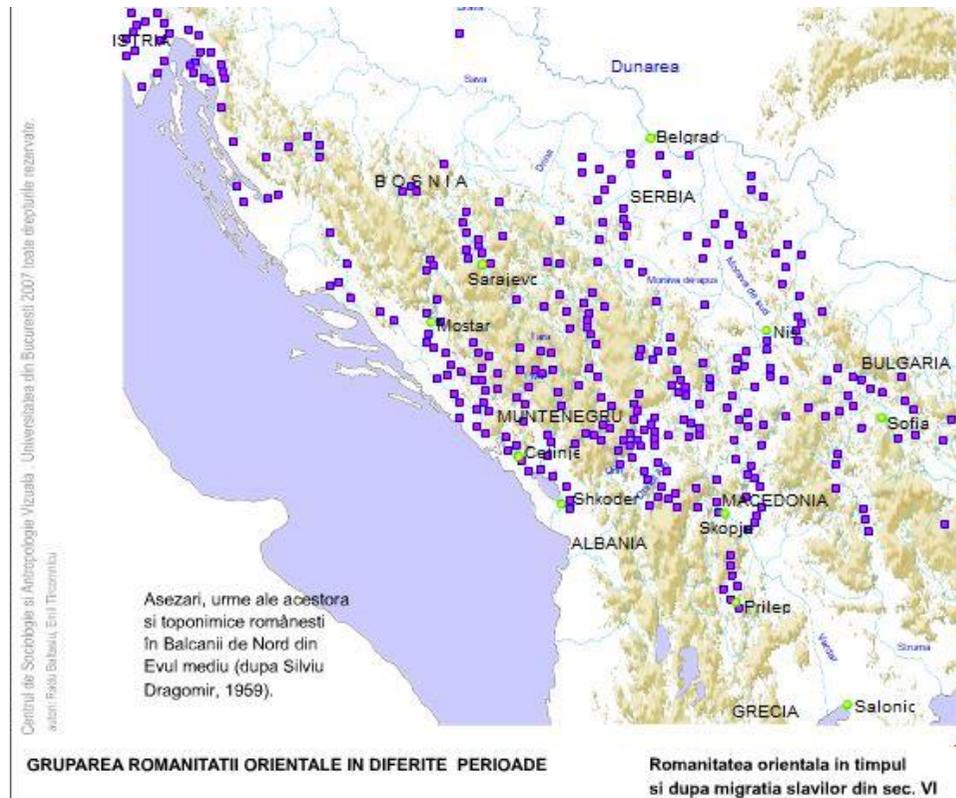
The extent of Eastern Romanity extends beyond the Nistru line to the northeast and reaches the Black Sea in the east and the Adriatic coast in the southwest. (Baltasiu, Bulumac, 2016, 150)¹⁰

¹⁰ "Limba română este deja formată la venirea slavilor. Poporul român apare în sec. IV-VIII d. Hr. prin asimilarea migratorilor slavi și tiurcici. Spațiul de formare al poporului român are ca axă Dunărea – pe ambele maluri, și Carpații. Începând cu sec. VI-VII, romanitatea orientală este împărțită în două, având evoluții relativ diferite: dacoromâni și macedoromâni (aromâni, istroromâni, meglenoromâni). Cauza: așezarea slavilor pe axa Dunării. Întinderea romanității



Map 9 Under the pressure of the Slavo-Bulgars, the Proto-Romanians were retreating to the mountains

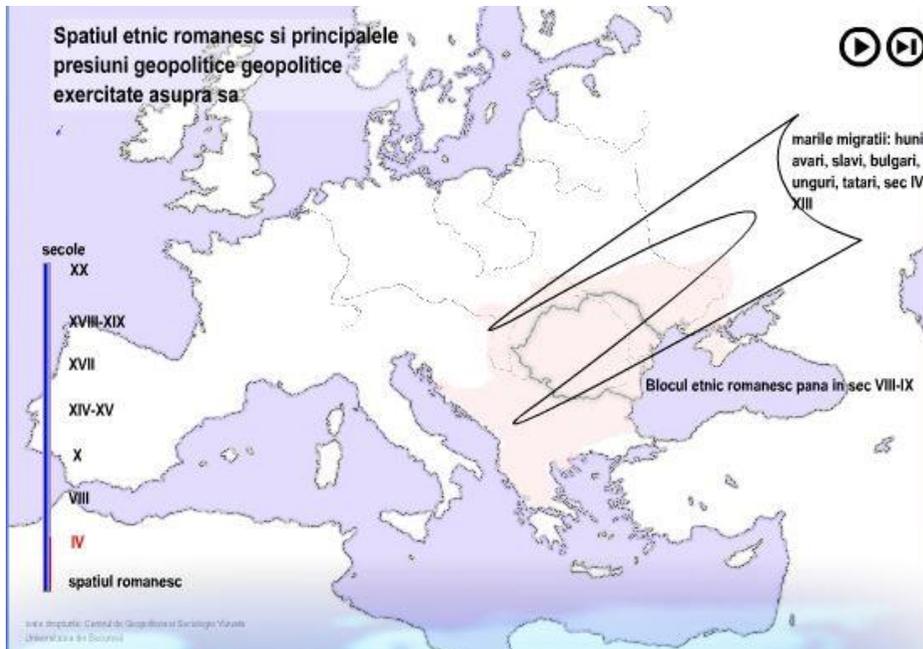
orientale depășește linia Nistrului la Nord-Est și ajunge până la Marea Neagră în Est și Coasta Adriaticii în Sud-Vest.”



Map 10 Traces in the 20th century of Proto-Romanian and Romanian habitation according to the names of localities, valleys, mountains in the Balkan Peninsula

II. The Maps of the Pressures on the RES

The

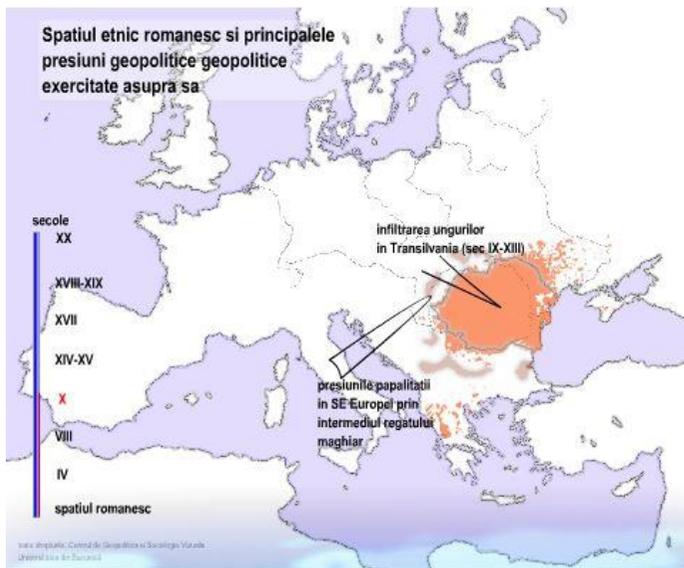


Map 11 The great migrations from the 4th century to the 12th century.

Romanian Ethnic Space was sheared by multiple power-vectors. The great migrations were absorbed by the proto-Romanians/Romanians, except for the Hungarians in the 9th century. In six hundred years after their arrival in the Balkans, the Slavo-Bulgars managed to tear in two the Romanian Space. After the Second Romanian-Bulgarian Empire of Ioniță Caloian – named by Pope “Rex Bulgarorum et Valachorum” (13th century)¹¹ the Romanians vanish as a visible political force in Bulgaria.

Iorga about Hungarian vector in the Romanian area: „For some time now, it has been seen that these German emperors cannot convert all nations. ... Papal Rome continued the consciousness that the world must be Christianized by force also, and that this must be accomplished by a state headed by a blessed dynasty and, with this blessed sword, this dynasty to go as far as it can that is enough. And then the apostolic kingdom of Hungary was created, which is neither territorial nor national. But when the royal crown was given to the one who, before being called Stephen and becoming a Saint of the Catholic Church, not only of his people, was called Voevod Vajk, - a name we also took from the Slavs, being displaced by the rules of the language, for it comes from the valley meaning «wolf,» so that the future Stephen was at first «Voevod Lupu,» in a Slavic form - when, from this voivode

¹¹ “Imperiul româno-bulgar (Țaratul vlaho-bulgar, 1185-1258) se întinde de la Adriatică și până la Nistru ...” <https://ortodoxinfo.ro/2017/12/26/imperiul-romano-bulgar-taratul-vlaho-bulgar-1185-1258-se-intindea-de-la-adriatica-si-pana-la-nistru-romanii-sunt-daci-ce-limba-vorbeau-daci/>



Map 12 Papal and Hungarian pressures on the Romanian space in the 10th Century and beyond. The Kingdom of Hungary was the instrument of papal expansion in Southeast Europe (Iorga, „Hotare și spații naționale”, 1938).

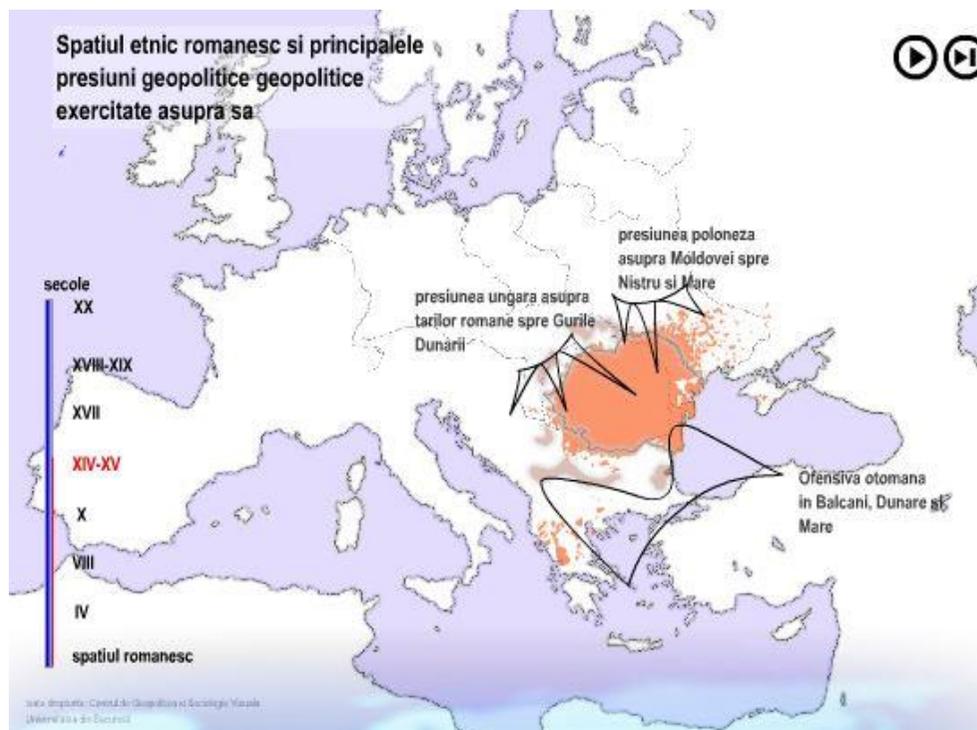
with the Slavic title and the Slavic name of Vajk, became an apostolic king, the Holy See had the same idea as when he made the king of the Franks Carol the Great emperor, namely the idea that all people must live in Christendom, that this Christianity cannot be that of the East [but] that of the pope, that any means must be used to save in this way, with the sword, the souls of the people who had hitherto lived in paganism. And then, the kings of Hungary, or of the old Arpadian dynasty, or of the new Angevin dynasty of Anjou, these kings had to conquer.”¹²(Iorga, 1996, 151)

¹² „De la o bucată de vreme s-a văzut însă că împărații aceștia germani nu sunt în stare să convertească toate neamurile. Dinastia s-a veștejit: oameni slabi, nevrednici, au înlocuit pe Carol-cel-Mare. Cu toate acestea ... Roma papală continua conștiința că lumea trebuie făcută creștină și cu de-a sila și că lucrul acesta trebuie îndeplinit printr-un stat în fruntea căruia să steie o dinastie binecuvântată și, cu sabia aceasta blagoslovită, dinastia aceasta să meargă până unde poate ajunge.

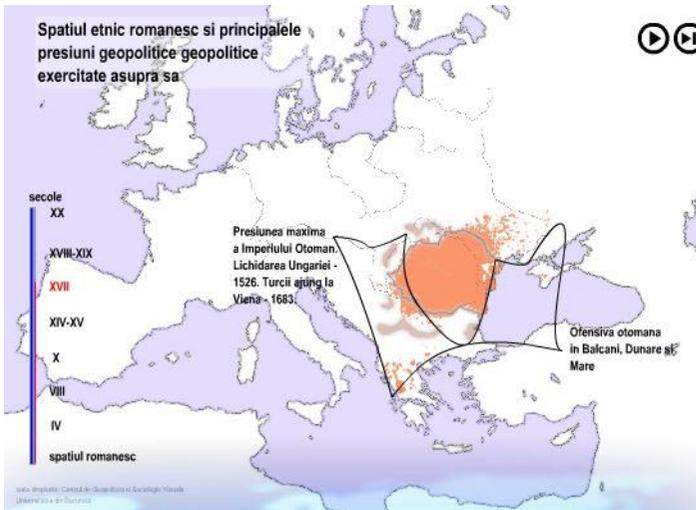
Și atunci s-a creat regatul apostolic al Ungariei, care nu este nici teritorial, nici național. Dar, când s-a dat coroana regală aceluia care, înainte de a se chema Ștefan și a deveni Sfânt al Bisericii catolice, nu numai al poporului său, se chema Voievodul Vajk, - nume pe care l-am luat și noi de la Slavi, fiind strămutat după regulile limbii, căci vine de la vâlc care înseamnă «lup», așa încât viitorul Ștefan a fost la început «Voievodul Lupu», într-o formă slavă – când, din voievodul acesta cu titlu slav și cu nume slav de Vajk, s-a făcut un rege apostolic, Sfântul Scaun a avut aceeași idee ca și în momentul când a făcut împărat pe regele francilor Carol cel Mare, anume ideea că toți oamenii trebuie să trăiască în creștinătate, că această creștinătate nu poate fi cea din Răsărit [ci] aceea a papei, că orice mijloc trebuie întrebuințat pentru a salva în felul acesta, cu sabia, sufletele oamenilor care până atunci au trăit în păgânitate.

Și atunci, regii Ungariei, sau din vechea dinastie arpadiană, sau din noua dinastie, angevină, de Anjou, regii aceștia au trebuit neapărat să cucerească.”

The Ottoman conquest of the Balkans and its pressure on the Romanian states North of the Danube brings to a halt the Romanian organic development in multiple ways. By diverting huge resources from social and cultural development to the warfare, or, directly by pillage, by splitting the Sea Coast and, in the late 14th century the Danube, from the Romanian state and social building. By the 15th century, with some interruptions, the Hungarians and the Turks took control over the main geopolitical façades of the Romanian space: the Carpathians, the Danube, and the Sea (see. Mehedinți). The means used were different. The Hungarians imposed the social exclusion of the Romanian from the social and political life – only three nations were recognized in Transylvania: the Hungarians, the Saxons and the Szeklers, and the Magyarization of the Romanians, especially the elites. The Ottomans exerted sheer pressure over the country finances (“*tribut*”) and political interferences.



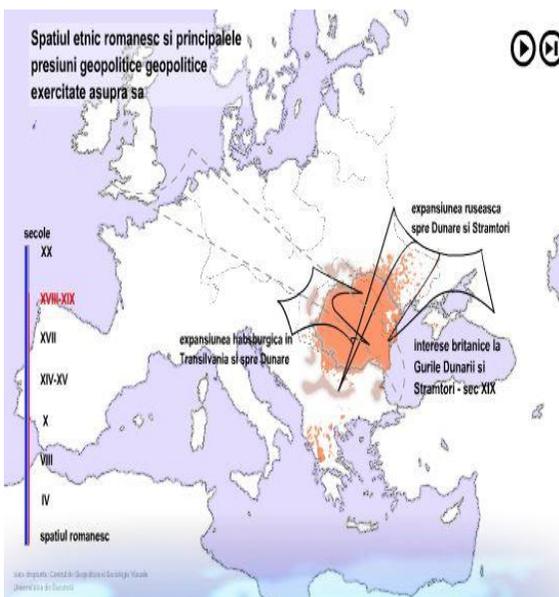
Map 13 The Ottoman pressure adds to the Hungarian and Polish ones, as constants for the most part of the Middle Ages.



Map 14 The peak of the Ottoman pressures on the Romanian space was during the 16th and 17th centuries. We should remember the Romanian reaction: the first Romanian unified state of the Michael the Great (1601).

By the Leopold Diploma of 1691, Transylvania was absorbed into the Austrian Empire as an autonomous structure, under the direct subordination of the Austrian emperor. As a result of the Habsburg pressures, the Synod of Alba Iulia accepted the Union with Rome (1697) to acquire civil rights for the Romanians.

Through the Peace of Karlowitz in 1699, the Ottoman Empire recognized the transition of Transylvania as an autonomous principality from Turkish to the Habsburg suzerainty.

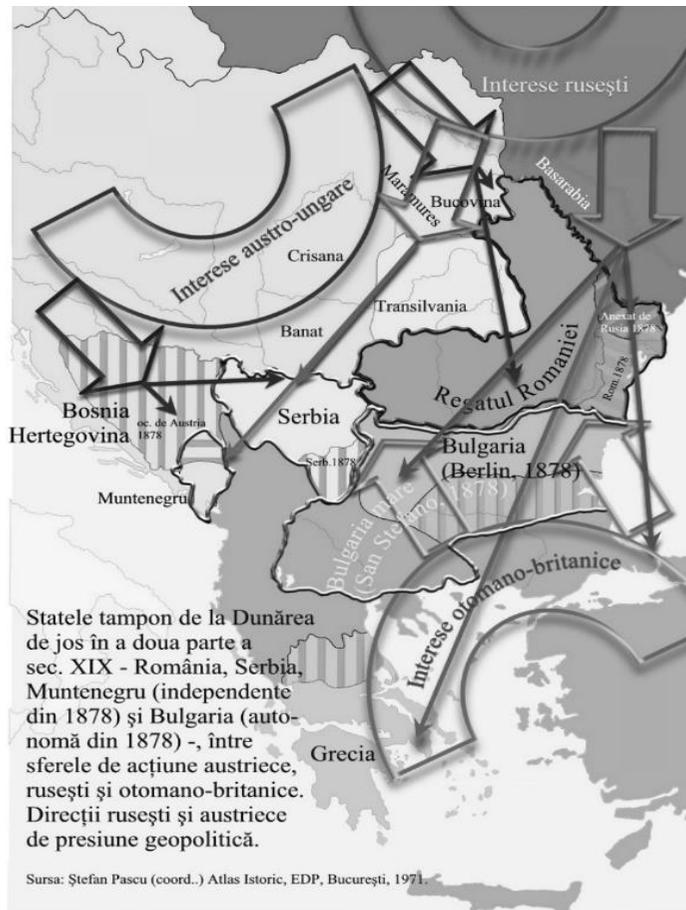


Map 15 The Eastern Question: the weakness of the Ottoman Empire threatens the stability of Europe facilitating the geopolitical expansion of the Austria-Hungary and Russian empires. The British Empire intervenes, and the modernization (1739).

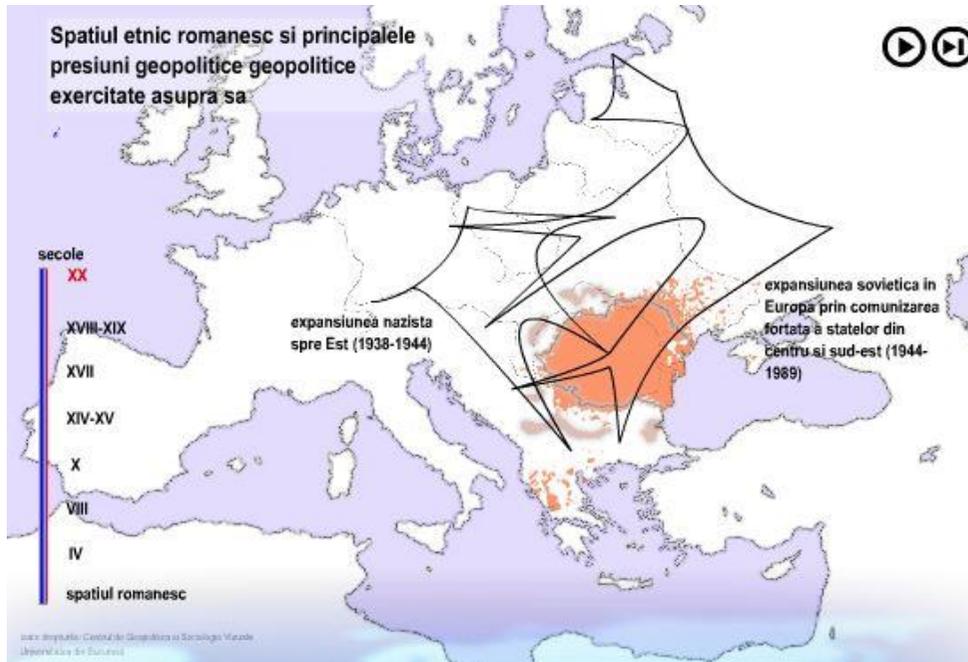
After the Russo-Turkish war of 1710-1712, the Phanariot government was established (Moldova 1711, Wallachia 1716). The costs of the Phanariot governments were colossal. "More than half of the revenues of the Principalities were sometimes taken over only for [buying] the extensions of the lordships. ... Almost the entire population is pushed into credit relations [it is indebted to moneylenders with interest rates of up to 300%]. ... The annual interest [of the usury] ... is more than the budgetary revenues of both [Romanian] countries at the beginning of the Union era." (Zane, 1980, 45, 52)

Following the peace of Passarowitz (1718), Banat and Oltenia became part of the Habsburg Empire. Oltenia returns to Wallachia through the peace of Belgrade

No less than nine Russian-Austro-Turkish wars took place on Romanian territory (as a main or secondary theater) between 1710-1877 (between 1710-1712, 1716-1718, 1736-1738, 1768-1774, 1787- 1791, 1806-1812, 1828-1829, 1853-1856, 1877-1878). Russian interests are counterbalanced by the strong interests of England at the mouths of the Danube and Straits in the first half of the nineteenth century, a situation that favored the modern development of Romania. (See Baltasiu & Bulumac, 2016, 180-181)



Map 16 Romania – a buffer state between the Austro-Hungarian, Russian, Ottoman, German and British empires in the 19th century. The directions of geopolitical pressures.

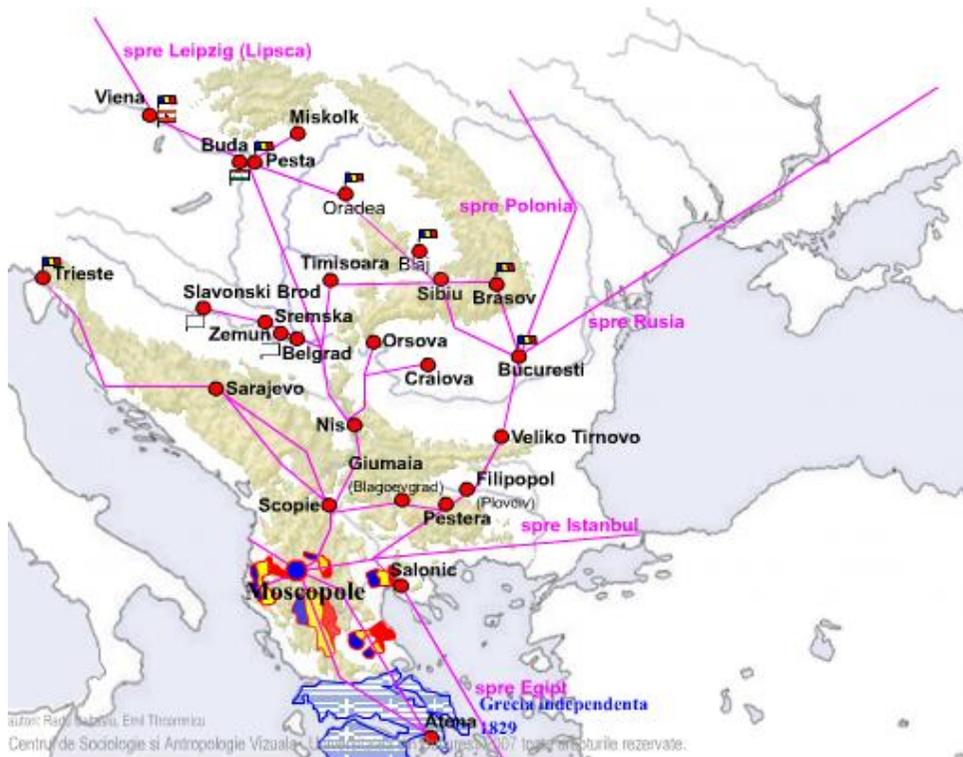


Map 17 The geopolitical shearing system: Eastern Europe between the USSR and Nazi Germany in the first half of the 20th century.

Caught between the Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union, Romania lost in 1940 the Northern Transylvania (to the horthyst Hungary), Norther Bukovina and Bessarabia (to the USSR) and the Cadrilater (to Bulgaria), about 100000 km²(about 1/3 of the land) and almost 7 million people (about 33% of total population). The Soviet occupation of Romania after August 1944 meant the forced instauration of communism, which formally ended in 1989. Communism exacted huge costs on Romania and the Romanian people: at least 2 million people arrested, deported, killed. The most important toll consisted of a large-scale social mutilation of society, by destroying the social-models and patterns of social order, by ostracization or liquidation of the most competent of the individuals. (See Baltasiu and Bulumac, 2014 – coord., 109)

III. Maps of the Romanian significant densities South of the Danube¹³

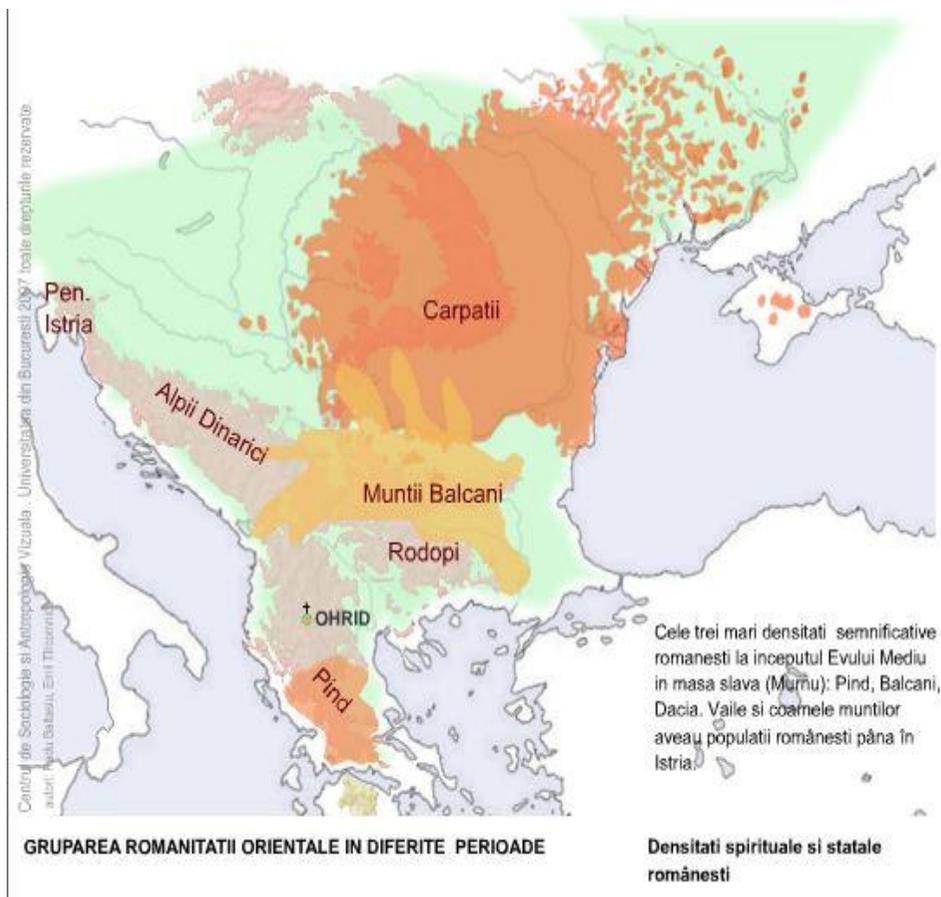
According to the theory of significant densities, societies are the result of the interactions and processes that take place within the ethno – spiritual centers of great energetic strength. During certain historical ages, the ability of some ethno-spiritual centers to irradiate, that they gain the ability to culturally, economically and even politically and militarily to configure areas , which by far exceed their ethnic and political borders. For example, the Transylvanian School (“Școala Ardeleană”), a main product of the Aromanian Illumination, sparking, especially in Transylvania, a genuine rebirth of Romanian spirituality and politics in XVII – XIX century Transylvania. (see Baltasiu & Țîrcomnicu, 2010)



THE

Map 18 The ferment people thesis (Papanace). After the destruction of Moscopole in the late 18th century, the power of the civilizational center dissipated towards Greece, Romania, Austro-Hungary. The Great Union of 1918 owes much of it to the Aromanians from Moscopole, as well as the Greek modern statehood, etc.

¹³ Maps are from “Aromânii, CD ROM”, Ed. Beladi, 2008 the theory from Baltasiu & Țîrcomnicu, 2010.



Map 19 The three significant Romanian densities: to the North of the Danube, the one centered on the Balkan Mountains and the third, on the ridge of Pindus towards Ohrid.

The Romanians from the South of the Danube had formations with political prestige, which lasted more or less, at the same time or before the founding of the Romanian states on the North of the Danube. In the Middle Ages, various historians recorded: Great Wallachia (in Thessaly), Little Wallachia (in Aetolia and Acarnania), Upper Wallachia (in the southern and eastern part of Epirus) and White Wallachia (most likely the core formation of the 12th century Empire of Asan). The existence of these three Wallachian states is also attested by the western chroniclers Geoffroy de Villehardouin, Henri de Valenciennes, Robert de Clary and by all historiographers who dealt with the revolutionary movement of the group of Romanians in Haemus [Balkan Mountains] (1196). (see Murnu, "Historical Studies").

Great Wallachia (“Valahia Mare”), with its center in Larissa, was the most important of these groups, with elements of autonomous organization lasting even within the



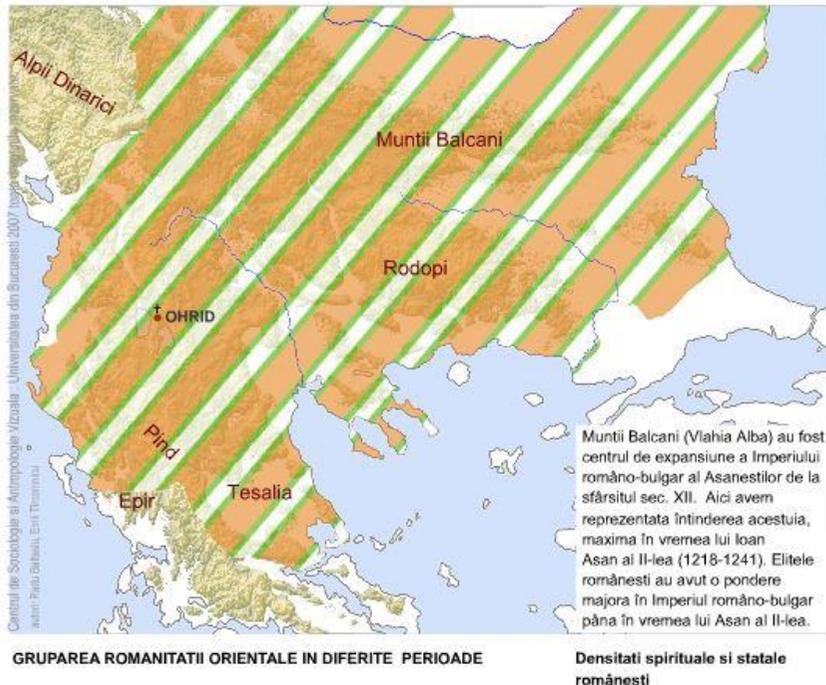
Map 20 The Romanian states South of the Danube in the Middle Ages

Ottoman Empire. It was first documented in the tenth century, on the occasion of a revolt of the Romanians under Niculita against Byzantine rule, and functioned as a more or less independent state structure until the 14th century (in 1333 it became part of the Byzantine Empire).¹⁴

¹⁴ “Românii din Sudul Dunării au avut formațiuni cu prestigiu politic, care au durat mai mult sau mai puțin, chiar mai înainte de întemeierea statelor românești la Nordul Dunării. Capidan vorbește despre cele patru Vlahii: Vlahia Mare (în Tesalia), Vlahia Mica (în Etolia și Acarnania), Vlahia de Sus (în partea meridională și răsăriteană a Epirului) și Vlahia Alba (foarte probabil formațiunea nucleu a Imperiului Asăneștilor din sec. XII). Existența acestor trei Vlahii este atestată și de cronicarii apuseni Geoffroy de Villehardouin, Henri de Valenciennes, Robert de Clary ca și de toți istoriografii care s-au ocupat cu mișcarea revoluționară a grupului de Români din Haemus [Munții Balcani] (1196). (vezi și Murnu, "Studii istorice").

Vlahia Mare, cu centrul la Larissa, a fost cea mai importantă dintre aceste grupări, cu elemente de organizare autonomă dăinuind inclusiv în cadrul Imperiului Otoman. Ea a fost documentată pentru prima oară în secolul X, cu prilejul unei răscoale a românilor sub Niculiță împotriva stăpânirii bizantine, și a funcționat ca structură statală mai mult sau mai puțin independentă până în secolul XIV (în 1333 reîntra în componența Imperiului Bizantin).” (Baltasiu and Țircomnicu, 2008, chapter “Romanitatea orientală. Densități semnificative I. Statalitatea”).

“At Choniates, we see only three times the name of the Bulgarians quoted, while that of the Vlachs is quoted thirty-nine times and four times it is replaced by that of Mysoi (Vlachs). We see the same precedence in Ansbertus, in Robert de Clary, in Villehardouin. That is why their country is not called Bulgaria, but archaic, Mysia (= Vlach at Choniates), Terred de Blakie, Blaquie, Terra Blacorum, in the French chroniclers and in the pope's letters. It includes all the Lower Moesia, regardless of the rest of the inhabitants ...” (Murnu, 1984, 171)¹⁵.



Map 21 The Asan Empire of Romanians and Bulgars, centered around the White Walachia at his widest extension in the 13th century

¹⁵ “La Choniates vedem abia de trei ori citat numele bulgarilor, pe când acela al vlahilor e citat de treizeci și nouă de ori și de patru e înlocuit cu cel de Mysoi (vlahi). Aceeași precădere o vedem la Ansbertus, la Robert de Clary, la Villehardouin. De aceea țara lor nu este numește Bulgaria, ci arhaic, Mysia (= Vlahia la Choniates), Terred de blakie, Blaquie, Terra Blacorum, la cronicarii francezi și în scrisorile papei. Ea cuprinde toată Moesia Inferioară, indiferent de restul locuitorilor ...”

References:

1. Baltasiu, R., Bulumac, O. (2016). Istoria socială. Actualitate și problematică. Bucharest: Universitatii din Bucuresti.
2. Baltasiu, R., Țîrcomnicu, E. (2009). Aromanians and their space of significant density, Biblioteca Metropolitană București, Lucrările simpozionului internațional "Cartea. România. Europa, ed. a II-a, 20-24 sept. 2009, 550 de ani de la prima atestare documentară a orașului București". Bucharest: Biblioteca Bucureștilor: 741-753
3. Baltasiu, R., Țîrcomnicu, E. (2008). Aromânii, CD ROM. Craiova: Beladi.
4. Baltasiu, R.; Bulumac, O. coord. (2014). Fractured modernities. Elites, Romania and 'Europe'. Bucharest: Bucharest University Press.
5. Baltasiu, R.; Țîrcomnicu, E. (2010). Aromânii și densitățile semnificative. Simpozionul Internațional, Cartea. România. Europa. Ediția a II-a. 550 de ani de la prima atestare documentară a orașului București, sub auspiciile Bibliotecii Metropolitane București, Bibliotecii Centrale Universitare – 20-24 septembrie 2010.
6. Geopolitica și Geoistoria. Revista Română pentru Sudetul European, anul I, nr. 1, septembrie-octombrie 1941, „Cuvânt înainte”, semnat „Redacția” [Gheorghe I. Brătianu, S., M., Vulcănescu, M., Conea, I., Golopentia, A., Conea, I., Golopentia, A.]: 3-6
7. Iorga, N. (1996). Hotare și spații naționale. Afirmarea vitalității românești, studiu introductiv de Mihai Ungheanu, postfața de Sever Ardelean. Galați: Porto Franco.
8. Iorga, N. (1999). Generalități cu privire la studiile istorice. 4th Ed.. Introducere, note și comentarii de Andrei Pippidi. Notă asupra ediției de Victor Durnea, Iași: Polirom.
9. Mehedinți, S. (1943). Opere Complete, vol. I, Geographica, Partea a doua, Biblioteca Enciclopedică. Bucharest: Fundația Regală pentru Literatură și Artă.
10. Murnu, G. (1984). Studii istorice privitoare la trecutul romanilor de peste Dunăre. Bucharest: Academiei.
11. Murnu, G. (1984). Studii istorice privitoare la trecutul românilor de peste Dunăre, Ediție îngrijită și studiu introductiv de Nicolae-Șerban Tanașoca. Bucharest: Academiei.
12. Vâlsan, G. (1921). Dunărea. Conferința în cadrele «Asociației» la 25 Martie 1921, publicată în Buletinul Societății Regale de Geografie, Tomul LIV. Bucharest: 38-55.
13. Zane, G.. (1980). Studii. Bucharest: Eminescu.
14. *** (1992). Spațiul istoric și etnic românesc. Bucharest: Militara.

UNSEEN WOMEN – A GLIMPSE INTO THE COMMUNIST PAST OF ROMANIA

Ovidiana BULUMAC

Ph.D., Scientific researcher at The European Centre for Ethnic Studies, Romanian Academy

E-mail contact: ovidiana.bulumac@gmail.com

Abstract: *The present paper addresses the image of women in the first decade of the communist oppression in Romania, a subject not well developed in the sociological literature. The text is a fragment of a wider study, designed in two main and opposing parts. The first one is an analysis of the official state approved version of reality, done by researching the Scânteia newspaper, the official trumpet of the communist power, documenting all the published references related to women between September 1944 and February 1954. After browsing almost 30,000 pages, each mention of a woman in the text (in general or in particular, regardless of nationality, socio-cultural, economic or political background) was selected and entered into a database that grew to over 18,600 references. In other words, the official history of women in the Romanian media, narrated by the Communist Party's newspapers and political speeches, pre-approved and censored to suit the new power's ambitions was the main focus. The study appeared in 2022 in London (Bulumac, 2022). The second part, the present text, is still under development. However, it represents a reality check. Because behind all the official image promoted and propaganda regarding women, there was another history. Or shall we say a real herstory, that was not published in the written press, that was not told either at school or even in the close circles of friends because of the communist induced state of terror. One must note that the timeframe in question was considered to be the harshest repressive regime that the country endured until the Revolution of December 1989.*

Keywords: *communism, women, herstory, propaganda, resistance, political prisoners.*

1. Prolegomena

The communist apparatus found in the Romanian society a curious situation: modernity was already assimilated at the level of the women's elite, which benefited from extensive pre- and interwar achievements gained by the feminine movement. In order to preserve the "saviours of women" political marketing etiquette, the communists tried to compensate this state of facts by promises of future actions that would extend the rights to all categories of women (Bulumac, 2022). However, the reality got lost in translation. Step by step, the new political force promoted the results and victories of the former feminine movement as their own, in a desperate attempt to gain legitimacy, to which they added several new ones (such as the right to equal pay for equal work or the generalization of the right to vote and be voted).

However, the actions taken were only petty politics, needed at the discourse level. In reality, the costs of the policies implemented were extensive. For instance, why would a woman (or a man for that matter) have the right to vote if she had only one political option, the one of the state party? Or why would a woman be happy to receive the right to work in a factory, with a salary equal to that of a man, if she works at least 10 hours a day and has no one or where to leave her children to be taken care of? Not to mention the fact that her property was abusively taken away, and the right to work in a factory becomes (from right)

an actual obligation, leaving her no other way to feed the family? Or why would the common women be pleased to be educated if the only goal of the state was to maximize the agricultural and industrial production which meant hard and manual labour 12 hours a day, every day, to which “voluntary” work was added? Why would women be happy to have the right to associate in profile organizations if those entities were constantly monitored, censored and fully controlled by the Communist Party, and knowing that all the associative forms with tradition (which have brought important results in the process of emancipation of women until 1944) were outlawed? Here are just a few questions that show, in fact, the real “progress” brought on by communist power in the Romanian society, a mere import of forms and not of content, an ideological emulation. The overinvolvement of women in the production process was promoted as the only way in which a woman could escape her exploitation done by men. This is why even motherhood has become subordinate to the idea of increasing production. In reality, the emancipation of women in the workfield augmented the control of the regime, which would have been more difficult to achieve if the women remained in the home environment. To all this, if we add the idea that argues women have the duty to support the efforts of men and the state in their “fight” for “obtaining social peace” and “the final defeat of fascism”, one can see that the new offerings rather led to a deeper handcuffing of women, and not a liberation “from the traditional domination of men and society” (Bulumac, 2022).

The ideal communist woman accumulated a whole series of responsibilities such as mother, wife, worker, volunteer and citizen, which at the discourse level were honored without problems, but in reality, the propagated emancipation was in fact a “total myth” (Aivazova, 1997: 701-728). The state policy involved the uninterrupted and party approved promotion in newspapers and magazines of this image of the ideal communist woman, who was either a mother with many children, a happy worker in a factory, or part of the communist organizations dedicated to women who meet and set up their future in society. It was, however, a projection meant to distort reality, based on singular cases, filtered by the party and definitely not representative for the great mass of women (Cîrdei, 2012: 78). And the *Scântea* newspaper found itself at the core of the communist propaganda. Thus, during the first decade of the regime, the party-controlled press in Romania contributed to the creation of a *parallel reality*, drifting away from its initial mission (telling the truth), and producing typical *fake news* of those times (Bulumac, 2022).

The history full of traumas suffered in silence by Romanian women became known only after the revolution of December 1989: stories of entire families destroyed, women imprisoned, that suffered injustice, who were subjected to political cleansing, laid off work, transformed into society’s outcasts, subjected to political, symbolical and physical abuse. Women during the communist period found themselves in the position of *victims* on several occasions. Either they were directly affected by the regime through imprisonment or forced labor, or they were the daughters, wives or mothers of political prisoners, or they were subjected to an ideology of converting them into a tool of the regime for political purposes. We reiterate a partial quote that refers to the extensive consequences of the communist repressive regime: “... the numbers of the direct victims of communist repression reach 2 million. If we add the indirect victims (family members who suffered social discrimination), then the global sum of the repressed reaches a few millions, close to half of the population of the country, which during the ‘50s, the peak years of terror, numbered around 16 million inhabitants.” (Coroamă et al, 2007: 4).

Figure 1. Some of the unseen victims of the communist regime. The women as hostiles¹⁶



An approximation of the number of women who suffered in communist prisons was forwarded by Lucia Hossu Longin, one of the most famous personalities of the Romanian society, who in the last three decades has been recording the testimonies of political detainees through the TV documentary “Memorial of Pain” (Popescu, 2017): [Since 1993]

¹⁶ **Lucretia Jurj** was one of the few women who took an active part in the resistance movement in the mountains for four years (between 1950 and 1954). He fought together with the Șușman group from Răchițele against the establishment of the communist regime in Romania. Her husband is killed and she is arrested and imprisoned for 10 years.

Niculina Moica was arrested at only 15 years old, and sentenced to 20 years of forced labor because she had been part, along with other young people, of the anti-communist organization Free Youth Union of Romania. Shortly after her arrest, her father, Petru Moica, was also sentenced to 20 years of forced labor for "conspiracy against the social order."

Aspazia Oțel-Petrescu was one of the most well-known and beloved political detainees, arrested during her university studies and sentenced to 10 hard years in prison. The reason for the arrest was her adherence to *Cetățuia* - the youth organization of women from the "Orthodox High School for Girls" from Chernivtsi (city from North Bucovina, a land lost by Romania in 1940 due to the Hitler-Stalin diktat, along with Bessarabia, Herța, Northern Transilvania, Southern Dobruja)

Aurora Dumitrescu was arrested when she was a student and sentenced to 6 years in correctional prison for "conspiracy against the social order".

Nun Mihaela Iordache, imprisoned for 8 hard years for false legionary conspiracies in the monastic environment, dead in prison.

The aviator **Smaranda Brăescu** protested against the falsification of the November 1946 elections, signing, along with other personalities, a memorandum that was sent to the Allied Control Commission. The document came into the possession of the Soviet delegation, all signatories being subjected to communist oppression. She was sentenced, in absentia, to 2 years in prison and was forced to hide, change her name. She died two years after she was sentenced.

Elisabeta Rizea was one of the most famous heroines of the anti-communist struggle, niece of the peasant leader Gheorghe Șuța, killed by the communists in 1948. Together with her husband she actively supported the anti-communist resistance group Arsenescu-Arnăuțoiu. She was arrested and tortured by the communist authorities for 12 years.

Ioana Maria Vulcănescu, arrested for two years simply for being her father's daughter in 1952, the same year when Mircea Vulcănescu was killed by ill-treatment and torture in Aiud prison. She was never allowed to study at the University of Architecture and was under constant surveillance by the Securitate. Her father was a philosopher, sociologist, economist, professor of ethics, former Undersecretary of State at the Ministry of Finance, and also one of the most brilliant minds of the national culture of all time, second only to Mihai Eminescu.

“Lucia Hossu Longin has been making the documentary «The Memorial of Pain». She listened to thousands of testimonies. The rustling of the pages in the file in front of her reveal biographies shattered by years of imprisonment, aberrant sentences, hallucinatory accusations, unimaginable torture. More than 150,000 women suffered in communist prisons. «Most of the arrests were made in the 1950s, the accusation being that they helped resistance groups in the mountains: mothers, sisters, wives received 15-20 years in prison, they were sentenced to death for helping their sons, brothers, men, with medicine, food, because they offered them a shelter in winter.» In the long lists in front of her, the names and numbers glacially describe destinies ending in hell: 14-year-old girls imprisoned, tortured, raped, 70-year-old women who received 20 years in “heavy” prison, whole families deported, persecuted, investigated, removed from college or left without a job.” (Femei care au înfruntat teroarea comunistă..., 2009).

Unfortunately, the topic of women's lives during the communist period (real or reflected in the press of the time) did not arouse the interest of historians or sociologists beyond the discussion focused on the issue of banning abortions that collided with the right of women over their body. This is how, **even more than 30 years after the fall of the communist regime, we got to the point where there is no clear evidence of the total number of women arrested** (not to mention the total number of victims). However, **at the official level, the tiny figure of 3753 is submitted in the case of women that had criminal records identified in the archives of the National Penitentiary Administration. As for the rest of them, time will tell.** “The concentration map of female communism is as extensive as that of male detention. Apart from mixed prisons, such as Jilava or Văcărești, there were a few reserved exclusively for women. Therefore, the black vans in which women were stopped in Mislea, Mărgineni, Miercurea Ciuc, Dumbrăveni or in Arad.” (Vancu, 2018). Details regarding the fate of the women political prisoners in Romania during the first 10 years of the communist dictatorship can be found in two types of sources: 1) the official data written in the criminal records from the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries, and 2) the information revealed by the writings of the survivors of the detention period (memoires) or the interviews given by them to various press institutions after 1990. Next is the presentation of the interpretations made on the official data, supported by a series of quotations from the memoir type of literature. However, even if they have the character of *official data*, one must keep in mind that they represent only a *small portion* of the entire segment of the arrested women.

2. Some relevant statistics

The female political detainees were held in Securitate's detention centers across the country, in prisons and labor camps. During the communist regime there were two penitentiaries intended exclusively for women (Mislea and Miercurea Ciuc) and other mixed ones (Jilava, Văcărești, Arad, Mărgineni, Dumbrăveni), to which numerous forced labor camps were added.

“Jilava was one of the harshest prisons in which the communists terrorized thousands of people, being called by the former detainees who crossed its threshold «the Romanian Bastille». Here were brought the people who were waiting to be investigated, tried, retried or brought back for «additional investigations». Being a transit prison, Jilava was a mixed facility, hosting, in different buildings, both women and men.” (Dobre, 2015).

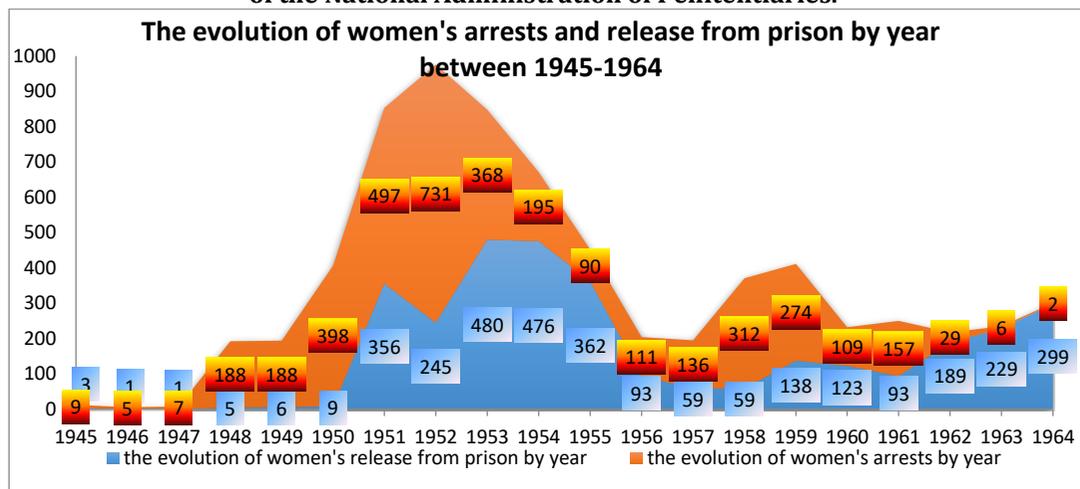
“Mislea (more about the prison in Ciuceanu, 2001, and Grossu, 1976), one of the most famous women's prisons during the communist regime ... was an old Orthodox

monastery already transformed before the Second World War into a prison for common law prisoners. After the communists came to power, Mislea was transformed into a prison for political prisoners ... Arriving at Mislea was by its nature a traumatic experience.” (Dobre, 2015).

“Even in the grave I will not forget the terror in the prison from Miercurea Ciuc. There I had been transferred [from Mislea]. The prison was sinister, the detainees slept on the floor, the food was execrable. The director of the prison was called Fleşeru, a brute. He had ordered that you be punished for every trifle, and the punishments were of an oriental refinement. If we weren't kept in the isolator in the winter, then we would have a complicated system of handcuffs, which would tighten on the hands with every movement. With such handcuffs, they put me in the cellar filled with rats for a whole day [to be eaten alive]. They were so many that, at first, their tails looked like bundles of straws to me!” (A murit Aspazia Oţel-Petrescu ..., 2018).

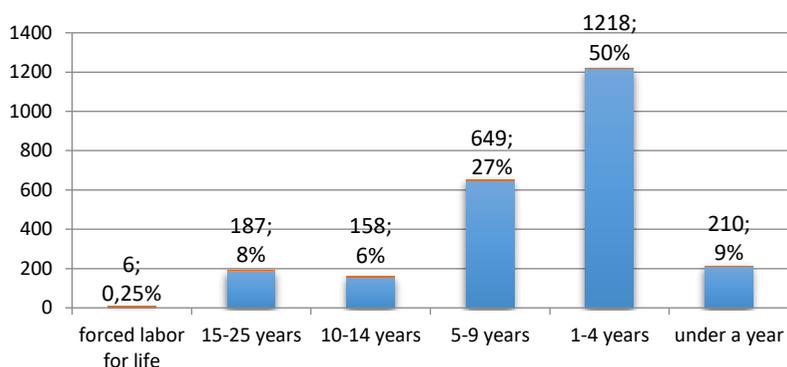
The arrests of women began from the first two years of the communist rule - it was the case of the most visible or uncomfortable hostile elements, such as female intellectuals, young women or members/leaders of former organizations, etc. The most frequent arrests were made in the 50s, when the aggressive land confiscation campaign was launched on the one hand, but also when the “legal” reprisals against the families of the dignitaries of interwar Romania were initiated. For example, in only one night (14/15 April 1952), hundreds of women, relatives of political detainees, were arrested, based on Decision No. 349/5 of July 1951 of the Ministry of Interior, and punished by an average of 2 years in prison (Dandara, s.a.). As shown below, the dynamics of the releases is similar to the one of the arrests. In the first decade of the communist regime, a reference period (1953-1954) can be identified due to some pardon decrees of the State Council. “Imprisoned in the early 1950s, most of these women were amnestied in 1955 as a positive outcome of the changes in the East-West relationship, and due to Romania's adoption of the «Universal Declaration of Human Rights» and its integration into the UN.” (Dobre, 2015).

Figure 2. The evolution of women's arrests and release from prison by year between 1945-1964 officially registered in the criminal records. Source of data: Alin Mureșan, Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries.



Regarding the amount of officially registered sanctions, more than half of the arrested women received sentences ranging from a few months to 4 years in prison (59%), 27% received sentences between 5-9 years, 6% received between 10 -14 years, and 8% between 15-25 years. Of all the criminal records identified so far, the maximum punishment granted was forced labor for life, which was recorded in 21 cases.

Figure 3. The situation of female political detainees according to the number of convictions registered in the criminal records. Source of data: Alin Mureșan, Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries

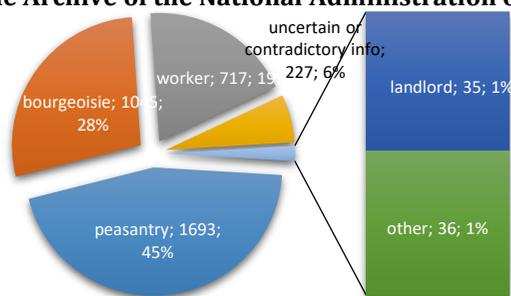


3. The profile of female detainees

The arrested women represented **the hostile elements that revolted and resisted the communist oppression**, and they were part of all relevant social categories (peasants, bourgeoisie, landlords, intellectuals, nuns, students, merchants, industrialists, politicians, militaries, clerks etc.), as the graph below demonstrates. They were in important numbers even in the category of workers, that economic class so "loved"

by the communists. The main reasons invoked underlying the arrests and harsh sentences were: disturbance of public order, involvement in the activity of partisan groups, the accusation of high treason, espionage or undermining the national economy, armed insurrection etc. "A large part were from the country (43%), mainly guilty of resistance to collectivization or complicity with those in the resistance, followed by those who were part of the much blasphemous bourgeoisie (28%) ... Almost 20% were from the proletariat! Then there were the wives and / or daughters of small craftsmen and merchants, dignitaries, teachers, professors, military, civil servants and, in general, intellectuals." (Vancu, 2018).

Figure IV. Social origin of female political detainees registered in the criminal records. Source of data: Alin Mureșan, Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries



Regarding the level of education registered in the criminal records of the arrested women, it appears that almost half of the political prisoners had secondary and high school education, while 14% of them had higher education, a significant percentage in relation to the social realities and the women's access to the educational system. From this point of view, it becomes obvious that **the retaliation of the communist regime had as a direct target the women's elite and that education was a key factor in the opposition to communism.**

As the occupational profile of the female detainees is concerned, it somewhat reflected the social realities of the time. If we take into account that 45% of them had peasant social origin (see above), thus not being integrated on the labor market, one can confirm the percentages obtained in terms of occupations of arrested women (39% housewives, 2% unemployed and 4% active in agriculture – see below). The rest, coming from the urban environment, were identified in the criminal records from a professional point of view as: civil servants, teachers, workers, medical staff, nuns, artists and lawyers (Mureșan, s.a.).

Figure 5. The degree of education of political prisoners registered in the criminal records. Source of data: Alin Mureşan, Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries

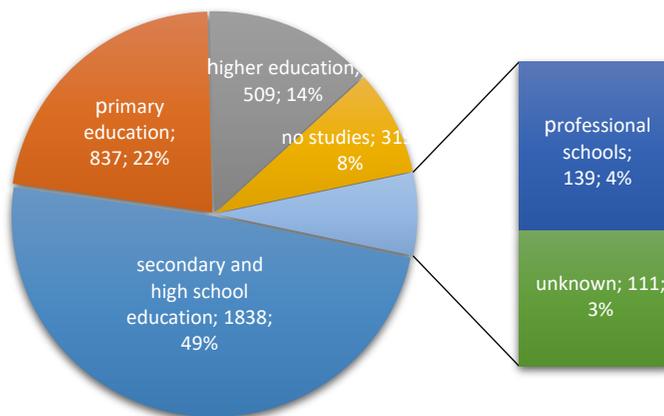
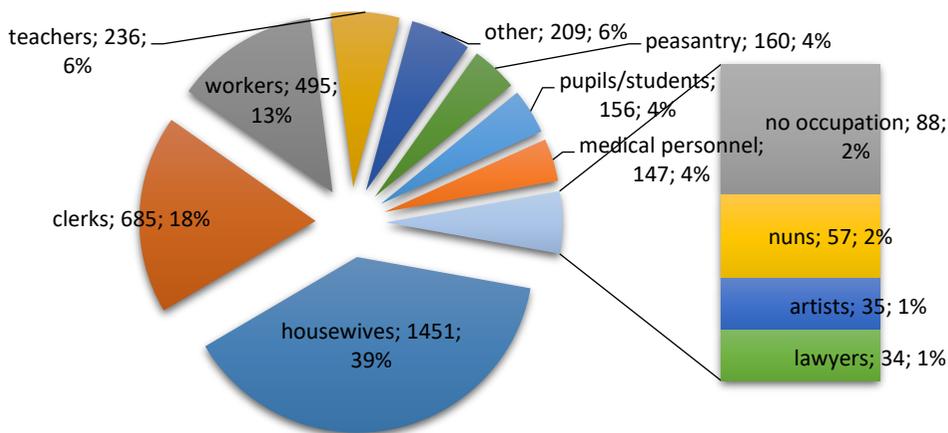


Figure 6. Occupations of the female political detainees registered in the criminal records. Source of data: Alin Mureşan, Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries

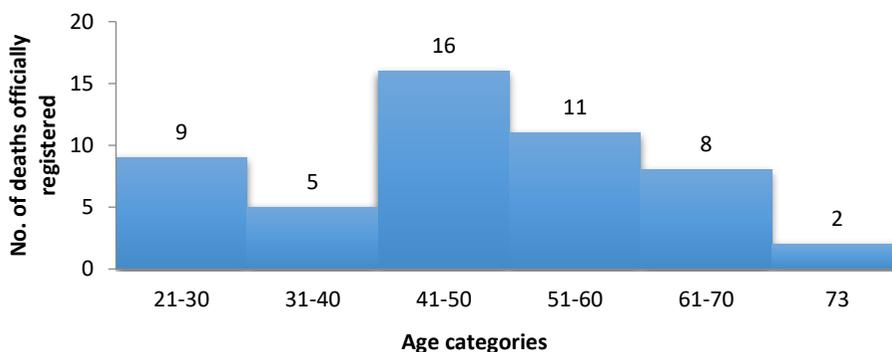


4. The treatment plan in prison

In communist prisons, like men, women experienced hunger, corporal punishment, and mental torture. **The only notable difference between the sexes was that women were never sentenced to death.** However, there were also deaths from ill-treatment. To be exact, a total of 51 deaths were officially registered within the criminal records (1,39% out of the total registered female prisoners). The youngest female recorded that lost her life after being arrested was 22, while the oldest 73 years old. However, one must take into consideration a typical practice of the regime: in order to minimize the number of deaths

caused by the ill-treatment to which the ones incarcerated have been subjected to, in the last days of life (when death was imminent) the detainees were released to die at home.

Figure 7. Deaths of female detainees officially registered in the criminal records.
Source of data: Alin Mureșan, Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries



Life in communist prisons was heavily restricted and regulated, while any attempt to break the rules was heavily punished. “In Jilava, the detainees could walk for half an hour a day in the inner courtyard. The walk was done in a circle and with the hands behind their back; speaking was forbidden. The deviations from the rule were punished with beatings and/or imprisonment. Receiving packages or letters from home was forbidden. Any communication with the outside as well. Nothing outside the prison was allowed to enter the cells. Not even a ray of sunshine. The daily life of the detainees was strictly regulated and controlled by the holders of power. Surrounded by secrecy, the daily life in prison was designed as a means of torture, an attempt to annihilate the individual will and the capacity of the detainees to act.” (Dobre, 2015).

And the only right of the detainees was to work (but also used as an oppression tactic). It was what Michel Foucault referred to when defined the use of penal labor: “Not profit; nor even the formation of a useful skill; but the constitution of a power relation, an empty economic form, a schema of individual submission and of adjustment to a production apparatus.” (Foucault, 1995: 243).

In fact, **the communist authorities tried to liquidate a way of being, specific to the Romanian society of that time, incompatible with the ideology of the “new man”.** In our case, a certain type of womanhood was targeted, that belonged to the interwar middle class: the one that was identified by femininity, grace and elegance, sensitivity, chastity and decency, aesthetic refinement. It was part of what Pierre Bourdieu called *habitus*, that flexible structure (which is also built according to gender) that is incorporated in the personality of each individual and that puts its mark on the way life was viewed or socialization was applied, on the type of decisions taken, on the behaviors and ideas adopted, on the relationship between the feminine and the masculine etc. (Bourdieu, 1980: 12-55). And everything had to go through the communist filter which was the new “applied modernity”, with the help of which the woman was inoculated to accept and promote

vulgarity, spontaneity and violence (de Beauvoir, 2004, II: 24-26), and encouraged to have a physical (Duby and Perrot, 1992, V: 303) rather than a spiritual perspective.

“The daily prison life of the political detainees ... was marked by the efforts of the communist regime to totally control and to dehumanize the individual. Communist social engineering tried to create the «new man», a machine devoid of reflexive capacity, the desire for revolt, and resistance to the system.” (Dobre, 2015).

“I was only 19 years old, and my poor mother was left alone, with her husband and child in prison, not knowing anything about us! Do you realize what was in her soul?! Later I would find out that the *Securitate* was constantly harassing her. When they took me to the investigator's office, they put on tin glasses and banged my head against all walls, pushing me, like a dangerous animal, down those endless corridors. ... Investigators were constantly threatening me, cursing the hell out of me (of Christ, God or my mother). They had nothing sacred - they were just half-literate brutes collecting their wages on our account. There were no reverence pronouns in their «vocabulary» - they only knew «you», «yo», «thou». In fact, those people from the *Securitate* were not able to speak properly, they were only shouting and threatening, so it was impossible for me to have any natural dialogue - by the way, their behavior reminds me of a grumpy old man: «Shut up when you talk to me!»” (Gheorghe, 2019).

Another sensitive issue was the one of *motherhood*. The communist regime, although in the pages of the *Scântea* newspaper promoted the quality of women as mothers, in reality it was interested only in those mothers who were able to multiply the education of the new (wo)man in society and the emergence of young people compatible with the new ideology. The rest were hostile elements who had no right to have descendants or, if they did, were condemned to a life of deprivation, restriction of rights and injustice.

As a result of numerous arrests made starting with 1944, many children have been left without one or both parents, without a home and without any possession or right to education. This situation led to one of the most interesting phenomena, insufficiently documented to date: the adoption of children from hostile families done by neighbors, distant relatives or strangers, action which implied the offer of a new surname, which was no longer associated with a “file of individuals that needed to be cleansed”. That is, a chance at a new life.

Moreover, this kind of attitude toward the descendants of the “enemies of the state” was also adopted in the case of female political prisoners. The communists did not show mercy to the incarcerated women who were pregnant - they applied the most brutal punishment, separation (intended as permanent) from their children:

- “During the detention, there were also women who were pregnant and tragically separated from their children. This is the case of Iuliana Preduț, who was sentenced to 12 years in prison for helping the partisans in the Făgăraș Mountains. On August 28, 1958, she gave birth to a little girl in Văcărești prison, whom she named Libertatea-Justiția [Liberty-Justice]. Three months after the birth, the baby was taken by the authorities and transferred to an orphanage. Also, Ioana Voicu Arnăuțoiu, the daughter of Toma Arnăuțoiu and Maria Plop, was born in 1956 in «Râpele cu brazi [The ravines with fir trees]», a shelter in the Făgăraș mountains, where part of the group of anti-communist fighters from Nucșoara had taken refuge. Her father was executed in 1959 in Jilava, and her mother, sentenced to forced labor for life, died in the Miercurea Ciuc prison three years later. The

daughter was hospitalized in an orphanage. He was able to know her true identity only after the [1989] Revolution” (Vancu, 2018).

- “«I met Iuliana Preduț, from the Arnăuțoiu group [of partisans], whom we caressed «Lilica». She gave birth in the penitentiary - she was in the seventh month when she was arrested - and the tortionary beasts took her child and threw her in an orphanage forgotten by the world, without her father's knowledge». Later, the father found the little girl who was raised by an aunt for several years, until Lilica was released from prison” (Trez, 2018).

The prison regime in Romania has known not only men who have distinguished themselves through cruelty, but also women. Thus, several famous names became topics in the post-December newspapers (Poveștile celor mai rele femei comuniste și ale victimelor lor..., 2013):

- Elena Bărbulescu, the sister of the dictator Nicolae Ceaușescu, who made the bitter life of the people from Olt County, not just the political detainees
- Margareta Hegheduș “Horse Head”, perhaps the most famous torturer who tormented political detainees, who remained in history as the woman who tortured men with a pencil in the testicles area until they fainted from the pain.
- The same activity of torturing men as “Horse Head” was carried out by Vidosava Nedici, named in almost all testimonies as “sadistic Vida”.
- Elena Tudor, one of the leaders of the Mislea penitentiary known as “Caligula” because of the harshness of language and inhuman behavior adopted.

5. Forms of resistance developed against prison oppression

However, there has been a form of resistance to these systematic abuses and attempts to undermine women’s will and capacity to act. Despite the communists’ efforts, reading the memoirs of former political prisoners one can conclude that, despite a context of cloistering and control, it was virtually impossible for the system to achieve a state of total colonization of daily life, as Michel de Certeau argued in his *Culture in the Plural* volume (de Certeau, 1997, pp. 137-138). The individual, taking all the associated risks, always found the necessary resources to oppose coercion, domination and injustice. Even the most convenient target of punishment, control, repression - the body - was transformed from “victim” into a “place of resistance” (Frigon, 2002: 58-59) against the regime.

This is why, although the communists were looking for the “ritual annihilation of the body” (Le Breton, 1998: 97-99) of the female detainees by starvation, lack of basic hygiene, impossibility of rest, hard work regime, gynecological check-ups program, etc., they unleashed unintentional consequences in front of the dominant power, true strategies of social, identity, spiritual rebuilding (de Certeau, 1984: 35-36, 37-38, 151). Thus, there was freedom behind bars.

- “As had happened in Jilava prison, in Mislea penitentiary women also organized a state of resistance through study, storytelling, prayer and play. Recipes used in the kitchen were often told, places that had been visited were described, books were narrated, poems were recited, and plays were even performed [in secrecy]. In the inhuman conditions of detention, any gesture represented a condensation of memory and each memory had the role of bringing back the past back to life ... the intense cultural activity that took place in the cells ... had become a form of resistance against the communist system, but also a method of survival of the imprisoned. Foreign languages were taught ... lectures were given on various subjects, and women ... [(re)discovered] their faith in

divinity and prayed. One lady proudly evoked the image of an environment where culture was the only thing one able to snatch them from the world where evil had become a banality of their daily lives: «It was a distinguished society in our cell, in Jilava. Wives of former ministers, university professors ... the secretary of the American embassy who taught us English ... We spoke to each other especially in French and German so that the guards could not understand. Many women prayed and everyone shared something to the others» (Dobre, 2015).

- "Freedom means, first of all, the liberty to express yourself, to think, to read. For me, freedom is the place or the way you can keep your dignity. You can be free and imprisoned, we felt freedom there too, they could not bring us to our knees. They crushed our bones, but they did not crush our conscience, it was not possible. ... Everything was new to me. I was at the age of curiosity. I mean, prison opened my appetite for knowledge - I was 19 then. I met special people, educated people, well-bred women. The communists overturned a scale of moral values. I mean, I don't know of any snitches among the women who were there. There were women who had children, parents, there I knew a society that I would not have known outside. This world changed me and also gave me courage." (BONTON. Doamne în temnițele comuniste..., 2014).

- "In reality, the pigs that investigated us imagined that if they defeated us biologically, they could act on our inner moral strength and destroy us as humans. They said to themselves: «We beat them, we crush them and that's it! I'm done with them!» Why? Because the *Securitate* agents have never been able to understand that the biological and the strength of the soul are two different issues. Consequently, although they made hundreds of thousands of victims, their bestiality was in vain." (Gheorghe, 2019).

- "What do you think about the trials of the former communist torturers from the past years? Anastasia Iorgulescu: «From my point of view, now we punish them in vain ... I forgave everyone, even Gheorghe Enoiu [her torturer]. The fact is consumed. We must realize that they were brutified people who suffered from mental illnesses, because only a psychopath can beat and torment another human being like that, daily, with such bestiality and be proud of the «work» (s)he has done. I can't even imagine that someone in his right mind could have had such abominable occupations. The unfortunates who fell into their clutches went through some terrible tortures. How do I feel about these executioners? You should know that I was never tempted by the feeling of hatred, not even when Gheorghe Enoiu trampled and hit my head on every wall he could find. But the contempt, yes, I feel it to the depths of my soul. It makes me nauseous every time I look at the torturers, when I see how nonchalantly they claim that they did only good. Really, after a lifetime of baseness, how can one try to fool the world? As for their accountability is concerned, I only want one thing to happen out of all this experience: the torturers to feel ashamed and have true qualms of conscience, so as not to present themselves before God like that, with souls overwhelmed by sins and soot.» (Gheorghe, 2020).

6. Short conclusions

One can easily understand that the official discourse of the situation of Romanian women in the first decade of the country's occupation by the communists was very different from the reality of those years (revealed by data provided by oral history, memoirs and few statistics collected after 1989 up to date). Unfortunately, the subject did not attract too much attention in specialized studies.

Communism decapitated and almost completely abolished the elite of Romanian society in all fields, leading to the destructuring and imbalance of the whole society. The communist power was imposed by the pressure exerted by the Red Army, by the direct involvement of Moscow through the Soviet agents who entered the country, by the non-involvement of the allied powers that would amend the communization of the country. Thus, from a force that did not matter at the social level, in a few years it managed not only to impose itself everywhere, but to cleanse everything in its path. In this rapid rise, women represented a segment of the population that, like others, was used, fully instrumentalized in the attempts to gain a legitimate position, to promote internationalism, to attack the traditional way of life and old structures, and in other ideological issues. And from this entire struggle, at a discursive level in the perfectly controlled media, the communist movement kept only what was of use and painted itself as the great democratic and progressive movement, the defender of citizens' rights, the supporter of equality before the law.

The communist authorities tried to liquidate the Romanian way of being, specific to the society of that time, incompatible with the ideology of the "new man". And the woman was a central piece of that particular universe, which, from the communist perspective, had to be 'reeducated'. This is how women became victims of the regime, but also spearheads of resistance that managed to destabilize the system. And an entire literature (memoirs of the survivors) is witness to that, yet not fully researched and analyzed as it should be.

Keeping in mind the costs of the communization of the society, one can easily conclude that the Soviet controlled movement in Romania developed not *with of for* the Romanian women, but *on their* backs and shoulders, just like men's - entire generations of sacrifice which, if known, can become the starting point of a recovery and healing process of the Romanian society based on female and male models who resisted to the communist oppression.

References:

1. Aivazova, S. (1997). La liberté et l'égalité des femmes dans les pays socialistes de l'Europe de l'Est (1960-1980), in Christine Faure, *Encyclopédie politique et historique des femmes, Europe, Amérique du Nord*, Paris: PUF.
2. Bourdieu, P. (1980). *Le sens pratique*, Paris: Edition de Minuit.
3. Bulumac, O. (2022). The Female Profile Promoted in Scânteia during the First Decade of the Communist Regime in Romania. in Martina Topić (ed), *Women and the Media in Capitalism and Socialism: An Ecofeminist Inquiry*, London: Intellect, 2022.
4. Cîrdei, P. (2012). Femeia comunistă între realitate, doctrină și propagandă. *Annals of the University of Bucharest/Political science series*, 14(2), 75-86 [online] available at: <https://nbn-resolving.org/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-389976>.
5. Ciuceanu, R. (2001). *Regimul penitenciar din România*. Bucharest: Institutului Național Pentru Studiarea Totalitarismului.
6. Coroamă, R., Neagu, M. and Ilie, O. (2007). *Comunismul în România 1945 - 1989* Bucharest: Muzeul Național de Istorie a României.

7. Dandara, L. (f.a.). Sinteză. FEMEI - MAME, SOȚII, SURORI, FIICE - victime ale terorii comuniste. in *The process of communism* [online] available at: www.procesulcomunismului.com/marturii/fonduri/cdandara/probatoriu/23_femei.htm.
8. Dobre, C.F. (2015). Represiune și rezistență. Mărturiile unor foste deținute politic despre viața cotidiană în închisorile României anilor '50. in M. Gheorghiu and M. Mateoni (coord.), *Supraviețuind comunismului. Istorie, memorie, uitare*. Bucharest: Eikon.
9. De Beauvoir, S. (2004). *Al doilea sex*. vol. 2, Bucharest: Univers.
10. De Certeau, M. (1984). *The Practice of Everyday Life*. Berkeley, Los Angeles-London: University of California Press.
11. De Certeau, M. (1997). *Culture in the Plural*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
12. Duby, G., Michelle Perrot, ed. (1992). *Histoire des femmes en Occident*. vol. 5, Paris: Plon.
13. Foucault, M. (1995). *Discipline and Punishment: the Birth of Prison*, New York: Vintage.
14. Frigon, S. (2002). Paroles incarcérées: corps et perspectives des femmes. in L. Hotte and L. Cardinal, *La parole mémorielle des femmes*, Montréal: Remue-Ménage.
15. Gheorghe, R. (2019). Rezistență la Jilava și Mislea. Aurora Dumitrescu a inventat curajul continuu. *Podul*, January 26, [online] available at: www.podul.ro/articol/3997/rezistenta-la-jilava-si-mislea-aurora-dumitrescu-a-inventat-curajul-continuu.
16. Gheorghe, R. (2020). Îngrozitoarea dramă a Anastasiei Iorgulescu, fostă deținută politic. Viețașă la Jilava și Miercurea Ciuc, călcată în picioare de călăul securist Gheorghe Enoiu, supranumit "Măcelarul de la Interne". *Podul*, March 8, [online] available at: www.podul.ro/articol/9596/ingrozitoarea-drama-a-anastasiei-iorgulescu-fosta-detinuta-politic-vietasa-la-jilava-si-miercurea-ciuc-calcata-in-picioare-de-calaul-securist-gheorghe-enoiu-supranumit-macelarul-de-la-interne-exclusiv-interviu.
17. Grossu, N.V. (1976). *Bénie sois-tu, prison...une ancienne détenue politique en Roumanie parle*. Paris: Plon.
18. Le Breton, D. (1998). *Anthropologie du corps et modernité*. Paris: PUF.
19. Mureșan, A. (f.a.). *Centre for Studies in Contemporary History, ongoing research on the Archive of the National Administration of Penitentiaries*.
20. Popescu, D. (2017). Pain and politics in victim testimonials. Stan, L., and Turcescu L., (eds). *Justice, Memory, and Redress: New Insights from Romania*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2017.
21. Trez, S. (2018). Doamnele închisorilor comuniste - modele de viață care lipsesc din manualele școlare. *Epoch Times România*. March 11 [online] available at: <https://epochtimes-romania.com/news/doamnele-inchisorilor-comuniste-modele-de-viata-care-lipseste-din-manualele-scolare--272132>.
22. Vancu A. (2018). Femeia în pușcăriile comuniste. Mărturiile Micaelei Ghițescu, una dintre primele victime ale tortionarului Alexandru Vișinescu. *Adevarul.ro*, March 10 [online] available at: https://adevarul.ro/cultura/istorie/femeia-puscariile-comuniste-marturiile-micaelei-ghitescu-primele-victime-tortionarului-alexandru-visinescu-1_5aa248e3df52022f755ceb16/index.html.
23. *** (2018). A murit Aspazia Oțel-Petrescu. Portretul unei MĂRTURISITOARE a TEMNIȚELOR comuniste: de la clasa lui Blaga, la PIVNIȚA plină cu ȘOBOLANI.

- Evenimentul Zilei*, January 24 [online] available at: <https://evz.ro/a-murit-aspazia-otel-petrescu-portretul-unei-marturisitoare-a-te.html>.
24. *** (2014). Bonton, "Doamne în temnițele comuniste. Aurora Dumitrescu: Ne-au strivit oasele, dar nu ne-au strivit conștiința". *Digi24*, March 23 [online] available at: www.digi24.ro/special/reportaje/reportaj/bonton-doamne-in-temnitele-comuniste-aurora-dumitrescu-ne-au-strivit-oasele-dar-nu-ne-au-strivit-constiinta-218719.
25. *** (2009). Femei care au înfruntat teroarea comunistă. *Revista Tango*, November 2 [online] available at: <https://revistatango.ro/femei-care-au-infruntat-teroarea-comunista-716>.
26. *** (2013). Poveștile celor mai rele femei comuniste și ale victimelor lor: sora lui Ceaușescu adora să umilească, torționara „Cap de Cal” îi schingiuia pe deținuții politic, sadica Vida „bătea de rupea pământul. *Adevărul*, March 21 [online] available at: https://adevarul.ro/cultura/istorie/povestile-celor-mai-rele-femei-comuniste-victimelor-lor-sora-ceausescu-adora-umileasca-tortionara-cap-cal-schingiuia-detinutii-politic-sadica-vida-batea-rupea-pamantul-1_514b3d4200f5182b853980c4/index.html.

THE CONTEMPORARY STATE AND THE QUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

Enache TUȘA

Senior Lecturer, PhD, „Ovidius” University of Constanța (Romania)

Email: enachetusa@gmail.com

Abstract: *This study is part of a broader approach under a chapter that will and analyze public policies on education, will necessarily include regulations, the coordination of educational programs and the expected results of public investment. Our approach analyzes the state of Romanian education in the context of European projects and standards, but also the qualitative differences between rural and urban areas in terms of education. In our presentation we also looked at experiences aimed at involving parents in institutional form-education of children through educational partnerships regulated in the laws on education reforms in Romania.*

Keywords: *education, knowledge, modernization, chances differences, university.*

1. Introduction

The education of citizens is a truly eminent area of modern and contemporary States. In a basic argument, through education, and through the continued expansion of access to training for Community members, the state democratize society, form citizenship and civic citizenship. The educational system together with all logistics is the driving factor of the intellectual evolution on which the personality of the individual is structured and, in particular, the building factor of the society through the awareness of moral values promotes training that provides the elements of the integration of the individual (Coman and Dobre, 2007:10). The process of social integration of the individual begins at the age of 5-6 and continues during the physical and intellectual development of the child who gradually becomes a teenager and an adult.

In this context, education systems have been designed to provide literacy and training opportunities for a broad and diverse population in society. There were visions and principles about the educational model that the state wanted to provide and for which significant resources were allocated in the 20th century. Romanian education has developed on other bases and curricula areas that respected the documents at European level on the education of the future.

The analysis grid encompasses different concepts of public policies linked to the education system, a dynamic system designed to create knowledge and skills training during school periods that pupils follow. Education policies aim to provide public services at the level of excellence and to train the skills needed for the functioning of the future society. The institutions involved in this process, as well as the actors defining school, have seen stages of development during the existence of the modern state. Within these developments, priorities for action have been set as a result of internal political documents, but also European regulations by putting these together, we can shape an analysis of modern policies on education and the wishes of modern society¹⁷. The central objective of this perspective is to understand education policies but also to study the alternative

¹⁷ *Making European Area of Lifelong Learning a reality* (2001).

methods that governments could use for better education in the school of the future. We will present below assessments of the educational process as well as methods for improving education systems (Munteanu, 2016: 668-670).

2. The role and efficiency of the education system

The concept of school defines the institution or organization of a teacher's body and a student community with the task of creating skills and developing general (societal) Community education for children at school age. Education conveys knowledge, develops children's skills establishes the standards and values of socially recognized and accepted conduct. Contemporary ideologies include recent analyzes aimed at developing both Community interests (through the provision of educational services) and those of the state which involve human resources in the development of institutions specific to its functioning.

„ Longlife learning is an educational reality of the 20th century arising from the need to meet the challenges of today's knowledge-based society. Educational policy speeches on lifelong learning have given varying accents across 3 to the progress of which lifelong learning is contributing: The individual, democratic and adaptive plans. The individual plan covers both cognitive and metha cognitive development acquisitions through the acquisition of knowledge in different areas of knowledge and skills training. On a democratic level, lifelong learning ensures its programmatic commitment to ensuring social justice, equality and the development of society through the democratic involvement and participation of informed, empowered, motivated and empowered citizens” (Sava and Paloş, 2019: 21-24).

At decision-making level, this is a programmatic response to cultural change, in the sense of ensuring development at all levels of social organization (individual, organizational, national, global), through policies and educational systems that promote the principle of lifelong learning, this will make it possible to adapt to the changing cultural context.

In 1996, the OECD launched lifelong learning for all, and by 2006 all EU countries were required to have a coherent national strategy on lifelong learning with objectives, the structure of supply (covering all, content, quality and relevance of training, allocated resources and management strategies, roles and responsibilities of different partners (Enache et al., 2019: 136-137). In 2003, the European Commission published the Lifelong Learning Eurobarometer. The figures show that almost 90% of Europeans consider lifelong learning to be an important means of personal development, even though lack of time and money are cited as the most important barriers to lifelong learning, preferring informal learning settings, but encouraging is that most people are positive about lifelong learning, believing that they „can empower them to cope with change, adapt to labor market requirements, take responsibility for their own lives and develop themselves” (Enache et al., 2019:138). Important policy efforts are being made at European level in terms of the allocations needed to invest in education, as the most important instrument for achieving a „knowledge-based Europe” (Enache et al., 2019:139).

Ensuring high-quality education and training is an integral part of the European start which promotes: Social inclusion and matching, mobility, active citizenship, individual and professional development, competitiveness and employment. They are intended to be found in all European Commission documents and found in the resolutions and documents of the Council of Europe. The education regulations are found in almost

identical form in the UNESCO or OECD provisions, as strategic areas of action to support education at global level (Ripley, 2016: 25-27).

The European area aims to become a learning area that provides the prospect of cooperation between Member States to develop education systems that are linked to and aligned with European values¹⁸. This area of European education will shape a holistic perspective in the field of school-based skills and address all: pupils, teachers, institutions and parents.

In conclusion, the European vision aims to impose quality in education that reflects the capacity of education systems in shaping them as social sub-systems that are adaptable to change to reduce inequalities between citizens of different States in terms of wealth and status of groups. These disparities are due to the birth hazard and aim to provide equal opportunities for society as a whole.

The importance of education is fundamental in a society because it provides the public and private economies with human resources and ensures sustainable growth, and which helps shape the public budgets needed for the functioning of society.

The education system, the education process, the teaching-learning-evaluation activity, the design of the education/training activity is a 'construction' or a pedagogical model aimed at quality in education. The definition of quality in education creates theoretical and methodological prerequisites for explaining and understanding a specific psychosocial reality (education/training). The training model built specifically for these premises is relevant to what quality education means or should mean.

A competitive economy produces the primary resources from which a well-functioning public sector, valuable public goods and services are financed, which the private economy does not provide enough, thus increasing the well-being of (most) its citizens. Today, the instruments of current science can measure education, as they measure, economic growth, well-being, inequality and poverty, and unfortunately, in the area of education, the current Romanian state is in one of the last places in Europe.

According to the 2020 European skills Index – which uses 15 indicators on a scale from 0 to 100 ("distance from ideal") to measure/assess educational performance over a seven-year period – European States are in descending order: The Czech Republic: 76,90, Finland: 75,10, Slovenia: 74,60, Estonia and Luxembourg: 72,70, Sweden: 72,50, Norway: 69,70, Denmark: 69,00, Switzerland: 67,50, Iceland: 66,50: Latvia: 65,70, Poland: 65,90, Malta: 64,60, Austria and Germany: 64,50, Lithuania: 63,90, Netherlands: 63,50, Croatia: 61,80, Slovakia: 60,30, Hungary: 57,00, Belgium: 55,20, UK: 52,70, Portugal: 52,50, France: 50,60, Ireland: 43,90, Bulgaria: 43,50, Romania: 41,60, Cyprus: 41,00, Spain: 31,10, Greece: 29,80, Italy: 23,90.¹⁹

Therefore, Romania ranks 27 out of the 31 evaluated European countries. For some relevant synthetic indicators, the Romanian state has the worst performance in "skills development" (score 30, place 31); in "skills activation" (score 31, place 29); and an average level in "skills matching" (score 66, place 13)²⁰. In addition, there is also a large "vertical misalignment/inadequacy" (vertical mismatch) which, although still below the EU average, has almost doubled over the last decade. According to the country report, in 2018, 18% of tertiary-educated workers worked in areas that did not claim this level, and

¹⁸ https://ec.europa.eu/education/education-in-the-eu/european-education-area_ro

¹⁹ European Skills Index, <https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-visualisations/european-skills-index>

²⁰ *Ibidem*.

28% of young workers (aged 25-34) worked in areas that claimed this level but did not own it, this indicates a growing gap between education and work.

„By the expectation that technological change will shift demand toward higher/higher skills and qualifications, current labor supply may not be fully responsive given the time needed to adjust/adapt/match the education and training/training system”²¹. Higher/higher training demand is high. In 2018, 21,5% of adults (nearly 2,3 million people) had low/low educational attainment.

Clearly, the Romanian state's policy in the field of education (reform) has not produced far satisfactory results so far. When expressing these results (modest) we refer directly to the quality differences that Romanian education has experienced throughout the institutional-state course. The gaps in education in rural areas are known due to the analyzes of recent years We know today that schools in rural areas face major difficulties and with limited access to certain resources.

3. The problems of education in rural areas

The education sector in rural areas is a particularly important issue that deserves the attention of institutions, researchers and educational professionals from volunteers, natural or legal persons to public or private institutions. Despite all the developments and reforms of the past decades, the rural environment still has many weaknesses and shortcomings that seem to be unable to find a solution. In Romania, there is a high inequality between rural and urban areas in a multitude of areas, and one of the most affected by this inequality is the education system which is well behind that of urban areas (Crăciun, 2012: 88).

In this respect, children who are born and live their childhood in rural areas are at an enormous disadvantage compared to those in urban areas, where the quality of education is higher and the lack of financial opportunities is not a general factor, but rather isolated. Material deprivation is the main problem for families in rural areas, coupled with difficult access to education, health services, poor road infrastructure, utilities and public transport. Under these circumstances, children in rural areas have much less chance of a decent future than those in urban areas.

The earlier a child leaves school, the harder it will be for him, as an adult, to find a job, to have a place on the table and to send his or her children to school. This will lead to the continuation of poverty and material difficulties of the generation²². At European educational policy level, both the Member States of the European Union and the Romanian political system guarantee access to education as a fundamental right.²³ The European document stipulating that „everyone has the right to education and access to vocational and continuing training. This right includes the right to access compulsory education”²⁴. Lack of access to quality inclusive education dramatically reduces the chances of children to realize their potential, learn skills essential to their lives and earn their lives as adults. Although the situation of children in Romania has improved over the past 30 years, challenges remain. Access to quality education is a daily challenge for very many children due to factors such as poverty, discrimination or lack of support from parents and

²¹ Country Report Romania 2020, p. 34.

²² UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at <https://www.unicef.org/romania/ro/pachetul-educa%C8%9Bie-incluziv%C4%83-de-calitate>

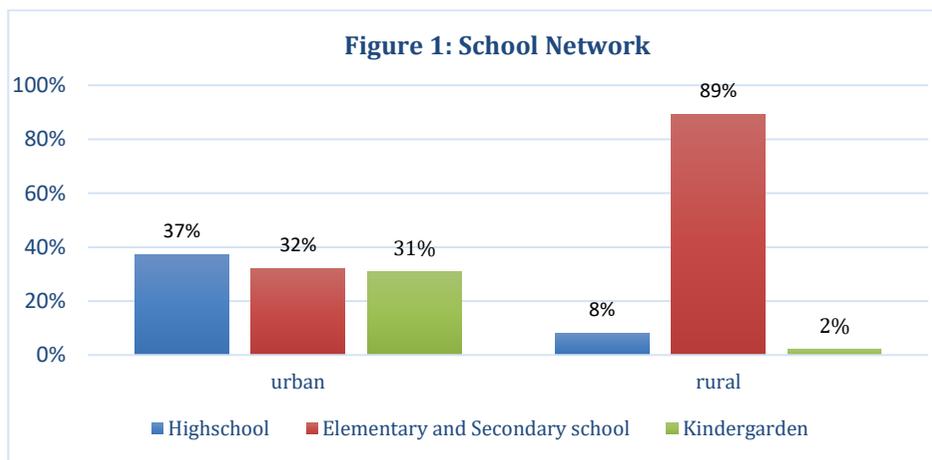
²³ Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union available <https://fra.europa.eu/ro/eu-charter/article/14-dreptul-la-educatie>

²⁴ *Ibidem*.

the Community. The earlier a child leaves school, the harder it will be for an adult to find a job, have a place on the table and send their children to school. This component of factors contributes to the perpetuation of poverty from one generation to another²⁵.

Access to education is a way of preventing the risk of poverty and social exclusion, but also the most important component of personal development and of supporting the social inclusion of the individual. A European Commission report on social inclusion shows that people at very high risk of poverty and social exclusion are in this situation due to a lack of cognitive skills, lack of professional qualifications and lack of opportunities in rural areas²⁶. Low education generates the poor quality of life that an individual lives and the inability to integrate into a (often non-existent) professional environment in the communities or rural areas where people live. In other words, there is an inter-causality between poverty and education, the precarious socio-economic situation of a family reduces the educational opportunities of children from this family, and the lack of school and subsequently vocational training also reduces the chances of social integration of the individual, in the future, increasing the chances of falling into poverty (Stoica 2006:67).

A 2019 study of the Social Solidarity University, presented the major differences between urban and rural education, starting from the existing educational infrastructure and the facilities concerning the school network. According to the above-mentioned study, only 9% of children in rural areas end up in upper secondary education, compared to urban areas where the percentage is 37%.²⁷



Although more than three decades have passed since the fall of the communist regime, rural education still faces major difficulties in investing in educational infrastructure. The problems start from the low percentage of qualified teaching staff, the

²⁵ UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at <https://www.unicef.org/romania/ro/pachetul-educa%C8%9Bie-incluziv%C4%83-de-calitate>

²⁶ Evaluation of the Implementation of the European Commission's Recommendation on Active Inclusion - National Policy Analysis (2012), available https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/file_import/european-semester-thematic-factsheet-social-inclusion_ro.pdf

²⁷ Institute for Social Solidarity, Inequalities in Education, available <http://solidaritate-sociala.ro/inegalitati-in-educatie/>

fluctuation of teaching staff due to the degree of isolation and development of municipalities, and limited access to vocational training as well as continuing training programs of the rural population. All these causes lead to low and unsatisfactory efficiency of education in rural areas (Stoica, 2006: 68). The level of poverty in most of the villages that we have researched has a major impact on rural education mainly through the level of pupils' frequency. For children in rural areas, the problems faced by urban people, such as dependence on the internet, social media, absenteeism given by the preference to spend time in some other way or with friends, are on a second stage.

The low frequency of pupils in rural areas is mainly influenced by the lack of financial resources, a characteristic of most families and the lack of social models combined with the lack of Community education interest (Rusu, 2016: 104). Many children in rural areas have not attended school at all, and we can find them working from very young age, helping parents who rely on their work to survive in an environment that seems to be frozen in time and forgotten by the authorities.

Early school leaving amounts to almost 40% of rural educational establishments, most of which are registered in high schools. Also, seven out of ten educational establishments in rural areas have students who repeat the class (Iliceanu, 2017:55). In rural areas, teacher training does not sufficiently address the problems that may arise in the classroom, helping children with learning difficulties or those who are at risk of school drop-out. Lack of counselling and models to motivate students have high vulnerabilities and risk of school drop-out.

Children from families with financial difficulties face many difficulties and must face barriers because they have not provided conditions to access the education system and to learn. Some go to bed hungry, others borrow the brother's clothes or shoes to go to school in exchange. Others don't get to school in winter at all, because they have to walk and have neither clothes nor shoes. Others are ashamed of colleagues because they come from torn or very poor families with serious limits in access to education. In this context, a vicious circle is emerging: These children are starting to absent, then to have poor results, and finally they are leaving school and giving up education, and are thus condemned to a life of deprivation and material deprivation²⁸. In addition to the problems of early school-leaving, rural education has a lot of infrastructure problems. The main problems caused by poor infrastructure are²⁹:

- About 2.200 schools have sanitary groups located outside the buildings (in the school yard), without running water and without sewerage, a very debated issue in the administrative decisions of 2021.
- Schools run of unsuitable buildings (old and very old), many of them using the stove as the main source of heating, with no centralized heating systems. The use of stoves as a heating source limits temperature control and reduces air quality.
- The lack of sports halls in over 50% of schools, in many schools lacking even outdoor sports facilities, and where they exist, they offer inappropriate or poor conditions for doing activities, so many hours take place in classrooms (especially during the cold season).

²⁸ World Vision Romania, Rural Education, available <https://worldvision.ro/cauze/educatie-rurala/>

²⁹ World Vision Romania, The race of 30 years of education in rural Romania, June 2020 https://worldvision.ro/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/WV_EDU30_15june2020_GMP.pdf

• Unlike students in urban areas, those in rural areas also experience the lack of a network of cultural institutions and events (e.g. theaters, museums, libraries/libraries, exhibitions, concerts, conferences, thematic festivals, etc.) to expose them to a wide range of cultural activities that complement (through non-formal education) and support the formal education process.

• 72% of schools in rural areas (over 3.000 Romanian schools) do not have a science laboratory.

• 6 out of 10 schools in rural areas are not equipped with a library.

• 62% of rural households have no internet connection (2018 data).

• 58% of rural households do not have a personal computer (2018 data).

For students in rural areas, the low frequency is mainly due to a lack of financial resources, a characteristic of most families. (Rusu, 2021:94).

Many of them did not attend school at all, and we can see them working from very young age, helping their parents who rely on their help to survive in an environment that seems frozen in time and forgotten by the authorities. Early school leaving is present in 40% of rural educational establishments, most of which are registered in high schools. Also, seven out of ten educational establishments in rural areas have students who repeat the class (Iliceanu, 2017:77).

For children living in Romanian villages, completing upper secondary education and continuing the university education path represents a huge effort compared to the rest of the students coming from urban areas. Children in rural areas have to "fight" with a lack of financial opportunities, poor infrastructure, single-parent families, domestic violence and early work. All this makes the student uninterested in the evolution, and without proper advice, most of them remain in that environment. Living in poverty and being surrounded by people who have vices, these children have a sense of shame, are socially inadapted, and later they will transfer all these "inheritances" to their children, closing this circle of deprivation, making the rural world stand still over time. In the event of completion of secondary education and the promotion of baccalaureate students who will access university studies have the opportunity to change the Community realities in rural areas.

By accessing university studies, pupils/young people can continue to develop their skills for the future profession, and this is the only way for young people to develop and train in this way by helping themselves and their family. In the context of educational restructuring and reforms, many government strategies have been designed to strengthen and make the education system more efficient. Among these governmental strategies we can also mention the intention to strengthen the educational partnership between family and school contained in the current legislation³⁰.

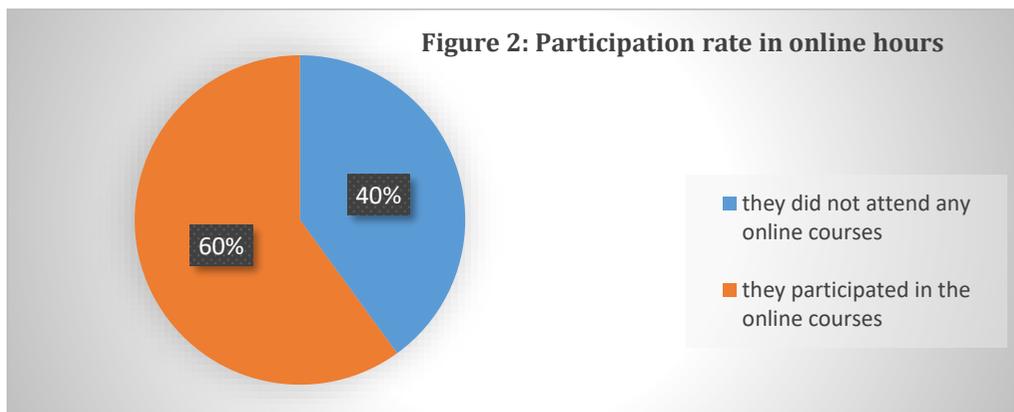
The concept of partnership is found in the economic sphere where it is applied to enhance and strengthen relations between similar institutions or economic operators with a view to achieving success and profit. In the field of education, the partnership has shaped itself as a policy to foster responsibilities in the field of education with a view to ensuring the quality and educational success of those of school age. Public policies that encourage educational partnership achieve their aim by enhancing cooperation between education institutions, public authorities, schools and civil society structures for the training of pupils within the educational system (Andrieș et. al, 2017: 102-104).

³⁰ National Education Law no. 1/2011, updated 10/2020.

4. Rural education in the context of the pandemic

The problems of infrastructure in rural medicine are a big obstacle to what rural education means during the pandemic. The level of education in the Romanian villages was anyway behind those in urban areas, but in the current context, the lack of internet connection and the electronic means needed to run online hours make it very difficult for pupils to access education, in some cases even impossible. This is mainly due to a lack of financial possibilities and poor infrastructure.

A recent survey conducted by World vision Romania, says 40% of students from disadvantaged backgrounds, most enrolled in rural schools, did not attend online school. Students did not participate in the online school because of their families' financial problems, which could not provide them with a smartphone or a computer to work with or have no connection to the internet (For example, 1 of 3 villages where World vision activates has low or no signal zones). There are also situations where teachers were not prepared to teach and evaluate their students online or where they did not have a place at home to organize their lessons online³¹.



5. The concept of educational partnership. General definitions and characterization

Recent research brings new input on involving parents in school/educational and learning activities shows that efficiency is achieved through the involvement of schools and families that form an educational partnership to make learning more effective. The concept of partnership involves elements of socio-economic status and family involvement, which are also linked to special situations such as those related to the pandemic (Negreanu and Ionescu, 2006:64).

The concept of partnership has recently entered into public communication, has been taken from English (partnership) and, in a strictly ethimological sense, designates the relationships established between associations, communities and different institutions of

³¹ World Vision Romania, Chronology of a year from the first day of online school, available <https://worldvision.ro/2021/03/15/world-vision-romania-face-cronologia-unui-an-de-la-prima-zi-de-scoala-online-elevii-fara-acces-la-educatie-au-pierdut-24-de-saptamani-de-scoala-riscurile-sa-asistam-la-cresteri-record-ale-ratei-de-a/>

a political and social system. The notion of partnership is based on the reasoning that partners have a common interest in their actions.

The partnership enables them to join efforts toward a common goal and with positive results for both sides. The concept introduced in educational reforms can be seen from two complementary perspectives: The historical perspective and the epistemological perspective. The two components support the analysis of the concept and the classification of types of partnership in education (Cristea, 2013: 54-56).

6. Conclusions

The historical perspective defines the evolution and development of the concept of partnership in education since 1980. The origin of the term is economic in nature but can be extended to other institutional (social) areas or processes. The concept of partnership will be used in Anglo-Saxon educational space starting with school projects launched in 1970. The process itself involved involving education stakeholders with common objectives in the development and efficiency of education and training programs (Pancu, 2018: 43).

In the educational process, the partnership initially aims at its economic function regarding the contribution of social actors, the development of the education system through the collaboration of educational institutions, parents (family) and the entire teaching body available (Cristea, 2013: 55).

The epistemological perspective defines another aspect in that the partnership in education is the interdisciplinary process of collaboration across education policies designed as an effective and consensual set of measures between the actors involved. In line with the historical approach, partnership in education is built interdisciplinary at the level of the priority links existing between the economy (finance) and the education sector (general training) (Cristea, 2013: 56). Looking at the educational partnership in terms of the involvement of decision-makers and the actors implementing it highlights the respect of democratic principles of collaboration and cooperation, of interaction in order to achieve the educational mission and of participation by equalizing the opportunities of all partners and accepting qualitative differences. Regulations on the use of educational partnership are present and guaranteed in European legislation.

A document issued by the European Commission shall state that: „The freedom to establish educational establishments in accordance with democratic principles and the right of parents to ensure that their children are educated and trained according to their own religious, philosophical and pedagogical beliefs shall be respected in accordance with the national laws governing their exercise”³².

School-family educational partnership. Legislative markings

The main legislative documents relevant to the functioning of the school-family partnership are:

³² *Education policies, resources and tools* available https://ec.europa.eu/education/education-in-the-eu/european-education-area_ro

-National Education Law no. 12011 with subsequent amendments and supplements;

- Order of the Ministry of Education Youth Research and Sports No 5079/31.08.2016, Annex to the framework Regulation for the organization and functioning of the pre-university educational establishments;

- MECTS order No. 4742/10.08.2016, Annex concerning the approval of the pupil's statute.

In Romania, under the Education Act no. 1/2011, parents are considered as primary partners and beneficiaries of the education process. Article 80 of the Act provides that all major decisions in school education are to be taken in consultation with the associations representing the parents. The Education Act regulates the right of parents to participate directly in the management of educational establishments, through the presence on the school's board of directors of two or three parents, depending on the organ dimensions³³. The legislative changes updated in October 2020³⁴ provide that: „the main purpose of the education of children is the training of skills, understood as a multifunctional and transferable pool of knowledge, skills/abilities and skills required for personal fulfillment and development, by achieving their own goals in life, in accordance with their interests and aspirations and the desire to learn throughout life”³⁵. Looking at the content of the text regulating the field of education the law describes the kind of personality the education system wants to form. The elements we can observe and are listed in the law define are:

- building a life concept based on humanities and scientific values, national and universal culture and stimulating intercultural dialog;

- education in the spirit of dignity, tolerance and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;

- culture of sensitivity to human issues, to civic-mora values and respect for nature and the natural, social and cultural environment.

National Education Act 1/2011 introduced provisions on the obligations of parents to ensure that children are educated during compulsory education and highlights the decisive role of a high quality family involvement in children's education³⁶.

After presenting internal regulations, we must remember the relevant regulations of international institutions and bodies such as UNICEF, UNESCO or the European Union have defined education as a major objective with a critical and important role in the development of societies. Schools and education have been included in the process of Europeanisation, which is something that we find in most public policies, decisions, paradigms and ways of action. All of these measures have been strengthened by the European institutions and incorporated into the legislation of the Member States of the European Union, leading to a systematic evolution and modernization of education systems in the societies concerned.

The concept of educational partnership between society (including the family) and education institutions is included in the public policy projection. Global States' regulations recognize the major role of the educational partnership. According to UNESCO, schools and

³³ Article 96 of the National Education Law no. 1/2011.

³⁴ Article 4 letter a), d), e), f) of the National Education Law no. 1/2011.

³⁵ *Ibidem*.

³⁶ National Education Law no. 1/2011.

the family are becoming increasingly important and present in the public space, and they themselves are acting as part of collaborative educational partnerships, developing institutional relations with governments, international/national/local authorities and institutions. The educational philosophy includes at representation level all these obvious aspects at all levels. The planning of the legislative framework, the development and implementation of the partnership is necessary and important.

In the United States, France, the United Kingdom and the Nordic States, a series of special laws have even been drawn up regulating the process of carrying out activities in partnership. The European Union encourages and develops activities carried out within the framework of educational partnership and considers partnership to be a fundamental institution in terms of social, regional, economic and cultural cohesion between the Member States. In the European context, education requires the school-family partnership as a necessary and beneficial solution to the development of children (Vrășmaș, 2008: 41).

In each EU Member State, there are organized formal structures that recognize parents' involvement in the education system. The '90' education legislation and reform plans defined new regulations on parental involvement in modern education systems in most countries. The autonomy of education institutions and the participation of parents in the management of these institutions are at the heart of current concerns, debates and legislation (Agabrian and Millea, 2009: 34-37).

The issue of the school-family partnership concerns the governments of the European Union, including the Romanian Government. The overall view of the school-family relationship and of the approach to education is due to UNICEF, which, in the Education for all program, has specified the courses of action, has designated the resources that can be used, has defined the priorities and objectives of this approach - the educational partnership the school.³⁷

The UNESCO message is a very clear and clear one defining the objectives of the educational partnership that can be implemented with active participation of the school and family. Citing this statement, UNESCO encourages the involvement of schools and the family in achieving the goals of the educational partnership, proposing mechanisms for permanent dialog but also joint actions. These actions aim in particular at: Extending and promoting the concept of education for all in the perspective of lifelong learning, strengthening school roles, contributions and experiences in monitoring and evaluating the objectives of the education partnership.

The involvement of this organization (UNESCO), in collaboration with UNICEF and the World Bank, in supporting/implementing the global strategies for achieving education for all has materialized in the permanent support of the school-family relationship, for the involvement of children in the educational process in order to prevent and combat early school leaving (Agabrian&Millea, 2009:45).

In the sense of UNICEF, as an educational community itself, schools must promote the idea of strong social cohesion. The school does not exist separately and does not carry out one-off processes. Because of these considerations, the school-family partnership is fundamental. In the same relational register, UNESCO is proposing a list of possible options for family involvement and building partnership relations in school coordination and

³⁷ UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at <https://www.unicef.org/romania/ro/pachetul-educa%C8%9Bie-incluziv%C4%83-de-calitate>

management. UNICEF's papers launch a new approach to developing educational partnership.³⁸

In their view, in the context of school-family cooperation, the emphasis must be placed on a clear mutual commitment between parents and teachers. This requires the establishment of a team of teachers and parents to pool educational influences. Such a partnership ensures the establishment and functioning of a system of mutual obligations and requires parents to work together not only in financial terms but also in the educational and cultural aspects, through concrete actions to achieve educational objectives. In the United Kingdom, under law, schools must conclude a parental contract between the institution concerned and the family. All parents are asked to sign the agreement, thus showing that they understand and agree with it, and students are often asked to sign it as well (Godfrey, 2007:26). Research carried out in the United States and in some European countries shows that partnerships between education institutions and families have several positive effects:

- I can help teachers to teach lessons and develop pupils' educational skills.
- can improve curricula and the school climate;
- can improve parents' educational skills;
- develop the qualities of parents' leaders(Agabrian&Millea, 2009:57-62).

7. Conclusions

In Romania, around 1 in 7 children in rural areas leave school each year before completing compulsory education and achieving a minimum level of education. If the average school drop-out rate is 10,7% in the EU, it reaches 16,4% in Romania. Thus, tens of thousands of children become the victims of this scourge every year. At present, almost 40% of 15-year-olds cannot understand a written text (functional illiterates) double the EU average, and without access to education, children from villages will end up living in extreme poverty, perpetuating the vicious circle linking poverty to lack of education.

The main problem for schools in rural areas is, as we have shown in this study, poor infrastructure such as lack of utilities, sanitation facilities, unhealthy or poorly heated buildings, unsafe roads, poor school transport. All these factors discourage children from going to school, against a background of poverty. In these circumstances, the quality of education is suffering, including because of the difficulty of attracting well-trained teachers to schools in rural areas. Many village children do not go to school because they have no food or dressing, and education is thus falling down on their list of priorities³⁹. It is difficult for these children to plan the completion of upper secondary education and their continuation in a context dominated by lack of financial opportunities, early work and domestic violence. This is a toxic environment for children and, in the absence of a government strategy, financial support through public policies, they are unlikely to evolve, remaining in that environment and perpetuating the generation-by-generation shortages, with minimal chance of evolution.

³⁸ ³⁸ UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at UNICEF, Quality Inclusive Education Package, available at <https://www.unicef.org/romania/ro/pachetul-educa%C8%9Bie-incluziv%C4%83-de-calitate>

³⁹ World Vision Romania, Rural Education, available <https://worldvision.ro/cauze/educatie-rurala/>

References :

1. Agabrian M. and Millea V. (2009). *Parteneriate – Școală- Familie- Comunitate*. Iasi : Institutul European.
2. Andrieș, V., Cara, A., Globu, N., Baciuc, S., Bulat, G., Streche, M. and Orîndaș, L. (2019). *Promovarea parteneriatelor școală-familie-comunitate în procesul educațional. Ghid metodologic*. Chișinău: Institutul de Științe ale Educației.
3. Antononowicz, L., Soobrayan, P. and Shabani, N. (2020). *Crearea unor sisteme de educație reziliente în contextul pandemiei de COVID-19*. Geneva: Biroul Regional UNICEF pentru Europa și Asia Centrală.
4. Boussaguet, L., Jacquot, S., Ravinet, P. (2009). *Dicționar de politici publice*. Iasi: Polirom.
5. Coman, R. and Dobre A.M. coord. (2007). *Politici publice românești*. Iasi: Institutului European.
6. Crăciun, M. (2012). *Implicarea familială în educația copiilor și randamentul școlar al acestora*. Rezumatul tezei de masterat.
7. Cristea, S. (2013). *Parteneriatul în educație. Didactica Pro ...* Nr.3 (79).
8. De Lansheere, G. (2005). *Evaluarea continuă a elevilor și examenele*. Bucharest: Didactică și Pedagogică.
9. Enache, R.G., Călin, M.F, Tușa E. (2019). *Necessities and Expectations in Regard to Dobrudja, s Rural Youth Access to Higher Education*. in D. Flaut, S. Hoskova-Mayerova, C. Ispas, F. Maturo, C. Flaut (eds.). *Decision Making in Social Sciences: Between Traditions and Innovations. Book series*. SSDC, volume 247, Springer, november.
10. Godfrey, C. (2007). *Parteneriat școală – familie – comunitate. Ghid pentru cadrele didactice*. Bucharest: Didactică și Pedagogică.
11. Iliceanu, R. (2017). *Școlile din mediul rural se luptă cu sărăcia și abandonul. Cuvântul Libertății*. September.
12. Jinga, I., Petrescu, A., Savotă, M. and Ștefănescu, B. (1996). *Evaluarea performanțelor școlare*, Bucharest: Afeliu.
13. Lisievici, P. (2002). *Evaluarea în învățământ. Teorie, practică, instrumente*. Bucharest: Aramis.
14. Manolescu, M. (2004). *Activitatea evaluativă între cogniție și metacogniție*. Bucharest: Meteor Press.
15. Manolescu, M. (2005). *Evaluarea școlară. Metode, tehnici, instrumente*, Bucharest: Meteor Press.
16. Munteanu, I. (2016). *Politici publice complexe: tehnici și repere*. Chisinau: Cartier.
17. Sava, S, and Paloș, R. (2019). *Educația adulților. Bazeteoretice și repere practice*. Iasi: Polirom.
18. Negreanu, E. and Ionescu, M. (2006). *Educația în familie. Repere și practici actuale*. Bucharest: Cartea Universitară.
19. Pancu, D.C. (2018). *Modalități de consolidare a parteneriatului educațional școală-familie în ciclul primar. Aplicații pe baza teoriei inteligențelor multiple*. Rezumatul extins al tezei de doctorat.
20. Ripley, A. (2016). *Cei mai deștepți copii din lume și modelele de învățământ care i-au format*. Bucharest: Publica.
21. Rusu, G (2016). *Învățământul rural, la confluență de mileniu și de secol. Tribuna Învățământului*, 9.

22. Stoica, L. (2006). Direcții de acțiune pentru creșterea accesului la educație al copiilor provenind din medii defavorizate. *Calitatea vieții*. XVII, nr. 1–2, Institutul pentru Solidaritate Socială, *Inegalități în educație*.
23. Vrășmaș E. (2008). *Dimensiuni și particularități care definesc parteneriatul educațional*. *Didactica Pro ...* 3 (49), 38-41.

Legislative regulations and inclusions programs:

24. ****Legea Educației Naționale nr.1/2011, actualizată 10/2020*.
25. *Carta Drepturilor Fundamentale ale Uniunii Europene* .
26. *Memorandumul privind învățarea permanentă (2000)*;
27. *Making European Area of Lifelong learning a reality (2001)*;
28. *Declarația de la Copenhaga, noiembrie (2002)*;
29. UNICEF, *Pachetul educație incluzivă de calitate*.
30. World Vision România, *Educație Rurală*.
31. World Vision România, *Cursa celor 30 de ani de educație în România rurală*, June 2020.
32. World Vision România, *Cronologia unui an de la prima zi de școală online*.

Sources web:

1. https://ec.europa.eu/education/education-in-the-eu/european-education-area_rohttps://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-visualisations/european-skills-index
2. https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/file_import/european-semester-thematic-factsheet-social-inclusion-ro.pdf
3. <https://www.dspace.biblioteca.um>.
4. <https://www.unicef.org/romania/ro/pachetul-educa%C8%9Bie-incluziv%C4%83-de-calitate>
5. <https://fra.europa.eu/ro/eu-charter/article/14-dreptul-la-educatie>
6. <https://tribunainvatamantului.ro/invatamantul-rural-la-confluenta-de-mileniu-si-de-secol/>
7. <https://cvlpress.ro/18.09.2017/scolile-din-mediul-rural-se-lupta-cu-saracia-si-abandonul/>
8. <https://worldvision.ro/cauze/educatie-rurala/>,
9. <https://ise.md/uploads>.
10. <https://ibn.idsi.md>.
11. <https://www.unicef.org/romania/media/2836/file>.
12. <https://www.scribd.com/document/455193873>.
13. https://ec.europa.eu/education/education-in-the-eu/european-education-area_ro
14. <https://worldvision.ro/2021/03/15/world-vision-romania-face-cronologia-unui-an-de-la-prima-zi-de-scoala-online-elevii-fara-acces-la-educatie-au-pierdut-24-de-saptamani-de-scoala-riscurile-sa-asistam-la-cresteri-record-ale-ratei-de-a/>
15. https://worldvision.ro/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/WV_EDU30_15June2020_GMP.pdf

TEACHERS' PERCEPTION ON INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AS A RESPONSE TO THE CHALLENGES FACED BY CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Alexandrina-Mihaela POPESCU¹, Gabriela MOTOI²

¹ Associate Professor, PhD, University of Craiova (Romania),

Email: alexandrina.popescu@edu.ucv.ro

² Associate Professor, Ph.D., University of Craiova (Romania),

Email: gabriela.motoi@edu.ucv.ro

Abstract: *This article is focusing on an issue that represents an important goal for each society: ensuring for its citizens equal chances in access to education and providing for those in need (and, also, at the risk of social exclusion and marginalization) the right to participate in learning through an inclusive education. The social integration of children with SEND gives the school institution the role of a fundamental component of the social system, able to respond concretely to the imperatives of the moment of evolution in contemporary society and to solve a series of problems related to the needs of social acceptance/valuation of each individual and his capacity to to adapt and integrate in a society, which is changing rapidly. The theoretical part of this article is written from two interdisciplinary perspectives: a pedagogical and a sociological one. In the second part of the article, we have presented part of the conclusions of research conducted among teachers from primary and secondary schools. The purpose of the research was to obtain information on their perception about the most important challenges that children with special educational needs are facing and, also, about the advantages of an inclusive education.*

Keywords: *inclusive education, special educational needs and disability (SEND), social inclusion, social integration, labeling theory*

1. Introduction

Inclusive education is a complex, long-lasting process that requires continuous changes to be able to transform a selfish society, where everyone thinks only about themselves, into an inclusive society, which also supports the other (Ghergut, 2016; Ghergut, A and Frumos, L., 2019). The school is the one from which this inclusive attitude starts and the one that must precisely draw the objectives it pursues, so as to address all children, regardless of their particularities and needs (Booth, T. and Ainscow, M. 2006)

Inclusive education aims to rehabilitate and train people with special needs, who are in psychomotor, intellectual, language, psycho-behavioural difficulties, etc., through a series of combined legal, political, social, pedagogical measures.

Inclusive education is based on the right of all to a quality education that meets basic learning needs and enriches the lives of learners. Focused in particular on vulnerable and disadvantaged groups, it strives to fully develop the potential of each individual. The ultimate goal of inclusive quality education is to end all forms of discrimination and promote social cohesion" (UNESCO, 2017). The problem raised by the inclusion of children with special needs (in specialized literature, the phrase "*pupils with SEND*" is often used) in the regular school, is topical both in other countries of the

world and in our country, where children in this situation they are ignored and as not having equal rights with others.

Thus, contemporary society tends to marginalize this category of the population and not offer them the possibility of affirmation or even social integration, considering them, due to the special requirement they have, incapable of carrying out certain activities. The integration of children with special educational requirements in the Romanian education system can be achieved in the following forms: compact classes and groups of 3-4 students with SEN integrated in mainstream schools. The most common form is individual integration into regular classes in mainstream schools. Romanian schools are still trying to adapt to the new educational activities, as a result of the inclusive educational programs that are carried out (Gherguț, 2010: 711).

2. Inclusion and exclusion in education: conceptual boundaries and theoretical framework

In a general sense, the term integration is relevant to all aspects of life, which must not only aim at the end goal, but represent a means of being an integral part of the community and not a separate part of the community. Integration analyzed from a procedural point of view involves the transition of a person from a more or less separate, segregated space to a common, common environment. In sociology, integration is the ethnological process that allows a person or a group of people to come together and become a member of another larger group by adopting their values and the norms of their social system. In the sociological literature (Durkheim, 1968; Park and Burgess, 1969 [1921]; Levitas, 1998), social integration has been described as the goal of creating “a society for all”, in which each individual, with their rights and responsibilities, has an active role to play. The goal of social integration is not to make people fit into society, but to make society accept all of its members. Therefore, social policies should not aim to make “deviant” people better adapt to accepted norms of societies, but to promote more flexible and tolerant societies that would welcome all their members. The life experiences of different social groups are of equal value, and everyone has the right to contribute to setting local and national priorities and defining what is the common interest.

By defining the educational integration of children, we address the way in which they take part and get involved in the environment that gives them access to an educational program. Its theoretical structure is derived from the principle of normalization, which involves following a life path as normal as possible, natural for all children, considering their particularities or levels of development” (Vrasmas, 2019: 553). Thus, integration is actually a whole process of including the human being within the social systems by adapting to the living conditions of the human society.

On the other hand, exclusion is the reverse process of inclusion. This results in the non-acceptance of individuals with special educational requirements and their marginalization for various reasons (Agulnik, 2002; Sen, 2000). These two opposite phenomena – inclusion and exclusion – have existed and will continue to exist until people are educated to accept those around them, even if they are different.

Inclusive education involves the provision of educational support in order to respond to the needs of each individual student, being interdependent with the recognition of diversity, but representing more than that (Arnaut, 2010: 52). A great challenge launched by inclusion in education is the need to develop preschool

educational institutions as well as their preparation and change to satisfy the participation in education of all children, including those with special educational requirements, as components of human diversity.

The inclusion of children with SEND must start from kindergarten because this stage represents the first step towards the further inclusion of children with SEN in the school and community environment. Precisely for this reason, the inclusion process at the level of the preschool institution must be analyzed, in order to know both the difficulties of the teaching staff and remove them, on the one hand, but also to identify the existing positive practices and value them, on the other hand.

The inclusive school therefore turns into a school for all, a friendly school that offers a dynamic and attractive approach to the teaching-learning-assessment process; a school that represents the pillar on which social inclusion is based through the help it gives to all children, thus contributing to the removal of prejudices imposed between people and to the elimination of the barriers that exist between the different groups that form a community (Ibid.).

Unlike children who are part of mainstream education, children with SEND need an individualized approach regarding the steps that teachers undertake in their education. For the successful integration of children with SEND in mainstream education, a good training of teachers is necessary to be able to provide support and education for all, care and attention for each of them.

Inclusive education is a necessity of our time that depends on the responsibility and involvement of each individual preschool institution, each teaching staff and each of us for it to become a reality (Malcoci, 2019: 139).

The central idea of inclusive education is to support all children in learning, not just those with disabilities. Worldwide, solutions and recommendations are proposed and tried to be found for all categories of vulnerable groups, marginalized or even excluded from learning: poor children, children in geographically isolated areas, from ethnic and linguistic minority groups, discriminated by gender or any other form of discrimination. The solutions of inclusive education practices refer to the adaptation of the curriculum to the particularities of each one and to an engaging and stimulating teaching for the child. The obstacles that children face in the learning process are related to the environment, the local culture and the family environment. Therefore, "inclusive education proposes the development of cultures based on authentic values, which refer to cooperation, collaboration, partnership, respect, dignity, negotiation, acceptance, etc." (Vrasmas, 2019: 555).

Inclusive education is a process and not a simple event; it presupposes a content and a system of values and attitudes that develop a new culture. An important thing to specify would be the fact that inclusive education is not a simple model and does not represent only an innovation or a change, it presupposes a deep approach to the child, the family from which it comes, the education and the educational institution. Inclusive education is actually the lens of a society characterized by lifelong learning and which aims to provide solutions for progress for all children and for everyone. From the afore mentioned, it emerges that inclusive education is the most important remedy in the problem represented by disabilities or SEND.

Inclusive education is based on this theory of equal opportunities, as it aims to integrate all children into the regular education system, including those with disabilities and/or SEN, whom it treats equally with others. This is a goal for all educational systems,

at all levels, from primary to higher education (Enache, Călin and Tuşa, 2020). At a theoretical level, the equalization of training opportunities is guaranteed at the international level, but the application of this generous concept remains an important source of various reforms. Nowadays, equality exceeds the boundaries of equal rights to which the democracies of the last century referred; it implies the granting of real equality of individual chances for social promotion, education representing the most important key in development.

Equality of chance is, in fact, the granting of multiple options for distinct skills and abilities, an education for all children and for each one individually, an education that is open to all people, regardless of age and socio-economic conditions, but at the same time an education addressed to everyone, taking into account their needs and characteristics - avoiding homogenization and promoting diversity - to realize the ideas from which equal opportunities to enter social life start. This choice was promoted by the policies in the field of equalization of chances which had as goals the confrontation of exclusion and exaggerated selection, the establishment of the necessary competences for absolutely all individuals, the promotion of "second chance" type education for those who have abandoned the education system, the merging of education formal with non-formal and informal education, in such a way as to widen the learning situations.

The category of disadvantaged children can include children from single-parent families or those orphaned by both parents, children whose parents are unemployed, or who have serious health problems, those who live in isolated environments and for whom it is impossible to go to school, because this depends on transport services, but also the Roma children who hardly manage to integrate into society.

"It is obvious that risks and vulnerabilities trigger social exclusion, but the implementation of the right community building, social assistance and social protection measures triggers the resilience at the level of the community, by empowering its individuals to claim their rights, by educating them and raising awareness about their and their children's future" (Niță, Pârvu, 2020: 114).

Some concepts derive from the theory of equal opportunities that can clarify this phrase, which for some can be ambiguous. Equality of opportunity implies giving children access to a fulfilling, decent life, without feeling in any way that they are somehow different from the mass of the population. Access to a fulfilled, normal, decent life includes access to family, to education, to an independent life, to information.

The theory of labeling, formulated in sociology by H.S. Becker, and developed later, by William I. Thomas (Chicago School of Sociology) specifies the fact that a behaviour that has become a "problem" is, in fact, that behaviour that has been assigned the label as problematic; for it is this labeling behaviour that actually creates the problem, not the individuals. Labeling theory (Rist, 2017; Taylor, 2006) claims that labels, typically, arise because of being assigned by a person who represents an authority; an example in this sense can be a teacher, a parent or a person who imposes authority, who assigns a label that he repeats and reinforces until it is associated with an individual. The theory also says that when labels are assigned to people, it is difficult for them to get rid of them, even the individual in question accepts them, internalizing them and believing that they are true.

Prejudices appear before labeling, which represent preconceived ideas, which are often unfavourable, about a certain thing, a certain group, a certain person. This behaviour is usually easier to achieve than trying to get to know others. Some of the most common prejudices are related to ethnicity, race, religion. After prejudice, there was labeling, the

process by which we fit someone into a certain category, but without being relevant, and to this labelling comes the process of discrimination and marginalization. Usually, when we assign someone a label, it is often an unfavourable one, and as a result, we exclude that person from the group we belong to, without giving them the opportunity to really know them.

3. Methods

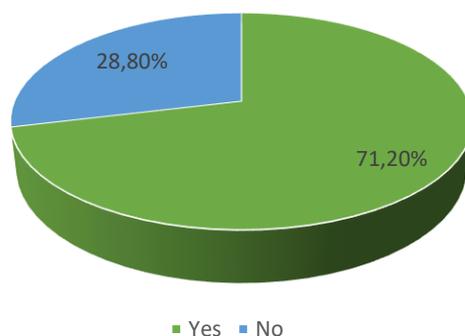
The main objectives of our exploratory research were: identifying teachers' opinions regarding the integration of children with SEND in mass education; establishing the need to integrate children with SEND in regular school; identifying the advantages and disadvantages of school integration; determining the effects generated by the process of including children with SEND in the regular school. Regarding the research hypothesis and research questions, we have started from two research perspectives: a) The perspective of *inclusive school* - the opening of the school to children with CES and its adaptation to the needs and particularities of the child is necessary and very important, because it ensures the success of the subject of education; b) The perspective of *social integration* - the inclusion of children from an early age and its continuation throughout schooling ensures subsequent social inclusion.

Our research tool was a questionnaire, which was composed of 24 questions, part of them being multiple choice questions and the other part being free answer questions. The subject of the questions was: the attitude of society towards children with SEND, the attitude of the respondents towards children with SEND, the importance of integrating children with SEND in the preschool environment, the degree of integration of children with SEND in the regular school, the advantages and disadvantages of integrating children with educational requirements special education in regular school, the effects of educational integration. The exploratory group of the research was made up of 118 respondents (primary and secondary school teachers).

4. Discussion and results

As can be seen, the questionnaires were applied, to a great extent, in a proportion of 71.2%, to teachers who worked during their experience in the education system with children with special educational needs, which means that these teachers are able to discuss this questionnaire topic. According to the figure below (Figure 1), it can be observed that only 28.8% of the exploratory group did not work with children with CES, although they work in the educational system, which means that these people answered the questionnaire only from a hypothetical perspective, because I don't know the practical part.

Figure 1 Throughout your professional activity, have you worked with children with SEND?

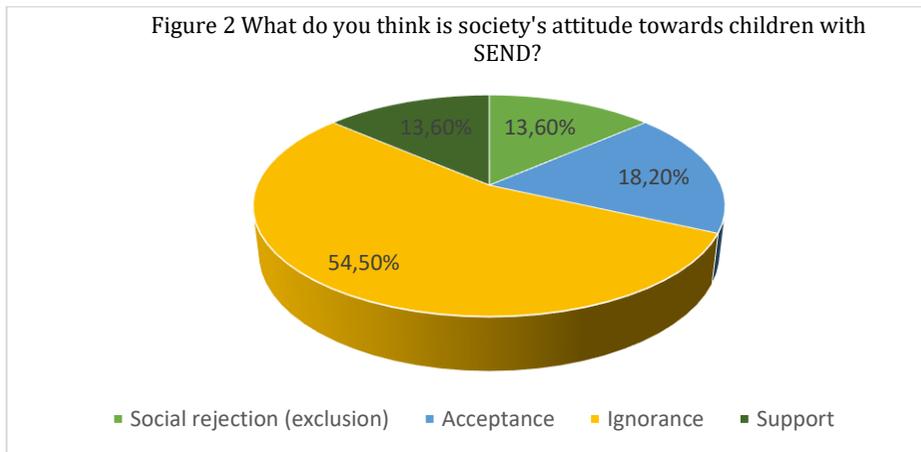


In order to get a more accurate picture of the experience of working with children with SEND, we chose to formulate an open question, by which the respondents who worked with children in this category were asked to formulate a short description of this experience. From the answers received, it could be observed that there were teachers who provided a description of the experience, referring to the students they worked with, and teachers who preferred to describe the experience, referring to the level of difficulty it entails such an activity. The answers are presented in the table below (Table 1)

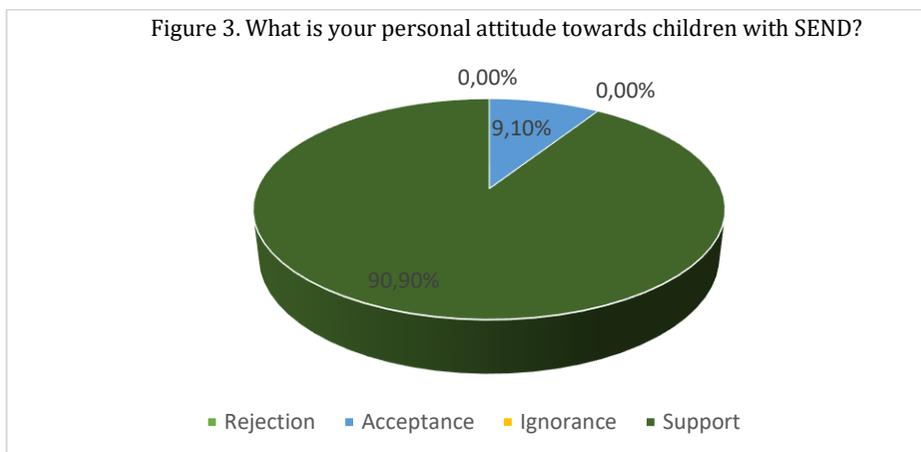
Table 1. Could you describe shortly how you found this experience?

Category	Respondent's quote
Answers about children with SEND	<p><i>"They are normal people who just need a little more attention from those around them, especially teachers"</i></p> <p><i>"Children with SEND require more attention than others and they need activities adapted to their level of work"</i></p> <p><i>"I'm glad I had this experience, I learned new things about children 'needs and how different but wonderful they all are"</i></p>
Answers describing teachers' experience of working with children with SEND	<p><i>"A difficult experience"</i></p> <p><i>"An unique, interesting and special experience"</i></p> <p><i>"A slightly difficult but at the same time pleasant experience that put my teaching qualities to the test"</i></p>

Regarding the answers to the fifth question of the questionnaire, a large majority of respondents supported the fact that people/children with SEND require more attention than other children. Regarding the experience of teachers in working with children with SEND, they stated that this experience is a difficult one, while another part of the respondents claimed that this experience is an interesting one.

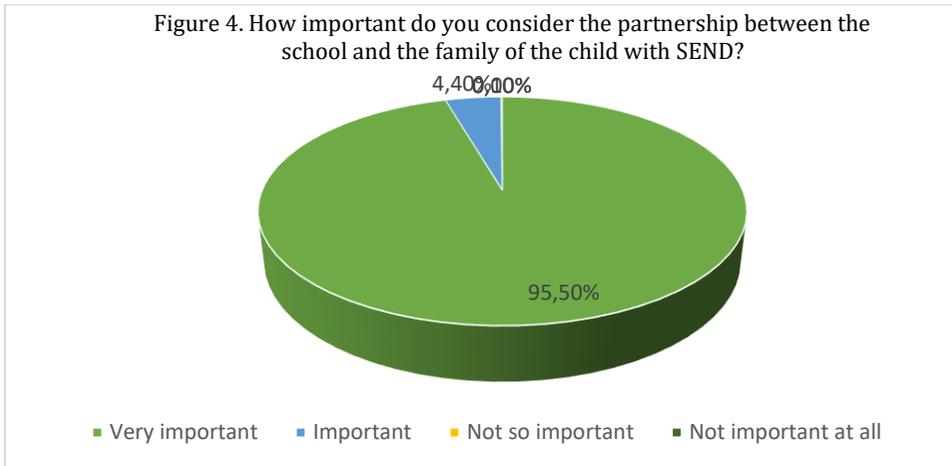


The answers to another question of the questionnaire, which concerned the society's attitude towards children with SEND, generated a majority percentage of 54.5% corresponding to the answer "*ignorance*", which means that the society in which we live does not have a beneficial attitude towards children with SEND, ignoring them, but also their needs. At the same time, at the opposite pole is the supportive attitude of society, with a percentage of 13.6%. Society accepts only 18.2% of children with SEND and rejects them in 13.6%. Concluding, from the perspective of the teaching staff participating in the study, the predominant behaviour of Romanian society towards children with SEND is ignorant, uninterested.



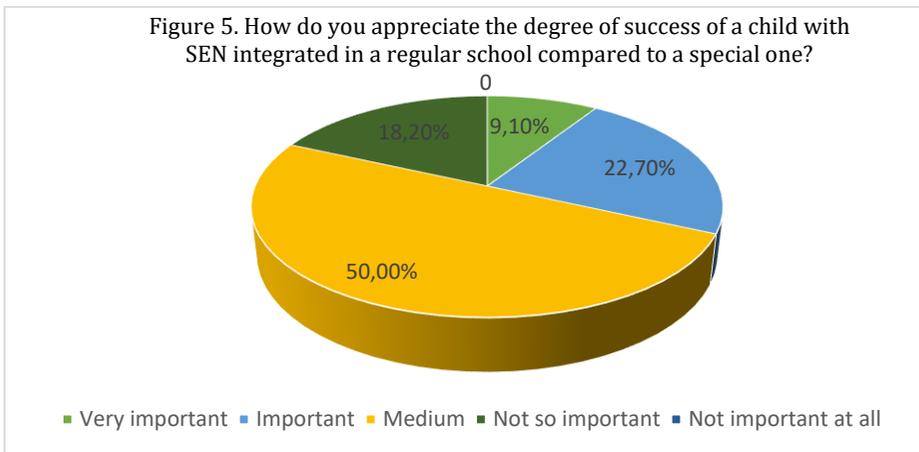
When asked what their attitude is towards children with CES, the majority of respondents, in a percentage of 90.9%, answered that they offer support to children in this situation, which means that people, teachers who work with children with special needs empathize with them and offers them support for integration and educational success.

Figure 4. How important do you consider the partnership between the school and the family of the child with SEND?



According to the percentages recorded, it can be observed that the overwhelming majority of teachers considered the fact that the partnership developed between the educational institution and the family of the child with SEN is very important and only 0.1% considered it not so important. This means that the development of a partnership between the educational institution and the family of the child with special educational requirements is a great necessity, as it ensures a permanent link between the two important environments for the child, namely, the family environment and the school environment.

Figure 5. How do you appreciate the degree of success of a child with SEN integrated in a regular school compared to a special one?



The integration of children with CES in the regular school attracts divided opinions of the teaching staff regarding the educational success of the child with special requirements. Thus, 50% of the responding teaching staff considered the fact that the degree of success of a child with SEND, integrated in a regular school, compared to a special one, is *medium*. The interpretation of these percentages leads to the idea that, from their experience, the teachers have found that the integration of a child with CES in a regular school is important and gives the child the chance to succeed, alongside the others.

Another important question of our questionnaire, strongly related to the two research perspectives from which we have started was a question in which respondents were asked to formulate some advantages that children with SEND could benefit, if they were studying in regular classes, among other children . The responses at this question are presented in the table below (Table 2)

Table 3. Could you name three advantages of including children with SEND in mass school? (multiple choice question)

	Respondent's quote
ADVANTAGES	<i>"A chance at a normal life"</i> <i>"Creating friendships, social integration"</i> <i>"Ease of accommodation in social life"</i> <i>"Raising the school level of the child with CES"</i> <i>"Respecting the right to inclusive education in mass education"</i> <i>"Development of social skills, social integration"</i> <i>"Progress in the recovery process"</i> <i>"Cognitive, language, social and emotional development is strengthened through meaningful interactions with peers"</i> <i>"The development of qualities, skills and interests is facilitated"</i>

As for the advantages of the school inclusion of children with SEN, they are addressed more to the child and less to the school that integrates him. Thus, among the main advantages, we can mention: giving an equal chance to other children, creating friendships, by eliminating the barriers that are imposed between different people, further social integration, socialization and the accumulation of new knowledge, respecting the rhythm own assimilation, cognitive and language social and emotional development of the child.

Table 4. Could you name three challenges or weaknesses of including children with SEND in mass school? (multiple choice question)

	Respondent's quote
CHALLENGES OR WEAKNESSES	<i>"Marginalization, rejection, stigmatization"</i> <i>"Curriculum not adapted to the level of understanding of children with SEND"</i> <i>"The risk of being marginalized by other children"</i> <i>"Possible unforeseen injuries, stigmatization, decreased self-esteem"</i> <i>"Lack of support from parents/children for the acceptance of these children"</i> <i>"Lack of patience of the teacher"</i> <i>"Insufficient training of teachers in the field of education of children with SEND and the lack of qualified staff compared to special school units"</i> <i>"Lack of equipment and educational resources necessary for the education of children with SEND"</i> <i>"Lack of itinerant teacher, large number of children in the group"</i> <i>"The delay in the teaching of the lessons, the large difference between the level of knowledge of the students, the creation of large discrepancies in the course of the lessons due to a large number of students"</i>

As a result of this question with multiple answers, the responding teachers considered the main disadvantages of the inclusion of children with SEND in regular school to be: marginalization, rejection, stigmatization, these being disadvantages aimed at the

child with SEND. Among the disadvantages addressed to the educational institution and/or the teaching staff, the following can be highlighted: the lack of professional training of the teaching staff, the lack of patience, the lack of moral support of the group of parents and children from the group/class in which a child with SEND.

Conclusion

An “inclusive school welcomes everyone without distinction. This means that the culture of the school must be such that no one is stigmatized [...]. Curriculum and pedagogy must take diversity into account” (Armstrong, 2010: 19; Barton, 2003: 95).

Inclusive education benefits all learners. It is not limited to the integration into general education of children with special needs; it has a positive effect on all children, schools and the community as a whole.

Inclusive education needs to be clarified in national contexts and its principles promoted and integrated into national legislation and education policies and practices across Europe. To this end, the capacity of schools to create an inclusive environment must be developed, by improving teaching practices to prepare teachers for the diversity of their classes. There is a need for closer intersectoral and inter-institutional cooperation in this area, between the bodies responsible for education, health and social protection. In addition, there is a need to develop support systems for inclusive education, in particular by making the enrolment policy for all disadvantaged students flexible and inclusive, as well as the monitoring and evaluation of integration capacity of schools. Finally, it is important to strengthen the capacities and participation of parents in these processes.

References:

1. Agulnik, P. (2002). *Understanding social exclusion*. Oxford: Oxford University Press on Demand.
2. Armstrong, F. (2010). Inclusive education: school cultures, teaching and learning. In *Teaching and learning in diverse and inclusive classrooms*. London: Routledge, 19-30
3. Arnăuț, A. (2010). Pași spre școala viitorului. In *Pledoarie pentru educația incluzivă ca dimensiune socială a învățării*. XIXth edition, Caras Severin: Bocșa [online] available at: <https://en.calameo.com/books/005712417e92feaf91411>
4. Barbu, E.G. (2020). Educația incluzivă în grădiniță. In *Materialele Conferinței Republicane a Cadrelor Didactice. V*, 12-14
5. Barton, L. (2003). *Inclusive education and teacher education*. London: Institute of Education, University of London
6. Booth, T. and Ainscow, M. (2006). *Indexul incluziunii școlare*. Cluj-Napoca: Presa Universitara Clujeana
7. Durkheim É. (1968). *Éducation et sociologie*, Paris: Presses Universitaires de France
8. Enache, R. G., Călin, M. F., & Tușa, E. (2020). Necessities and Expectations in Regard to Dobrudja's Rural Youth Access to Higher Education. In *Decision Making in Social Sciences: Between Traditions and Innovations*. Springer, Cham, 135-153
9. Gherguț, A. (2016). *Educația incluzivă și pedagogia diversității*. Iasi: Polirom
10. Gherguț, A. and Frumos, L. (2019). *Educația Incluzivă. Ghid metodologic*, Iasi: Polirom
11. Levitas, R. (1998). *The Inclusive Society?: Social Exclusion and New Labour*. London: Palgrave Macmillan
12. Malcoci, C. (2019). Incluziunea în educația timpurie a copiilor cu cerințe educaționale speciale. in Ministerul Educației Naționale (ed.), *Învățământul preșcolar în mileniul III*, 27/28.
13. Niță, A.M. and Pârvu, M. (2020). Vulnerability and resilience in marginalized rural communities. Case study: projects for reduction of risk exclusion in Dolj County. *Revista de Științe Politice*. 67: 103-117, ISSN: 1584-224X.
14. Park, R.E. and Burgess, E. (1969) [1921]. *Introduction to the Science of Sociology*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press
15. Rist, R.C. (2017). On understanding the processes of schooling: The contributions of labeling theory. in *Exploring education*. London: Routledge.
16. Sen, A. (2000). *Social exclusion: Concept, application, and scrutiny*. Office of Environment and Social Development, Asian Development Bank, Social Development Papers.
17. Taylor, S. J. (2006). Before it had a name: Exploring the historical roots of disability studies in education. *Vital questions facing disability studies in education*, 2, 289-306.
18. UNESCO (2017). *A Guide for Ensuring Inclusion and Equity in Education*. Paris: UNESCO.
19. Vrășmaș, E. (2019). Copiii cu cerințe educative speciale în grădiniță. in F. Ion (ed.), *Sinteze de pedagogia Învățământului preșcolar*. Bucharest: Didactică și Pedagogică.
20. Vrășmaș, E. (2019). Copiii cu cerințe educative speciale în grădiniță. in I. Albușescu and H. Catalano (eds.), *Sinteze de pedagogia învățământului preșcolar*. Bucharest: Didactică și Pedagogică.

"GENERATION ME". THE GENESIS OF GENERATION AND ITS IMPACT ON SOCIETY

Samira CÎRLIG

Scientific Researcher, The European Centre for Ethnic Studies, Romanian Academy (Romania)
PHDc, Faculty of Sociology and Social Work, Bucharest, (Romania)
Email: zana.samira.cirlig@gmail.com

Abstract: *The self – centered generation or "Generation Me" (Twenge, 2014b) comprises young people who were born between 1980 and 2000. In the literature they are known as the 'Snowflake Generation' (Fox, 2016), 'Millennials' or 'Generation Y'. They are characterised by their overdeveloped egos, increased tendency of loneliness and propensity to develop new fears. In my paper I set out to find out "what causes have led to the genesis of this generation". To do this, I will first present some statistical data that I consider relevant because they show the importance of the subject studied. Then I will identify the causes that led to the emergence of this generation. I will classify these causes into two broad categories, primary and secondary, according to the importance that the studies consulted say they have in the psycho-socio-emotional development of these young people. The primary causes include the three basic institutions of any society, namely the family, the school and the Church, which are responsible for the educational process of young people. We have added to these three factors the time spent in front of a screen, be it a TV, laptop or phone, because the socio-historical context has given it particular importance. Then I will discuss the secondary causes.*

Keywords: generation; "Generation Me"; loneliness; depression; fear;

1. Brief introduction

The "Me Generation" or "Snowflake Generation", as author Claire Fox calls the young people born between 1980 and 2000, is distinguished from other generations by three important characteristics: hypersensitivity, loneliness and fear. In the sociology of age, these young people are also known as "Generation Y" or "Millennials". Heightened sensitivity shapes a self-centred generation with a strong sense of entitlement. These traits are found in all spheres of social life and therefore have a strong impact on society as a whole. In this material I will focus on the causes that led to the emergence of this generation, which is part of the theoretical foundation of my PhD thesis.

2. Statistical data

a) At national level

"Generation Y", "Millennials", "Snowflake Generation" or "Me Generation" will be the main candidates for jobs in Romania by 2025, according to studies in the field (Mîndruțescu, 2021). According to data published by the National Institute of Statistics, of the more than 20 million people registered in 2011 in Romania, approximately 5.7 million belong to this category. In percentage terms, these young people represented in 2011 about 28% of the Romanian population (National Institute of Statistics, 2011).

b) Global level

According to researcher Dorothy Neufeld, by 2021, Millennials were the largest adult cohort in the world. There are 1.8 billion of them worldwide, representing 23% of the global population (Neufeld, 2021). In the US for example, according to population

estimates by the Census Bureau, on 1 July 2019, Millennials (those aged 23-38) numbered 72.1 million people (Fry, 2020).

3. Cases

I. Primary causes

i. Family and parenting policies

a. Primary socialisation - a defective socialization?

Claire Fox argues that the main culprits for the emergence of this hypersensitive generation are actually parents because the way they have socialized their children is wrong: "It's not as if today's young people were born with a particularly weak constitution and a penchant for offending. In reality, they are our creation and have learned the lesson of censorship from their elders" (Fox, 2016, p.53). The creation of the "Snowflakes" or the "Me Generation" was made possible when they were encouraged to believe that school is another home. Pupils and students associate home with a safe space and felt the need to extend this idea of safety into the school environment. This has raised two big problems: firstly, the school should be a safe space for teachers, not just for children, which is not the case, and secondly, the teaching-learning process has been seriously affected. In other words, school is no longer seen as an environment where you learn to be autonomous. For a long time, the student saw university as a 'break' from the comfort that home provided. Giving up this comfort was not only normal it was a desired reality. Recently, however, schools have been transformed from a dynamic environment into a static one, whose main feature is no longer freedom but the permanent and growing need for 'safe spaces' (Ibid, pp.60-65).

According to Claire Fox, universities have become a space of censorship, where it's all about what you are and are not allowed to say, without risking offending anyone with your opinions or ideas. One of the first and most important effects is the very emergence of a generation that no longer aspires to leave the tutelage of its parents, but to live in a perfectly hermetic bubble of safety (Ibid). And yet the question remains how was such a brutal transition possible? The short answer is "we socialized them that way. They were raised with stories about how vulnerable and how much they needed protection. Adult society has fed them a diet of anxieties and given them the language of safety and risk aversion that now threatens liberal values like tolerance and resilience. We reap what we sow - and the young Snowflake Generation, so quick to cry 'offense', only ventriloquizes our own fears that we imposed on them as children" (Ibid, pp.66-67). Therefore, the primary contributing factor to this generation's emergence is the parents themselves because by the way they conducted their primary socialization they contributed to faulty psycho-socio-emotional development.

b. Parenting policies - a vector of fear propagation? Some aspects of "helicopter parenting"

Greg Lukianoff, president and CEO of the Foundation for Individual Rights in Education, and social psychology professor Jonathan Haidt, explained that those children born after 1980, also known generically as "Millennials," have been taught by their parents that life is dangerous and they will do everything in their power to protect them (Ibid, p.67). The "safety first" agenda has made it possible to "transfer adults' obsession with fear into children's lived experience" (Ibid, p.68). In other words, parents' obsession with children's safety has led to the emergence of a generation that denies its freedom precisely because they have been inoculated with the idea that the world is a dangerous place. A primary effect of restricting children's life experiences is precisely the emergence of a

generation that Fox called "cotton-wool kids" (Ibid, p.69). As a result, the hyper-preoccupation of parents has made children even more sensitive.

Recently more and more authors have drawn attention to the fact that excessive parental involvement in children's lives has negative effects on children (Bronson and Merryman, 2009). Other work shows that over-involvement of adults leads to increased levels of anxiety and even depression in young people (Levine, 2006). These dynamics influence the way children develop in that once they become adults, they cannot give up this constant search for comfort and security. This in turn means that they experience an increasing lack of control over their lives and are less able to manage the stressors around them (Marano, 2008).

Too much parental involvement can be damaging to children's psychosocial development as they enter adolescence (Grolnick, Kurowski, Dunlap, and Hevey, 2000) because it blurs the line between unconditional parental support and excessive parental control. An extremely important distinction needs to be made here between parenting and parental control. While the former supports children's autonomy (Grolnick and Ryan, 1989), the latter limits their harmonious development. One example of over-involvement by parents has been noted in the US, where university campus administrators have noticed that some parents are still very involved in their children's lives. In other words, administrators claim that this category of parents try TO controlling their children even at this age (e.g., some parents talk to administrators on behalf of their children) (Hunt, 2008). These people have been referred to in the literature as 'helicopter parents' (Hofer and Moore, 2010).

Three recent studies have examined the effects that helicopter parenting has on children and concluded that the balance tips more in favor of negative effects (LeMoyne and Buchanan, 2011;). Students with such parents reported that because their parents were overly involved, their level of psychological well-being decreased, which is why they were more likely to turn to medication for depression and anxiety (LeMoyne and Buchanan, 2011). This new type of parenting may be problematic insofar as it violates the principles of self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 2008).

c. Divorces

Parental divorce is one of the most important causes associated with the emergence of this generation of sensitive, proud and depressed young people. The impact of divorce on children has been talked about over the years and has direct implications for increased frustration, anxiety and depression. A study demonstrating this correlation was undertaken by Judith S. Wallerstein and Julia M. Lewis, and resulting in a book entitled: *The unexpected legacy of divorce. A report of a 25-Year Study*. The two researchers analysed a sample of 131 children, aged between 3 and 18 (at the time their parents divorced). The merit of this study is that it followed the implications of divorce on children over 25 years, which allowed the authors to track the effects of this event in childhood, adolescence and adulthood (Wallerstein and Lewis, 2004, pp.359-360). According to researcher Jean M. Twenge, nearly half of the "Me Generation" have parents who are divorced or have never known their father (Twenge, 2014, pp.123-124).

Research in the field shows that children who have grown up in a single-parent family have difficulty balancing their psycho-emotional health and developing cognitive abilities (Chapple, 2013). Other issues that are related to this question show how young people integrate and perform at school. In other words, children who come from families that have broken up because of divorce face serious difficulties in adjusting to school. It should be noted here that their shortcomings are more serious in this case than in cases

where single-parent families are the result of death. Thus, these children have a much higher level of anxiety than others (Felner, Ginter, Boike, Cowen,1981). Parental divorce has therefore earned its well-deserved place among the primary factors leading to the emergence of 'Generation Me' because it contributed to their predisposition to be sensitive.

ii. Religion

Religiosity, or rather its weakening, is another factor that contributes to the shaping of such a strongly individualized personality. Why its weakening? A few statistics are enough to answer this question: the number of those who say they have no religious affiliation tripled in American universities between 1983 and 2012 (from 8% to 24%), and the number of those who have never attended a religious service doubled in 40 years (from 1970 to 2010). Data from this registry shows that the "me generation" or "snowflake generation" is the least religious generation in American history. But what has caused this decline in religiosity? On the one hand it is parents, especially mothers, who are proving to be less religious (for example, the number of students who said their mothers had no religious affiliation was four times higher in 2010 than in 1970), and on the other hand it is the loss of young people's interest in the subject, which increases in direct proportion to age (Twenge, 2014, pp.46-47).

According to data published by the Pew Research Center in 2012, one-fifth of the U.S. population and one-third of adults under 30 were religiously unaffiliated, the highest percentages ever recorded in the Center's surveys. According to a survey (conducted nationally between June 28 and July 9, 2012, on a representative sample of 2,973 adults) in the past five years alone, the number of unaffiliated has increased from 15% (in 2007) to 20% (in 2012) of all US adults. Currently, more than 13 million people self-identify as atheists and agnostics (nearly 6% of the American public), and nearly 33 million people say they have no religious affiliation (14%). However, a new survey by the Pew Research Center's Forum for the Study of Religion and Public Life shows that many of the nation's 46 million unaffiliated adults are religious or spiritual in some way, with two-thirds saying they still believe in God (68%) (Pew Research Center, 2012).

According to the 2011 census, there were more than 20,700 atheists (0.11% of Romania's population) and more than 18,900 people with no religious affiliation (i.e., 0.10% of the total population) (National Institute of Statistics, 2013, p.5). Compared to the 2002 census, the percentages for both "non-religious" and "atheists" have increased: they almost tripled for atheists and almost doubled for people with no declared religion (Ibid, p.4). At the end of 2016, according to a survey conducted by Gallup International (in which 66,000 people from 68 countries participated), Romania was among the most religious countries in the world given, that at the level of that year only 3% of citizens declared themselves atheists, and 6% answered that they were not religious (Pană, 2021).

iii. School (school policies)

a) Self-esteem movement

The self-esteem movement began in the United States in the 1970s with the publication of the book *Psychology of Self-Esteem* by psychologist Nathaniel Brandon in 1969. The book brought about a major change because it associated self-esteem with the idea of success or failure. In other words, it was based on the premise that a person with high self-esteem would have a better chance of success in life. This premise has led to a significant change in education in the sense that education legislation has been 'revamped' so that self-esteem can be implemented through schools among pupils and students. Various working groups were set up to identify ways in which self-esteem could be

improved among young people. The first such task force was set up in California in 1986, when the authorities announced that the state would become a 'state of esteem', acting as a 'social vaccine' (Kartman, 2021). Self-esteem in this paper means the feeling of self-worth (Ashwini, 2017). However, it is important to note here that self-esteem must be grounded in reality, i.e., it is based on personal effort, dedication and perseverance (Kartman, 2021).

The policy of developing self-esteem has extended from the educational environment into the family. Po Bronson and Ashley Merryman, however, conducted a meta-analysis of the most recent parenting studies in the book *Nurture Shock* and concluded that the premise that increasing self-confidence is directly proportional to increasing success is flawed. In this regard, several studies have shown that it is not self-esteem that influence performance, but individual effort, which the self-esteem movement has almost completely ignored. Moreover, researchers such as Kamins and Dweck (1999) have warned that when a child is valued for his intelligence and not for his effort, the level of anxiety he experiences when he fails is higher because he attributes failure to internal causes and not to his effort. This is why Carol Dweck, stated that there are two types of thinking one that holds that intelligence is fixed and one that focuses on the idea of accumulation (intelligence is "mobile" i.e., it can be expanded by acquiring new skills) (Ibid).

When we're talking about a generation with very high self-esteem it's no wonder that those who are part of it are easily offended, according to Claire Fox. The researcher said that young people, when they are opposed, suffer. In other words, criticism, despite its beneficial aspects, causes these people suffering on an organic level because: '(...) they believe that through words they are truly hurt, and any opinion that contradicts their own beliefs creates real harm' (Fox, 2016, p.XVI). Both schools and parents are responsible for creating a generation with an overdeveloped sense of self-esteem. Parents on the one hand have been forced by child protection to never contradict their children, and this has led young people to believe that only their voice matters. When self-esteem advocates taught parents to flatter young people about their opinions, they actually destroyed the generational duty to pass on knowledge. In other words, by their actions the promoters of the self-esteem movement forced parents to give up the difficult enough task of disciplining them (Ibid, p.130). The self-esteem movement created the conditions for the emergence of an egocentric industry. In other words, the moment you have the impression that the whole world revolves around you, you will never learn to deal with disappointment, nor will you can take what is constructive from the criticism you receive.

b) Socializing in "safe spaces"

In Claire Fox's view schools (in this case campuses) play an extremely important role in curbing free speech, as they are: 'the key arena for promoting the most pernicious weapons against free speech and the place where today's tendencies to be easily offended are most visible and grotesque' (Ibid, p.47). This happens because students are encouraged to reject certain information that might have a traumatic effect on them. In other words, symbolic toxicity occurs at the level of one of the most important social institutions. Intellectual exploration of issues through dialog and debate are seen from this viewpoint as triggers - "trigger warnings" (Ibid., p.48) of trauma, which must be avoided or at least controlled. Several teachers have warned that under these conditions the teaching-learning process is seriously affected. For example, Jeannie Suk, who teaches law at Harvard Law School, says that various women's organizations frequently advise young people not to take courses that focus on the law of sexual violence because they can be traumatic. As a result, most criminal law professors exclude rape from their courses

because the pressure they feel is too great, both from students and from such organizations that accuse them of causing emotional harm (Ibid, p.49).

According to Eric Heinze "safe spaces" in American universities have become frightening because they are now a real danger to freedom of speech. Anything that goes against some ideas is considered hate speech, and those affected by the alleged speech have this great "privilege" of enjoying the protection of safe spaces. Judith Shulevitz described a safe space at Brown University in America in 2015 as follows: the room was equipped with cookies, coloring books, bubbles, soothing music, pillows, blankets, and a video of puppies romping (Heinze, 2019, p.1). It should be highlighted here that the above lists are from universities, which only bring back the topic of infantilizing young people. The emergence and development of these spaces has turned from a noble intention (to help certain disadvantaged groups) into an initiative that no longer protects but attacks certain values, such as the freedom to express oneself without fear of being labeled certainly. The power of this negative labeling calls into question the benefits of therapeutic culture on American campuses. According to The Evening Standard, King's College London has hired sheriffs to evict speakers or participants from speaking events who appear to violate campus speech codes (Ibid, p.2). Thus, the school, by creating these spaces, contributed to the genesis of 'Generation Me' as it lowered the resilience of young people. They no longer look within themselves for the springs that give them strength and emotional stability despite difficult moments, but take refuge in the 'arms' of safe spaces.

c) School fees

Recently, the relationship between students and universities has changed radically. An important role in this dynamic has been played by tuition fees which "have transformed what was once a teacher-student relationship into a service-consumer one" (Dunt, 2015). In other words, students admitted to fee-paying places are most probably offended because they are "(...) endlessly lured and flattered by institutions desperate to attract and retain undergraduate students in a highly competitive market (...) higher education institutions are obsessed with winning student approval to score high in official student satisfaction surveys, and to score well in the assessment exercise" (Fox, 2016, p.123). The problem is that to satisfy students the teaching-learning process suffers. Exclusive focus on the student undermines the authority of teachers (Ibid, p.125).

When students feel that teachers are taking a salary because of them, they arrogantly assume that they are the ones who put it there (Ibid, p.127), and this becomes a source of chaos within the institution. Such a situation arose at Yale University when Nicholas Christakis, a director, had a heated discussion with a group of students. It all started when some youngsters brought it to the attention of Christakis and his wife Erika (who is in charge of campus administration) that some professors had required them to avoid wearing certain Halloween costumes so as not to offend to some minorities. Because of this discussion, Erika Christakis told the students in an email that they needed to look at the issue through an intellectual lens. However, their reaction underlines the decline of teachers' authority and the humiliating situations they are subjected to: "Why the hell did he hire you? ... It's not about creating an intellectual space! It's not about that. (...) It's about creating a home here." After this discussion, hundreds of students insulted them and attempted to remove them from their leadership positions (Friedersdorf, 2015).

iv. Time spent in front of a screen:

The time that young people spend online is another determining factor in the genesis of this generation because it creates the conditions for the emergence of a new

dimension of socialization, different from what happens in real life, which only generates loneliness on the one hand and frustration among them on the other.

a) Computer

The "Snowflake Generation" compared to previous generations, is characterized by increased passivity in relation to the socio-cultural context. A legitimate question in this regard concerns the cause of this phenomenon. A factor contributing to this slowdown in psycho-emotional development is the frequency of 'interaction' with a screen, be it the TV, computer or telephone. Globally, in 2022, a person would spend an average of six hours and 57 min in front of a screen every day (for internet-connected activities). If a person sleeps on average about eight hours, this means that globally we spend almost 44% of our waking hours looking at a screen (Moody, 2022). In America, according to Data Reportal, people spend an average of seven hours and four minutes looking at a screen, about 45 min more than Britons, who spend an average of six hours and 12 minutes in front of a screen per day. The national level, according to data published by Data Reportal, in 2022m Romanians spent an average of seven hours and nine min in front of a screen (Ibid), ranking third in Europe.

Compared to the context of the pandemic years, the amount of time spent in front of a screen has increased exponentially. For example, according to a study by Anglia Ruskin University (ARU), almost 90% of Canadian children exceeded the recommended daily limit of two hours, while Tunisian children (aged five to 11) increased their screen time by 111% (Ibid). According to another study by the University of California - San Francisco the amount of time American teenagers spent in front of screens doubled in the pandemic to 7.7 h in May 2020 from 3.8 h (Ibid). Worldwide, individuals spend about three hours and 14 min in front of the computer. Nationally, in terms of time spent in front of a computer screen, Romanians will be second in the European Union in 2022, with four hours and 11 min (surfing the internet) (Ibid).

b) Telephone

More than half of the six hours and 57 min spent in front of a screen worldwide per day is spent in front of a cell phone screen, i.e., three hours and 43 min. This includes two and a half hours of scrolling through social media channels, one hour and 33 min of streaming music and 55 min of listening to podcasts (Ibid). Globally, in the rankings of the longest amount of time spent in front of a cell phone screen, the Filipinos top the list with five hours and 47 min per day, closely followed by Thai users with five hours and 28 min (Ibid). At a national level, in terms of time spent in front of a cell phone screen (for the purpose of surfing the internet), Romanians are ranked first in the European Union in 2022 with three hours and 41 min (Ibid.). Also in 2022, as I said, globally a person would spend an average of two hours and 27 min a day on social media. This means that about 85% of the time spent in front of a cell phone screen is browsing social media. Americans spent an average of two hours and 14 min a day, with the highest spenders being Filipinos at four hours and six minutes (Ibid). The amount of time an individual spends in front of a screen of any kind is relevant in terms of the quality of socializing. In the virtual environment the quality of interaction decreases and consequently the degree of loneliness increases.

c) Television

Professor Virgiliu Gheorghe warns that television directly affects the human subconscious. The main effect of this is to deprive the individual of free will (Bădescu apud Gheorghe, 2006, p.5). In other words, the time spent in front of the television transition

from freedom to a certain type of slavery: "Plunging voluptuously into the environment of images and fantasies continuously generated by the television screen, man unknowingly enters the most humiliating slavery, the slavery of the mind" (Ibid). The discussion of the effects of television on humans is important because in terms of cognitive processes, brain activity during hours spent in front of the television belongs to the category of altered states of consciousness: "The effect of the audio-video media is magical, given the fact that after only two minutes in front of the TV, the emission of alpha waves, passivity, semi-hypnotic state, reverie and tele-dependence, etc., increases fantastically. (..) A person who spends about 3-6 hours in front of the television (...) is bewitched, mentally and emotionally seized by television phantasms, so that he almost no longer belongs to himself" (Ibid).

d) Social media

Social media is another factor that has contributed to the emergence of these proud, sensitive and highly individualistic young people by promoting the idea that "you can be anything you want". This phrase has encouraged young people to aspire to all sorts of things, but its promoters have neglected to specify the follow-up to this phrase "you can be anything you want, provided you work for it". Thus, we end up with an 'army' of self-confident young people with no objective basis. Increased self-esteem comes with a considerable number of often unrealistic expectations. For example, while in 2012 only about 20% of Americans were working in managerial fields (about the same as in the 1970s), 68% of young people said that after graduation they expected to work in this field, a supply three times greater than the existing market demand (Twenge, 2014, pp.91-92).

Technology, through social media, has been another factor that has profoundly influenced young people's attitudes and especially contributed to a decrease in their mental resilience. This has happened because through social media the image of life has been distorted. Photos posted by young people on social media sites perpetuate the image of an extraordinary life which influence the mental health of young people by increasing an inferiority complex. This complex can generate feelings of anxiety and depression because it creates the impression among young people that they do not fit in with the world they live in (Bellasié, 2018).

II. Secondary

i. Victimization - a new prefabricated identity?

Claire Fox talks in her book *I find that offensive* because in American universities and beyond, 'Generation Me' has created the premises for the emergence of a new censorship of free speech. Censorship arises out of the fear of offending someone by what you say or do. This censorship has gone beyond the 'borders' of universities to become a new social reality. In other words, such restrictions of freedom of expression have led to the emergence of a veritable offense industry. An important role in this industry is played by people who are allowed to speak, who do not risk being labelled offensive because they have a certain authority, one that Claire Fox calls 'toxic'. This authority belongs to people who claim to have been victims themselves: "I am a victim of sexual abuse. I'm allowed to talk about it." (Fox, 2016, p.24). Victimization thus becomes a method of accumulating sympathy, resources, or even power, by adopting a status of the oppressed "Fox observes how today's self-defined victims acquire a perverse authority by adopting an 'oppressed' status, to the point where even mild criticism of their beliefs can amount to hate speech, giving them or their beliefs a special immunity from criticism. (..) Thus, the legitimate progressive ideal of universal equal treatment has degenerated into victim privilege, and while past liberation struggles focused on uniting people across cultural, gender, ethnic

and religious boundaries, today's pseudo-progressives compete relentlessly to outdo each other for cultural recognition, using victimhood as a bargaining chip for resources and power (..) (Murray, 2017).

Claire Fox warns that the transformation of victimization into a valuable social asset has made young people in particular desperate to find it. Thus, she says, a new identity is emerging, a toxic one. In this regard she gives as an example the case of young people seeking compensation or reparations for times when their ancestors suffered (during slavery for example), to ease their own pain: an Irish friend of the author claimed that he was still suffering for his ancestors (who had been affected by the consequences of the British colonial famine) and that the only thing that could help him come to terms with the situation was an official apology (Fox, 2016, p.34). At Oxford University for example, more than 200 students were among the signatories of a petition demanding that the statue of Cecil Rhodes be moved because it was causing them distress, although the individuals concerned received a scholarship named after the figure (Ibid). The victimization syndrome is self-serving because it shows that the young people of the Snowflake generation "complain that they are victimized if you don't validate their subjective feelings and respect their pain. Many have observed that they behave like bullies, even though they consider themselves victims" (Ibid, p.117).

Victimization has therefore become in American universities a new type of prefabricated identity because through the media young people have been socialized to adopt and then practice this attitude. The concept of prefabricated identity belongs to Thomas Luckmann who considered it an effect of anticipatory socialization. He argues that anticipatory socialization is carried out in this case by a neutral socialising actor, namely the media. Through it, certain behavioral and personality patterns are transmitted, such as in this case victimization (Luckmann, 1983). Thus, "the media are the means by which macro-social phenomena become accessible to the individual". (Moisa-Jurcan, 1995, pp.152-153).

ii. Pessimism - a new social reality?

Lukianoff and Haidt argue that the "Snowflake Generation" has been taught to always look at the empty half of the glass, no matter what. In other words, they participate, often without realizing it, in a catastrophic process because of stories they heard as children. Thus, stories become a key agent of primary socialization. The authors therefore argue that a feature of modern society is the 'normalization of the hyperbole of catastrophe' (Fox, 2016, p.71), which has inevitably led to an increased need to feel safe. What is interesting here is that young people are characterized as vulnerable and helpless victims who are unhappy and unhealthy people. In other words, young people were taught and then encouraged to think of themselves as emotionally fragile. Thus, their lives are based on a culture of over-protection, which "routinely catastrophizes and pathologies both the social challenges and the state of mind of young people" (Ibid, p.77). In this unhealthy context, an entire generation has been "created" that believes it has both the right and the need to feel permanently safe.

iii. Child health and protection policies

The issue of the safety of these young people, which has become a leitmotif in modern societies, has created the opportunity for associations to turn fear into an everyday reality, which means that it has been reflected even in their eating habits: 'The snowflake generation were those children who were first subjected to the government's controversial 'fat charts', which involved mass weighing and measuring of pupils from the age of four'

(Ibid, pp.80-81). Because of these practices, messages such as 'be careful what you eat' emerged, but the subliminal message was 'be scared', 'be afraid' including what you eat.

According to Claire Fox, child protection policies have taken health policies to another level, one that is all the more dangerous because it has encouraged young people to see dangers everywhere around them: "(...) public health encourages children to worry, but it is the child protection industry that is inclining them toward paranoia. It has actively encouraged children to see potential abuse everywhere" (Ibid, p.83). Parents played a crucial role at this stage of their development because they managed this fear deficiently: '(...) if once, when children had nightmares, we told them not to worry; now we tell them that those nightmares are reality' (Ibid, p.86).

Another negative effect of child protection policies is the blurring of the line between physical and psychological harm (Ibid, p.87). This confusion has arisen because some charities have continually changed the definition of abuse and young people have lost the notion of real danger, i.e., the meaning of the terms. In other words, the "Snowflake Generation" confuses physical harm with emotional harm. The President of the Children and Youth Council of the US Local Government Association, Councillor David Simmonds, argues in this regard that: '(...) emotional abuse is currently the second most common category of recording for children in a child protection program' (Ibid, p.88).

Beyond this confusion in the use of the term, Claire Fox warns of a much more serious consequence of child protection: '(...) councils are close to encouraging children to interpret any act of parental discipline as harmful. Moray Council advises young people that emotional abuse is when someone 'yells at you' or 'tries to control you or pushes you too hard' - in other words, a direct demonstration of legitimate parental admonishment" (Ibid, p.89). Here, every parent in the world is guilty of being an emotional abuser. This is a very dangerous thing because it proves that words can now be harmful, and if they do harm, freedom of speech is on the way out.

It is clear from the above that a new obsession has emerged in modern societies, that of protecting your child to the point of diminishing his or her free will to the point of extinction. What started out as a natural and admirable thing has turned into fear on an institutionalized level because two of the most important institutions of any society, namely the family and school, in their partnership of educating young people, have taught them to fear, to be reserved and to constantly seek safe spaces. The problem is that once they have internalized this lesson, that the most important thing in their lives is safety, these young people, once they reach adulthood, cannot, or will not, or perhaps both, give it up.

iv. Anti-bullying industry

Anti-bullying plays an important role among the factors that have contributed to the emergence of this sensitive generation because it has extended the implications of censorship on free speech through the multitude of definitions that bullying has received over time, especially in the last 20 years. Thus, words are given increasing weight and attributed the power to create long-term negative effects. Bullying is according to Claire Fox "the bastard child of the child protection industry that has done the most damage because it has inoculated children with the idea that speech causes long-term damage (...)" (Ibid, p.91). In recent times the definition of this concept includes increasingly diverse actions of bullying, such as "exclusion from friendship groups" (Ibid, p.92), "exclusion from play or events and social networks" (Ibid), "name-calling" (Ibid, p.93), "insensitive jokes" (Ibid), even just "ignoring other children" (Ibid).

Claire Fox argues that the anti-bullying industry is a real "threat to young people's state of mind" (Ibid, pp.96-97) because it extends young people's anxiety into all spheres of life. The issue this raises is that beyond the educational environment, where pupils and students can be protected from bullying to some extent, bullying is also found in other spheres of life. When they are confronted with such situations and no one stands up for them, young people feel powerless, anxious, frustrated, precisely because their resilience despite life's problems has diminished. In other words, if school and family do not prepare them to face such challenges, these young people will find it very difficult to adapt to social realities. Israel Kalman criticizes traditional anti-bullying approaches and says "Children take their lives not because they are attacked by violent gangs with knives and guns, but because they cannot tolerate being insulted. And in schools, under the guidance of bullying experts who unwittingly encourage children to get angry at insults, the ending of the original slogan 'sticks and stones may break my bones, but words will never hurt me' has been replaced by 'but words can scare me forever' or even '... but words can kill me' (Ibid, pp.98-99). Anti-bullying campaigns do not have the desired effect of increasing young people's resilience to abuse of any kind, because they focus on young people's vulnerability and teach them that "they need psychological support to cope with challenges. This not only means that they will see themselves as victims, but also affects their psychological resilience" (Ibid, p.99).

v. Stress

Decreased resilience is directly proportional to the occurrence of stress. Given the declining resilience of young people, statistics showing that young people of this generation are highly stressed are not surprising. Stress in turn is linked by experts to mental illness. The latter has become such a serious problem in American universities that it has reached epidemic proportions. According to a survey conducted by the US National Student Union "80% of respondents said they had experienced mental health problems in the past year, and one-third admitted to having had suicidal thoughts" (Ibid, p.100). In other words, the college experience has become such a stressor that it has become a source of mental illness. Being so anxious, any minor inconvenience exacerbates this condition (Ibid, p.103). This is because "today's young adults have been coddled and educated to view every problem in therapeutic terms" (Ibid, p.104).

Dan Joes, director of counseling and psychological services at Appalachian University in North Carolina, said today's youth are not as resilient as previous generations. In other words, they no longer can self-soothe (Ibid), and this lack of autonomy could be the end of this generation's independence. Professor Frank Furedi stated in this regard that: "suffering is not an indicator of illness; it is an integral part of human existence. When the sense of suffering is medicalized, young people are prevented from developing their own ways of coping with painful experiences" (Furedi, 2015). It can be seen that when young people have been socialized to believe about themselves that they are fragile, that they are in constant need of safety, their resilience has been drastically diminished.

Furthermore, Claire Fox warns that when you are labeled mentally ill you must always rely on "external agencies to make you better" (Fox, 2016, p.115). This is dangerous because 'using encouraging young people to indulge in some form of victimization associated with being ill, leaves them with an excuse to avoid adult responsibilities. This leads to expectations of a life in which they are treated with kid gloves (...); to see (...) sympathy as a remedy; to see support and protection as end goals" (Ibid).

vi. Medicalization of the academic lexicon

The medicalization of the academic lexicon refers to the fact that certain medical terms have been taken up and used in discourse on American campuses. The most eloquent example of this is the concept of "trigger", which refers to something that reminds a person of a traumatic experience they have had in the past (Cambridge Dictionary, s.a.). The problem is that as the medical category of trigger warnings is accepted into the educational lexicon, young people are encouraged to be increasingly vulnerable. A new censorship of ideas is therefore emerging. Thus, great authors and their works risk being excluded from the curriculum so as not to trigger students' traumatic memories. Claire Fox gives the example of AQA, the UK's largest exam board, which in September 2015 removed Emil Durkheim's (one of the founders of sociology as a social science) study of suicide from the sociology syllabus. This work was removed because the author's ideas might have troubled some students (Fox, 2016, pp.109-110).

From this viewpoint, Claire Fox warns that the medicalization of the school curriculum, with the presumption that young people should be protected rather than stimulated to think, to understand certain concepts and problems, puts an end to the free process of teaching and learning. Therefore, the initiative to take a concept from one field and apply it in another, in the way it has been done, is anti-intellectual action and with important notes of infantilization (Ibid, p.111). When you are dealing with a mass of immature people the possibility that they will solve their own problems is increasingly reduced.

4. Conclusions

"Generation Me", "Snowflake", "Millennial", "Generation Y" or "Egocentric Generation" are those young people who were born between 1980 and 2000. Their main problematic traits are hypersensitivity, increased loneliness and a propensity to develop certain fears. When we talk about the causes that led to the genesis of this generation, we are looking at a patchwork of factors. The main contributors to the emergence of this generation are family, school and church, as well as time spent online. The family has played an important role in encouraging children to believe that they are the centre of the universe. Another reason why this institution played such an important part in this equation was the problematic way in which children were socialized. Parenting ("helicopter parents") completes this accumulation of factors because over-involvement of parents in children's lives has led to a slowing down of their maturation.

School, through the policies of the self-esteem movement, the socialization of young people in 'safe spaces', but also through school fees, has contributed to the genesis of the 'Me Generation' by emphasizing the "need for safety". This has led to the censorship of free speech for fear of offending someone and being labeled as a hate speech practitioner. The advent of "safe spaces" made students feel that the teaching-learning process is based on creating a comfortable space rather than on the accumulation of knowledge. Secondary factors, including victimization, pessimism, health and child protection policies, the anti-bullying industry, stress and the medicalization of the academic lexicon have enhanced the hypersensitivity of young people in all areas of social life through the direct effect they have had on their resilience, an effect that can be understood under its erosive action.

5. REFERENCES

1. Ashwini, A.K. (2017). Effect of Loneliness on Self Esteem of High School Boys and Girls. in *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, Vol. 5, No.1/2017.

2. Belassie, P. T. The Snowflake Debate. Available at: <https://thebadgeronline.com/2018/11/the-snowflake-debate/>.
3. Bronson, P. and Merryman, A. (2009). *Nurture shock: New thinking about children*. New York. NY: Twelve Publishing.
4. Cambridge English Dictionary. (s.a.). Trigger. Available at: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/trigger>.
5. Chapple, S. (2013). Child well-being and lone parenthood across the OECD. pp. 73–100, in A. M. Mínguez (Ed.), *Family well-being: European perspectives*, Springer, Available at: [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303129795_Child WellBeing and Lone Parenthood Across the OECD](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303129795_Child_WellBeing_and_Lone_Parenthood_Across_the_OECD).
6. Deci, L. E. and Ryan M. R. (2008). Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological well-being across life's domains. in *Canadian Psychology*, Vol. 49, No. 1/2008, pp.14-23.
7. Dunt, I. (2015): Feminist backlash against the censors shows tide turning in free speech debate". Available at: <https://www.politics.co.uk/blogs/2015/09/30/feminist-backlash-against-the-censors-shows-tide-turning-in>.
8. Fox, C. (2016). *I find that offensive*. London. Biteback Publishing.
9. Friedersdorf, Conor. (2015). The New Intolerance of Student Activism. A fight over Halloween costumes at Yale has devolved into an effort to censor dissenting views. Available at: <https://www.theatlantic.com/politics/archive/2015/11/the-new-intolerance-of-student-activism-at-yale/414810/>.
10. Fry, R. (2020). Millennials overtake Baby Boomers as America's largest generation. Available at: <https://www.pewresearch.org/facttank/2020/04/28/millennials-overtake-baby-boomers-as-americas-largest-generation/>.
11. Furedi, F. (2015). Trigger warnings are educational suicide. Taking Durkheim's Suicide out of schools is madness". Available at: <https://www.spiked-online.com/2015/06/29/trigger-warnings-are-educational-suicide/>.
12. Gheorghe, V. (2006). The Enchantment of the World or Why We No Longer Want to Part with Television". Vol. II. Bucharest. Prodromos Publishing House.
13. Grolnick, S. W., Ryan, M. R. (1989). Parent styles associated with children's self-regulation and competence in school. in *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 81. No. 2/1989. pp.143- 154. Available at: [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/232600848 Parent Styles Associated with Children%27s SelfRegulation and Compentence in School](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/232600848_Parent_Styles_Associated_with_Children%27s_SelfRegulation_and_Compentence_in_School).
14. Grolnick, S. W., Kurowski, O. C., Dunlap, G. K. and Hevey, C. (2000). Parental resources and the transition to junior high". in *Journal of Research on Adolescence*. Vol.10. No.4/2000. pp.465- 488.
15. Heinze, E. (2017). Are You Sitting Comfortably? Available at: https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3340086.
16. Hofer, K. B., Moore, S. A. (2010). *The iConnected Parent: Staying Close to Your Kids in College (and Beyond) While Letting Them Grow Up*. New York. NY: Free Press Publisher.

17. Hunt, J., (2008). Make room for daddy...and mommy: Helicopter parents are here! in *The Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education*. Vol. 4. pp.9-11.
Available at: https://www.jwpress.com/Journals/JAAHE/BackIssues/JAAHE_Spring-2008.pdf#page=17.
18. Kartman, A. (2021). The self-esteem movement and the unhappiness of a generation. Available at: <https://st.network/analysis/top/the-self-esteem-movement-and-the-unhappiness-of-a-generation.html>.
19. LeMoyne, T. and Buchanan, T. (2011). Does “hovering” matter? Helicopter parenting and its effect on well-being”. in *Sociological Spectrum*. Vol.31, No.4/2011, pp.399-418.
20. Levine, M. (2006). *The price of privilege. How Parental Pressure and Material Advantage are Creating a Generation of Disconnected and Unhappy Kids*. New York. NY: HarperCollins Publishers.
21. Luckmann, T. (1983). *Life-world and social realities*. London. Heinemann Publishing house.
22. Marano, E. H. (2008). *A nation of wimps: The high cost of invasive parenting*. New York. NY: The Crown Publishing Group.
23. Mîndruțescu, M. (2021). How Millennials are changing work culture and why they can afford. Available at: <https://panorama.ro/millennials-generatii-tineri-business-lucru-schimbare/>.
24. Moody, R. (2022). Screen Time Statistics: Average Screen Time in US vs. the rest of the world. Available at: <https://www.comparitech.com/tv-streaming/screen-time-statistics/>.
25. Moisa-Jurcan, A. C. (1995). Reprezentarea socială a tranziției în mediul studentesc. in *Studia Universitatis Babeș-Bolyai – Sociologia*. No.1-2/1995. pp.151-164. Available at: <https://www.cceol.com/search/viewpdf?id=212523>.
26. Murray, T. (2017). I Find That Offensive by Claire Fox. Terri Murray isn't offended by Claire Fox's book about the politics of being offended. Available at: https://philosophynow.org/issues/120/I_Find_That_Offensive_by_Claire_Fox.
27. National Institute of Statistics. (2011). "RPL 2011 – VOLUME I: STABLE (RESIDENT) POPULATION – DEMOGRAPHIC STRUCTURE. Tab.7. Population by age group and sex, by residence – categories of localities". Available at: <https://www.recensamantromania.ro/rpl-2011/rezultate-2011/>.
28. Neufeld, D. (2021). There are 1.8 billion millennials on earth. Here's where they live. Available at: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2021/11/millennials-world-regional-breakdown/>.
29. National Institute of Statistics. (2013). What does the 2011 census tell us about religion? Available at: https://insse.ro/cms/files/publicatii/pliante%20statistice/08-Recensamintele%20despre%20religie_n.pdf.
30. Pană, E. (2021). Countries with the most atheists - the state where almost 70% of the population has no God. Available at: <https://www.impact.ro/tarile-cu>

[cei-mai-multi-atei-statul-in-care-aproape-70-din-populatie-nu-are-niciun-dumnezeu-122732.html](#).

31. Pew Research Center. (2012). „Nones” on the Rise. Available at: <https://www.pewresearch.org/religion/2012/10/09/nones-on-the-rise/>.
32. Twenge J. M. (2014). *Generation Me: Why Today's Young Americans Are More Confident, Assertive, Entitled, And More Miserable Than Ever Before (revised and updated)*. New York. Aria Paperback. (e-book).

TRENDING PATTERN OF YOUTH VIOLENCE AND CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR ON RESIDENTS IN CROSS RIVER STATE NIGERIA: UNVEILING THE MYTH OR UNRAVELING THE MYSTERY

Kevin AKPANKE AKAN¹, Olawale James GBADEYAN², Monday Oriabure OJIEZELE³

¹Department of Criminology and Security Studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Email: kevin.akan@fuoye.edu.ng

²Department of Peace and Conflict Studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Email: Olawale.gbadeyan@fuoye.edu.ng

³Department of Criminology and Security Studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Email: monday.ojiezele@fuoye.edu.ng

Abstract: *Youth violence is one of the many problems facing the globe. The issue of youth violence has been declared as intolerable and catastrophic. The United Nations and the World Health organization have both agreed that effective planning and measures must be taken to guide and provide the youth a reasonable platform for a sustainable growth and development to take place. This study examined trending patterns of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, Nigeria. The paper adopted the Robert Agnew (1991) Strain and the Gary Becker (1976) Rational Choice theory as its undercurrent in explaining the problem under study. The theories suggest that youth violence and crime is highly related to strain resulting from unequal opportunities, as well as reinforcement and perceived rewards. The method of data collection were the quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (key informant interview). Eight hundred (800) Likert scale well-structured questionnaires were administered and retrieved while twelve (12) Key informant interviews were administered on participants. The quantitative instruments were analyzed with the aid of SPSS version 24 in simple percentages of column and rows while the KII were analyzed using manual content analysis and ethnographic summaries. The findings revealed that youth violence is inhuman, unprogressive, criminal and deadly. The study recommends an all-embracing-all-hand on deck approach, good government policies that will create employment, stabilize economy and enhance development as well as proper socialization and sensitization to correct and reduce the menace in Cross River State and beyond.*

Keywords: Trending, Patterns, Youth violence, crime, antisocial, deviant and criminal behaviour

1. Introduction

Youths in every continent of the world are seen as the future and engine room of the future. No reasonable country down play the role of the youths in nation building. Globally, the united nation action plan covers all categories of people but concentrate on the youth because the future belongs to them. The united nation action for youth has prepared a projective future into 2030 tagged "Youth and the 2030 agenda for sustainable development" all these efforts are geared ensuring that the future of the youth is safe and secured. In most developed countries of the world, development is planned and prepared with the youths in focus. The United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) has examined and proposed the mutually supportive roles of the new agenda and current youth development efforts. This is in consideration of how evidence based youth policies can help to speed up youth related aims as well as general growth and development in all spheres of life. The youth aged between 15-24 years account for

1.2million young people constituting 16 percent of the global population. This is not a negligible population coupled with their industry, energy, resources and as active architectures in in development as well as engaged themselves in the framework for the realization of full education, employment, health, gender equality and the fight against poverty, hunger, environmental problems and climate change (world youth report, 2020). It is conceived by the United Nations through the UN DESA that the focal point is aimed at building inclusive social development by creating an awareness of the global challenges of young people as well as promote their rights and dreams. No wonder the united nations have created various agencies like United Nations youth delegate programme, to support young people to be fully represented in governance and leadership, United Nations of youth network in Nigeria, which covers mainly all youth organizations in the Sub-Saharan Africa in geographical scope. The world federation of united nation association (WFUNA) youth network is of the opinion that youth as a civil society has the power and mandate to inject or effect positive change in the society if well guided and negative change if not well guarded World youth report, 2020).

The World Health Organization (WHO, 2020) opined that youth violence is one of the many social ill confronting the globe. It further states that youth violence constitutes a public health challenges like bullying, verbal, physical and sexual assault. It argued that about 200,000 cases of homicides occur among youth between 10-29 years of age each year accounting for about 42% of the global homicide yearly. For one young person killed several other get injured. A study revealed about 2-23% of women report that their first sex was forced; this indicates a high prevalence of violence. Apart from fatalities, youth violence has a high tendency of lasting impact on one`s physical, psychological and social functioning.

2. Statement of the problem

It is estimated that 200,000 youth violence crime of fighting takes place yearly within youth of 10-29 years accounting for the fourth leading causes of death for persons within that age bracket. Its rate is staggering and varies from one country to another. While it is on record that 84% of homicide victims are males, most offender or violators are also males. It suggests that between the year 2000-2016 homicides cases has decreased relatively higher in high income countries than in low income countries. The number of injured persons always outweighs the number of those killed meaning that most suffer temporary or permanent injuries that may require a long or short stay at the hospital. All these impact negatively of the country`s budget and socio-economic development. There is likelihood that homicides weapons are firearms, knives, feets, fists and other sharp and blunt objects. The spate of sexual violence also grossly affects a large number of young people. For instance, one out of every eight people has witnessed sexual violence or abuse of one kind or another. Bullying and assault are common cases among youths in all countries of the world. A study of 40 developing countries in which Nigeria is part of revealed that an average of 42% victims were boys and 37% victims were girls who have been exposed to bullying of one kind or another. Youth violence occurs in form of fatal and non-fatal violence. In as much as the fatal violence leads to adolescent and early youthful death, no-fatal violence account for permanent injuries which always impact on the victim`s physical, psychological and social life. It also have a way on affecting the victim`s family, friends and the society`s wellbeing in general. It also has a way of affecting the cost of Medicare, welfare and the criminal justice system expenditure as well as reduces productivity, quality service delivery and undervalues assets and properties.

Globally America and Europe in countries like USA, Columbia, Russia, Mexico, Italy, England account for the highest number of youth violence, followed by African continents with countries like Nigeria, Somalia, Cameroun, Sudan, Algeria, Namibia. In Asian continent and Asian continents wit countries like China, Brazil, Korea and India are in the forefront. The Artic and Antarctica are said to have relatively low rates of homicides (world youth report, 2020).

In Nigeria, youth violence has manifested itself in street fighting, political thuggery, cultism, armed robbery, kidnapping and vandalism. This has cost the country fortune and has been found to be one of the major causes of the slow pace of development in the country. Apart for wars, religious, ethnic and political/ideological conflicts have created tension for over two decades. The current Boko haram insurgency, Herdsmen attack, and Niger delta militancy are wrecking-havoc in the country leading to unquantifiable loss. The just concluded Endsars and Revolution Now protest claimed several lives and caused a lot of injuries among the youth. The regional youth vanguard in the country like Movement for the sovereign state of Biafra, Independent people of Biafra, Ijaw youth Movement, Niger Delta avengers, Movement for the Emancipation of Ogoni People, Tiv Youth Movement and others have continued to unleash mayhem leading to loss of scores of lives and properties. In Cross River State, the Akpabuyo boys street violence and touting, Bakkassi youths street fighting, sea pirates and kidnapping; the Calabar Area Boys street fighting, touting, robbery, kidnapping and bullying, Skolombo boys, ID boys and Skylow boys street fighting, touting, intimidation, kidnapping, armed robbery and street blockade all started as street touts and metamorphose into a cult group; the odukpani youth street fighting and street touting as well as the Dansuki boys of Akamkpa Local government Area street fighting, intimidation, bullying and political thuggery are typical in Southern senatorial district; the Ugep, Obubra, Ikom, Etung and Boki Local government Area boys fracas, street touting, kidnapping, political thuggery and incessant wars are very common sights in central senatorial district and in Northern senatorial district, the Agaba boys, area boys and street gang fighting, blockade, touting, automobile snatching, kidnapping, stealing, killings, armed and robbery are visible in the streets of Obudu, Ogoja, Obanliku, Bekwarra and Yala Local Government Area. There are shades of other spates of violence exhibited amongst the various cult groups scattered across the state. This cults groups mostly engaged in armed robbery, kidnapping, street fighting, political thuggery and vandalism and these has made life difficult and terrible for people resident in the state. Odok, (2021), Ukorobi (2020) and Agba (2020) reporters of various online newspapers have continuously asserted that youth violence in Cross River state especially in the urban centres of calabar, Ugep, Ikom, Calabar, Ogoja and Obudu is alarming and on the rise. These spates of violence experienced in the state necessitated this study on trending pattern of youth violence and criminal behaviour on residents in Cross river state: to unravel the mystery.

3. Research questions

The study poses the following questions to gain direction

1. What are the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State?
2. What are the trends/techniques of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State?
3. What are the patterns of youth violence and criminal behaviour exhibited on residents in Cross River State?

4. What are the effects of youth of violence and criminal behaviour on residents in Cross River State?

5. What are the possible ways of ameliorating youth violence and criminal behaviour on residents in Cross River State?

4. Theoretical framework

Strain Theory (1991) and Rational Choice Theory (1978) were used as the live wire to explain the trending patterns of youth violence and crime in Cross River State, Nigeria.

For most contemporary Sociologists and Criminologists Robert K. Merton's (1968) Anomie theory and Robert Agnew's (1991) General Strain Theory are synonymous and can conveniently replace themselves. However, Merton's (1968) Anomie theory and Agnew's (1991) General Strain theory have a lot in common but are not exactly the same. Strain theory emanates from the Anomie theory and it was rebranded and expanded to have more capacity to explain various kinds of crime. Agnew believed that, failure to achieve goals through conventional institutionalized means may not be the only reason why people commit crime. To Agnew, people may choose to indulge in crime due of frustration, aggression, and deprivation and so forth. He argued that strain producing circumstance manifest in threefold: firstly, he talked about the failure of an individual to achieve society's set cultural goals through institutionalized means as captured by Merton in Anomie. Secondly, strain can occur due to the removal of positive stimuli from a person eg the death of a loved one, termination of love-relationship or the loss of a job and seeking of revenge. Thirdly the presence of negative stimuli can also cause strain. For example bad experiences like victims of rape, victim of crime, child abuse, peer pressure problems. Most often the person or victim who faces negative stimuli and have experienced strain may be force to respond to these situations by either staying away, solving the puzzle or taking revenge, he or she may develop anger, fear and or depression. Agnew postulated further that while anger pushes one to violence and crime, it is not all people who get angry that respond in a violent or negative way. These people have different temperament, while some can effectively use their rationalization mechanism of "I don't really need to fight" to get out of the situation, others use physical relief tools like "walking away" from the situation.

To general strain theory, life experiences will always throw tantrums and one's ability to cope with stressors on the basis of temperament, attitudes, beliefs and peers management determinant one's involvement or avoidance of crime.

Youths in Cross River State suffer from deprivation of good governance, an equal unemployment opportunity, absence of better livelihood, oppression and intimidation from the rich elites and are frustrated which results to strain. Their violent behaviour is a response to the prevailing circumstances and stressors they face. Hence, kidnapping, cultism, political thuggery, street crimes and armed robbery are some of the patterns of crime they have adopted to showcase their rebellion and revenge on the society that took so much from them.

This theory is used because of its ability to explain a wide range of crimes committed by youths and its ability to cover all classes of people in the crime scene.

Gary Becker (1977) Rational Choice theory is derived from Adam Smith view of rational market choices is premised on the classical school of criminology free will determinism and hedonism of man. The theory holds that crime is an option in a choice amongst other choices. The theory believes that man is free to choice whatever he wants and because of his hedonism (pleasure seeking and pain avoiding nature, he will always

choice pleasure against pain and profit against losses. He is of the opinion that every business man rationalizes his choices to before dabbling into any kind of business. If he perceived failure and losses such business man will not get into that business, but if the reverse is the case, he will most likely indulge in the business. To Gary Becker and his cohorts in this line of thought, crime is a choice derivable from the measurement and evaluation of the perceived gain and losses as well as pain and pleasure. Whoever indulges in crime does so because of the perceived gain and expected profit and he would have weighed the consequences to be less injuries than the gain and profit.

The youth in Cross River State are engaging in crime as a form of business venture where they are sure of the perceived profit and gain having taken or an impact assessment to decipher their losses. These youths claim that bad leadership, poverty, unemployment, deprivation and unequal life and socio-economic opportunities are responsible for their involvement in crime but crime to this school of thought is a function of calculation and rationalization of choices. This theory has been used because of its ability and capacity to effectively explain why youth in Cross River State engaged in violence and crime.

5. Methodology

This study employed the descriptive research design. The study was conducted in Cross River State. The population of the study comprises of all the youth between the ages of 18-35years in Cross River State who formed the respondents for the questionnaire instrument. It made use of cluster sampling in selecting, local government areas and wards while simple random technique was used in selecting the respondents. The participants for the KII were selected purposively. It triangulated quantitative and qualitative method in administering five (5) item Likert scale structured questionnaire to eight hundred (800) respondents and 12 key informant. The key informant interview was administered on three (3) youth leaders, three (3) security personnel, three (3) Law makers and three (3) parents, making a total of twelve (12) participants where are knowledgeable on crime in Cross River State. The questionnaire instrument was imputed into the SPSS version 24 and analyzed using simple percentages in tables of columns and rows. The qualitative instrument Key Informant Interview (KII) was analyzed through manual content analysis and ethnographic summaries.

6. Data presentation and discussion of findings

Table I: Causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in CRS Nigeria

Causes	A	SA	D	SD	UN
Unemployment	362(45.3%)	286(35.8%)	73(9.1%)	79(9.8%)	
Poverty	246(30.8%)	212(26.5%)	118(14.7%)	224(28.0%)	
Poor socialization	316(39.5%)	273(34.1%)	158(19.8%)	53(6.6%)	
Revenge	326(40.7%)	248(31.0%)	211(26.4%)	15(1.9%)	
Bad government policy	288(36.0%)	249(31.1%)	153(19.1%)	110(13.8%)	
Media content exposure	317(39.6%)	219(27.4)	168(21.0%)	96(12.0%)	
Mental illness	214(26.8%)	118(14.8%)	315(39.3%)	153(19.1%)	
Peer pressure	284(35.5%)	239(29.9%)	147(18.4%)	130(16.2%)	
Moral decadence	341(42.6%)	276(34.5%)	84(10.5%)	99(12.4%)	
Get rich quick syndrome	219(27.4%)	302(37.8%)	126(15.7%)	153(19.1%)	
Substance use	214(26.7%)	344(43.0%)	118(14.8%)	124(15.5%)	

Source: Field work, 2021.

The table above examined the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, Nigeria. The result showed that 648(61.1%) agreed that bad government policies is being responsible while the remaining 152(38.4%) disagreed. This means that unemployment causes youth violence and criminal behaviour among youths in Cross River State Nigeria. 458(57.2%) respondents agree, 342(42.8%) disagree that poverty causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour. From this finding it means that poverty is a causative factor of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. The finding from 800 respondents showed that 589(73.6%) agreed that poor socialization is one of the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, only 211(26.4%) disagree. From the above result it means that poor socialization causes violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. Out of the 800 responses received on whether the quest for revenge cause youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, 574(71.8%) agree while the remaining 226(28.2%) disagree. This result is an indication that quest for revenge enhances youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. While 537(67.1%) respondents accepted bad government policy causes youth violence and criminal behaviour, the remaining 263(32.9%) disagree that it does not. This result revealed that bad government policy is one of the many causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, Nigeria. With 800 responses received, 536 (67.0%) agree that media content exposure causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross river State, Nigeria but 264(33.0%) disagree. This finding above proved that exposure to media content is causative factor of both youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, Nigeria. 332(41.5%) respondents said mental illness is one of the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State but 468(58.5%) disagree. This shows that mental illness is not one of the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. While 523(65.4%) said peer pressure causes youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State Nigeria 277(34.6%) disagree. This result indicated that peer pressure causes youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, Nigeria. 617(77.1%) agreed, 183(22.9%) disagree that moral decadence is the cause of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. This result only showed that moral decadence is one of the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. Respondents with 521(65.1%) said get rich quick syndrome is the cause of youth violence and crime in Cross River State while 279(34.9%) disagree with the view. This result proved that get rich quick syndrome accounts for youth violence and crime in Cross River State. 558(69.8%) respondents agree that substance is responsible for youth violence and crime in Cross River State but 242(30.2%) of them disagree. This result means that substance use causes youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. From the findings above, the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State Nigeria are unemployment, poverty, poor socialization, quest for revenge, bad government policy, media content exposure, peer pressure; moral decadence, get rich quick syndrome and substance use.

Findings from the KII revealed that, the causes of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State are unemployment, poor socialization, poverty, dissatisfaction with government policies, revenge, media exposure, mental illness, peer group pressure, moral decadence, get rich quick syndrome, drug and alcohol use. These findings confirmed the results from Quantitative data.

Table II: Patterns of youth violence and crime in Cross River State, Nigeria

Patterns of youth violence/crime	A	SA	D	SD
Bullying	308(38.5%)	321(40.1%)	81(10.2%)	90(11.2%)
Kidnapping	432(54.0%)	312(39.0%)	24(3.0%)	32(4.0%)
Cultism	374(46.8%)	268(33.5%)	68(8.5%)	90(11.2%)
Political thuggery	382(47.8%)	246(30.8%)	89(11.1%)	83(10.3%)
Street fighting	401(50.1%)	323(40.4%)	31(3.9%)	45(5.6%)
Armed robbery	389(48.6%)	274(34.2)	39(4.9%)	98(12.3%)

Source: Field work, 2021

This table seeks to explore the patterns of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, Nigeria. 629(78.6%) agree while the remaining 171(21.4%) disagree that bully is one of the patterns employed in carrying out youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. The finding is clear that bullying is one of the patterns. While 744(93.0%) agree that kidnapping is one of the patterns adopted in carryout youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, 56(7.0%) disagree. This goes to say that kidnapping is one of the many patterns. Out of 800 respondents, 642(80.2%) agree that cultism is one of the patterns of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State but 158(19.8%) disagree that political thuggery is a pattern used to carry out youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. The result indicates that cultism is one of the many patterns used in perpetuating violence and crime. 628(78.5%) agree while (21.5%) disagree. This result showed that political thuggery is a pattern used to carry out youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. A response of 724(90.5%) were in support that street fighting is one of the patterns of carrying out youth violence and crime in Cross River State while only 76(9.5%) disagree. This result is an indication that street fighting is one of the patterns of carrying out youth violence and crime in Cross River State. A total of 663(82.9%) agree while 137(17.1%) disagree that armed robbery is one of the patterns of youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. This result showed that armed robbery is one of the patterns adopted in carrying out youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state.

With these finding above, it is clear that the patterns used in perpetuating youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State are bullying, kidnapping, cultism; political thuggery, street fighting and armed robbery.

The KII findings revealed that the patterns of youth violence and crime in cross River State are bullying, kidnapping, cultism, political thuggery; street fighting, armed robbery. This goes to confirm the results from the quantitative data. This finding merely confirms and complements the quantitative data result.

Table III: Trend/techniques of youth violence and criminal behaviour in CRS Nigeria

Techniques	A	SA	D	SD
Use of force	321(40.1%)	462(57.8%)	3(0.3%)	14(1.8%)
Intimidation	268(33.5%)	324(40.5%)	72(9.0%)	136(17.0%)
Luring	291(36.4%)	412(51.5%)	69(8.6%)	28(3.5%)
Laying of ambush	267(33.4%)	354(44.2%)	113(14.1%)	66(8.3%)
Setting of traps/trick	344(43.0%)	231(28.9%)	101(12.6%)	124(15.5%)
Breaking and entry	293(36.6%)	289(36.1)	64(8.0%)	154(19.3%)

Source: Field work, 2021.

The table examined the trends/techniques of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. The result showed that an overwhelming 783(97.9%) respondents agree while a negligible few, 17(2.1%) is in disagreement that perpetrator use force to accomplish their act. This result is an indication that that perpetrator use force to accomplish their act. 592(74.0%) agree but 208(26.0%) disagree that intimidation is one of the trends or techniques employed to execute youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross river State. this result revealed that intimidation technique is employed to carry out youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. It was gathered from a whopping 703(87.9%) responses that luring is a trend used in committing youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state but 97(12.1%) disagree. This result showed that it is. 621(77.6%) agreed that laying of ambush is the trick used to commit youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross river State. However, 179(22.3%) of the respondents disagree. This result indicates that perpetrators lay ambush to carry out their nefarious acts. Majority of the respondents 575(71.9%) agree while 225(28.1%) disagree that setting of traps/trick is used to commit youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. this finding showed that setting of traps is used to trick victims into their net. While 582(72.8%) are of the view that perpetrators' use breaking and entry technique to invade their victim's homes; 218 (27.2%) are against the view. This result showed that perpetrators' use breaking and entry technique to invade their victim`s home.

The finding the above indicated the trend/techniques used to carryout youth violence and criminal behaviour are the use of force, intimidation, luring; laying of ambush, setting of trap/trick as well as breaking and entry.

KII participants were of the opinion that trends of youth violence and crime in Cross River State involves techniques like laying of ambush, setting of traps, intimidation, use of force, luring and breaking and entry. This finding confirmed the result from quantitative data.

Table IV: Consequences of youth violence and crime on residents in CRS Nigeria

Consequences	A	SA	D	SD	UN
Disruption of peace	309(38.6%)	386(48.2%)	39(4.9%)	66(8.3%)	
Injuries	288(36.0%)	341(42.6%)	91(11.4%)	80(10.0%)	
Debt/financial problems	391(48.9%)	247(30.9%)	99(12.3%)	63(4.5%)	
Leads to death	306(38.2%)	407(50.9%)	46(5.8%)	41(5.1%)	
Imprisonment	321(40.1%)	438(54.8%)	13(1.6%)	28(3.5%)	
Impedes development	473(59.1%)	301(37.6)	17(2.1%)	9(1.2%)	
Waste of funds to fight crime	319(39.8%)	400(50.0%)	14(1.4%)	67(8.4%)	
Vandalism	393(55.5%)	343(29.8%)	15(18.3%)	49(16.2%)	
Health challenges	341(42.6%)	276(34.5%)	84(10.5%)	99(12.4%)	
Scare investors	379(47.3%)	302(37.8%)	66(8.3%)	53(6.6%)	
Kills social life	214(26.8%)	344(43.0%)	118(14.7%)	124(15.5%)	

Source: Field work, 2021.

This table examined the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour on residents in Cross River State. The result showed that, disruption of peace has 695(86.9%) agreed against 105(13.1%) disagree. This result proved that disruption of peace is one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. 629(78.6%) responses were received in favour of injuries being a consequence of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State while 171(21.4%) were against. This means that incurring injuries being a consequence of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. Debt and financial problem as a consequence of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State had an agreed responses of 638(79.8%) while 162(20.2%) disagree. This implies that debt and financial problem is one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. 713(89.1%) agree that death is one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour in cross River State, only 87(87.0%) respondents disagree that it is not. This finding proved that it is. 759(94.9%) agree while 41(5.1%) disagree that imprisonment is a consequence of youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. A whopping 774(96.8%) said one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State is that, it impedes development while a negligible 26(3.2%) said it does not. This result has shown that it does.it was reported by 719(89.9%) agree that one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour is that, it waste of public funds to fight crime in the state while 81(10.1%) disagree. This means that wastage of public fund to fight crime is one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. 736(92.0%) agree that vandalism is a consequence of youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state but 64(8.0%) disagree. This result indicates that vandalization of public properties is a consequence of youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. 617(77.1%) agree that one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour is that, it leads to health challenges. This means that health challenges arises from indulging in youth violence and criminal behaviour in the state. Out of 800 respondents 681(85.1

agree that youth violence and criminal behaviour scare investors while only a few, 119(14.9%) said it does not. This result proved that it does scare investors. While 558(69.8%) agree that one of the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour is that, it kills social life in the state, 242(30.2%) disagree that it does not. This result is an indication that youth violence and criminal behaviour kills social life in the state.

From the above findings, it is glaring that the consequences of engaging in youth violence and criminal behaviour is disruption of peace, leads to injuries, leads to debt/financial problem. It also leads to death and imprisonment. It impedes development, leads to wastage of funds to fight crime, leads to vandalism and health challenges. It also scares investors and kills social life in the state.

The KII finding of the view that that the consequences of youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State is that, it scares investors, affect social life, impedes development, leads to wastage of funds leads to debt, injuries and disrupt peace. This finding is in support of the quantitative data result.

Table V: Effective remedy to youth violence and crime in CRS Nigeria

Effective remedy	A	SA	D	SD
Job creation	288(36.0%)	264(33.0%)	146(18.2%)	84(10.5%)
Provision of soft loans	302(37.7%)	299(37.3%)	104(13.0%)	95(11.8%)
Provision of grants	232(29.0%)	314(39.2%)	133(16.6%)	121(15.1%)
Skill acquisition scheme	228(28.5%)	296(37.0%)	162(20.2%)	114(14.2%)
Entrepreneurship support	233(29.1%)	291(36.3%)	132(16.5%)	144(18.0%)
Family/friends support	331(43.8%)	257(32.1)	91(11.3%)	121(15.1%)
Punishment/correction	502(62.8%)	268(33.5%)	19(2.4%)	11(1.3%)
Effective policing	291(36.3%)	374(46.8%)	83(10.4%)	52(6.5%)

Source: Field work, 2021.

This table examined the effective remedy to youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State and the finding is presented thus: 552(69.0%) respondents agree while 248(31.0%) disagree that job creation is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. Out of 800 responses received 601(75.1%) agree that provision of soft loans to youth is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State and 199(24.9%) disagree. This result proved that provision of soft loans to youth is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. While 564(70.5%) agree that provision of grants to youth will remedy youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State, 236(29.5%) disagree. This is an indication that provision of grants is one of the effective remedies to youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. It was gathered from 524(65.5%) responses that skill acquisition scheme is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. While 276(34.5%) disagree. This result proved that skill acquisition scheme is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. Entrepreneurship support as a remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River has 524(65.5%) agreement with 276(34.5%) disagreement. This finding means that entrepreneurship support is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. Out of 800 respondents, 588(73.5%) agree while 212(26.5%) disagree that family/friends support is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. This result showed that family/friend support

is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. An overwhelming 770(96.2%) agree and advocated for imprisonment/correction as a remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour only 30(3.8%) refused or disagree that imprisonment/correction is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. This result is an indication that imprisonment is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State. A whopping 694(86.8%) rooted support for effective policing as remedy for youth violence and crime in Cross River state while a negligible 106(13.2%) were against that view. This result is in favour of those who agree that effective policing is an effective remedy for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State.

Considering the findings from the above, it is evident that the effective panacea to youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State are job creation, provision of soft loans, provision of grants; skill acquisition, entrepreneurship support/ family/friends support; punishment/correction and effective policing are some of the most effective remedies for youth violence and criminal behaviour in Cross River State.

The findings from KII showed that the solution to the problem of youth violence and crime are correction/punishment of offenders, job creation, skill acquisition, provision of loans, provision of grants, prudence/saving, family support and entrepreneurship development scheme. This finding is in line with that of the quantitative data.

7. Conclusion

The findings revealed that youth violence is inhuman, unprogressive, criminal in nature and deadly. Thus, should be frowned at and discouraged through all possible means to provide an enabling environment for peace and development to thrive.

8. Recommendations

The study recommends an all-embracing-all-hand on deck approach; this will go a long way to reduce the phenomenon in the state and beyond.

- It calls for good government policies that will create employment, stabilize economy and enhance development: This will keep the youth engaged and busy thus, reduce violence and crime in the state.

- Joint effort between government, communities and NGOs should sue for value reorientation: This will bring about positive change and instill good morals on the youth.

- Proper socialization and sensitization of the youth on the dangers of engaging in violence and crime, to correct and reduce the menace in Cross River State and beyond.

References

1. Agba, J. (2019). The Politics of job creation in Cross River State: Cross River Watch News . An online article 2 (4) 1-3.
2. Agba, J. (2020). Incidence of violent crime in Cross River State; the way to follow. Cross River Watch News . An online article 8 (1) 12-13.
3. Agnew R. (1991) Foundation for a general strain theory of crime and delinquency. *Criminology* 30 (1), 47–88.
4. Becker, G. (1977); *The Economic Approach to Human Behavior*, Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, pp. 3-14.
5. Epelle, A. (2010). *Taming the monster: critical issues in Arresting the orgy of youth restiveness in the Niger Delta region on Nigeria*. Asaba: Sammie publishers.
6. Ikwuba, A.A (2015) *A Guide to Research Format in Sociology: A`BEE Ventures*, Makurdi.

7. Merton, R. K. (1938). "Social Structure and Anomie." *American Sociological Review* 3:672-82.
8. Mukoro, A.S (2016). *Infrastructural vandalism in Nigerian cities: research on humanities and social sciences* 4(3).
9. National Bureau of Statistics (2017). *Youth unemployment in Nigeria*. Abuja, Nigeria: Government Press.
10. National Population Commission, (2017). *Annual census report*. Abuja, Nigeria: Government press.
11. Odok, G (2021). Police Nab 10 suspects in Calabar. News Agency of Nigeria report.
12. United Nations (2015). Report from United Nations Sustainable development summit of 2015. Washington DC. UNFPA press.
13. World Youth report (2020) Youth solution Report. Sustainable Development Solutions Network - Youth, New York.
<https://www.undp.org/sites/g/files/zskgke326/files/publications/UNDP-RBAP-SDSN-joint-report-Youth-Solutions-Report-2020.pdf>

GENDER, CITIZENSHIP AND PEASANT RESPONSES TO LAND GOVERNANCE IN CAMEROON: STATUS OF FORCE POWERS

Yves ESSENGUE

^a PhD student of Economics and Socials History of History department.
University of Yaoundé I(Cameroun)
Email: yvesessengue@gmail.com

Abstract: *At the borders of the Sudanese and Bantu civilizations, Cameroon offers the observer the spectacle of an extraordinary mixture of diversity: ethnic groups, traditions and customs, the pact of its cultural legal foundation. However, since the 1990s, with the aim of bringing the populations closer to the decision-making centers and involving them in the management of public affairs and resources by means of decentralization, which is a mode of development of the structures of the administration in which a legal personality is conferred on communities of interest or public services. Decision-making power is exercised by bodies acting under a control of simple legality. In its implementation, decentralization has two fundamental aspects: one technical and the other territorial. In the latter case, it necessarily results in taking into account a specifically patio-geographical interest: it therefore has a territorial base, one material element of which is land or land. The term land refers to everything that is directly or indirectly related to the land (soil, forest, wildlife, water, etc.) and to the relationships between people around the land. Moreover, decentralization aims for a better involvement of women in policies to fight against poverty by promoting their civic participation. Citizenship taken from this perspective refers to: "Belonging to a group or community, as well as the rights and duties associated with it. It is not simply a status conferring rights and obligations but also a practice allowing individuals to take part in the construction of their societies. Citizenship is based on principles of equality in access to well-being for each individual without distinction of social categories. However, the objective of equity through active and participatory citizenship of all sections of the population, particularly women, young people and the excluded in general, remains very weakly taken into account. Gender remains a component that is only added in the discourse. One of the postulates within the framework of this research is that the mechanisms and laws in force in the field of land and natural resource management, in a context of decentralization, have not led to access, gender-equitable control and participation in local communities. Thus, on the basis of a multidisciplinary methodology, a theory focused on local development and an abundance of sources made: archival notes, works, memoirs, theses, articles, decrees, laws, and newspaper clippings. This article introduces gender analysis on the impact of social gender relations and questions the way in which status and social roles are determined by belonging to a given sex.*

Keywords: mine; forest; gender; natural resources; East Cameroon

1. Introduction

Ethnologists readily affirm that the African land, because of its sacred character, is not susceptible to individual appropriation. The soil appears, they say, as a usufruct entrusted to men by the deities Aïdara (2006:17). This general pattern does not seem perfectly applicable to Cameroon. Indeed, the sanctity of the soil is not affirmed there as generally as it is in other parts of Africa; moreover, according to their oldest customs, certain peoples have private property. It remains true, however, that the classical African conceptions find their application in what is said to be "my land, my life". This assertion carries with it all the importance of the earth in human existence. Source of life and

security, instrument of development, Alliot (1964:98) the earth is in its original conception stamped with the seal of sacralization; we therefore understand the attachment of man to the earth. If there is a region of the world where the relationship between man and land is decisive, it is certainly Africa. A region plagued by poverty, the marginalization of gender in the land domain and the challenges of its influence on the world stage. Mastering the relationship between man and the land is fundamentally resolved into an essential question for African countries: how to ensure that land development efforts contribute to the development of communities and countries and are not a source of threats for the future? According to the report on long-term perspective studies in West Africa, to answer this question, two major challenges must be met, namely; the densification of the rural space ILO (1889: 66) due to population growth which requires a change in technique and then the connection to the market which requires changing the products and the rationality of production. The place of gender in land law and the resolution of this question are essential and have been highlighted on many occasions. In a research paper on food security for the benefit of the World Agriculture Organization (FAO), it was also stated that: "problems related to land and agricultural development in French-speaking African countries are in the final analysis dependent on legal solutions in matters (ILO: 1889) of equality between men and women on land.

1. Gender and land rights in Cameroon

At the origin of the Senegalese land system is a set of very diverse and complex facts and practices called customs, referring to the Negro-African conception of land. Possession of the land stemmed from the first occupation following the delimitation of a perimeter by fire (right of fire) or clearing (right of ax) according to customs.

1.1. The social foundations of land law in a gender context in Cameroon

The effective granting of land rights to women is one of the most difficult challenges facing the contemporary world. One of the difficulties in developing effective legislation and policies on land rights is the multiplicity and complexity of access routes to land as well as the significant gap often observed NONO (2011: 17) between the provisions of the law and the reality of women's lives. Member States and the international community have agreed on a series of commitments in favor of granting security of tenure. There is indeed a political momentum and consensus in favor of promoting women's tenure security for equal rights to land, property and inheritance that manifests itself through Yeboah (2008: 27) a set of standards relating to fundamental rights. This is the case most recently, through the Millennium Development Goals and the 2005 World Summit Outcome, which see women's land, property and inheritance rights as an important indicator of women's empowerment and Human Development. However, the battle is far from won in Senegal given the complexity of the issue. Indeed, the land issue was one of the most delicate issues that Senegal had to face at the time of Independence. The National Domain Law of 1974 was enacted to remove the tensions and conflicts arising from the coexistence of modern law introduced by the colonizer and a traditional land tenure system in which land is an inalienable and collective heritage. The "theoretical and declared" objective of the Law on the National Domain (LDN) of 1974 was to eliminate this duality and to guarantee the rural masses access to land (Decree 74/3 of July 27, 1974). The essential element of this law was the creation of a national domain covering almost the entire territory. By the force of this law, the land has become in Cameroon, a common heritage which no one can appropriate except the State according to the guarantees of the power of the legislation in the matter.

This law was enacted to establish an economic and social development framework centered on grassroots development strategies, whether community or individual. This last aspect was "theoretically and on paper" the most important insofar as it aimed at the economic and social promotion of the rural population, the most numerous and the most deprived national stratum. The national domain was, however, a fight far from being won in Cameroon given the complexity of the issue. Indeed, the land issue was one of the most delicate issues that Cameroon had to face at the time of its independence and continues to be the major concern of social justice ILO (2003). The National Domain Law of 1974 was enacted to remove the tensions and conflicts arising from the coexistence of a modern law introduced by the colonizer and a traditional land tenure system in which land is an inalienable and collective heritage. The "theoretical and declared" objective of the National Domain Law (LDN) of 1974 was to remove this duality and guarantee the rural masses access to land. The essential element of this law was the creation of a national domain covering almost the entire territory. By the prerogatives of this law, land should no longer be a grab in Cameroon by male hegemony, but a common right whose ownership no one can legitimize as a third party. This law was then to put in place a framework for social growth, economic and cultural development centered on gender promotion systems, whether they are an inheritance or a legacy. The national domain was designed to link people to the land and slow down the rural exodus, with the dominant vocation more the stabilization of populations in rural areas, than the modernization of agriculture or the intention to carry out a reform agrarian NONO (2011).

1.2. Customary land rights

It has been reported among various African peoples the existence of the "Master of the Earth", a character of a religious nature, responsible for rendering a true cult to the nourishing earth. The "Master of the Earth" often belongs to a race that has long been established in the country. The conquerors do not normally give him special consideration; but autochthonous or supposed to be so, son of the soil, in a way, he is the obligatory intermediary between men and the earth Binet (1951: 11). To his priestly role are added legal functions. It has been noted in various parts of Africa that it is competent to settle land disputes, to grant fields to those who need them... Nothing so precise seems to have been found among the tribes with which we are concerned. Perhaps the extraordinary mixing of the Cameroonian populations explains the absence of this institution. Note, however, that Mr. Mouchet reported the existence of a "Rain Chief" in the Mokolo region in northern Cameroon. Indeed, on the Bamiléké plateau, the lands of the tribe are bounded by basalt prisms (mola). These basalt prisms appear 'in the chiefdoms; they have a sacred meaning; they replace the skulls of the ancestors! Which could not be preserved? It is not forbidden to think that they come from an earlier culture and that they are closely related to the beliefs of the ancient holders of the land. Their number is indeed generally much higher than that of the known ancestors of the current chiefs. I believe it is worth pointing out this use of the skulls of the ancestors, represented by basalts, to mark the borders of tribal land. It seems that one can, without soliciting the texts, think that there is certain confusion between the land of the ancestors and the ancestors themselves.

Among the Bakoko, for example, the idea of individual appropriation did not even arise: the land belonged to the "Ngué", an underground genius. This conception of a sacred ground would make it possible to explain certain difficult to interpret aspects Binet (1951) of various customs. In the Kribi region, for example, the Batanga cannot buy or sell any land on their own territory, but a Batanga can buy a field from a national of another tribe, and

resell it. . The notion of private ownership of the land therefore exists, but everything happens as if there were, between the man and the land of his tribe, such links that it is not possible to conceive, on this land, the birth of individual rights. We are invincibly led to evoke the bonds of kinship which are opposed, for example, to the formation of marriage between two clans, or within the same clan. Other customs would thus find a plausible explanation. On several occasions, before the court of the NKongsamba Subdivision, the litigants affirmed that a foreigner could only retain the enjoyment of a field which had been granted to him if he remained in the country (custom Mbo, Bareko). A similar custom has been noted among the peoples of the Bamiléké plateau: the chief, assisted by his Council or "Kam-Weu", can recognize the use of the land to a few foreigners. He then grants him a right of hereditary enjoyment, but the beneficiary must remain in the tribe. According to these examples, the right to property appears as a subjective right, conditioned by the very person of the person who holds it. The earth would not bear to be possessed by a person residing abroad. Explicit evidence of the sanctity of the soil therefore seems rare, both in folk literature and in the notes taken by ethnographers. However, such a notion does not seem foreign to the general spirit of customs Binet (1951).

1.3. Colonial land rights

The introduction of the right of ownership inspired by the Civil Code was supposed to lead the natives to give up their customary rights in order to adhere to the new system materialized by administrative titles. The colonial legislator had provided for several modes of land management, namely: transactions between individuals in application of the Civil Code; freehold concession of state land; sale by public auction; temporary occupation through the residence permit or occupation permit. For these different modes of land management, several regulatory texts were adopted. The colonial legislator had in fact set up three regimes for the publicity of land rights: the Civil Code regime based on the transcription of legal acts transmitting personal rights, introduced by the Civil Code in 1896 Binet (1951) the land registration system introduced by a decree of April 30, 1901, followed by the decree of July 24, 1906 repealed and replaced by the decree of July 26, 1932 reorganizing the land ownership system in AOF Binet (1951); the regime of findings of customary rights established by decrees 55-580 of May 20, 1955 and 56-704 of July 10, 1956, BOINVILLIES (1998: 13.) which had repealed and replaced previous texts dating from 1925 and 1933 On the eve of Cameroon's accession to independence, the land tenure system was characterized by its diversity and complexity. Indeed, there was a diversity of rights on the ground: customary rights, right of ownership proclaimed by the Civil Code and right of ownership based on land registration creating a definitive and unassailable right. The publication of these land rights was also variable with the coexistence of three processes, namely: land registration and registration; the transcription; recognition of customary rights.

Despite their variety and the multiple efforts of the colonial powers to impose their use, colonial rights were almost shunned by the natives who considered themselves the true "owners" of the lands of their ancestors and they felt no need to change of status. Indeed, the concepts and conditions of the French colonizer product of the history of French were foreign to Cameroonian realities. They could therefore not be suitable for the indigenous populations.

1.4. The current land system

On Cameroon's accession to independence, the legislator, while wanting to break with the colonial land system without renouncing the best of ancestral tradition, sought to reinvent new rules and social practices relating to the land and its use. . In this context, several legislative and regulatory texts have been adopted in order to establish a land system capable of promoting rational land use, in accordance with economic and social development plans. With the major land and state land reform of 1964, almost all of the land, approximately 95%, was established as national land by law 74/3/165 of July 17, 1974 (BOINVILLIES (1998)). According to article 1 of this law, the national domain is constituted by operation of law by "all unclassified land in the public domain, not registered and whose ownership was not transcribed to the Registry of Mortgages on the date of entry into force of the legislation". The following are thus excluded from this area: registered land, that is to say, having been the subject of a land title, essentially appropriated land; public domain dependencies; land owned under the provisions of the Civil Code, i.e. those which have been entered in the mortgage registers; land being registered in the name of a private person. The national domain thus constituted encompasses varied lands, variously occupied and with different vocations that the law has subdivided into four categories:

- urban areas consisting of land located in the territory of municipalities and urban planning groups provided for by the applicable legislation in this area. These areas may, however, include agricultural land;
- the classified zones constituted by the zones with forestry vocation or the protection zones having been the subject of a classification under the conditions provided for by the particular legislation which is applicable to them. ;
- the terror's zone which corresponds to the lands which are regularly exploited for rural housing, cultivation or breeding;
- the pioneer zones which correspond to the other lands (they are defined by decree and generally intended to receive planning and rural development programs).

The administration of the lands of the national domain is made under the authority of the State, according to the category in which they are classified. Law 74/3/165 of 17 July 1974 relating to the national domain introduced a major land reform and a reform of land registration BOINVILLIES (1998). It established a national domain distinct from the real estate domain of the State, as well as from the real estate domain of individuals. It is a very original entity that makes Senegalese land in its entirety something not susceptible to private appropriation, outside of trade, belonging to the nation. The land is simply "owned" by the State, which only has an eminent right like the old "landlords". The 1974 law contributed to the simplification of land tenure modes by purging it, in principle, of all customary rights. It created an entity, the national domain, divided into four categories according to their destination. It has also endowed Cameroon with a dualistic land system, one of which is based on the right of ownership and the other exclusive of the right of ownership. Indeed, law 74/3/165 of July 17, 1974 did not abolish Boinvillies (1998) the property rights recognized on the ground, on the contrary, it maintained the land titles and the rights on buildings so that today there are two main categories, namely: land where the right of ownership is exercised and its dismemberments based on registration and registration in the land register; the lands of the national domain not susceptible to private appropriation, the only right that can be exercised over a dependency of the national domain being the rather special "right of use" which has no legal value because it does not apply to a good but to a common thing and out of trade. Thus, there are two land tenure

systems: one based on property rights based on land registration, the other based on national state ownership. Today, only the State has the possibility of requiring the registration of land in the national domain in its name.

2. Access to lands in the national domain in rural areas in the gender context in Cameroon

The scarcity of land, induced by population growth and the proliferation of non-traditional uses of land, contributes to highlighting the precariousness of the rights of local and indigenous communities over spaces and resources. And the observation of the growing impoverishment of local and indigenous communities, which could be explained, at least in part, by the lack of control over the soil and resources, encourages reflection, in order to propose ways of building a more legitimate land right, and more in line with government options for poverty reduction.

2.1. Can we manage the plurality of land tenure systems by ignoring gender?

The answer to this question can be found in the thinking of the colonial powers and the steps taken in the direction of eviction, the target being the system of traditional rights, but all these attempts ended in failure. Cameroon is the land of tradition. Despite the colonial legacy and the legal mimicry that followed, Binet (1951) the national rights of peasants who live in a situation of cultural concubine between traditional law and modern standards of rural land management. This situation of legal pluralism is not without its problems. In general, it is noted that the philosophies and rules that govern land in modern laws are not always in line with the secular rules and practices of land in Africa. We are then witnessing a torn apart of rural land rights between tradition and modernity. It is that the cohabitation between traditional law and modern law in African societies creates ambiguities on the exercise of rights, and therefore a certain insecurity. In this tension, traditional law appears as a stubborn law even though it is affected by limits that sometimes make it prefer adherence to modern law. However, recourse to modern law has not always been satisfactory either because the standards conveyed therein are borrowed from a foreign system and therefore an importation of values and references from another civilization. By adopting or endorsing colonial regulations Binet (1951), national land legislations have chosen to perpetuate a tense situation on the cultural, social, legal and economic levels.

2.2. The law on the national domain and its implications on gender in Cameroon

In rural areas, the land areas are administered by decentralized bodies that are rural councils, deliberative bodies of rural communities. "The rural community is made up of a certain number of villages belonging to the same land, united by a solidarity resulting in particular from the neighborhood, having common interests and capable of finding the resources necessary for their development" (Law 96/01 of January 18, 1996 on decentralization and the rural communities code). Assignment or decommissioning is the main methods of managing land in the national domain. The allocation of land in the national domain is subject, in addition to the written request of the interested party, to two major conditions (decree n° 76/165 of 27 April 1976, art. 3): being a member of the Rural Community (whether or not they are grouped into an association or a cooperative); have

the ability to ensure, directly or with the help of his family, the development of the land in accordance with the program established by the Council.

It should however be emphasized, in accordance with article 15 of the law on the national domain, that the persons occupying and exploiting the lands of the national domain. On the date of entry into force of the law, will continue to occupy and operate them in the form and under the conditions of an assignment. "This provision is most important for the terrors zones. Indeed, some may have thought that this recognition by law preserved the state of things and did not upset traditional structures. But in reality, it is quite the opposite because the law completely ignores the rights of the masters of the land and the farmers who have not been able to register their land or have it formally assigned by the rural councils" ILO (2017) Assignments made by rural councils are granted for an indefinite period. They only confer a right of use and they cannot be the subject of any transaction (sale, rental, etc.). Rural councils can only proceed with the decommissioning of all or part of an affected land under well-defined conditions provided for by law, namely: at the request of the assignee or at the dissolution of the assignee association; on the death of the assignee, in this case the application of the law on the national domain Bop (1998: 21) encounters many difficulties and raises many problems in rural areas. First of all, we note the reluctance to apply it on the part of the holders of traditional power and the former masters of the land. Moreover, the methods of implementing the law have never been defined in a precise and applicable manner.

Thus, no clear regulations have come to frame the exercise by the rural councils of their powers of assignment and deassignment. The two major prerequisites for the assignment indicated above are the subject of controversy, today raise important questions and give rise to passionate, even passionate debates. The condition required to be a member of the community is the subject of various judgments. The notion of member of a rural community lacks precision and is subject to varying interpretations according to the rural councils. This provision is also contested by those who believe that it prohibits a Senegalese from accessing the national domain in certain portions of the territory. On the other hand, it is legitimized by those who wish to protect the inhabitants of rural communities against land grabbing in their area. Others, finally, consider that it blocks the reception of foreign investors in rural development.

The concept of development has remained imprecise and has not been defined anywhere by prefectural decree as provided for by law. This shortcoming means that it is interpreted differently by the rural councils, leading to the refusal of the allocation of land intended for livestock farming on the pretext that it is not a matter of development. For lack of having been defined, it also makes it almost impossible to decommission land for a noted insufficiency of development. Finally, in each rural community, the allocation or decommissioning of land should be recorded in a land register kept in duplicate by the President of the Rural Council and the Sub-Prefect and signed by any person concerned by an allocation or decommissioning (decree 74/3 of 06 July 1974 art. 21). However, it is extremely rare to find cases where these registers are instituted, when only the registration in them has the value of proof in terms of the right of use. This situation leads to many cases of land disputes resulting from disputes over allocations by third parties or from the double allocation of the same plot by rural councils.

2.3. The agro-sylvo-pastoral orientation law (LOASP): new perspectives in the field of land and gender relations

The insufficiencies of the law on the national domain and the orientations of the agricultural policy initiated since the middle of the 1990s Bop (1998) led the government to consider a land reform which is still slow to take shape. Thus, after a land action plan that remained unimplemented and an agricultural orientation law (2005) which was not completed, the government promulgated in 1994 an agro-sylvo-pastoral orientation law (LOASP) which announced for 2005 a new land law (LOASP, s. 23). This new land law is still awaited today, six years later. Despite everything, the provisions of the LOASP already mark in their principles, significant advances compared to the law on the national domain and for the activities of the populations in rural areas. The LOASP postulates that the definition of a land policy and the reform of the law on the national domain constitute essential levers for the agro-silvopastoral development and for the modernization of agriculture. The land policy it announced should be based on a certain number of principles (art. 22), in particular: the protection of the exploitation rights of rural actors and the land rights of rural communities; the controlled transferability of land to allow land mobility favoring the creation of more viable farms: the inheritance transferability of land to encourage sustainable investment Bop (1998) in family farms; the use of land as collateral for obtaining credit. This land policy should have, among other objectives: land tenure security for farms, people and rural communities; encouraging private investment in agriculture; providing the State and local authorities with sufficient financial resources as well as providing them with competent personnel, for efficient, equitable and sustainable management of natural resources; alleviation of land constraints to agricultural, rural, urban and industrial development.

With regard to rural areas, the agro-silvopastoral orientation law takes into account "all economic activities in rural areas (crop, livestock, inland fishing, forestry, gathering, processing, trade and services), as well as of their social and environmental functions..." (Art: 2). Activities that support farming, such as crafts, rural tourism, trade in services, etc., are considered complementary to agricultural activities. This is a major break with the law on the national domain, which is based on a very restrictive vision of agriculture. With the LOASP, the State consecrates DEMESSE (1978: 13) the agricultural trades by conferring on the people practicing these activities as well as on their professional agricultural organizations a status recognized and protected by law. Article 14 of the framework law stipulates to this effect that "people working in agriculture benefit from social protection in the same way as workers in other sectors of activity". Finally, it is important to underline that in order to correct the inequalities of which women and young people are victims, the agro-silvopastoral orientation law rules out any discrimination based on sex or age insofar as the status attached to the professions of agriculture is conferred in the same way on men, women and young people who practice it (art: 9). In addition, the State undertakes to ensure, particularly in rural areas, equal rights for women and men, particularly in farming DEMESSE (1978) and to grant women, ease of access to land and credit for women (art: 54).

2.4. Recognition of customary land ownership

Recognition of customary ownership appears in article 1 of the 1896 decree, which excludes from the category of "vacant and ownerless" land those on which "individuals or legal persons, chiefs or indigenous communities, may possibly prove rights Binet (1951) of ownership or other real rights...". At the same time as it takes possession

of land deemed vacant and without an owner in the territory, this article enshrines the recognition of customary land ownership for the benefit of “indigenous chiefs or communities”. The rights thus recognized can only exist by virtue of customary law, the decree of 1896 being the first text of written law intended to govern land on the whole territory of Cameroon. And the presence of non-indigenous people “legal persons”, usually merchants and missionaries in the list of possible beneficiaries of land rights prior to the decree simply confirms the existence of land transactions between foreigners and natives before 1896. Finally, the substance of the rights in question is specified: these are property rights and other real rights. Additional proof of the recognition of customary land ownership is provided by the act of expropriation taken by the German colonial administration in January 1913. The expropriation in fact only concerns owners, and in the case of the lands of Douala, these were customary lands. This recognition of customary land rights will remain constant in colonial law in Cameroon, and will be confirmed in the law of 17 June 1959 on state and land organization, article 3 of which reads as follows: Customary rights exercised collectively or individually over all land with the exception of those that are part of the public and private domains (...) Binet (1951) and those that are appropriated according to the rules of the civil code or the registration system (...). No community, no individual may be forced to cede their rights except for reasons of public utility and subject to fair compensation. Although customary land rights are recognized, holders are required to provide proof of them in order to hope to benefit from all the advantages attached to ownership.

The right to use and the right to enjoy the thing constitute two of the three characteristics of the right of ownership. Because the abuse of land is not part of the habits and customs of local and indigenous populations, in order to deprive them of their right of ownership over land, pre- and post-independence land legislation has reinforced their rights of use and enjoyment of the national domain, made up of all the land on which ownership rights could not be proven. To strengthen the rights of use and enjoyment of local and indigenous populations on their lands, now classified in the national domain, Cameroonian land laws have expressly recognized and consecrated them. The customary ownership of land recognized by local and indigenous populations before the ordinance of July 6, 1974 automatically conferred on them rights of use and enjoyment, supplemented by the right of disposal. Prudent, the legislator has preserved for the populations a real illusion of ownership by expressly granting them rights of use and enjoyment of the lands of the national domain. The analysis of the texts reveals a process of reinforcement of these rights, in spite of the limits which hinder their optimal exercise and ways of improving the land rights of the communities can then be suggested, on the basis of the observation of the statutory law and customary rights. The right of use relating to the land is provided for by article 17 of the ordinance n° 74/1 of July 6, 1974 which indicates the methods of attribution of the national domain. This ordinance provides that the customary communities which, on the date of entry into force of the text peacefully occupy or operate first-category dependencies of the national domain (residential, agricultural, planting, grazing and rangeland), will continue to occupy or exploit them. It is by application of this regulatory provision that the rural populations build their huts and camps on the lands of the national domain, DEMESSE (1978) or practice subsistence or cash crop farming there. In the case of housing, the exercise of the right of use is sometimes supported by the State which, in certain localities, issues building permits on unregistered land, which helps to legitimize the right of use of the populations, on these localities.

3. Gender and modes of access to land resources in Cameroon

The conception of land has long been limited to land as a factor of production ILO (2003). However, this conception does not make it possible to fully understand the dynamics at work in terms of access, appropriation, control and use of this resource. Land is not just a factor of production; it also carries resources that societies value in the context of economic production. Consequently, access to land should be analyzed through a cross-reading of the notions of space and resources. Space only matters because of the resources found there.

3.1. Types of women's access to land

The results on the modes of land acquisition reveal that on average 93.05% of women own land through a bequest DEMESSE (1978) which refers to the use of family ties to access. These figures vary according to the zones: Cameroonian coast (96.34%), sylvo-pastoral zone (96.15%), groundnut basin (95.38%), West Cameroon (91.40%), South - Cameroon (91.26%) and the Mungo Basin (89.58%). If we add the percentage of access to property through inheritance (1.22%), DEMESSE (1978), we deduce that women gain access to land essentially thanks to family. On the other hand, the mode of acquisition by assignment is still low (an average of 1.95%). We only identified women owning land by assignment in three areas: the center (3.76%), the coast (3.28%) and southern Cameroon (3.13%). Here too, we can validly say that women's modes of access to land remain dominated by traditional ways, which depend on their place in agricultural development systems and their social role. What is interesting about this is to see that it is the women themselves who are directly involved in the development of the land they own. The dominant mode of exploitation remains direct tenant farming. This leads us to deduce that it is the women who directly exploit the land they own. And if so, it is presumed that they face difficulties related to land development constraints in certain areas.

Cameroon is a country strongly influenced by Islamic culture. The influences of this culture, combined with socio-cultural practices, relegate women, in this society, often to roles and statuses inferior to those of men. Far from a purely Islamic conception, we are indeed witnessing in Senegalese society, in most cases, a partial or erroneous reading of religion which always considers women in relation to men. In this patriarchal conception, the place of the woman is often determined according to whether she is "daughter of" or "wife of". In inheritance, women are taken into account, only sometimes it is the men who take the decisions DESCAMPS, et al (1997: 46) and who take care of the field. If a couple has only one daughter and leaves land, that land naturally reverts to that daughter, but if there are also boys, it is usually the latter who take the land. I used to say that rural women will all go to heaven because of their dedication to work, their courage and their self-sacrifice.

The empirical elements could in many respects alone illustrate the access of women to land in Cameroon. If at the level of urban areas, more than 60% of women say they have access to land as well as at the level of North-West Cameroon; it is almost 70% Bop (1998) of them who affirm not to have access land in urban areas. These areas are characterized by a strong influence of patriarchy and a division of labor that relegate women to their role as managers of household tasks. Beyond these characteristics, the superiority of the demand for quality land compared to the supply in these areas due to the pressure of urbanization and agribusiness makes resources highly contested. In this context of scarcity of quality land resources, women are marginalized in access. In the central area, the concentration of agricultural production in flood-recession lands due to

poor rainfall inhibits women's chances of accessing land, because the available land is monopolized by male heads of households who legitimize this monopolized by the need for agricultural production for the survival of households. It appears at this level that the exclusion and failure to take women into account in household agricultural production makes it difficult for them to access land. It is therefore a social division of labor in the area that impacts women's access to land.

However, while some women say they have access to land, these assertions often hide quite different realities. Indeed, far from individualized access to land, Boinvillies (1998) it is most often through Women's Promotion Groups (GPF) that they gain collective access. This mode of access, even if it allowed many women to own land, it also contributed to the marginalization of women in terms of their individual access. A development worker says that "women do not have direct access to land. It is always through the family that they have plots. They can have the space they need to cultivate. It is not something that belongs to them alone (Bisilliat; 1996: 78) but rather belongs to the whole family and when they need a plot to cultivate, they have it but the land belongs to the head of the family. Discourse analysis shows a clear distinction for women between access and control over land. Thus, if some claim to have access to the land, they claim that they do not control it. This access is manifested through the provision by families of land that they can exploit but which is likely to be taken back at any time to be reallocated to men within the household. Control of the land resources they want would allow them to access land resources that are secure and recognized as such socially and legally. It thus appears that control remains one of the best ways for women to have land power. Indeed, if access allows them to exercise certain activities, land control constitutes Blanc et al (1995: 57) a certain guarantee for the activities of women.

3.2. Modes of access of women to land in Cameroon

In agricultural land development, women have often been used as family labour. They take part in various works and take care of supposedly light tasks and particularly post-harvest work such as storage, conservation FAO (2003) and processing of cereals, marketing. This social division of labor has undergone many changes to the point of changing the position of women in development systems. Women are becoming more and more important in agricultural activities and food systems and aspire to break free from family production systems by accessing means of production that directly provide them with cash. Statistics on the nature of land ownership to which women have access point to two observations. The first is that women have easier access to the land they own than to that which is part of the family patrimony. Detention refers here to appropriation, control, access and security. It is for women to have traditional or modern rights that are legitimate and socially recognized by their community on land. The traditional mode of management which places the family land patrimony under the supervision of the head of the family clearly disadvantages women. On average, we find up to 78.17% FAO (2003) of the land owned by women which is their individual property against 22.83% which is family property. Individual access to land is through assignment, purchase or inheritance. Although these last two modes are prohibited by the law on land in the national domain, they are common practices that allow women and certain social categories formerly excluded from access to land to access land.

Most often the land thus acquired becomes their *advitum eternnum* properties. For land from inheritance, women rarely have access to it even if land issues related to urbanization in areas such as the coast push them to claim their share of land DEMESSE

(1978) which has much gained in financial value in recent years. It is these lands often coming from the inheritance which constitute those acquired within the framework of family properties. In the context of family property land, control of resources can sometimes be limited for women, unlike those acquired individually by purchase or deliberation. The role of women is manifested by their contribution in the maintenance of livestock, the feeding and watering of animals and the processing of livestock products. The system of social division of labor thus confines women to activities that often require more effort for the survival of livestock in certain almost arid areas. On the other hand, in areas where production systems require more participation from all family members, the share of individual properties remains lower.

3.3. Characteristics of the land resources exploited

Access to land resources is measured by the yardstick of the social, even societal dimension of human groups, in particular the status of individuals, particularly women FAO (2003). What type of land resources do they have access to according to the diversity of eco-geographical and societal situations in Cameroon? What societal and historical referents determine the position of women and the modalities of their access to these resources? The first level of analysis focuses on households with or without land. 84.90% own at least one piece of land. However, the figures vary slightly depending on the eco-geographical zones. The distribution of households with or without land highlights zoning. Possession rates, as one might expect, vary by area and population density, but statistically these differences are not that significant. In this register, Eastern Cameroon is positioned first with 93.33%, closely followed by Casamance with 92.91% and the sylvo-pastoral zone with 84.62%. On the other hand, the rates remain lower in the Valleys (80.16%), DEMESSE (1978) in the Mungo (80.13%) and in the West Groundnut Basin (79.91 %) where high densities often result in intense competition and pressure on land resources. Looking at the sex of the head of household, the findings show that 94.53% of households owning land are headed by a man and 5.47% are headed by a woman. For households without land, 87.78% are managed by men, while women run only 12.22%. Despite an increased share of female household heads (Bisilliat: 1996) who do not own land, the statistics corroborate the idea that the position of household head facilitates women's access to land. In fact, 71.55% of female heads of households have access to land where only 43.08% (Delpeche: 1983) of those entire questioned claim to have access to agricultural land. As a woman, however, the proportion of female heads of households who own land varies according to the eco-geographical zones. It is 8.91% in the Ntem Valley, 8.48% in the sylvo-pastoral zone and 8.36% in the central region. On the other hand, it remains relatively lower in the Mungo 4.20%, on the Cameroonian coast 3.21% DEMESSE (1978) and in the West Cameroon Groundnut Basin 2.51%. These disparities between the zones, even if their statistical differences are not very large, provide information on the variances that exist. They can also be explained by the marital status of female heads of households in these areas.

3.4. Renewable land resources

Land is land and renewable resources. Jacques Weber (1998) considers that access to these renewable resources (wild fauna and flora, water, pastures, game, gathering) on cultivated or fallow fields, as well as in the village forest, all or part of the year, falls within the realm of land. Thus, the collection of plant resources, FAO (2003) livestock products, fishing products and mining products are an integral part of the land resources that underpin economic production in rural areas. Formerly reserved for women, children and marginalized landless populations, the exploitation of renewable land resources is now of

interest to a large number of individuals because of the drought and the agricultural income crisis. But the majority (61.46%) of Binet (1951) those who exploit them are women. These resources, long considered by men as products with little market value, have become the preserve of women. Moreover, these are no resources which in most cases the exploitation does not require or substantial financial means even less physical force. They are often located in areas that are considered common property where everyone can have access to them. Moreover, the exploitation of these resources is a significant source of income for women, as shown in the table below:

Table 1: Income derived from the exploitation of certain resources by women

Income drawn per year by women in CFA francs	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Picking	800	600000	1000007
Breeding	7000	1700000	333677
miningProducts	50000	500000	178450
Fish Products	7000	2000000	253500

Source: ILO, 1889, *Women and the earth*, ILO, p.66

This study had set itself a major objective, that of providing valuable insight into the interrelationships between gender and land tenure. She sought to identify the links between access to land and the strengthening of women's citizenship. It appeared that the land essentially remains an asset that is appropriated and managed on a domestic scale. However, in the majority, it is men who are at the head of these domestic units. Only 6.6% of women World Bank (2003: 112) are heads of households in rural areas. Their position within the household limits their land responsibilities. Women are de facto excluded from the nerve centers where decisions concerning land are made. They are poorly represented in local deliberative bodies and thus appear as "second-class" citizens. Women are not very present in producer organizations which are playing an increasingly active role in the rural economy and citizen demands. 73% World Bank (2003) of women, is about 3 out of 4 women, do not belong to a producer organization. They are therefore absent from the arenas in which the interests of farmers and herders are identified, constructed and defended. These arenas are not only spaces for the construction of corporate interests but also places for the capture of resources and the circulation and access to information. It is therefore easy to understand, at least in part, the reasons why 81% (ILO: 1889) of women do not know the law on the national domain. Women in developing countries struggle daily to acquire or confirm their rights. It is important that governments realize that they play a significant role in the economy, whether domestic or national; through their activity, they contribute effectively to the development of their household (economic agent), their family or their society". Along the same lines, the thrusts of the Fourth World Conference World Bank (2003) on women were essentially based on improving women's living conditions, their legal status, enhancement of female human resources in all development sectors, effective participation in decision-making, promotion of young girls, the fight against violence and improvement of the institutional framework. In any case, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women practiced by many developing States remains a reference document for equality.

References

1. Aidara S. (2006). "Women's access to land", Master's thesis in local authority law from Gaston Berger University in Saint-Louis, PUF: Paris.
2. Alliot. M. (1964). Traditional resistance to modern law in French-speaking states and Madagascar. *Studies of African law and Malagasy Law*. Cujas: Paris: 235-256.
3. Ilo. (1889). *Women and the earth.*, Québec : Presse internationale polytechnique.
4. Bisilliat J. (1996). *Women of the south, heads of families*, Paris: Karthala.
5. Blanc-Pamard C., et al. (1995). *Land, territory, land tensions*. ORSTOM, coll. "Colloquium and seminars", dynamics of agrarian systems, Paris: ORSTOM.
6. Boinvillies. I; (1998). *Rural land tenure, renewable resources and development in ACP countries*, Paris: GRET.
7. World Bank, (2003). *Land Policies to Promote Growth and Reduce Poverty. Executive summary*. Washington, World Bank, 35 p.
8. Abega, S., Bigombe Loco, P. (2007), La marginalisation des Pygmées en question: la disparition programmée des Pygmées. Afridit, 2007.
9. FAO. (2003). Global report on artisanal and small scale mining. London: IIED and WBCSD. MMSD.
10. CIMEC (2013). Cameroon International Mining Conference and Exhibition of Yaoundé. Reports of work general secretary communication conference in Yaoundé at 7 to 11 of February.
11. Demesse, L. (1978). Changements techno-économiques et sociaux chez les Pygmées Babinga (Nord » dans Congo et Sud Centrafrique), Paris: SELAF.
12. Descamps, B et al. (1997), Pygmées, l'esprit de la forêt, Paris: Marval.
13. Nono. C. (2011). Impacts de l'exploitation artisanale de l'or sur l'environnement et le développement socio-économique à Bétaré-Oya (Est-Cameroun). Master Professionnel en étude d'impacts environnementaux (EIE). Centre Régional d'Enseignement Spécialisé en Agriculture.
14. Yaw, Yeboah. (2008). Environmental and health impact of mining on surrounding communities: a case Study of AngloGold Ashanti in obuasi. Master of Arts. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology.

“WEEVIL DOES NOT KNOW FAMINE IS BAD”: NIGERIA’S SECURITY AGENCIES AND TREACHEROUS ACT OF BACKHANDER

Babatope Matthew AJIBOYE,

Department of Peace and Conflict Studies,
Faculty of Social Science,
Federal University Oye-Ekiti,
Ekiti State, Nigeria

Email: babatope.ajiboye@fuoye.edu.ng

ORCID: 0000-0002-7992-3099

Abstract: *Backhander, a seldom happening within the Nigerian Police Force (NPF), in the late 1970s and the early part of the 1980s, has, lately, been amplified to an unimaginable level, amid the various military and paramilitary outfits in the country. It has evolved into an inseparable, trademark act registered as a mental representation of all security outfits, that at the mention of any security agency in the country, every lip leaps for ‘backhander’. This paper cross-examines the treacherous practice of backhander among security outfits in the country, using Cohen and Felson’s Routine Activity Theory (RAT) as the substratum of rationalisation. Findings reveal that backhander in the security sector has been in existence for more than four decades, thereby forming a lasting tradition so difficult to deface. Meanwhile, the paper offers recommendations on defacing the practice among various security agencies. The paper concludes that backhander has virtually defeated the primary essence of security as major security agencies’ tail wags the dog and not the other way round any longer.*

Keywords: *Weevil; famine; backhander; ghastly; treacherous; security; Nigeria*

1. Introduction

Every nation of the world is fundamentally saddled with the responsibility of securing the life and properties of civilians who form the foremost nucleus of the society. This is the most germane obligation of the state. Other responsibilities include the protection of its territorial integrity and sovereignty and subsequently guarantee socio-economic and political solidity. The Nigerian legal framework lays credence to these obligations, under Chapter II, Number 14, (2a) of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as amended. The document reads, ‘the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government’. In pursuance of this, as stipulated in the constitution, the Nigerian government, via numerous acts, has set up different security agencies, each given a clear *modus Vivendi* to operate. In other words, each security agency is given a distinct, unique, and exclusive task to perform which other sister agencies, within the same security construct, are not permitted to execute.

Perceptively, to prevent overlapping of duties among the security agencies, the Nigerian government has empowered the Nigerian Police Force (NPF), through the Force Act, 2010, Part II, Section 4, Number 23; this states that, “the police shall be employed for the prevention and detection of crime, the apprehension of offenders, the preservation of law and order, the protection of life and property and due enforcement of all laws and regulations with which they are directly charged, and shall perform such military duties within or outside Nigeria as may be required of them by, or under the authority of this or any other Act”. In the same fashion, the Nigerian Immigration Service (NIS) gets her duties affirmed in Section 1 of the 2015 Act, which provides that the NIS shall be responsible for, *inter alia* persons entering or leaving Nigeria; issuing travel documents, including Nigerian

passports to bonafide Nigerians within and outside Nigeria; issuing residency permits to foreigners; they are also to be in charge of border surveillance and control (Immigration Ac, 2015). Other security agencies like the Nigerian Security and Civil Defense Corps (NSCDC), the Nigerian Customs Service (NCS), the Nigerian Correctional Service (NCS), Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC), *etcetera* have acts serving as operational guides.

Though security agencies in Nigeria have, lately, been overrun beyond their coping capacity by a plethora of contemporary and emerging security challenges like terrorism, kidnapping, banditry, smuggling, piracy *etcetera*. Hypothetically, much of the innumerable challenges may be attributed to the incommensurate number of personnel providing security to the teeming number of people in the country. This has constantly affected efficiency and productivity in terms of output. In the words of Adebayo, 'our police force has been overstretched by numerous security challenges due to inadequacy in personnel to police the nation; 170,000 policemen are not enough to secure over 180 million people (Daily Trust, 6 April 2016). Similarly, Adegboyega (2012: 41) attributes the problem to the paucity of funds from the government of Nigeria. This has hindered the ability to have an adequate number of police and armed forces. The caveat is that 'the size of police personnel is highly insufficient to meet the security needs of the people.

Beyond the hypothetical judgment and pecuniary issue, it is obvious that a major precarious 'weevil' despoiling Nigerian security structure is backhander practice. The snag did not develop overnight, as a stuff, it started navigating its way into the Nigerian Police Force (NPF), more than three and half decades ago. Then, the curse was only proportionate, particularly, not up to the level being witnessed in recent times. Part of this practice was the reason the Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS), an arm of the Nigerian Police Force (NPF) was protested against by the generality of people in the country, in a movement codenamed, #ENDSARS. This eventually resulted in the disbandment of the unit in the latter part of the 2020. Although, what ignited the protests was given as the brutal nature of the organisation but on a deeper look at the episode, which can only take an immaculate thought to discern, the force's brutality against people was triggered by the highhandedness and sharp practices of the personnel, coupled with the persistent backhander activities.

Nonetheless, the Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS) was expressly created to fight robbery-related activities in the society but the unit itself proves to be deadlier, and a threat to the peaceful living of people than the robbers and criminal elements which it was designed to tame. The situation predating the unit's demobilisation can be traced to daylight robbery that is, extorting money and valuables, forcefully, from citizens. Conversely, due to the nonchalant and indifferent attitudes of successive governments to fight and tame the scourge, regrettably, it has been amplified and taken to an alarming rate. Again, it has been redefined to the tune that, not only NPF engages in the acts, but other security outfits such as NIS, NCS, NSCDC, FRSC, and practically, all security agencies now engage in this treacherous act. It however becomes more worrisome that the level of backhander within security agencies has reached a point where anyone having cases with any of the organisations gives bribe through the use of Point of Sale (POS) machines owned by the security personnel with which they often carried along whenever they are on routine operation. Worst of it all, they go as far as demanding transfers to a designated account. Based on this and many other miscellaneous irregularities that have lingered for so long within the security outfits and have unconsciously become a trademark to describe them. The core function of security agencies (securitization) has steadily been condemned to play second fiddle. This paper attempts, amongst other things, to interrogate the

treacherous act of backhander that has eaten, blindfolded, and become a major obsession within the security agencies in the country.

2. Methodology

To cross-examine the backhander trend among security agencies in Nigeria, the study adopted the qualitative model. However, the research design used for the study was zipped around the descriptive blueprint which examines the security agencies in Nigeria with a backhander. It seeks to examine The Nigeria Police Force (NPF), The Nigeria Immigration Force (NIS), The Nigeria Security and Civil Defense Corps (NSCDC), The Nigeria Customs Service (NCS), and The Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC). The phenomenon under consideration would not have been appropriately examined without the utilisation of this technique. Also, wide-ranging narratives of the states of affairs were made possible by the application of this *modus operandi* (Fox and Bayat, 2007). As such, literature materials were traced from various sources: books, journals, magazines, periodicals, mass media reports, and other materials that are useful to the study. Also, some internet resources related to the study were utilised. The sequence of data analysis started with organising the data, sorting it, identifying recurring themes, looking for and finding patterns, presenting data, and deducing a conclusion (Nassaji, 2015).

3. The Ideation of Security

In the contemporary world, security has become a notion that is frequently discussed in social science, humanity, and security-affiliated disciplines. As such, it is a concept that has attracted various meanings and explanations by many scholars who did not only define, but also offer robust and convincing explanation on the concept. It is thus important to understand that most of the explanations that have been offered in form of responses to what the term denotes are influenced by certain backgrounds, as opined by these intellectuals. In other words, the bulk of opinions are shaped by the orientation or training got from elemental fields of human endeavours to which the scholars owe their allegiance.

Perhaps, the latitude of expression of thought to which everyone enjoys has produced a diverse and polysemic set of contemporaneous meanings of the concept. This is evident in the mass conceptualisations of security, which is anchored on various perspectives or dimensions like political dimension, human dimension, social dimension, economic dimension, environmental dimension, national dimension, and above all, international dimension. Meanwhile, situating the most excellent meaning of the concept becomes tumultuously problematic. Not that alone, the seemingly irresolvable contest between definitions of security has prompted some to contend that attempts to systematically analyse the concept of security are futile; however, it has been suggested that instead of conceptual analysis of security we should identify and critique the politics of its meaning (Huysmans, 1998). Even a corollary critique of the meaning of the concept will not produce a thought on security which could be seen as better than another because when conditions in the world change, the meaning of certain terms can be rendered insufficient, at best, they become *prima facie* solutions to the traditional explanation given. In such cases, any attempt to relate the old meanings to the much-changed term unavoidably reveals deficiencies.

A spiky shift from the dichotomy of change, and its permanence, as observed in the arguments of both the idealist and realist schools of thought, it is imperative to accommodate some of the sound and contemporary meanings as meticulously put forward

by scholars, analysts, policymakers, and others. For instance, security is the condition of being and feeling safe...Understanding security begins in conditions of insecurity, which equates with living a determined life (for individuals and groups); it is a categorical mistake to see security as being synonymous with survival (Booth, 2007). Similarly, Ogaba (2010) contends that security has to do with freedom from danger or threats, and the ability of a nation to protect and develop itself, to promote its cherished values and legitimate interests, and to improve the well-being of its people. In this context, security refers to the degree of resistance to or protection from threats to citizens' well-being and survival.

To Achumba *et al.* (2013), a composite meaning of security is protection against all forms of harm, whether physical, economic, or psychological. It is generally argued that security is not the absence of threats or security issues, but the ability to rise to the challenges posed by threats with expediency and expertise. Therefore, going by the exigency, expediency, and expertise coupled with the sensitivity of security to the state, the role becomes one that must be exclusively taken care of and, as such, it is usually the exclusive responsibility of the government. This however leads us to the next phase of discourse, which is centered on the Nigerian State and its security agencies.

4. Nigerian State and Core Security Agencies

The monopoly in the utilisation of force to sustain security is a notion that has become optimal business for every state. This monopoly is partly due to many states having persistent challenges from deviants who calculatedly disobey laws, rules, and regulations that the society has set as minimum standards, and to which everyone must adhere. Again, forces that are hell-bent on changing the dynamics of power, and governmental policies, and sometimes agitate for an outright secession from the existing nation, also pose challenges to state survival. However, to put all these challenges under control and ensure the nation's continued existence, the concepts of 'force' and 'security' have to be held as central in the state. Boemcken and Schetter (2016:1) submit that "in a world of perceived uncertainty and danger, the desire for security becomes a central concern of political thought and action. Against the threatening forces of unpredictability, rapid transformation, and complexity, it appears to channel a diffuse longing for greater reliability, stability, and tangibility".

Besides, the customary obligation of the state to its citizens is encapsulated in the provision of security of life and properties of its citizens. To carry out this basic obligation, unassumingly, and knowing full well that one security outfit cannot wholly perform the daunting task of securing effectively, the Nigerian government, as it is the normal practice elsewhere, there is a need to divide its security agencies into different arm, each given statutory functions to perform. But all must work together to achieve a common purpose, which is securing the nation and making the activities of criminals, bandits, kidnappers, pirates, men of the underworld, and smugglers, among others less profound.

The Nigeria Police Force (NPF)

The Nigeria Police Force (NPF) is a major security outfit and one of the few institutions whose existence predates the country's independence. According to Ajayi (2008), the Nigerian police is a British institution bequeathed to Nigeria during the independence. It has a federal structure in management, command, and control, where the Inspector-General of Police is the overall police chief, who does not only weed power, but also decides policy and operational affairs of the Police Force. The Inspector-General of Police is appointed by the President but with the advice of the Nigerian Police Council, which is made up of some of the Force's top-ranking officers (NOPRIN, 2007). The Nigerian

Police Act, Section 4, 1958, as amended, Cap 41, empowered the Nigerian Police Force with Power to prosecute in any court of law; arrest a person who refuses to aid the police; grant permits and regulate assemblies; issue search warrant (Police Act, 2010).

However, the force's functions are effortlessly summarized as crime prevention and detection, apprehending offenders, maintaining law and order, and protecting life and property. They are in charge of enforcing all laws and regulations. They are expected to perform such military duties within and without Nigeria, as may be required of them by, or under the authority of this or any other Act (Arase, 2015). These functions, as authorised and duly performed by the force, prove the security outfit as the foremost law enforcement agency in Nigeria.

The Nigeria Immigration Service (NIS)

The Nigeria Immigration Service was previously a division under the Nigerian Police Force. After the bifurcation that got it separated from the Police Force, it inherited the Immigration Ordinance, 1958, as its guiding principle. As part of efforts to make the outfit enjoy a legal backing, the Act of parliament of 1st August 1963 domiciled it under the Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs, now known as the Ministry of Interior. The first sets of officers of the outfit were majorly police officers, headed by the Chief Federal Immigration Officers (CFIO). However, in 1992, the Nigeria Immigration Service became a fully functional paramilitary outfit, headed by the Comptroller General of Immigration (CGI), having commands in each of the thirty-six (36) states of the federation. It is necessary to consider that, like any other security, the Nigeria Immigration Services gets its functions defined in legal documents.

The following statutory functions are performed by the organisation: controlling entry, exit and monitoring of activities of foreigners in Nigeria, and ensuring legal migration to Nigeria; Implementing migration-related bilateral and multi-lateral treaties and agreement between Nigeria and other countries of the world; issuing and control of travel documents like Standard, Official and Diplomatic Passports and also ECOWAS Travel Certificate; administering and implementing the Nigerian Visa Regime; manning Nigeria's borders, land, sea and air; constraining human trafficking and other trans-border crimes; executing deportation and repatriation order, in response to prohibited immigrants; administering and implementing the Nigerian: Expatriate Quota Regime; preparing eligibility briefs, in response to foreigners seeking to obtain Nigerian Citizenship, by naturalisation; gathering intelligence, analysing, investigating and prosecuting acts that breach immigration laws and regulations; Participating in the formulation of security policies that address, regularly, both national security and conflict management, through attendance of joint intelligence board (JIB) meeting, headed by the National Security Advisor); and participating in other ad-hoc security functions such as election duties, and Joint Task Force operations (www.Immigration.gov.ng).

The Nigeria Security and Civil Defense Corps (NSCDC)

The Nigeria Security and Civil Defense Corps came into being on May 23, 1967, at a stage in the Nigerian Civil War. Thus, it was, *ab initio*, set up as a voluntary organisation whose mission was to cater to defenseless civilians in times of distress and emergency. Not that alone, it was also referred to as the Lagos Civil Defense Committee, saddled with the fundamental responsibility of protecting and safeguarding asymmetrical civilians during the Civil War. However, the need and urge for more to have similar organisation saw the Charter of April 6, 1968, empowered individual states to establish the Corps within their jurisdiction (Abolurin, 2010). Conversely, the transmission of Act No. 2 of 2003, which was

repealed by Act 6 of June 4, 2007, made the Corps a full-fledged paramilitary outfit of the government under the supervision of the Federal Ministry of Interior.

The organisation just as another paramilitary outfit in Nigeria is headed by a Commandant-General, who is the Chief Executive of the organisation. The constitutional functions of the organisation include the following: to assist in the maintenance of peace and order and the protection and rescuing of the civil population during emergency; to recommend to the minister the registration of private guard companies; to inspect, from time to time, the premises of private guard companies, their training facilities and approve same, if it is up to the standard; to supervise and monitor the activities of all private guard companies, and keep a register for that purpose; to maintain 24-hour surveillance of infrastructures, sites and projects for the federal, state and local governments; to arrest, with or without a warrant, detain, investigate any person who is reasonably suspected to have committed or is involved in an offence under the Act, and institute legal proceedings against such a person in the name of the Attorney General of the Federal Republic of Nigeria; to monitor the activities of religious bodies and trade associations; to monitor, investigate and take necessary steps to forestall any planned act of terrorism and report same to the appropriate federal security agency; to provide necessary warning for the civilian population in times of danger; to evacuate the civilian population from dangerous areas; to provide and manage shelters for civilians during periods of emergency; to assist in the decontamination and take precautionary measures during any period of emergency; to carry out rescue operations and control volatile situations; to assist in the provision of emergency medical services, including first aid, during any period of emergency; to detect and demarcate any dangerous area; to assist the federal and state fire services in fire-fighting operations; to assist in the distribution of emergency supplies; to assist in restoring and maintaining order in distressed areas; to assist in repairing indispensable public utilities during any period of emergency (NSCDC Act, 2007; Abolurin, 2010).

The Nigeria Customs Service (NCS)

The Nigeria Customs Service (NCS) is a paramilitary organisation established far back in 1891, when Nigeria was being ruled by the British Colonial Administration. The Service is headed by a Comptroller-General (CG) and assisted by six (6) Deputy Comptroller-Generals, who oversee the six departments that constitute the organisation. These are Finance; Administration and Technical Service; Tariff and Trade; Enforcement, Investigation, and Inspection; Strategic Research and Policy; Human Resource Development Excise, and Industrial Incentives. The Nigerian Customs Service is an independent security outfit, but it is placed under the supervision of the Federal Ministry of Finance, some of its primary roles include collection of revenue, facilitation of both national and international trade, and anti-smuggling activities. Other functions are the generation of statistical data for planning purposes; facilitation of trade; implementation of bi-lateral and multi-lateral agreements; collection of levies and charges; fighting illegal commercial activities and trade in illicit goods; curtail illegal international trade in endangered species; fighting illegal trade in arms, and stem the flow of money laundering; lead the war against importation of toxic or hazardous substances (Abdullahi, 2014).

The Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC)

The need to ensure the safety of road users (drivers and passengers) brought about the creation of the Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) in Nigeria. What was obtainable in time past, on Nigerian roads, most especially the highways, was a flagrant disobedience of minimum traffic rules and regulations guiding road usage. As a result of this, many

people have been permanently disfigured, and many lives terminated by avoidable errors that stem from disobeying traffic rules and regulations. To forestall these occurrences, the Federal Road Safety Corps was initiated as a security outfit to see to the adherence to rules and regulations applicable to road usage. Balogun (2006) observes that to address this dangerous trend, the Nigerian Government established what is now called the Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) in 1988 to operate with certain spelled out duties and functions. These functions are passed by the National Assembly and codenamed, "Federal Road Safety Commission (establishment) Act 2007".

The functions are, to design and produce driver's license to be used by various categories of vehicle users, and determine, from time to time, the requirements to be satisfied by an applicant for a driver's license; to prevent and minimise accidents on the highways and clear obstructions on any part of those highways; to educate drivers, motorists and other members of the public generally on the proper use of the highways; to design and produce vehicle number plates and standardised highway traffic codes; to give prompt attention and care to victims of accidents and conduct researches on the causes of motor accidents as well as ways of preventing them, and put into use the results of such researches; to determine and force speed limits on all categories of vehicles and adopt speed-limit devices; to cooperate with other bodies, agencies or groups on road safety activities, for the purpose of preventing accidents on the highways; to make regulations for the pursuance of the functions assigned to the agency, under this Act; to regulate the use of sirens, flashers and beacon lights on vehicles other than ambulances, including those belonging to the Armed forces, Nigeria Police, Fire Service and other paramilitary agencies; to provide roadside and mobile clinics for the treatments of accident victims free of charge (National Assembly, 2007).

5. Theoretical Framework

The study is supported by the Routine Activity Theory (RAT) which was developed by Cohen and Felson (1979) from the criminological point of view and relevance of reflective decision in fathoming preference. The theory revolves around three factors: the 'potential offender, a suitable target, and the absence of a capable guardian' (Bottoms and Wiles, 1997). This emphasises the relevance of regular and routine behaviors for composite comprehension of treacherous acts of backhander patterns. Not that alone, the theory also accounts for the characteristics of backhander as against the characteristics of the perpetrator. As such, the environment has a role in the occurrence of backhander misdemeanor. The characteristics of the routine activity theory are that three elements must be present for backhander to occur. These elements are a motivated wrongdoer; an unsuspecting or appropriate target and the Absence of an authority figure to prevent a treacherous act from happening.

However, for express-contact backhander to occur, a wrongdoer and sufferer must interact in time and space within an environment favourable to such treacherous act to be eked out without busting knowledge of the member of the public. 'Structural changes in routine activity patterns can influence crime rates, by affecting the convergence in space and time of the three minimal elements of direct-contact predatory violation, motivated offenders, suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians against a violation' (Cohen and Felson, 1979). The opportunity structure for crime – the crime equation – can therefore be summarized as, $\text{crime} = (\text{wrongdoer} + \text{victim} - \text{guardian}) (\text{place} + \text{time})$. A wrongdoer must be motivated at the time of the encounter. The victim needs to be seen as suitable or vulnerable from the wrongdoer's point of view. For guardians, it may be

government, civil society organizations, colleagues, and others who control potential wrongdoers.

To investigate the 'chemistry' of a misdemeanor, one must first determine who and what must be present and who or what must be absent for the treacherous act to occur (Felson & Clarke, 1998). This chemistry is misdemeanor specific. For instance, the requirements for pickpocketing are quite different from those for auto theft. The setting – time and place – in which these conditions are likely to occur, and offenders' access to escape from these locations help explain the spatial and temporal prototype of crime. It has been identified, over the years, and even in contemporary times, that the various security outfits in Nigeria have placed a premium on areas, or highways that are surrounded by bushes as suitable environments to perpetuate the treacherous act of backhander on victims plying such roads. The thinking behind this is that they are covered from being caught because of the shrouded and secluded environment, which readily serves as the perfect atmosphere for such an occurrence to take place.

6. The Nigerian Society and the Paroxysmal 'Backhander'

In recent times, nations all around the world are consistently and vicariously challenged by security issues ranging from kidnapping, banditry, armed robbery, herdsmen and farmers clashes, piracy, cybercrime, and terrorism, among others. Nigeria is not exempted; has had its fair share of these concerns. In the face of these challenges, which have taken their toll, not only on the society, but also has overwhelmed all the security agencies, and rendered them practically inept in their approach to curbing them. The major preoccupation for a huge number of personnel, in the security sector, is how to swindle the citizens. The practice is disheartening because innumerable numbers of average Nigerians struggle to make ends meet, as hawkers, drivers, travelers, civil servants, and traders, among others; and they ply the roads for various purposes. They are waylaid at a slight opportunity by officers of security agencies from the police, road safety officers, and customs officers who take or extort money from them. The act is committed at any given opportunity, at bus stations, marketplaces, restaurants, and far too often, at checkpoints and roadblocks mounted by the security personnel. As such, checkpoints and roadblocks have become lucrative backhander industries for many security agencies, who routinely exploit motorists and passengers that are going about their lawful businesses.

Backhander refers to a pattern of corrupt practice observed in public and private organizations in the Nigerian society. In the words of Musbau (2015), 'there is the issue of corruption and embezzlement in both public and private sectors. It has got so bad that to be corrupt is to be in the social-political mainstream of the country'. However, the occurrence and practice are more profound with the Nigerian security agency. The country's slang for backhander is known as 'sowokuduru' which translates as squeezing of hands, while collecting or giving money as inducement and unmerited favour, to cover one's dirty lining from being exposed and for avoiding fines payment. Backhander started as a marginal and infrequent custom among some bad eggs within the Nigerian Police Force (NPF). Sometime around the late 1970s. It has become a common knowledge that it has become ravaging, it has even culminated in an institutionalised system in the realm of security outfits.

In the case of the Nigeria Police Force, backhander has for a very long time been a practice, which has sunk into the system and has become a tick skin, that is the trademark for the Force. The fact is that occurrences do not raise eyebrows anymore. What is amazing is that it is now a common practice among the ranks and files of all forces. On the 8th of

August 2013, a motorist returning from Murtala Mohammed International Airport in Lagos, Nigeria, was seen on video placating a police officer by saying, “I don’t have more than 2,000 naira (£8)”. And the police officer was heard, saying, “add something... make you dey go your way (then be on your way). He adds, “I am not working alone. Look, if you enter this compound (the police station), you will pay bigger money (The Guardian, 8 August 2013). With this confession, it is clear that the mess in the system is a top-down issue.

Again, it has been established that police officers are the most active in demanding bribes in the country. This was revealed by a study conducted in 2017 by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC). According to the survey, ‘Police officers are the type of public official to whom bribes are most paid in Nigeria. Of all adult Nigerians who had direct contact with a police officer, 12 months before the survey, almost half (46.4 percent) paid the officer at least one bribe, and in many cases, more than one police who are characteristically part of the three types of public official to whom bribes are mostly paid (5.3 bribes per bribe-payer over 12 months) in Nigeria (UNODC, 2017).

Like a whirlwind blowing, unrestricted, to a direction, sister security outfits have also been mainstreamed in the treacherous act of backhander. According to Musbau (2015), security agencies have been ensnared in the wider web of corruption, making them part of the national problem. He pinpointed that some Customs officials indulge in corruption, while some State Security Service (SSS) officials weave a web of lies and extraordinary tales about innocent people to get promotion. The Immigration Service is culpable for letting in a large number of illegal foreigners that we have in our midst (Musbau, 2015). In a similar streak, UNODC (2019) observed that Nigeria Police Officers, Vehicle Inspection Officers (VIO) and the Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) are among the seven worst receivers of bribes in Nigeria and 85 percent of the victims are unwilling to seek redress of their exploitation, or even file a case for exploitation or report of the case of backhander against the officers.

Hence, to maintain sanctity in the Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC), ‘Operation Tranquility’ was launched to arrest and rid officials who are engaging in the backhander practice. The initiative led to the arrest of 46 FRSC officers and recovered N40, 830 in Phase 1 of the operation, while 26 FRSC officers were arrested in Phase 2 with N51, 260 recovered. However, the highest amount recovered from corrupt road safety officials was N1, 063,920, and 25 road safety officers were picked under ‘Tranquility Phase 4’. Under Phase 5 of the scheme, 33 personnel were arrested with N45, 870 recovered. A further breakdown of the figures shows that four officials were arrested on 16th August 2019 in Kaduna State; five were arrested and the sum of N3, 500 was recovered on 16th August 2019 in Rivers State; six officials were arrested and N500 recovered on 16th August 2019 in Ogun State, while fifteen FRSC officials were arrested and the sum of N32, 530 recovered in Abia State (PR Nigeria, 28 March, 2021). These statistics further prove that backhander is not compartmentalized or restricted to the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) but extended to nearly all the security agencies in Nigeria.

7. Defacing ‘Backhander’ Practice from the System

Just as the axiom ‘Rome was not built in a day’ is undeniably true of the gradual progression of any phenomenon. On the other hand, the dictum, ‘it requires a lot of carefulness to kill the fly that perches on the scrotum’ applies to a meticulous removal of veils in a system. Stemming from these inevitable truths, the emphasis is to guide against

applying solutions that are worse than the problem, which has marred the security agencies. 'After a race, the miles or distance covered is calculated' (reflections after thorough thought), hence, the following recommendations are crucial, if there is any chance to deface the backhander practice in the security system.

If there is anything that requires review, within the security agencies in the country, it must be their welfare package. It is sickening to learn that the monthly remuneration of a police constable in the Nigeria Police Force is below 100USD. If this paltry amount is what a Constable and their contemporaries in other security outfits are paid at the end of every month, then, it would be too much of a task for them to not explore backhander as an alternative, to balance up their financial condition. To tackle this, the attention of the government and policymakers should be directed at improving the personnel's welfare so that they can be able to perform optimally and eschew backhander practice.

Another area that calls for appraisal is recruitment. The institutions responsible for the recruitment and training of security personnel in the country have a lot to do. It is glaring that many of the institutions have failed, woefully, in terms of instilling discipline, molding character, and teaching morals to cadets that go through the training program. In addition, judging from the configuration of the security agencies in the country, and the attitudes discharged by both the junior officers and the high-ranking officers, it is obvious that the curriculum that they were subjected to while undergoing their courses at the academy, might have been deficient in terms of ethics, values, and mores. To correct this misdemeanor, the curricula deserve an appraisal, to accommodate courses that teach good ethics and values that gravely discourage backhander and other negative practices in the system.

8. Conclusion

Security, a level-one need on Abraham Maslow's popular chain of human needs, is an overriding obligation the state owes its citizens. It is a prerequisite for any sovereign state. This does not only confirm its inclusion in the exclusive list but also affirms its prioritization as a ritual that must be performed, persistently in so far as the state continues to enjoy her sovereignty. This also ensures the preservation of the institution from external threats and myriads of internal challenges. In other words, it helps the state to be able to avert or protect it from those who would bring her to her knees. Having a good security architecture helps in the setting up of various security outfits to curb one form of threat or another. However, despite the decentralization of tasks within the security structure in Nigeria, there is a unifying malaise (backhander) that has become a trademark, endlessly, engraved insecurity agencies in the country.

Backhander, a major obsession among security personnel in the country has been amplified to the point that, if one has an exhibit, such as a whole dead body in one's vehicle, he can circumvent search by security agents on routine check-in Nigerian roads. In as much as a criminal is ready to exchange hands with money, such an individual is as good as escaping with the crime without any form of interception or interrogation. The backhander practice that is prominent among security agencies in Nigeria has since defeated the core of security because it is no longer a matter of sheer hobby but a paramount occupation that they cannot afford but to engage in a day. Putting this in another way, backhander has dwarfed and eroded the primary responsibility that security agencies are meant to serve. it is also notable that it has been the propelling factor promoting all manners of unethical,

inconsequential, and diminutive attitudes which are harmful, not only to the profession but also detrimental to the entire populace occupying the Nigerian territory.

References

1. Abdullahi, I. D. (2014). "Democratic governance and national security: The role of Nigeria customs service" in Augustine Ikelegbe, Abdulwahab Muhammed-Wadi and Adegboyega A. Karim (eds) *Democratic governance and national security in Nigeria: Challenges and Opportunities*, Abuja: Institute for Security Studies
2. Abolurin, A. (2010). *Democratization and conflict management in Nigeria*, Ibadan: John Archers Publishers.
3. Adebayo, A. (2016). Kidnapping and implication to the national security, <http://www.dailytrust.com.ng> (Accessed 24 February 2021).
4. Adegboyega, K.M. (2012). Analyzing the evolution of private security guards and their Limitations to Security Management in Nigeria, *African Journal of Criminology and Justice Studies: AJCJS*, vol. 5, iss.1&2, pp. 32-48.
5. Ajayi, K. (2008). "National Defense policy and security policy" in Kunle Ajayi (ed.) *Public Administration and Public Policy Analysis in Nigeria*, Lagos: Panaf Publishing Inc.
6. Arase, S.E. (2015). "The Role of the Nigeria Police Force in National Security" in Augustine Ikelegbe, Abdulwahab Muhammed-Wadi and Adegboyega A. Karim (eds) *The Nigerian Economy and National Security: Challenges and Prospects for Sustainable Security and Development*, Abuja: Institute for Security Studies.
7. Balogun, S. (2006) *Road Safety Practice in Nigeria*, Abuja: BOAAS Resources Nigeria. Boemcken, M. and Schetter, C. (2016) *Think piece 09 reflection group*, Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung Global Policy and Development Hiroshimastr, 28 10785 Berlin: Germany.
8. Booth, K. (2007). *Theory of World Security*, New York: Cambridge University Press.
9. Bottoms, A. & Wiles, P. (1997) Environmental criminology in M. Maguire, R. Morgan and R. Reiner (eds.), *The Oxford handbook of criminology*, 2nd ed. pp. 305–359, Oxford: Clarendon Press.
10. Cohen, L.E. & Felson, M. (1979). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach, *American Sociological Review*, vol. 44, pp. 588–605.
11. Constitution of Nigeria, (1999). Federal Republic of Nigeria Official Gazette. Published by the Federal Government of Nigeria.
12. Felson, M. & Clarke, R. V. (1998) *Opportunity makes the thief: Practical theory for crime Prevention* (Police Research Series: Paper 98), London: Policing and Reducing Crime Unit Home Office.
13. Guardian, (2013) Nigerian sergeant sacked for attempted bribe-taking caught on camera phone, www.theguardian.com (Accessed 25 March, 2021).
14. Huysmans, J. (1998). Security! What Do You Mean? From Concept to Thick Signifier, *European Journal of International Relations*, vol.4, no. 2, p. 226.
15. Immigration Act, (2015). Federal Republic of Nigeria Official Gazette Published by the Federal Government of Nigeria.
16. Musbau, R. (2015) Corruption, security agencies and national security, <https://businessday.ng> (Accessed 25 March, 2021).

17. Nassaji, H. (2015). Qualitative and descriptive research: Data type versus data analysis, *Language Teaching Research*, vol.19, no. 2, pp. 129-132, doi: 10.1177/1362168815572747.
18. National Assembly (2007). *Federal Road Safety (Establishment) Act*, Lagos: Federal Government Press.
19. NSCDC Act, (2007) Federal Republic of Nigeria Official Gazette Published by the Federal Government of Nigeria.
20. NOPRIN, (2007). Criminal Force: An Interim Report on the Nigeria Police Force: A Progress Report by the Network on Police Reform in Nigeria.
21. Ogaba, O. (2010). "Security, Globalization and Climate Change: A Conceptual Analysis" in Osita E. E. and Ogaba O. (ed.) *Climate Change and Human Security in Nigeria*. Lagos: NIIA.
22. Police Act (2010) Federal Republic of Nigeria Official Gazette Published by the Federal Government of Nigeria.
23. PR Nigeria (2021) Operation Tranquility: FRSC, VIO Officers are Notorious Bribery Collectors in Nigeria, <https://prnigeria.com> (Accessed 5 April, 2021).
24. UNODC, (2017). Corruption and Bribery in Nigeria: public experience and response, Published by Vienna International Center, www.unodc.org (Accessed 27 March, 2021).
25. UNODC, (2019). Corruption in Nigeria: Patterns and Trends Second Survey on Corruption as Experienced by the Population, www.unodc.org (Accessed 27 March, 2021).

THE RELATION BETWEEN DIVORCE EXPERIENCE AND SOCIAL SKILLS OF CHILDREN AGED 15-18 YEARS

Rana KHALEEL

PhD Student

University: Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca (Romania)

Abstract: *This study investigates the direct and indirect relations between divorce and social participation among children aged 15-18 at Arab-Israeli societies. The researcher used both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. For the collection of quantitative data, a questionnaire was distributed to 265 male and female Arab students aged 15-18 in Israel. As for the qualitative data, interviews were carried out with 54 participants, including students, parents, educational counselors, social workers, and psychotherapists. The questionnaire results showed that children whose parents remained married have better social skills than children from divorced families. Regarding the general results of interviewing 54 participants, most of them agree that children of divorced families had a weak level of social skills since they were not able to interact and communicate with others emotionally. they also tended to have a noticeable lack of confidence and less participation in social activities, such as parties and games compared with children of married parents. Finally, the results stress the important relations between experiencing divorce, and children's social skills.*

keywords: Divorce; Children of divorced families; children of married families; Social skills; Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

1. Introduction

Divorce is a social problem as (Chang et al. 2003) state that society considers divorce as a high-risk and unplanned event occurring despite initial unwillingness. It happens without a timetable, or symbolic and social celebrations that legitimize it. Divorce brings different and conflicting feelings, accompanied with confusion and loss. However, it is a life transition maintaining and correcting family system and changing its re-growth. Moreover, divorce creates a new family framework resulted from conflict. Yet the family will be more positive and optimistic. It has many reasons, including marital boredom, ease to change, finding alternatives, financial problems, pleasure-seeking, selfishness, moral weakness, adultery, and other reasons.

Recently, divorce has begun to extend to Arab societies in general and Arab-Israeli society in particular. Living and interacting with Jewish community brings a western character which contradicts with our customs and traditions. According to Israeli Statistics Department (2019), the number of divorced couples in Israel has reached 15605 Jewish couples in 2018, and 3541 Arab couples. Although the divorce rate in the Arab society is still lower than that in the Jewish community, the Arab community has witnessed a significant increase in recent decades. The divorce rate in the Arab sector was 9% in the previous two decades decade (Israeli Statistics Department, 2019).

This study aims to determine direct and indirect relationships between divorce and school drop-out. Consequently, it is important to work hard to find out solutions to reduce negative effects of divorce on children who are ultimately an integral part of the society.

1.1 Research Questions

How does divorce experience affect social skills of children aged 15-18 years?

1.2 Research Hypotheses years.

Divorce affects children's social skills of children aged 15-18 years.

2. Literature Review

Divorce involves a series of transformations and stages for adults and children. These stages are similar to those described for people experiencing loss: denial, anger, bargaining, and depression. Actually, the negative problems and effects of divorce on children outweigh parents' suffering in many cases. They suffer from anxiety, depression, psychological conflicts, anti-social behaviors, and various kinds of abuse which are a waste of human energy for children. Additionally, they face difficulties in psychological and social adjustment and a lack of social skills (Amato and Keith, 1991).

2.1 Social Skills

Social skills are the core of shaping children's personality and allow them to accept themselves as effective members of society in the future. The foundations of these skills are laid in early childhood as children acquire the customs and traditions of their society from their families and the social environment.

Children's participation in social activities with their families, observing their social roles creates and shapes their social personalities. Therefore, if children are able to acquire these skills and practice them in their communities in a suitable and positive way, their personalities will be developed naturally (Mohamed Reda: 1994, 53-55).

A skill is defined as "a consistent-system of an activity that aims to achieve a particular goal, and it becomes a social skill when a person interacts with another, and performs a social participation that requires a skill which matches what another person does with and what s/he does, to correct his activity so as to achieve harmony" (Abu Hashem: 2002, 149).

Social skills are an important factor in judging proper behavior; therefore, it is important to enhance children's social skills from childhood, making them take responsibility. The above mentioned information requires attention from all institutions because social skills are 'educable', and people grow with social ability to learn. Moreover, people learn their social roles, interact with their companions, and learn to shoulder social responsibility, enabling them to achieve a standard social compatibility (Alderdar: 1993, 138-139).

Many researchers tackle the concept of social skills from different perspectives. They describe people with such social skills as those having a degree of efficiency and quality in performance and concentration. They can have the ability at the level of performance, not the characteristics of the performance itself (Abu Hatab and Sadiq, 1999, 92), or they have acquired the ability to perform complex activities easily and efficiently. Moreover, skills become social when an individual interacts with another and socially participates to suit what each other action (Alsayed: 1981, 64).

In addition, (Combs and Slaby, 1977) refer to 'social skills' as the ability to interact with others in the social environment in a socially acceptable manner, or that specific interaction has social value, or benefits for both parties (Abdul Jawad, 1990, 26).

(Shawky et al. 2003: 52) defines it as,

The ability of the individual to express, either in a verbal or a non-verbal form, his feelings, opinions and thoughts to others, and realizing and taking into consideration the verbal and non-verbal messages issued by them. Besides, it is his ability to interpret these messages in a way that contributes to directing their behavior towards them as well as to behave appropriately in situations of social interactions with them. Moreover, it is his ability to control his verbal and non-verbal behaviors and amend it as a function of its requirements in a way that helps to achieve his goals.

It is worth mentioning that the importance of social skills is that they are a means of social communication and interaction among children. It is also a good indicator for psychological health and awareness of individual differences among children. Social skills also help the child to form social relations with his/her peers and others. It also helps the child to accept the idea of participating with other children in play, cooperation, and sympathy. Furthermore, these skills encourage children to initiate, have courage in expressing feelings and opinions and respect the desires of others (Soto-Icaza et al, 2015)

2.2 Types of Social Skills

Childhood is the basis of the physical and psychological development of an individual. Children in their early childhood get to know themselves and the surrounding world. It is one of the most appropriate stages to learn and acquire various skills because children, in this stage, enjoy repeating any work until they can master it (Kyerematen et al., 2014). Therefore, those who are around them should train them to acquire social skills in order to enable them to rely on themselves and others in the future.

Children's readiness at this stage helps them acquire many skills as they engage in their community, and their families help them acquire the skills, too (Bahader, 1987, 18-19).

Social scientists' opinions greatly vary when it comes to social skills. For example, (Hassan, 2001) classifies social skills into Cooperation, Participation, and Free Competition skills. However, (Segrin 2001), (Mota et al, 2011), (McCoy, et al, 2016), and (Butterworth et al, 2014) tend to classify social skills into two dimensions:

1. Verbal or social communication skills
2. Non-verbal or emotional communication skills

Each of these dimensions includes three specific sub-skills as follows:

Transmission skill: it is the individual's ability to socialize and communicate with others.

Receptive skill: it is the sensitivity skill of individuals, and the ability to receive and interpret other's messages.

Control and organizational skills: they refer to the individuals' abilities to organize communication processes and obtain the conversation flow in various social situations (Hassan: 80- 2001).

(Alaraby, 2003, 41) divides social skills into:

Verbal Expressions (Verbal Communication): verbal expressions are the core of social performance as most forms of social skills are verbal. They include the followings:

- Speech act: it takes many forms, such as asking, repeating, and answering questions.
- Proactive or double speech: it takes many forms like answering a question, then asking a question in return.
- The Full conversation: it is the ability to respond directly and quickly while using facial expressions.

B. Non-verbal expressions (non-verbal communication) which include:

- Facial expressions such as smiling, etc.
- Ability to use gestures.
- Direct gestures to others.
- Change in tone.

C. Compassion, collaboration, and caring skills:

- Collaboration is to adopt others' goals and help them achieve them.
- Compassion is to share others their emotions and support them.
- Caring for others is the establishment of intimate relationships between a person and others.

As mentioned above, many researchers identify the components of social skills differently. However, the researcher will adopt Abd al-Rahman's classification of social skills because it tackles children of divorce families as it is study sample.

2.3 Social Skills Development

Social skills are acquired, do not arise with children, but are taught to children to become part of their personality, so parents must teach children these skills, and use these skills in dealing with members of society, some psychological diseases in children are caused mainly by their lack of mastery of social skills, Therefore, these skills have a great role in raising healthy children in society.

Good social skills allow children to enjoy better relationships with their peers. And the benefits of strong social skills go far beyond just social acceptance. Children with better social skills are more likely to reap major benefits such as less stress and ease of making friends.

(Combs and Slaby, 1977), (Duffy and Fuller, 2000), (Connell and Prinz, 2002), (Spence, 2003), and (Kılıç and Aytar, 2017) believe in the importance of training on social skills during childhood for several considerations: providing the child with the ability to perform work easily, raising skill performance level, and expanding children's abilities to form relationships and have social interactions with others. Children can acquire social skills at the end of this stage, after they have been able to achieve a degree of self-stability and form proper verbal interaction with those around them. Parents and those who raise children in this period must strengthen good social skills and weaken the bad social skills.

2.4 The Effect of Divorce on Social skills

One of the consequences of divorce is the disturbance of the social upbringing of children as parents have little or no interest in caring for children. This disturbance makes children far from adhering to social values, such as honesty, cooperation, high self-confidence, frankness, self-criticism, patience, and others (Parish and Taylor, 1979). Those

children are very close to bad behaviors like selfishness, self-love, effeminacy, sectarianism, class, and pessimism. This leads children to resort to the realm of deviation (Alam et al., 2001).

Coming from a divorced family makes children closer to depression than children from intact families. This is reflected in their desire to deal with others because they lose the required skills (Annetts et al., 2009, Franiuk et al., 2002, and Bynum and Durm, 1996). Clay's study (1998) identified divorce's effects based on the behavior of children from divorced fathers. Actually, divorce affects children's level of engagement, whether at school or at home. The study also reported that children show, from time to time, some violent behavior, such as screaming and swearing at school and home.

Divorce has a significant impact on social skills of children from divorced families as it is an important criterion in judging "normal" behavior. In reality, developing social skills in children of divorced spouses is an essential issue. Regarding the early education of children, it is important to make children accustomed to giving and bearing responsibility. All institutions must take these points into consideration because social skills are deemed as a learned response. Individuals develop social abilities from early childhood, learn social roles and interact socially with other society members and learn to shoulder social responsibility. Therefore, divorce is a direct reason in disturbing social skills (Thapa et al., 2013).

Children of divorced parents suffer from behavioral disorders and lower social skills compared to non-divorced families' children (Wallerstein, 1991). Divorce also negatively affects psychological and social adjustments of children (Landucci, 2008) and Richardson and (McGabe and Higgins, 2001). Children from divorced parents also suffer from the lack of social skills. In addition to an increase of harmful behaviors, they start showing difficulty in psychological adjustment, and a decline in self-concept (Grollman, 1989, Ellington, 2003, Lansford, 2009, Weldon, 2016, and Haimi and Lerner, 2016). The low level of social skills of children from divorced parents is due to behavioral problems, nervousness, tension, aggression, and withdrawal (Di Maio et al., 2016).

In addition, divorce makes children have poor coping skills, behavioral illnesses, school problems, emotional illnesses, aggressive behaviors, and poor relationships and social skills (Brownlee, 2007). (Aseeltine, 1996) and (Malone, 2010) explained that social skills like problem-solving, decision-making, communication, self-management, and relationships with others are greatly reduced when divorce occurs. (Eaton, 2018) indicated that divorce affects children's social skills which in turn affect their academic achievements.

3.0 Research Methodology

3.1 Research Approach

The researcher made use of the inductive approach in the development of the hypotheses. By gathering information, the researcher started to understand the idea of the studied phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2012). In this view, business specialists ensured that hypotheses were identified because of observational research and not the other way around. As such, the researchers began from exact evidence to create hypothetical explorations (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). In our research, the inductive approach is used to develop research hypotheses.

3.2 The Use of Survey Method

This study aims at investigating direct and indirect associations between experiencing divorce and school dropout. The survey method was more suitable in the collection and analysis of data in the quantitative approach because the number of questionnaires is 265. This number is high and is difficult to be analyzed qualitatively. Moreover, the collected data could be used to propose an understanding of the relationships among the research variables.

3.3 The Use of Interview Method

Beside survey method used in this study, the researcher also employed qualitative research methodology since it is distinguished by its ability to present complex textual descriptions regarding the ways in which individuals experience a specific issue, introducing a detailed background about the human side of this issue. Individual biographical studies are a valuable means in highlighting life conditions in changing societies and can explore transmission of experiences and problems when moving from one social situation to another one (Chamberlayne, Rustin and Wengraf, 2002)

3.4 Participants

3.4.1 Participants in Questionnaire

In this study, Sample characteristics included three major items: age, gender, and religion. Age variable is critical in this study since all participants' age should range from 15 to 18 years. Gender is also an important variable to explore which gender is affected more from parent's divorce. Religion is the last variable examined to determine its role in limited the negative effects of divorce on school drop-out/achievement. Table 1 indicates the result analysis of demographic variables. The researcher also listed the percentage and frequency of each variable for children whose parents are married and children whose parents are divorced according to the categories of the survey.

Table 1: Characteristics of Respondents (N= 218)

Variables	Valid		Married parents	Divorced parents	Total
Age	15	Frequencies	29	25	54
		Percentage	25.7	23.8	24.8
	16	Frequencies	38	12	50
		Percentage	33.6	11.4	22.9
	17	Frequencies	22	28	50
		Percentage	19.5	26.7	22.9
	18	Frequencies	24	40	64
		Percentage	21.2	38.1	29.4
Total	Frequencies	113	105	218	
	Percentage	100	100	100	
Gender	Male	Frequencies	54	38	92
		Percentage	47.8	36.2	42.2
	Female	Frequencies	59	67	126
		Percentage	52.2	63.8	57.8

Total		Frequencies	113	105	218
		Percentage	100	100	100
Religion	Moslem	Frequencies	113	105	218
		Percentage	100	100	100
	Christian	Frequencies	-	-	-
		Percentage	-	-	-
	Druze	Frequencies	-	-	-
		Percentage	-	-	-
	Other	Frequencies	-	-	-
		Percentage	-	-	-
	No answer	Frequencies	-	-	-
		Percentage	-	-	-
Total		Frequencies	113	105	218
		Percentage	100	100	100

The sample was about equally divided according to the age, but one third of the children with married parents belonged to the 16-age group while for divorced parents the age 18 was most frequent. Girls were more present both in the married parent's group (52.2%) and divorced parents' group (63.8%). Actually, there are almost two times more girls coming from the divorced families than boys (36.2%). All respondents (with married and divorced parents) are Muslim. None of the respondents is Christian, Druze, or other religious groups.

3.4.2 Interviews Participants

Participants in the interviews vary between students coming from divorced parents, educational consultants, regular visit officers, psychologists, social workers, and divorced parents.

Regarding students' sample, the number of students participating is 14 students coming from divorced parents. 14 students of divorced parents are included. Table 2 indicates detailed information about the students.

Table 2: Detailed Information about the Students (N= 14)

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	Religion	Year of Divorce	Number of siblings	Do you work?
1- Apo	18	Male	Muslim	2010	4	Yes
2- Anna	18	Female	Muslim	2014	4	Yes
3- Ashj	18	Female	Muslim	2009	2	No
4- Joney	15	Male	Muslim	2015	4	No
5- Mohi	15	Male	Muslim	2014	2	Yes
6- Asmaa	15	Female	Muslim	2016	4	No
7- Haem	18	Male	Muslim	2007	3	No
8- Goma	17	Male	Muslim	2013	3	Yes
9- Mahran	17	Male	Muslim	2017	5	No
10- Engy	16	Female	Muslim	2014	4	No
11- Kamo	16	Female	Muslim	2010	2	No
12- Risho	18	Female	Muslim	2012	5	Yes

13- Yado	17	Male	Muslim	2015	3	Yes
14- Lobna	16	Female	Muslim	2009	1	No

Regarding the educational consultants' sample, the number of educational consultants participating is 4 consultants. 14 educational consultants were included in this study. Table 3 indicates detailed information about the educational consultants.

Table 3: Detailed Information about the Educational Consultants (N= 4)

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Marital status	Number of children
1- Amany	Female	54	Married	5
2- Badr	Male	47	Married	5
3- Moham	Male	51	Married	6
4- Gemy	Male	43	Married	3

As for the regular visit officers' sample, the number of those officers participating is 6 officers. 6 persons participated during visit offices. Table 4 indicates detailed information about the regular visit officers.

Table 4: Detailed Information about the Regular Visit Officers(N= 6)

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Marital status	Number of children
1- Basio	Male	35	Married	2
2- Galila	Female	50	Married	5
3- Ahmed	Male	54	Married	4
4- Simon	Female	41	Divorced	2
5- Lardo	Male	39	Married	2
6- Gondy	Male	42	Married	5

Regarding the psychologists' sample, the number of psychologists participating is 5 psychologists. 5 psychologists were included in this study. Table 5 indicates detailed information about the psychologists.

Table 5: Detailed Information about the Psychologists (N= 5)

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Marital status	Number of children
1- Donia	Female	49	Married	4
2- Rachad	Male	38	Married	1
3- Mounir	Male	29	Single	-
4- Zakia	Female	37	Divorced	3
5- Randa	Female	51	Married	5

Regarding the social workers' sample, the number of social workers participating is 9 social workers. 6 social workers participated in this study. Table 6 indicates the detailed information about the social workers.

Table 6: Detailed Information about the Social Workers (N=6)

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Marital status	Number of children
1- Rateb	Male	27	Single	-
2- Gamal	Male	49	Married	5
3- Amgad	Male	33	Married	2
4- Rania	Female	31	Single	-
5- Mohan	Female	52	Married	7
6- Hania	Female	40	Married	5
7- Radia	Female	35	Married	4
8- Ahmor	Male	41	Married	5
9- Kamal	Male	37	Married	4

Finally, regarding the parents sample, the number of parents participating is 16 parents. 16 parents were included in the study sample. Table 7 indicates detailed information about the parents.

Table 7: Detailed Information about the Parents (N= 16)

Pseudonym	Gender	Year of marriage	Year of Divorce	Number of Children	Age
1- Ahmed	Male	1980	2003	5	65
2- Maged	Male	1993	2010	4	53
3- Reda	Male	1990	2014	6	50
4- Moataz	Male	2001	20012	3	45
5- Ivona	Female	1995	2006	4	47
6- Mamdouh	Male	1987	2009	7	63
7- Adel	Male	1993	2001	4	51
8- Gamila	Female	1997	2016	3	49
9- Ismail	Male	1988	2010	6	58
10- Ibrahim	Male	2000	2015	4	54
11- Rana	Female	1995	2009	5	60
12- Amina	Female	2003	2017	2	58
13- Maher	Male	1999	2015	4	53
14- Magdy	Male	2004	2013	3	43
15- Ihab	Male	1991	2003	5	59
16- Ahlam	Female	2000	2009	2	38

3.5 Data Analysis

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is used to analyze data collected, aiming to explore the parameters of measurement model. Moreover, SEM's main objective is to test the theoretical models that entail the existence of relationships among variables (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). Actually, SEM has widely used in research since it considers the estimation error while factually dissecting information. SEM was used as a part of Partial Least Squares (PLS) investigation, and covariance-based, e.g., those used as a part of LISREL.

Partial Least Squares (PLS), which was used to measure the model parameters, was developed by Wold (1975) for instances where data could not meet the assumptions amount of covariance-based SEM strategies as cited in (Fornell and

Bookstein, 1982). PLS increased the clarified variation of ward factors by disaggregating the general model into components which were steady at the same time (Chin, 1998).

For analyzing the interview data, the Nvivo computer software program, as a data management tool, was used to successfully produce the relevant findings. In this case, qualitative data analysis is a subjective interpretive process according to Mauthner and Doucet (1998). Thus, the utilization of Nvivo computer software program as the only means of data management is justified. Moreover, the use of Nvivo computer software program allows the examination of the research trail. Once all the transcripts were imported into the program, the analysis process began.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Response Rate

As stated in the methodology chapter, SPSS software program was used to analyze data collected. In addition, the purposeful sampling was used to select the children sample.

Three hundred and six questionnaires (confidence interval of 95%) were collected. Seventy seven questionnaires (25.2%) were invalid because they did not complete most sections (question No. 9, Social well-being, and school achievement). Thus, in the end, 229 of the questionnaires (74.8%) were used in data screening. After data screening, 11 questionnaires were classified as outliers. Therefore, the final total sample included 218 questionnaires (71.2% of the initial sample). This was acceptable as the error margin (accuracy) was at 5%, and confidence interval was at 95%. Table 8 exhibits the summary of the overall response for this study.

Table 8: Summary of Response Rate

Survey instrument	Total (N)	Percentage	Margin of error	Interval confidence
Total survey	306	100%	0.05%	95%
Invalid survey	77	25.2%		
Outliers	11	3.6%		
Valid survey	218	71.2%	0.05%	0.95%

4.2 Social Skills

Table 9 illustrates children's social skills of children of married parents and divorced parents.

Regarding children of married parents, the mean value for the statement "I flatter my friends when they feel nervous", "I look at the others contemptuously" and "I feel angry and jealous when someone does a good job" They are the answers with the highest selection rate chosen by the research sample to explain their feelings and reactions towards members of the community. As, the mean value for the statement "I try to be better than anyone else", "I often visit my friends at home" and "I stay with others for a long time until they get bored of me" are the behaviors that are chosen in a small percentage by the research sample, in other words, the child does not resort to these behaviors as reactions to society.

Table 9: Children's Social Skills

Items			strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	SD
I flatter my friends when they feel nervous	Married parents	Frequencies	58	25	18	6	6	4.09	1.16
		Percentage	51.3	22.1	15.9	5.3	5.3		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	33	39	7	9	17	3.59	1.22
		Percentage	31.4	37.1	6.7	8.6	16.2		
I look at the others contemptuously	Married parents	Frequencies	4	4	17	27	61	1.79	1.05
		percentage	3.5	3.5	15	23.9	54		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	9	20	17	17	42	2.40	1.30
		percentage	8.6	19	16.2	16.2	40		
I feel angry and jealous when someone does a good job	Married parents	Frequencies	3	6	17	24	63	1.78	1.05
		percentage	2.7	5.3	15	21.2	55.8		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	8	9	7	31	50	1.99	1.25
		percentage	7.6	8.6	6.7	29.5	47.6		
I bother people to make them angry	Married parents	Frequencies	18	12	15	45	23	2.62	1.18
		percentage	15.9	10.6	13.3	39.8	20.4		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	28	19	17	18	23	3.10	1.13
		percentage	26.7	18.1	16.2	17.1	21.9		
I feel happy when someone does a good job	Married parents	Frequencies	50	28	14	13	8	3.88	1.28
		percentage	44.2	24.8	12.4	11.5	7.1		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	42	25	17	12	9	3.75	1.32
		percentage	40	23.8	16.2	11.4	8.6		
I lie in order to get what I want	Married parents	Frequencies	18	14	21	32	28	2.66	1.15
		percentage	15.9	12.4	18.6	28.3	24.8		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	31	28	18	15	13	3.47	1.13
		percentage	29.5	26.7	17.1	14.3	12.4		
I try to be better than anyone else	Married parents	Frequencies	67	18	12	7	9	4.12	1.28
		percentage	59.3	15.9	10.6	6.2	8		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	22	25	27	12	19	3.18	1.07
		percentage	21	23.8	25.7	11.4	18.1		
I often visit my friends at home	Married parents	Frequencies	42	17	22	18	14	3.49	1.16
		percentage	37.2	15	19.5	15.9	12.4		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	16	11	17	34	27	2.57	1.20
		percentage	15.2	10.5	16.2	32.4	25.7		
I stay with others for a long time until they get bored of me	Married parents	Frequencies	9	12	17	21	54	2.12	1.24
		percentage	8	10.6	15	18.6	47.8		
	Divorced parents	Frequencies	36	21	24	12	12	3.54	1.19
		percentage	34.3	20	22.9	11.4	11.4		

4.3 Interview results

4.3.1 The Effect of the Divorce Phenomenon on the Social skills

Everyone agreed that divorce clearly affected social skills of students, and the extent of their participation in social participation.

Equally important, six interviewees (Maged, 53 years, divorced since 2010; Ahmed, 54 years, married; Randa, 51 years, married; Rateb, 27 years, single; Mahran, 17 years, his parents got divorced in 2017; Moataz, 45 years, divorced in 2012) pointed out, "There were some impacts of divorce that affected psyche of students and made them felt that they were inferior compared with their peers in married families". They pointed out that family breakdown made students feel anxious and sad, hindering their social and interactive development, loss of confidence, and inability to exchange feelings of love with others, loss of feelings of belonging and mental illness, and behavioral and aggressive deviation. Children of divorced families also suffered from emotional, behavioral, and social problems like depression, low levels of ambition, and nervousness. All these impacts affected their social skills and their participation in social participation".

One interviewee (Galila, 50 years, married) highlighted that "Divorce often led to a loss of contact with a parent. This loss also caused students to lose knowledge and social skills, and to lose one of the most important emotional and financial sources of support from parents."

On other hand, eight of them (Apo, 18 years, his parents got divorced in 2010; Yado, 17 years, his parents got divorced in 2015; Lobna, 16 years, her parents got divorced in 2009; Amany, 54 years, married; Ahlam, 38 years, divorced in 2009; Maher, 53 years, divorced in 2015; Amgad, 33 years, married; Radia, 35 years, married) mentioned that "children of divorced families had a weak level of social skills since they were not able to interact and communicate with others emotionally. They also faced difficulties in expressing positive feelings."

Moreover, four interviewees (Rachad, 38 years, married; Zakia, 37 years, divorced; Mamdouh, 63 years, divorced in 2009; Ashj, 18 years, parents divorced in 2009) clarified that "low social skills of these children pushed them into isolation, and this was reflected in their lack of participation in social participation. Actually, they deviated from dealing with others. These children felt that they were less than their friends and classmates who lived within a family, and they felt that they were deprived of the parents' sympathy".

5. Recommendations:

1. Conducting more studies on the psychological and social effects of divorce on children, using representative samples and codified research tools that are integrated in quantitative and qualitative methodology.
2. To educate young women and men who are about to get married with the information and life and social skills necessary for a happy and effective married life, capable of dealing with marital problems efficiently and effectively.
3. It is necessary to provide psychological, social and material support to families affected by divorce, in order to spare them and the children the scourge of the bitter experience that could destroy their present and future lives.
4. The print and visual media should educate the newlyweds about the duties and rights of spouses

5. The curricula must include materials related to the family, its composition, duties and mission, in a manner that is appropriate for each academic stage or age, especially for university students.
6. Associations should be established to provide advice and guidance to parents in the case of problems.
7. The various official and private sectors must cooperate to study the phenomenon of divorce in order to develop ways to treat it.

References

1. Abdul Jawad, Azza (1990). *The Use of Psychodrama in the Treatment of Certain Psychological Problems of Preschool Ag Children* (unpublished master's thesis). Ain Shams University, Cairo.
2. Alam, N., Saha, S. K., Razzaque, A., and van Ginneken, J. K. (2001). The effect of divorce on infant mortality in a remote area of Bangladesh. *Journal of Biosocial Science*, 33(2), 271-280.
3. Alaraby, Mohamed. (2003). *The effectiveness of training on the use of pictorial activity tables in developing some social skills and its impact on reducing withdrawal behavior among mentally retarded children* (Unpublished master's thesis), Faculty of Education, Zagazig University.
4. Amato, P. R., and Keith, B. (1991). Parental divorce and the well-being of children: A meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 110(1), 26-46
5. Annetts, J., Law, A., McNeish, W., and Mooney, G. (2009). *Understanding social welfare movements*. Policy Press: Lebanon.
6. Aseltine, R. H., Jr. (1996). Pathways linking parental divorce with adolescent depression. *Journal of and Social Behavior*, 37(2), 133-148.
7. Butterworth, T. W., Hodge, M. A. R., Sofronoff, K., Beaumont, R., Gray, K. M., Roberts, J., and Einfeld, S. L. (2014). Validation of the emotion regulation and social skills questionnaire for young people with autism spectrum disorders. *Journal of autism and developmental disorders*, 44(7), 1535-1545.
8. Brownlee, A. (2007). The effects of divorce and its associated stressors on children and adolescents. *Journal of Undergraduate Research at Minnesota State University, Mankato*, 7(1), 1-30.
9. Bynum, M. K., and Durm, M. W. (1996). Children of divorce and its effect on their self-esteem. *Psychological Reports*, 79(2), 447-450.
10. Chamberlayne, P, Rustin M. and Wengraf, T. (2002). Biography and Social Exclusion in Europe: Experiences and Life Journeys. *Journal of social policy*, 32(4).
11. Chang, L., Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., & McBride-Chang, C. (2003). Harsh Parenting in Relation to Child
12. Emotion Regulation and Aggression. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 17(4), 598-606.
13. Chin, W. (1998). The partial least squares approach for structural equation modeling. In G. A.
14. Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern methods for business research* (pp. 295-336). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
15. Clay, J. E. (1998). *The marriage law in the people's republic of China and its effect on divorce as compared with divorce in the United States of America*. University of Hong Kong.

16. Combs, M. L., and Slaby, D. A. (1977). Social-skills training with children. In *Advances in clinical child psychology* (pp. 161-201). Springer, Boston, MA.
17. Connell, C. M., and Prinz, R. J. (2002). The impact of childcare and parent-child interactions on school readiness and social skills development for low-income African: American children. *Journal of school psychology, 40*(2), 177-193.
18. Di Maio, M., Nisticò, R., Acconcia, A., Vinayak Banerjee, A., Casaburi, L, Christelis, D., and Venittelli, T. (2016). Effect of parental job loss on child school dropout: Evidence from the Palestinian Occupied Territories. *31st AIEL Annual Conference of Labour Economics and at the 12th CSEF-IGIER Symposium on Economics and Institutions for valuable comments*.
19. Duffy, B., and Fuller, R. (2000). Role of music therapy in social skills development in children with moderate intellectual disability. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities, 13*(2), 77-89
20. Eaton, M. (2018). Negative Effects of Divorce and Possible Intervention Program Development and Improvement. *Intuition: The BYU Undergraduate Journal in Psychology, 13*(1), 34-48.
21. Ellington, C. A. (2003). *Effects of Divorce on Children and Ways Schools Can Offer Support* (master thesis), Cedarville University, USA.
22. [Eriksson](#), P & [Kovalainen](#), A. (2008). *Qualitative Methods in Business Research*. SAGE publications Ltd: UK.
23. Fornell, C., & Bookstein, F. L. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research, 19*(4), 440-452.
24. Franiuk, R., Cohen, D., and Pomerantz, E. M. (2002). Implicit theories of relationships: Implications for relationship satisfaction and longevity. *Personal Relationships, 9*(4), 345-367
25. Grollman, E. A. (1989). *Talking About Divorce and Separation: groups, kindergarten and first grade children*. Rochester, NY.
26. Haimi, M., and Lerner, A. (2016). The impact of parental separation and divorce on the health status of children, and the ways to improve it. *Journal of Clinical and Medical Genomics, 4*(1), 1-7.
27. Hassan, Ahmed. (2001). *The Role of Theatre in Imparting Certain Social Skills to Fourth Grade Pupils* (Unpublished master's thesis). Institute of graduate studies of childhood, Ain Shams University.
28. [Higgins](#), D, and [McCabe](#), M. (2001). Multiple forms of child abuse and neglect: Adult retrospective reports. [*Aggression and Violent Behavior*](#) 6(6):547-578
29. Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students*. Pearson Education Ltd., Harlow.
30. Kılıç, K. M., and Aytar, F. A. G. (2017). The effect of social skills training on social skills in early childhood, the relationship between social skills and temperament. *Eğitim Ve Bilim, 42*(191).
31. Kyerematen, V., Hamb, A., Oberhelman, R. A., Cabrera, L., Bernabe-Ortiz, A., and Berry, S. J. (2014). Exploratory application of the Ages and Stages (ASQ) child development screening test in a low-income Peruvian shantytown population. *BMJ open, 4*(1).
32. Landucci, N. (2008). *The impact of divorce on children: What school counselors need to know* (Master Thesis, University of Wisconsin-Stout).

33. Lansford, J. E. (2009). Parental divorce and children's adjustment. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 4(2), 140-152.
34. Malone, S. (2010). Planning mother tongue-based education programs in minority: language communities. SIL International: Asia Area.
35. Mauthner, N., & Doucet, A. (1998). Reflections on a voice-centred relational method: Analyzing maternal and domestic voices. In J. Ribbens & R. Edwards (Eds.), *Feminist dilemmas in qualitative research: Public knowledge and private lives* (pp. 119–146). Sage Publications, Inc.
36. McCoy, A., Holloway, J., Healy, O., Rispoli, M., and Neely, L. (2016). A systematic review and evaluation of video modeling, role-play and computer-based instruction as social skills interventions for children and adolescents with high-functioning autism. *Review Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 3(1), 48-67.
37. Mota, C. P., Matos, P. M., and Lemos, M. S. (2011). Psychometric properties of the social skills questionnaire: Portuguese adaptation of the student form (grades 7 to 12). *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 14(1).
38. Parish, T. S., and Taylor, J. C. (1979). The impact of divorce and subsequent father absence on children's and adolescents' self-concepts. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 8(4), 427-432.
39. Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling (2nd ed.)*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
40. Segrin, C. (2001). Social skills and negative life events: Testing the deficit stress generation hypothesis. *Current Psychology*, 20(1), 19-35.
41. [Shawky](#), H, [Marathe](#), A, and [Barrett](#), C. (2003). A first look at the empirical relation between spot and futures electricity prices in the United States. *The Journal of Futures Markets*, 23(10).
42. Soto-Icaza, P., Aboitiz, F., & Billeke, P. (2015). Development of social skills in children: neural and behavioral evidence for the elaboration of cognitive models. *Frontiers in neuroscience*, 9, 333.
43. Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., and Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of educational research*, 83(3), 357-385.
44. Wallerstein, J. S. (1991). The long-term effects of divorce on children: A review. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 30(3), 349-360.
45. Weldon, A. (2016). *Effects of Timing of Parental Divorce on Children's Romantic Relationships in Adulthood: A Review*. Lewis Honors College Capstone Collection, University of Kentucky.

THE USE OF GIS AND MULTI-CRITERIA ANALYSIS FOR PLANNING OF HEALTH INFRASTRUCTURES' IMPLANTATION IN THE MAYO DANAY DIVISION, FAR NORTH REGION, CAMEROON

TAKEM MBI Bienvenu Magloire¹, Ruth TUA ENI², TANKIE Quinta SHEGWE³, SIRRI Erika SUH⁴

Researcher at the National Institute of Cartography, Yaoundé, Cameroon

Email: takemmbi@yahoo.fr,

Researcher at the National Institute of Cartography, Yaoundé, Cameroon

Email: ruthtuwa@gmail.com

Researcher at the National Institute of Cartography, Yaoundé, Cameroon

Email: tankiequinta9@gmail.com

Researcher at the National Institute of Cartography, Yaoundé, Cameroon

Email: sirrierikasuh@gmail.com

Abstract: *Cameroon's National Development Strategy 2020-2030 published in 2020 states that: "the current health system does not yet manage to ensure, in a sufficient way, the promotion of the health of the populations and an adequate and global management of the cases of disease". The main cause of the above situation amongst others is the uneven distribution of health structures in the territory, particularly in rural areas. While it is imperative for new health facilities to be put in place, the location of these new structures in the different health districts is equally very important in order to reduce the imbalance in their distribution. It is for this reason that this study intends to employ Geographic Information System-GIS to map the spatial distribution of existing public health infrastructures and to use multi-criteria analysis (MCA) in order to determine suitable sites for the implantation of new health facilities in the Mayo Danay division of the Far North region of Cameroon. The Analytical Hierarchy Process was employed in this study to determine the choice of criteria, identification of exclusion (constraints) and assessment (factors) criteria and definition of weights for the criteria. Maps were treated in both Qgis 2.18 and Grass 7.2.2. Information and data was gathered from secondary sources and the internet. Results demonstrate that a total of 56 (fifty-six) integrated health centers exist in Mayo Danay division and are distributed unequally across the 5 health districts. The health districts of Kar-Hay and Yagoua have 17 (30.5%) and 14 (25%) of the number of existing health centers in the division. While Guere and Vele each have 9 (16%), Maga has 7 (12.5%) of the total number. MCA illustrated that the health areas of Kai-kai (west), Tekele, Mazera (north), part of Gobio, Yagoua and Bougaye (center) and Bagana, Djougoumta, Polgue and Nouldaina (south-east) are the areas that were deemed suitable for the implantation of new health centres. The results demonstrated that with a combination of these tools, suitable sites for the establishment of health infrastructures can be determined in a rational way and can be reliable to help decision-making in different fields.*

Keywords: *GIS, multi-criteria analysis, health infrastructures, Mayo Danay, Cameroon*

1. Introduction

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which replaced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2015 state that by 2030 countries will be able to ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all; objective 3 (United Nations Organisation, 2015). Prior to the formulation of these goals by the international community, a number of health-related meetings had been held with a number of resolutions adopted. These include: The Alma-Ata Declaration of 1978, which recognized health as a fundamental

human right; the Ouagadougou Declaration, (2008), one of whose many resolutions reaffirmed the principles of the Alma-Ata Declaration; the Algiers Declaration, (2008), on strengthening health in Africa and the declaration on universal health coverage, in Mexico-City in 2012 which insisted on the imperative for States to ensure equitable access to services and health care (Ministry of Public Health-MINSANTE, 2017). It should be noted that Cameroon has signed these commitments and many others that relate to the health sector. The orientations for achieving the objectives of the commitments were stipulated in the Growth and Employment Strategy Document. In 2009, Cameroon adopted the 2035 vision for its development program. This 2035 vision is formulated as follows: *Cameroon: an emerging country, democratic and united in its diversity* (Republic of Cameroon, 2009). In the field of public health, this vision is formulated as follows: *"Cameroon, a country where universal access to quality health services is ensured for all social strata by 2035, with full community participation"* (MINSANTE, 2017).

In the recently published National Development Strategy document for 2020-2030 (NDS30), it is stated in terms of public health issues that: *"the objective of the health sector policy in Cameroon was to guarantee, in a sustainable manner, universal access to quality health services and care, through the improvement of their supply and the appropriate financing of health demand"* (NDS30, p: 88). Following this policy statement, a number of actions have therefore been undertaken and these have enabled Cameroon to: (i) improve the infrastructural offer; (ii) increase the volume and qualification of human resources; (iii) facilitate access to medicines, among other things. These efforts, it is specified in the NDS30 that: *"the current health system does not yet manage to ensure, in a sufficient way, the promotion of the health of the populations and an adequate and global management of the cases of disease"*. Among the main causes of this above situation, can be cited: (i) the uneven distribution of health structures on the territory, particularly in rural areas; (ii) the absence of a quality technical platform in the majority of health facilities (NDS30;p: 88).

On the basis of the foregoing and with a view to contributing to the development of healthy, productive human capital capable of supporting strong, inclusive and sustainable growth, the authorities intend to guarantee to all segments of the population equitable and universal access to basic health services and care and quality priority specialized care, with the full participation of the community (NDS30, 2020; p: 90). To achieve this, new health infrastructures must consequently be put in place.

Choosing the location of these new infrastructures so that they can better serve the population has always been a very difficult task for the government. A study by Kondji-Kondji (2005), demonstrated that the criteria that governed the choice of setting up health centers were much more political than technical. As a result, there is an infrastructural imbalance between different regions and even between the same health districts (MINSANTE, 2017). A scientifically based allocation of health resources in Cameroon and in the Mayo Danay division is indispensable. According to Rezaeian, (2009), a revival of interest has accompanied major advances in the geographical sciences and technologies such as ... geographical information systems (GIS) and global positioning systems (GPS), that make it possible for public health researchers to more easily investigate their spatial data and consequently to understand the role of "place" in community health in a scientific manner. In their study on Spatial distribution and accessibility to public sector tertiary care teaching hospitals in Karachi, Shaikh and Ali, (2016), employed GIS and network analysis for modeling the accessibility to these hospitals for Karachi residents. They intimated that GIS are being used in both developing and developed world to study the distribution and

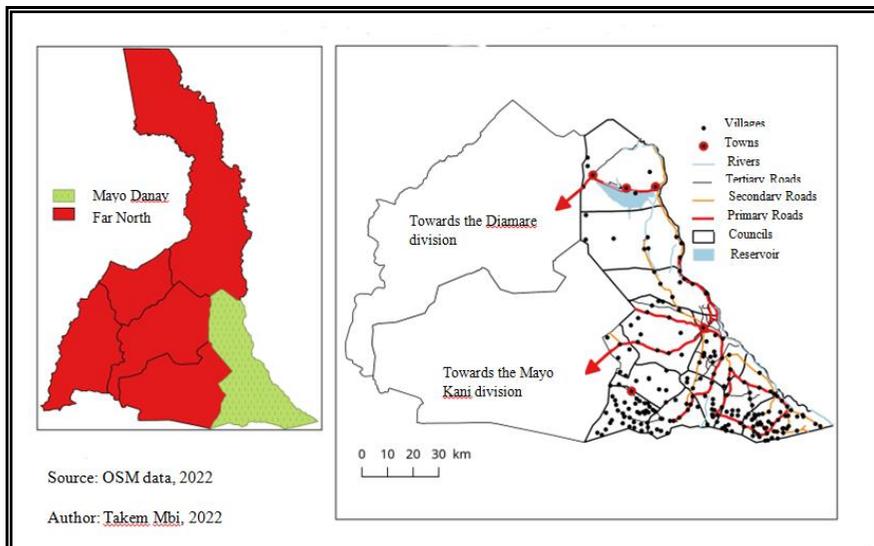
access to health care services. Hazrin et al; (2013) used GIS to map the spatial distributions of health clinics for public and private sectors in Malaysia since information on the location of health clinics and their distribution is required to enhance optimisation of effectiveness, reduce costs and resources utilization among service providers. This tool has not only been used to map the spatial distribution of health facilities but also employed to generate different estimations of accessibility based on the existing road network and transport barriers (Eklund and Mårtensson, 2012). This present study therefore proposes to use GIS to map the spatial distribution of existing public health infrastructures and to employ multi-criteria analysis in order to determine suitable sites for the establishment of new health facilities in the said division.

2- STUDY AREA AND METHODOLOGY

2.1. Study zone

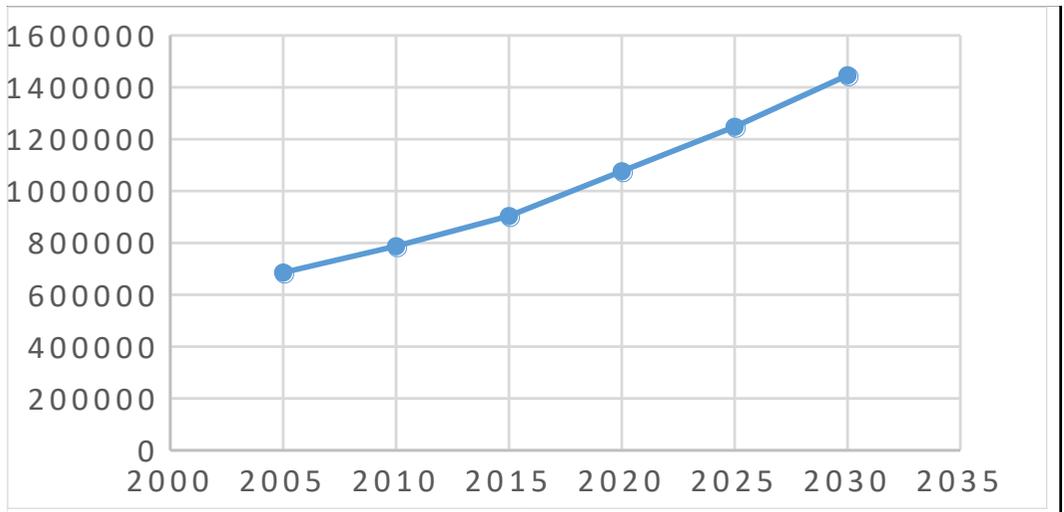
The Mayo Danay division is one of the six divisions of the Far North Region of Cameroon. Located in the northeast of the Region and sharing a common border with the Republic of Chad to the East, this division covers an area of 5,300 km² representing approximately 15.5% of the total area of the Region (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Location of Mayo Danay



This division is not only the most densely populated in the region, but it also shows a steady increase in population (Figure 2). In addition to this increase in population, the Mayo Danay division has had to deal since 2012 with an influx of refugees from Nigeria and other divisions in the region (the researcher could not have statistics on the refugees who have entered the division since 2012) due to the insurgency of Boko Haram (an extremist terrorist group based in northeastern Nigeria, also active in Chad, Niger and northern Cameroon) as well as political unrest in the neighboring Central African Republic.

Figure 2: Past and projected population for the Mayo Danay division (2005-2030)



Source: Bureau Central des Recensements et des Etudes de Population -BUCREP, 2010

The combination of these factors mentioned above has made the need for new health infrastructures even more urgent. The identification of suitable sites for the establishment of these health centers is the *raison d'être* of this research endeavour.

2.2. Methodology

2.2.1. Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP)

The use of GIS and multi-criteria analysis can help in planning and decision-making. It proved effective and sufficient to provide the required information (Bui, undated). This explains why it was used in this research to select suitable sites for the establishment of new health centers in the Mayo Danay division.

2.2.1.1. Choice of criteria

The criteria used in this study were selected according to their relevance to the question and the study area. Four criteria have been identified for this purpose. These include: proximity to existing health centers, distance of total population to health center, distance to rivers and water bodies. The definition of these criteria for this study is adapted from the study by Zhou and Wu (2012) and knowledge from the field.

2.2.1.2. Identification of exclusion (constraints) and assessment (factors) criteria

Among these criteria, exclusion and assessment criteria have been identified; otherwise known as constraints or factors.

a) Constraints: A constraint is a criterion (binary variable) that determines which areas should be excluded or included in the suitability analysis (Bukhari et al., 2010). In

this study, the constraints are areas with existing health centers, rivers and water bodies.

b): Factors: A factor is a criterion that contributes to some extent to the adequacy of the establishment of health centers. For this study, two criteria namely; the distance from existing health centers and the total population are considered as factors.

2.2.1.3: Definition of weights for the criteria

Mu and Pereyra-Rojas, (2017) stipulate that for a multi-criteria analysis using the Saaty method (Analytical Hierarchy Process-AHP) it is necessary to derive the relative priorities (weights) for the criteria. This is said to be relative because the criteria priorities obtained are measured against each other using a numerical comparison scale developed by Saaty (Mu and Pereyra-Rojas, 2017). For this exercise in particular, only two factors were retained and therefore the calculation of the weighting and the remainder proved to be unnecessary. Two scenarios were carried out. For the first case, a higher weight (0.75) was assigned to the total population and a lower weight of 0.25 was assigned to the distance from existing health centers.

2.2.2. Methodology in Qgis

After defining the constraints and factors to be used in this work, a corresponding number of shapefile maps were imported into Qgis. The coordinate systems (EPSG) were checked to ensure that they are all the same. It was noticed that the coordinate system for the shapefiles was EPSG: 4326, WGS 84. As the work had to be done in the local coordinate system, a reprojection was needed. The different shapefiles were therefore reprojected in Qgis from EPSG: 4326, WGS 84 to EPSG 32633, Datum WGS 84, and UTM zone 33 N. The success of this reprojection was confirmed by checking the properties of the layer (reference coordinate system). The fact that all layers could overlap was used as confirmation of this fact. Some layers like that of rivers covered the whole country and so a "vector, geo-processing tool, intersection" intersection tool using the Mayo Danay health zones shapefile and that of rivers was used to clip the rivers in the study zone. Since a number of conditions were set on the constraints used in this work (e.g. all areas with a distance less than 5 km to a health center had to be excluded for future implementation), a buffer of the corresponding distance was created around these health infrastructures with the following tool: "vector, geo-processing tools, fixed buffer distance." The accuracy of this process was verified using the "measure length" tool. A buffer zone of 1 km was also defined for rivers and water bodies.

Table 1: Criteria for the development of the map of factors and constraints

Criteria for drawing of factor maps		
factors	description	value
Proximity to existing health centers	the farther the site is from an existing health centers, the better	A buffer zone of 5 km was created around the existing health centers. This is according to the norms, which means there might not be any implantation in that buffer zone.
Proximity of the population to health centers	the closer the health center is to the population, the better	A higher population (=5000 inhabitants according to the standards) is suitable for the establishment of a new health center
Criteria for draw of the maps of constraint		
constraints	description	value
Existing health centers	New health centers cannot be set up less than 5 km from existing centers	0 = not favorable 1 = favorable
Rivers	A health center cannot be built on a river	0 = not favorable 1 = favorable
Water bodies	A health center cannot be built on a water body	0 = not favorable 1 = favorable

Source: Author design, 2022

2.2.3. Methodology in Grass for factor and constraint maps

After cleaning, standardizing and pre-processing the required maps, they were imported into Grass 7.2.2. However, before the importation, an area and a set of maps were created with the same coordinate systems. The “g.region command” region for this work was defined using the Mayo Danay Health Areas shapefile. The various shapefiles (with the buffers created) were then converted to raster format using the “v.to.rast” command with default “val” as raster source and the value of 1 used. For the creation of constraint maps, the raster maps for existing rivers, water bodies and health centers were recoded in “r.mapcalc”. The idea here was to give these maps a binary value of 0 and 1, where 0 represents inappropriate sites and 1 represents suitable sites.

3. Results

The results illustrate that a total number of 67 (sixty-seven) health facilities exist in the Mayo Danay division. Among these, there is 1 (one) general hospital located in Yagoua, the headquarters of the division; 4 (four) district hospitals and 6 (six) sub-divisional medical centers. A total of 56 (fifty-six) integrated health centers (IHC) exist in this division and are distributed across the 5 health districts, as shown on table 2.

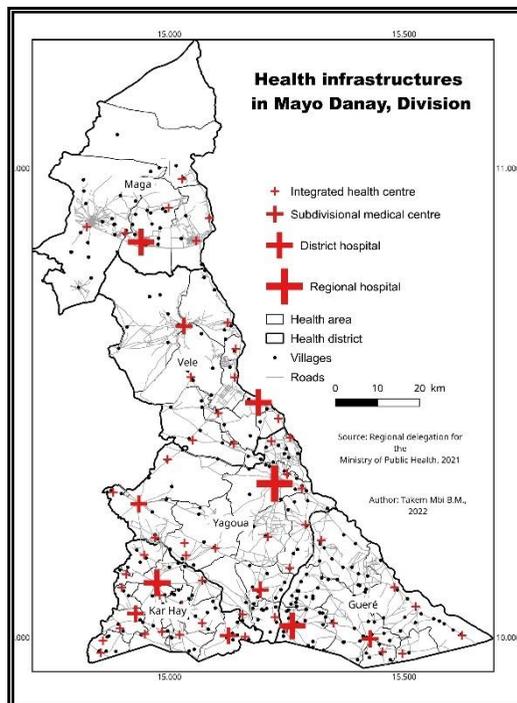
Table 2: Distribution of health centers in the different health districts

Name of the health district	Number of health centres	% of the total number of health centres
Guere	9	16
Kar-Hay	17	30,5
Maga	7	12,5
Vele	9	16
Yagoua	14	25
Total	56	100

Source: Regional Delegation for the Ministry of Public Health, Far North, 2022

Table 2 shows that the health districts of Kar-Hay and Yagoua have 30.5% and 25% of the number of existing health centers in the division. While Maga has 12.5%, Guere and Vele each have 16%. The spatial distribution of these health infrastructures is presented on figure (3).

Figure 3: Spatial distribution of health infrastructures in Mayo Danay division



In order to obtain the final map of suitable sites for the establishment of new health centers in the Mayo Danay division, the following formula was used.

$$S = \sum_i w_i x_i * \prod_j c_j$$

x_i : Factors
 w_i : Weight
 c_j : Constraints

This formula was applied in r.mapcalc with the following function:

(recode_pop_ajusted@amc_32633 * 0.75 + host_g_distance_recode@amc_32633 * 0.25) *
 ihc_existant_contraint@amc_32633*river_constraints@amc_32633*
 water_constraints@amc_32633

Figure 4: Factors for and constraints to the establishment of new health centers, in Mayo Danay division

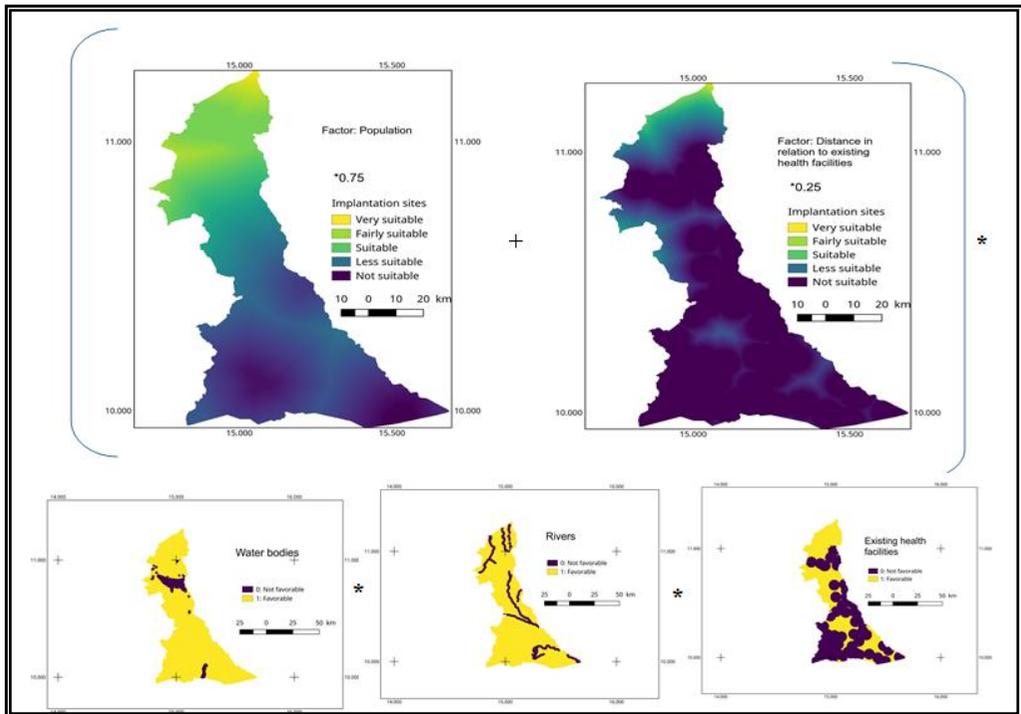
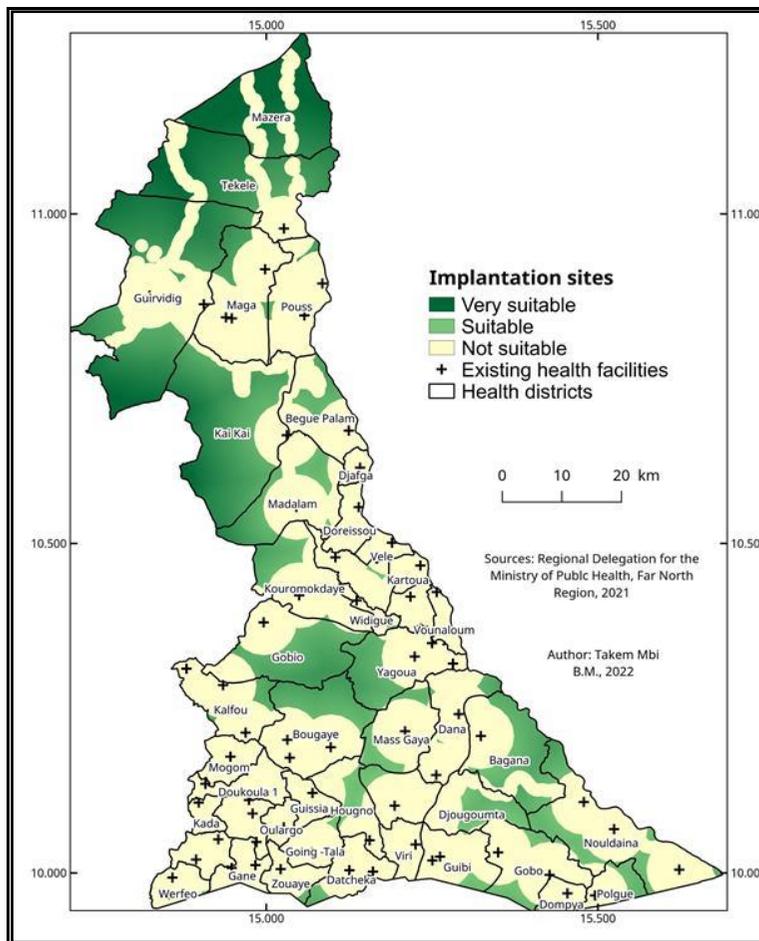


Figure 5 is the outcome of the application of the formula above. It illustrates the areas suitable for the establishment of new health centers in the Mayo Danay division when the weights are as indicated above with the size of the population and the distance of the sites from the existing health centers taken into consideration.

Figure 5: Areas suitable for the implantation of new health centers



The result of the GIS-multi-criteria analysis shows the regions that lack health centers and should therefore be favored if new health centers were to be constructed in the Mayo Danay division. Figure 5 illustrates that the north, west, part of the center and the southeast are the areas that were deemed eligible based on the analysis. These are mainly the health areas of Kai-kai (west), Tekele, Mazera (north), part of Gobio, Yagoua and Bougaye (center) and Bagana, Djougoumta, Polgue and Nouldaina (south-east). To a lesser extent, Guibi, Gobo, Zouaye and Datcheka in the south could also be considered. An overlay of shapefiles for existing health services corroborates the result of the analysis. For example, the Kai-Kai health area, which has been designated as one of the areas conducive to the construction of new health centers, does not currently have one.

Conclusion

This work aimed at employing -GIS and MCA to map the spatial distribution of existing public health infrastructures and to determine suitable sites for the implantation of new health facilities respectively in the Mayo Danay division of the Far North region of Cameroon. It was illustrated that a total of 56 (fifty-six) integrated health centers exist in Mayo Danay division and are distributed unequally across the 5 health districts. While the

health districts of Kar-Hay have the highest number of IHCs that is 17 representing 30.5% the health district of Maga has the lowest number, which is 7 making up 12.5% of the total number. With MCA, suitable sites for the implantation of new health facilities were demonstrated. MCA illustrated that the health areas of Kai-kai (west), Tekele, Mazera (north), amongst others were deemed suitable for the implantation of new health centres.

GIS and multi-criteria analysis have equally been applied in various fields to aid in decision-making. For example, Abdullah (2014) and Absar et al., (2016) used it for modeling to identify ideal sites for implanting new buildings and establishments in Iraq and Bangladesh respectively. Bukhari et al., (2010) and Dadfar, (2014) used it to locate safe sites for schools in Mukim Batu, Kuala Lumpur and Calabasas City in the United States. This approach has also been used in other areas such as agriculture (Ouedraogo et al., 2013) and Guezo, (2011). This study used GIS and multi-criteria analysis to determine suitable sites for the establishment of new health centers in the Mayo Danay division, of the Far North region of Cameroon.

The results demonstrated that with a combination of these tools, suitable sites for the establishment of health infrastructures can be determined in a rational way. However, it is recommended that this information be treated with caution because the results depend on the different criteria chosen for the analysis. For the case of this study, 2 factors and 3 constraints were used. This means that the result depends on them and also on the relative importance of the weight given to the factors. In spite of this, the result of this study and others carried out in the world seem to show that this tool can be reliable to help decision-making in different fields.

References

1. Abdullah, N. S.(2014). Suitability model based on GIS and MCDA for spatial distribution of settlements in different geographic environments. *European Scientific Journal*, vol.2: 236-249.
2. Absar, N., Pathak, A and Uddin, A.M. (2016). Multi-criteria analysis for the best location selection in Chittagong city Area, Bangladesh. *International Journal of Computer Applications* (0975–8887) Volume 143 – No.8, June 2016: 10-18.
3. Bukhari, Z. and Noordin, A. (2010). Spatial multi-criteria decision analysis for safe school site selection. *International Geoinformatics Research and Development Journal*, Vol. 1, Issu 2: pp 1-14.
4. Bui, Q.B. (undated). Locating suitable dam site along the tien yen river, quang ninh province by employing gis and multi-criteria analysis. Accessed from <http://www.a-a-rs.org/acrs/index.php/acrs/acrs-overview/proceedingsview=publication&task=show&id=40> on 02/11/2021.
5. Bureau Central des Recensements et des Etudes de Population- BUCREP. (2010), *Rapport de présentation des résultats définitifs*. Yaoundé, Cameroun.
6. Dadfar, N.A. (2014). Suitability analysis of a new high school in the City of Calabasas. A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Geography, GIS Program, Northridge: California State University,
7. Eklund, L. and Mårtensson, U. (2012). Using Geographical Information Systems to analyse accessibility to health services in the West Bank, Occupied Palestinian Territory. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, Vol. 18 No. 8: 796-802.
8. 8-Guezo, C .K.G.M. (2011). SIG et analyse multicritère pour l'aide à la décision en agriculture urbaine dans les pays en développement, cas de Ouagadougou au

- Burkina Faso. These de Doctorat , Ecole doctorale sciences sociales , Laboratoire Espace Nature et Culture (EneC), Université de Paris 8.
9. 9-Hazrin, H., Fadhli, Y., Tahir, A., Safurah, J., Kamaliah, M. N., Noraini.M.Y. (2013). Spatial patterns of health clinic in Malaysia. *Health*, Vol.5, No.12: 2104-2109.
 10. Kondji-Kondji, D. (2005). Politique et système de santé: evolution historique au Cameroun : de la conceptualisation à l'opérationnalisation, 1èreedition.
 11. Ministry of Public Health, Cameroon-MINSANTE. (2017). Strategie sectorielle de sante 2016-2027.
 12. 12-Mu, E and Pereyra-Rojas, M. (2017). Practical Decision Making: an introduction to the analytical hierarchy process (AHP) using super decsionsV2:111p.Available at DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-33861-3₂.
 13. 13-Ouédraogo, L., Ouédraogo,B., Kaboré, O., Yanogo, P.I., Zoungrana, T.P and Moussa, I.B. (2013). Localisation des zones d'accès à l'eau en saison sèche par analyse multicritère dans le bassin versant du Goudébo (région de Yakouta, Burkina Faso). *Physio-Géo - Géographie Physique et Environnement*, Volume 7 | 2013: 49-66.
 14. 14-Regional Delegation for the Ministry of Public Health, Far North Region, Cameroon (2021). Annual report of activities carried out.
 15. 15-Republic of Cameroon. (2020) National Development Strategy 2020-2030: For a structural transformation and inclusive development.
 16. 16-Republic du Cameroun. (2009). Growth and Employment Strategy paper: reference framework for government action over the period 2010-20200.
 17. 17-Rezaeian, M. (2009). Application of geographical sciences and technologies to investigate health problems in the Eastern Mediterranean Region. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, Vol. 15, No. 6: 1564-1569.
 18. 18-Shaikh, M.A and Ali, M.S. (2016). Spatial distribution and accessibility to public sector tertiary care teaching hospitals in Karachi: A Geographic Information Systems application. *J Pak Med Assoc*, Vol.66, No.7: 889-892.
 19. 19-United Nations Organisation. (2015). Transforming our world: The 2030 agenda for sustainable development.
 20. Zhou, L. and Wu, J. (2012). GIS-based multi-criteria analysis for hospital site selection in Haidian District of Beijing. Student thesis, Master (one year), 15 HE Geomatics Master Programme in Geomatics, University College of Goavel.

TRAUMATIC EFFECTS OF REFUGEES IN THE EU

Adrian OTOVESCU¹, Karimi PAYKAR²

¹Professor Ph.D.Habilitat
Faculty of Social Science

Doctoral School of Social Sciences and Humanities
University of Craiova
adiotovescu@yahoo.com

²Ph.D. Student

Doctoral School of Social Sciences and Humanities
Faculty of Social Science,
University of Craiova
Karimi.paykar3@gmail.com

Abstract: *A refugee travels thousands of miles because he wants to escape from a country where there is war, where he might be tortured, and finally arrives in a place where he is somewhat safe but not welcome. What needs does this man have besides food and shelter? The need is to regain some humanity after all the experience he is going through. During the course of history, individuals have migrated from one place to another. People try to reach European shores for different reasons and by different routes. They seek legal ways, but also risk their lives, to escape political oppression, war, and poverty, as well as to reunite their families and in search of entrepreneurial opportunities, knowledge, and education. Each migrant has their own story. Misleading and clichéd scenarios often tend to focus only on certain types of migration flows, ignoring the inherent complexity of this phenomenon, which impacts society in many different ways and requires a diversity of responses. The immediate imperative is to protect people in need. We have all been shocked by the tragedy of the thousands of migrants who put their lives at risk to cross the Mediterranean Sea.*

Keywords: *EU, refugee status, identification of causes, psychology, PTSD.*

1. Introduction

The refugee has become a phenomenon that happens on a regular basis, but at the same time, it is one of the fundamental human rights (Otovescu, 2010). Refugees and asylum in the EU have increased over the last 25 years (ECRE, 2020). The migrant crisis is the biggest challenge facing the European Union since its creation in 1993. As a result of wars, limited economic opportunities, and political instability in the Middle East and Africa, millions of people are migrating to Europe to seek asylum, a kind of international support for people who are forced to flee because of unfavorable political and social conditions in their countries. The European Union has a legal and moral responsibility to give protection to those in need. Member states are responsible for processing asylum applications and making decisions for asylum seekers, but not for all those who immigrate to Europe. Many people try to immigrate to European countries to improve their livelihood. These people are called economic migrants who have left their own country in search of more favorable conditions, but if after a check they are found to be ineligible for asylum status they will be deported to their home country. About 95% of refugees and migrants are encouraged and guided by couriers and smugglers and because of this thousands of people die on the way trying to reach Europe (Shahriar, 2018). Therefore, this is one of the main reasons besides war in the homeland, facing violence on the road, lack of health care, lack of access to the

labor market, and not finding shelter in the host countries that led to post-traumatic stress disorder.

2. Methodology

The outline was developed with the aim of providing information on terminology, statistics, trauma, and psycho-social aspects, presenting how some countries approach integration into society, as well as examples of introductory activities that can be used. One of the biggest challenges today is their integration into the societies they are now part of. The project also aims to involve them and increase the extent to which they contribute in different ways, helping them to feel part of society and demonstrating the importance of ensuring equal opportunities and the kinds of experiences that will enable them to acquire skills, knowledge, and competences and to be fully involved in all aspects of society, including economically. Social inclusion and labor market integration of refugees and migrants are among the most pressing issues related to the migration crisis and are of utmost importance for European host countries: they can contribute to the social inclusion of marginalized communities, migrants, and refugees, helping them to better understand what diversity means in today's Europe.

WHO ARE THE REFUGEES?

Definition of refugee status - an alien who is granted a form of protection called "refugee status" because he or she meets the requirements of the 1951 Geneva Convention relating to the Status of Refugees.

According to the UN Refugee Agency „refugee is anyone who, because of a well-founded concern of being persecuted for motives of race, religious beliefs, nationality, membership of a particular group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, due to such concern, is not willing to get themselves of the protection of that country; or who, not having the nationality of any country and being outside the country of his previous residence is not able or, due to such fear, is not willing to return to that country".

Refugee status is granted on application to a foreign national who, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership of a particular social group, is outside his country of origin and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country, and to a person without nationality who, being outside the country of his former habitual residence for the same reasons as mentioned above, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return(Legea nr. 122/2006).

Persecution almost always refers to any major breach of human rights. In the context of refugees, persecution refers to any act by which fundamental rights are severely violated on the grounds of race, ethnicity, nationality, political opinion or membership of a particular social group. Subsidiary protected person - an alien who is granted a form of protection called "subsidiary protection" on grounds other than those set out in the 1951 Convention.

Subsidiary protection may be granted to an alien who does not meet the conditions for recognition as a refugee and in respect of whom, there are reasonable grounds for believing that, in the event of a return to the country of origin, he/she would be at risk and who is unable or, because of that risk, does not wish to be protected in that country (The Law regarding asylum in Romania).

An asylum seeker is a foreign national or stateless person who has expressed a wish to obtain a form of protection in another country, as long as his/her application has not been settled by an irrevocable decision. The alien is a citizen or stateless person. The application for granting a form of protection or asylum is the request made by a foreign citizen or a stateless person in order to obtain protection from the Romanian state. The country of origin is the country whose citizen he/she is, in the case of a foreign citizen, or, if he/she has more than one citizenship, each country whose citizen he/she is, and in the case of a stateless person, the country or countries where he/she has his/her habitual residence.

Refugees, internally displaced persons and returnees must be at the centre of the decision-making process regarding their protection and well-being. The participation of refugee women, girls, boys and men of all ages in defining issues and designing programmes for their benefit is crucial in serving, assisting and protecting them as well as developing their own capacities for action. As a means of ensuring better participation of all stakeholders in decision-making on the programmes that address them, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has developed a tool for Participatory Evaluation in Operations to structure the collection and analysis of information received. Participation is particularly important for those who are often excluded, such as women, children and adolescents, the elderly and other groups who are victims of discrimination. In the framework of the Participatory Assessment missions, Multi-Functional Teams (MFTs) visit the facilities where refugees are accommodated and discuss in focus groups composed of people of the same origin, gender and age group addressing all the issues that come to their attention with a view to follow-up.

3. Psycho-Social Aspects Of Identifying Psychological Trauma In Refugees

The word "trauma" is a delicate and complicated thing and the idea of the trauma that now confuses refugee groups has become a social and political metaphor in Western and non-Western countries. Trauma first emerged because of World War I and traumatic symptoms were first observed in the Jewish race because of the Nazi massacre against them in Europe (Dumitru Otovescu, 2010).

Psychic trauma is the vital experience of a discrepancy between threatening situational factors and individual coping capacities, which is accompanied by feelings of weakness and helpless abandonment and thus leads to a lasting interruption of the understanding of self and the world (Fischer;1998).

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA (DSM IV)

- The person has been exposed to a traumatic event that meets the following criteria:
 - the person has experienced, witnessed or been confronted with one or more events, which included an actual or threatened death, serious injury, a danger of loss of bodily integrity of self or others;
 - the person's reaction included extreme fear, helplessness or indignation.
- The traumatic event was persistently withdrawn in at least one of the following ways:
 - Recurrent memories of the event images, thoughts or perceptions;
 - recurrent, gripping dreams about the event;
 - acting or feeling as if the traumatic event is returning;
 - Intense mental overload when confronted with external or internal cueing stimuli that symbolize some aspect of the traumatic event or are reminiscent of some aspect of it.

IDENTIFICATION OF CAUSES

- The main causes of persecution in the country of origin are:
- violence - physical and psychological (mental abuse)
 - Disappearances (from statistics it appears that out of a family of 4-5 members, 3-4 members have disappeared, most of the time these people who have gone through such an event find it very difficult to tell their stories).
 - homelessness - homelessness associated with lack of food are the main causes, which make them leave their country of origin;
 - death (the phases of grief according to Bowlby (1980) are: numbing, crying and searching, disorganization and despair, reorganization, according to Kubler denial and isolation, anger, withdrawal, depression, acceptance), deportation, violation of human rights, impossibility and ability to choose - these are the main traumatic causes that have left their mark on each vulnerable person;
 - other losses resulting from the loss of relationships: family structures, friends, economic hardship, suffering from the void left behind, suffering involves meeting the void, numbness and emotional storm, emotional pain;
 - psychological terror - often takes its toll on the young person; it should be borne in mind that, according to statistical data, the people who participated in social counselling were under 28;
 - Traumatic sexuality – hyper-accentuation of the sexual domain, confusion about one's own age-appropriate identity and sexual norms, mixing or confusion between sexuality and love and care, aversion to or fear of sexual intimacy, or, conversely, compulsive attraction to sexual pleasure;
 - sexual abuse in children: the child's need for a symbiotic relationship, the child's need for tenderness, the child's availability for oedipal fantasies, the abuse creating an exciting relationship in two to the exclusion of a third, the child's need to believe what the parents say, to listen to the adult, the child's need to protect the family by inducing fear of family destruction if he/she talks about what happened;
 - state of captivity
 - state of alarm
 - destruction of cultural values
 - lack of socialization
 - lack of attention from society
 - lack of cultural system - especially religious system - are important in the development of the individual.

TRAUMA REACTIONS:

- Anxiety - often manifested in behavior, people are often depressed and anxious.
- Post-traumatic stress - people who have immigrated from socially fragmented areas marked by civil strife may experience high rates of post-traumatic stress, such people may be extremely reluctant to share the experiences of torture they have suffered because of their vulnerable immigration status Post-traumatic stress can occur at any age, including childhood. The severity and duration of an individual's exposure to the traumatic event are among the most important factors affecting the likelihood of developing post-traumatic stress Fischer;1998.

Stress used to be called "shell shock", "battle fatigue", "rape trauma syndrome", it is included in the American Psychiatric Association Handbook. Stress is an anxiety disorder

that can occur after exposure to a traumatic event that has caused intense fear, helplessness or terror. Stress can result from: personal experiences (e.g. rape, war, natural disasters, abuse, serious accidents, captivity), or from witnessing or learning about a tragic event.

Post-traumatic stress disorder, there are three groups of experiences:

1. Re-experiencing: people with post-traumatic stress often experience current flashbacks. Some may experience the impression of returning to the past

- Hallucinations

- Strong feelings that the event is happening again

Others experience great psychological or physiological disturbances when certain things (objects, situations, sounds) remind them of traumatic events.

2. Avoidance - many people who have stress will persistently avoid things that they remind them of the traumatic event.

3. Persistent excitement - symptoms in this category may include difficulty in concentration, becoming very alert or vigilant and/or nervous or bewildered.

POST-TRAUMATIC STRESS CAN AFFECT:

- Memory - can't remember (distressed by the memory of the traumatic event she went through)
- Emotion expressed - those suffering from post-traumatic stress may appear insensitive
- Detention - is a constant reminder of the trauma:
 - sounds (loud noises, keys)
 - feeling always under surveillance
 - avoidance
 - fear of the dark

Depression - it just means being in a bad mood, it makes everything harder to do and seems less worthwhile. In its most severe form, major depression can threaten people with suicide. Depression shows itself in many ways, with vulnerable people who have experienced a traumatic event in their home country experiencing mental illness.

- the person is agitated and restless
- wakes up early, has difficulty sleeping, or sleeps longer
- smokes more than usual
- has difficulty listening
- feels bad most of the time
- lacks self-confidence and self-worth
- feels helpless, accuses people they come into contact with of not helping them
- distances herself from others
- has poor vision
- has a pessimistic view of the future
- feels anxious

SYMPTOM:

- Psychological lability
- Poor communication
- Change of approach to a reaction: grief, some people with a high degree of trauma are sometimes overwhelmed by the situation and most due to anxiety and not knowing how to cope with the precarious situation they are in;

- they may feel hopeless about the future
- Sometimes suicide seems to be the only way to solve problems once and for all and to stop the emotional pain of living.

Most of the refugees have been subjected to torture; it is generally considered that torture is a life experience capable of causing much physical and psychological suffering. It is important to recognize that not everyone who is tortured develops a diagnosable mental illness. Conversely, many victims come across deep emotional reactions and psychological indications.

The most important psychiatric disorder associated with torture is Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and acute depression. In recent years, the diagnosis of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder has been confirmed in an increasing number of migrants who have suffered the impact of many types of violence. According to psychiatric studies of refugees the most common disorders among refugees are post-traumatic stress disorder and major depression, trauma and loss. These studies indicated that 9% of adults were diagnosed with PTSD, 4% with generalised anxiety disorder and 5% with major depression and 11% of children with PTSD (New York 15 – 16 May 2018).

Another study found that differences in residency status are associated with mental health outcomes. Thus, asylum seekers (54%) and refugees (41.4%) met criteria for PTSD most frequently, while anxiety and depression were reported by asylum seekers (84.6% and 63.1% respectively) and illegal migrants (both 47.6%) (Heerena et al.2014). Prevalence rates of depression and anxiety among migrants vary and may be related to financial stress in the country of immigration. An assessment of associations between the gross national product (GNP) of the country of immigration as a moderating factor for depression, anxiety and PTSD indicated that rates of depression were 20% among working migrants versus 44% among refugees and of anxiety 21% among migrants versus 40% among refugees, and higher GNP in the country of immigration was related to lower stress and anxiety in migrants but not in refugees (Lindert et al. , 2009).

Common Psychological Responses:

- Trauma withdrawal - the victim may have moments of withdrawal or disturbing memories in which the trauma event seems to be happening again, even when the person is awake and conscious, or may have repeated nightmares. The danger felt when encountering lines that symbolize or resemble trauma often manifests itself in a lack of trust and fear of people in authority, including doctors and psychologists. In countries or situations where authorities participate in human rights violations, lack of trust and fear of people in authority should not be considered pathological.
- Avoidance and emotional numbing
 - avoidance of any thought, conversation, activity, place or person that provokes a reminder of the trauma;
 - deep emotional withdrawal;
 - deep personal detachment and social withdrawal;
 - inability to remember an important aspect of the trauma;
- Symptoms of depression - the following symptoms of depression may be present:
 - depressed mood; appetite disorders or weight loss.
 - Distorted self-concept and lack of future prospects - victim
 - has a subjective feeling of being irreparably damaged and of having undergone an irreversible change of personality; it seems to him/her that he/she has no future and no career prospects.

- Dissociation, depersonalization and atypical behavior - dissociation represents a rupture in consciousness, self-perception, memory and actions. Depersonalization is the feeling of detachment from one's own body.
- Somatic complaints - somatic symptoms such as pain, headache or other physical pain, with or without objective findings, are common problems among torture victims.
- Sexual dysfunction - often found in torture survivors, especially those who have suffered sexual torture or rape.
- Psychosis - cultural and linguistic differences can be mistaken for psychotic symptoms. Psychotic realities can be brief or prolonged, and symptoms can occur while the person is detained or tortured or only afterwards. The following findings are possible:
 - false perceptions;
 - auditory, visual, tactile and olfactory hallucinations;
 - bizarre ideas and behavior;
 - paranoia, persecution mania;
 - recurrence of psychotic disorders and bipolar disorder.
- Substance abuse - alcohol and drug abuse may subsequently occur in torture survivors as a way of erasing traumatic memories, regulating affective processes and alleviating anxiety.
- Neuropsychological damage - torture can cause physical and psychological trauma leading to various brain damage. Blows to the head, suffocation, and prolonged malnutrition can have long-term neurological and neuropsychiatric consequences that can be immediately assessed during a medical examination.
- Depressive disorders - virtually all those who have been tortured have depressive disorders. When it comes to assessing the consequences of torture, it is quite difficult to consider post-traumatic stress syndrome and major depression as two separate pathological entities with distinct a etiological features, depressive disorders encompass single episode or recurrent episode depressive disorders. Depressive disorders may or may not be accompanied by psychotic, catatonic, melancholic or atypical symptoms(Derkolk,2000). According to the DSM - IV classification, a depression can only be diagnosed as severe if at least five of the following psychotic, catatonic, melancholic or atypical symptoms are observed and if present with the patient's condition, at least one of the two symptoms must be present:
 - depressive mood;
 - marked decrease in interest or pleasure in all or nearly all activities;
 - weight loss or changes in appetite;
 - insomnia or hypersomnia;
 - fatigue and lack of energy;
 - feelings of worthlessness or guilt;
 - recurrent thoughts of death or suicide;

As is clear from the catalog of symptoms described above, I see other diagnoses besides post-traumatic stress disorder, major depressive disorder, and enduring personality changes, here are some of them:

- generalized anxiety - excessive anxiety in relation to various events or activities, motor tension, severe depressive disorders, and lasting personality changes.
- panic - recurrent and unexpected attacks of intense fear or discomfort, involving symptoms such as sweating, choking, and chills.
- somatoform disorders - physical symptoms unexplained by medical pathology.

- Bipolar affective disorders - manic or hypomanic episodes accompanied by expansive or irritable moods, grandiose ideas, decreased need for sleep, flight of ideas, psychomotor agitation, and other associated psychic phenomena.
- disorders caused by a general medical condition that takes the form of brain dysfunction - fluctuations or loss of consciousness, orientation, attention and concentration, memory, and executive functions.
- Phobias - social, agoraphobia.

Conclusion

The generation of psychological traumas is favored by unforeseen situations, they are in accordance with stress, but they represent an entirely different psychological, as the battle is a permanent tilt of lightning and thunderbolts and the soul of the victims is in a terrible dispute of inner forces, marked with perseverance by the environment of the battle. From these clashes arise periods of a conscious outburst of the inner self under the action of an agent with traumatic value. It is not the role of a stressful agent with stimulus value, but a harsh intervention on the psychic layers of the personality of the host caught at a time when its resistance is exercising its inhibition. Moreover, it is likely that at certain moments during combat there will be a sudden disturbance of consciousness, which will damage the fighter's presence of mind, leadership skills, and self-control. Psychic traumas are not states, but phenomena of momentary eclipses of personality.

The refugee and migrant crisis is one of the biggest challenges Europe has ever faced. Indeed, considering the significant influx of people who have arrived from different countries over the last few years, Europe has to find solutions for a large number of people who have left their countries of origin, in many cases having no relatives or acquaintances in their host countries.

References

1. Otovescu, D. (2010). *Tratat de sociologie generala*. Craiova: Beladi.
 2. Raicu, A.I. (2017). Termenul de depunere a recursului în reglementarea art. 66 din Legea nr. 122/2006 privind azilul în România. Încălcarea liberului acces la justiție. *Revista Dreptul*: 120-133.
 3. Fischer, G., Riedesser, P. (2007). *Tratat de psihotraumatologie*, traducere. Bucuarest: Trei.
 4. Lindert, Jutta, et al. (2009). Depression and anxiety in labor migrants and refugees—a systematic review and meta-analysis, *Social science & medicine* Vol.69: 246-255.
- ***Conventia de la Geneva 1951; Legislatia interna. (Conventia din 1951 si Protocolul din 1967 privind statutul refugiatilor sunt instrumente internationale adoptate de ONU, care stabilesc standardele internationale minime in privinta protectiei refugiatilor).
- ***Legea 122/2006 privind azilul in Romania (publicata in mai 2006).
- ***https://ecre.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/06/PN_27_persian.pdf
- ***<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3181584/>.
- ***<https://www.scribd.com/document/398723732/Trauma-Psihologica>.
- ***http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_SPEECH-15-5614_en.htm

ETHNIC MINORITIES AND PARTIES IN THE REPUBLIC OF NORTH MACEDONIA

Anda -Diana PÂRLEA

¹Ph. D. Student, Ph . D. _ School of Social Sciences and Humanities,
University of Craiova (Romania),
E-email: pirleaanda@yahoo.com

Abstract

The Citizens Republic of North Macedonia who belongs to different ethnicity benefit from the protection of their ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious identity being represented in state institutions. The determined model for the protection of minority rights in North Macedonia is grounded in a sense of reciprocity deeply rooted historically in understanding and tolerance in the collective memory of a people, but also the models of international law. This article reveals inter-ethnic relations in North Macedonia, determining the political developments of the last decade. I analyze the importance of ethnic parties in representing the political rights of the people in the Republic of Macedonia. I also show that there are several ethnic parties in the Republic of Macedonia North.

The article show defining the party's ethnicity and classification I analyze the important parties in representing the political rights of the ethnic groups in the Republic of North Macedonia. I highlight the fact that we determine which party is ethnic and many ethnic parties in the Republic of Macedonia use the name of the party that indicator, but this indicator does not represent with certainty that the party is ethnic. That is why there are several examples when a party of the ruling before of to start campaigns an electoral do what research about the group ethic, starting project for the groups ethnic so that the party can achieve votes of to ethnicity the chosen one. In the end, I concluded that the programs of politicians and parties are the many top indicators and they tell us if a party is political It is a non-party political ethnic, multi-ethnic or ethnic.

Keywords: *the Republic of North Macedonia, minority, inter-ethnic relations, ethnic parties, status.*

1. Introduction

The word "policy" comes from the word Greek "police", which means time and state. The society Elena antique It was divided into the many independent city-states that had a system of governance your own Aristotle said that: "politics is the best art, and activity by which people try to make the better life" (Keith, 1995: 108). From dot of view traditional, the policy is what the state, but in the policy time modern. It is what the governments, like and module of studypracticable of authority. Policy It is an instrument of solving the conflict by using negotiations, not It is a solution easy, but It is a solution better than wars them. In society modern, the policy is an activity that has a link with crime,

washing money, and the abuse of power, which favored corruption, nepotism, and other illegalities.

Because people wanted to exercise their political rights and improve conditions they started to establish political parties. The first two parties registered in Republic Macedonia are VMRO - DPMNE in 1990 and Union Social Democratic in 1991.

According to the Macedonian Law on Political Parties, a political party is an organization volunteer of citizens, established for the creation and the protection of political, economic, social, cultural, and other rights and beliefs and for participation in the process of adopting political decisions than when participating to governance. parties' political objectives through formation democratically and expression will political contribution to elections and in the other repent democratic. (*Monitor Official of country Macedonia* no. 76/04, 5/07, 8/07, 5/08, and 23/13). The state and action the parties political not can be the direction to overthrow violence of order constitutionally of country Macedonia; the creation of an aggressive military; or encouragement hatred or intolerance national, racial or religious. (*Monitor Official of country Macedonia* no. 76/04, 5/07, 8/07, 5/08, and 23/13). Also, any kind of discrimination based on membership or unrelated to a party political is prohibited (*Monitor Official of country Macedonia* no. 76/04, 5/07, 8/07, 5/08, and 23/13).

Having maintained a cohabitation between different nationalities and with great efforts to improve the situation and solve the problems arising regarding ethnic tensions periodicals, the Republic of Macedonia managed to stay out of the war that led to the dissolution of the former Yugoslavia and gained independence peacefully.

Today, ethnic Albanian Pulaski are the largest ethnic group in the Republic of North Macedonia. A large part of this ethnicity is on the west side of North Macedonia close to Albania and Kosovo.

The Albanian population of North Macedonia, although they complain that they are not treated very well in the current political system in North Macedonia, they have a lot of rights.

In 1990, the ethnic Albanians of the Republic of Macedonia won the right to form political parties that were later introduced in all Macedonian governments.

Numerous Albanians who belonged to political parties, a Roma but also a small number of Serbs, Turks, and Vlachs, won seats in the 1998 parliamentary elections government coalition, in power in 1998, let the Democratic Party of Albanians elect a deputy prime minister, five ministers, five vice ministers, and a share in the public administration of some institutions. The Democratic Party of Albanians wants to be active within the structures of the Macedonian state as long as Albanians are treated as equals. They had some requests for an Albanian language university and equal employment opportunities.

2. The status of minorities in the Republic of Macedonia

According to the census of June 20, 1994, together of 1,295,964 Macedonians (66.6% of a total of 1,945,932 inhabitants) from the Republic of Macedonia live and 441,104 Albanians (22.7%), 78,019 Turks (4%), 43,707 Roma (2.2%), 40,228 Serbs (2.1%), 15,418 Muslims (0.8%), 8,601 Vlachs (0.4%) and 22,891 members of other nationalities (1.2%). (Census, 1994).

Gaining independence in 1991, the Republic of Macedonia has great efforts to improve the quality of life of national minorities. Throughout the history of Macedonia, not there were major inter-ethnic conflicts. According to data from previous censuses, the number of Albanians constantly increased since 1953, due to a higher birth rate compared to that of the other inhabitants of Macedonia.

Table 1: Population structure according to nationality

The year	1953	1961	1971	1981	1991	1994
TOTAL	1,304,514	1,406,003	1,647,308	1,909,136	2,033,964	1,945,932
Macedonians	860,699	1,000,854	1,142,375	1,279,323	1,328,187	1,295,964
Albanian	162,524	183,108	279,871	377,208	441,987	441,104
Vlachs	8,668	8,046	7,190	6,384	7,764	8,601
Roma	20,462	20,606	24,505	43,125	52,103	43,707
Turks	203,938	131,484	108,552	86,591	77,080	78,019
Serbs	35,112	42,72	46,465	44,468	42,775	40,228

Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia

The 2002 census gives North Macedonia 2,022,547 inhabitants. Of these, 1,297,981 or 64% are Slavic Macedonians, 509,083 or 25.2% are Albanians, 77,959 or 3.9% are Turks, 53,859 or 2.7% are Roma, 9,695 or 0.5% are Vlachs, 35,939 or 1.8% are Serbs, 17,018 or 0.8% are Bosnians, and 20,993 do not belong to any of the previous groups. (Census, 2002).

The population of North Macedonia at the 2021 census had 2,097,319 inhabitants. **Their nationalities being distributed as follows:** 58.44% Macedonians (1,073,229), 24.16% Albanians (446,245), 3.79% Turks (35,047), 2.46% Roma (23,630), **0.46% Vlachs (8,714)**, 1.19% Serbs (23,847) and 0.88% Bosnians (16,042)

and others 1.16% (18,912). In the 2021 census, **for the first time, 126 ethnic Romanians were registered** on the territory of North Macedonia. (Census, 2021).

3. Ethnicity according to the Constitution in Macedonia

The word "ethnic" comes from the Greek word "ethnos", which means people may late, in the century of the nineteenth lea, the deadline of beginning to heads a new meaning, that of the nation. An ethnic group is a group of people who share characteristics like language, experiences culture, sociable or national. Ethnicity It has a statute inherited and it is a definition of culture, religion, and history in a very broad sense, minorities are social, political, ethnic, racial, linguistic, religious, and cultural groups that are in a society and have a smaller number of members than the majority of which they belong Nowadays, minorities are present in almost all countries of the world, their number and the number of constituent members differ from one country to another". (Fräsie, 2010: 471).

Ethnic groups are distinguished "by their cultural tradition, they have a spiritual life that gives them specificity, a strong awareness of belonging to that ethnic group, and a deep sense of attachment to it." (Otovescu, 2009: 338).

Ethnic groups are the object of research in many fields, so they can be studied from several points of view: historical, philosophical, anthropological, sociological, statistical, legal, linguistic, political, etc. From the point of view of political science, "the minority group is treated as a national minority, which lives on the territory of a state and which has not reached the stage of perfection as a nation (...). Regardless of their ethnic affiliation, individuals located on a common territory are citizens of the same state".(Otovescu, 2013: 75-76).

The function of the source which is used to determinethe status of the member's groups can recognize the next categories:

1. ethnonational, then when a politics or an identity Nation, it is shared;
2. ethnolinguistics, then when a dialect or a language is shared;
3. ethnoreligious, then when worship, religion, or faith is shared;
4. ecoregional, when there is a logic of membership to a region;
5. ethnoracial, when a physical appearance is shared.

In the Republic of Macedonia, the population totals It is of 2,097,319 people at the last census from 2021. There are a total of 7 Groups ethnic which are thankful and do part of The Constitution Macedonia: Macedonians, Albanians, Turks, Roma, Vlachs, Serbs, and Bosnians.

Donn Lee and Vain Cott, define a party ethnic organization authorized to compete in elections lockout or national, most of them management and States his it identifies that belonging to a group ethnic non-dominant and platform election of it includes applications and programmer of the nature ethnic or cultural. (Lee and Cott, 2005: 1-39).

The definition is a lot. It may be a little bit complex that in my opinion, every party which represents and promotes the rights of a group ethnic is an ethnic party political. In the function of the fact if party defend and promote rights, a or may many groups ethnic can classify party right ethnic or party political multi-ethnic. If in the name party political or in the program or status party not it referred a group ethnic then discuss a party non-ethnic. Today, in the Republic of North Macedonia, not there parties are multi-ethnic but we party ethnic and number their. It is enough big in comparison to the population ethnic. All the groups ethnic I'm alive on the territory country North Macedonians have two or may many ethnic political parties on the base name the parties political that road sign. The largest number of ethnic parties are the political parties of the Roma number total of 7 parties political: Party for integration Roma - PIR; United Rome from Macedonia-ROM; The Party for Total Emancipation a Rome - PACER; Union of Roma from Macedonia-SRM; Democratic Prosperity of the Roma - DPR; Democratic Forces of the Roma - DSR; and United Party for equal Roma - OPER. After the Roma political parties, it follows parties ethnic Macedonian with 6 parties and then are parties ethnic Albania all with 6 parties. There are also 3 ethnic Turkish parties, 3 ethnic Serbian parties, 2 parties ethnic Vlach, and 2 parties ethnic Bosnian. There are a lot of indicators that can be used to define whether a party political is an ethnic party. A lot of different researchers have views and approach different. One indicator may be the leader/president of the political party. If the party leader/chairman is a member of a group ethnic then are odds may big that the party be a party ethnic, but this one, not. It is a rule that are many leaders which I am driving parties political non-ethnic and are members groups ethnic (and inverse). programs and statutes the parties political are the May Top indicator if a party is non-ethnic, multi-ethnic, or ethnic. Of custom parties ethnic even to early programs highlights which group or groups ethnic will be improved through the work the party a good road sign it is and programs the campaign elections, however, this not it is a road sign sure that party it is ethnic, says this because there are plenty of examples when the ruling party from the beginning of the campaign election do what research about an ethnic group and I after researching did a project for ethnicity so that the party can achieve votes of to ethnicity the chosen one name party political it is, also, a road sign for of define if it is a party it is ethnic or not. If the party is called Party African American, then we know that concerns a party ethnic, but if the party is called Party Green of environmentalists then we should realize that this party is not ethnic and pro ecologist st.

The 1991 Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, guarantees the rights and freedoms of individuals and citizens and includes articles on the rights of ethnic minorities. The introductory part of the constitution proclaims that "Macedonia is constituted as a state national of the Macedonian people, which ensures the full equality of its citizens and the sustainable coexistence of the Macedonian Albanian people, Turkish, Vlachs, Roma and other nationalities which I'm alive in the Republic of Macedonia." Here he presents himself the goals of the constitution, about the other ethnic groups: "to guarantee human rights, civil liberties, and national equality; for to ensure the peace and coexistence of the Macedonian people with the minorities living

in the Republic of Macedonia".(Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia Constitution, 1991: 3-4).

Article 9 of the constitution mentions that "citizens of the Republic Macedonians are equal in freedoms and rights regardless of sex, race, skin color, national and social origin, political or religious or social beliefs or economic status. "In the year 2022 officially, North Macedonia foresees the minority in the censuses, so the "official existence" of the members is possible minorities.

Starting with the 1994 census, together with the Census Law, census forms for minorities were published bilingually(in Macedonian and one of the minority languages).(Sluzhben vesnik na Republika Makedonija, 1995: 52).

The Republic of Macedonia created a Council for Inter-Ethnic Relations. This council deals with the problems of inter-ethnic relations and offers solutions for solving them. The council is made up of Macedonians, Albanians, Turkish, Roma, Serbians, Vlachs, and other nationalities. This council has a semi-active role in addressing the issues of inter-ethnic relations in Macedonia.

After the adoption of the Political Parties Law, 55 political parties were established. The Albanians have the following parties: Party for Democratic Prosperity (PDP), National Democratic Party (NDP), Party for Democratic Prosperity of Albanians (PDPA), Republican Party, and Albanian Democratic Union-Liberal Party.

the many other minority parties we remind: the Democratic Party of Turks, The Party for the Full Emancipation of Roma, the Democrat The Progressive Party of the Macedonian Roma, the Egyptian Association of Their citizens, the Democratic Party of Serbs, the Association of Serbs and Their Montenegrin's of Macedonia and the Vlach League.

In the Republic of Macedonia, there are parties ethnic, and the number there is enough big in comparison to the population ethnic. All the groups ethnic I'm alive in the territory country Macedonia have two or may many ethnic political parties on the base name the parties political that road sign. I present to you the list of ethnic political parties in the Republic of North Macedonia from the year 2021.

List the party's political ethnicity from the Republic of North Macedonia

- | | |
|---|--------|
| 1. Party for the Integration of Roma - PIR | Romani |
| 2. Party for the Total Emancipation of the Roma - PACER | Romani |
| 3. Democratic Prosperity of the Roma - DPR | Romani |
| 4. Democratic Forces of the Roma - DSR | Romani |

5. Macedonian Action - MAAK	Macedonian
6. Permanent Macedonian radical unification	Macedonian
7. Macedonian Alliance	Macedonian
8. Party for Democratic Prosperity - PDP	Albanian
9. Democratic Party of Albanians - DPA	Albanian
10. Democratic Union for Integration-DUI Alliance of Albanians	Albanian
12. BESA A	Albanian
13. National Democratic Revival- NDP	Albanian
14. Party for the Movement of Turks in Macedonia	Turk
15. Democratic Party of the Turks of Macedonian	Turk
16. Movement for the National Unity of the Turks	Turk
17. The Serbian Party of Macedonia - SSM	Serbian
18. Democratic Party of Macedonian Serbs	Serbian
19. The Serbian Advanced Party of Macedonia	Serbian
20. Party of Vlachs from Macedonia	Vlach
21. Democratic Union of the Vlachs of Macedonia	Vlach
22. Bosnian Democratic Party	Bosnian
23. Party for Democratic Action of Macedonian	Bosnian

Source: Encyclopedia site: wikiroro.top

4. The status of minorities in education, in the mass media, and in the state

In the field of education members of minorities have the right to education in their mother tongue in primary schools and high schools. For this, the state guarantees free elementary school, which is compulsory for everyone.

Also, the Constitution offers the possibility of establishing private schools under conditions determined by law. In primary education, teaching is carried out in the Macedonian language, Albanian, Turkish and Serbian. (Ortakovski, 1995: 2-4).

Macedonian Television (MTV) broadcasts two hours daily in Albanian, one hour daily in Turkish, and 30 minutes of weekly programs in the Aromanian language, Romanians and Serbs. In addition to state television, there are 250 private TV stations, some of which broadcast programs entirely in the languages of the nationalities.

Macedonian radio broadcasts, in total fifteen hours of daily programs in minority languages (nine and a half hours in Albanian and four and a half hours in Turkish). The programs are broadcast in the Aromanian and Romanian languages two hours a week.

Regarding the print media in North Macedonia, we can say that the *Flaka e vellazerimit* newspaper is published in the Albanian language. *Birlik* newspaper is published in Turkish three times a week. The *Polog* newspaper is published in several minority languages and the newspaper *Phoenix* appears in Aromanian and Macedonian. The *Macedonian Vlach Woman* newspaper is published in the Aromanian language once every three months.

I mention cultural institutions for minorities in Skopje, such as the Roma Cultural Association, *Pralipe*, and the Theater of Minorities, with separate sections in Albanian and tipcat.

The Republic of Macedonia makes great efforts to improve the position of minorities in various fields, even in the police, army, and judiciary. Minorities are represented at the Constitutional Court and the Judicial Council of the Republic of North Macedonia in 2022 as well. (Mihailo, 1974:2-4).

5. The Albanian minority in the Republic of Macedonia after 1991

Despite the tensions and problems, there is a relaxation in inter-ethnic relations in Macedonia. Minorities enjoy ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious protection. The state has policies aimed at increasing the representation of minority members in all fields, but especially in the police, the army, education, and the judicial system.

The main purpose of minority political parties is to win as many rights as possible. Some acts are under taken to achieve a different constitutional status for ethnic groups. The minorities want the Republic of North Macedonia to be a bi-national state, which means the expansion of linguistic rights; mother tongue education; proportional representation of minorities in all fields and public sectors (especially within the security and military forces); but also development greater autonomy for local administration of North Macedonia, representatives of the international community they tended to prevent the outbreak of a war beyond borders of this state, so they tried to:

(1) hinders the ties between Albanians in Kosovo and the Albanians in the Republic of Macedonia, by exerting pressure on The Macedonian government should guarantee the minority rights of the Albanians.

(2) encourage Albanian radicals to present their demands for nationality and rights on a territorial basis in Macedonia.

(3) This forced the political moderates to enter the Albanian community, who preferred to address the issue through civil rights, to address their voters with an electoral platform in which they demanded status as a constituent nation in the Republic of Macedonia. (Woodward, 1995: 340-343).

Albania has continuously conditioned its relations with Macedonia on the promotion of the status of the Albanian minority, as well as on meeting all his requests for tertiary education in the Albanian language and representation in state institutions.

6. The problem of higher education

Increased interest in university studies among Albanian students in The Republic of Macedonia is related to the interruption of training in the Albanian language at the University of Prishtina in 1991. Before the disintegration of SFR Yugoslavia, around 1,800 Macedonian students studied at other universities in Yugoslavia, among which 1,200 (almost all of these belonging to the Albanian minority) studied at the University of Pristina. In 1994, a private Albanian university was established in the city of Tetovo, a majority ethnic Albanian city in western Macedonia. The government declared the university illegal and the police raided it.

The university reopened the following month and continues to operate, not recognized by the government, but it has not been closed by the authorities, because it operates outside the legal framework, and its diplomas are not recognized anywhere, except in Albania. For Albanians, university education in their mother tongue is seen as a key means of achieving social and economic parity with the ethnic majority of Macedonian. In line with the constitutional provision for secondary education, schools with education in a minority language must also receive education in the Macedonian language. In addition, if ethnic Albanians do not study Macedonian properly, this will prevent their integration into society, further reinforce segregation, and ultimately undermines the stability of the state. The "University of Tetovo " case received different treatment from the Albanian state after 1997. Visiting Macedonia in January 1998, Fatos Nano emphasized that the problem of education cannot be solved in the street with radicalism. He embraced the idea of a common Macedonian - Albanian university, significantly changing the politics of the radicals among Macedonian Albanians. (Ordanoski, 2000: 15).

7. The impact of the Kosovo conflict on Macedonia

At the outbreak of the conflict in Kosovo in 1998, the Macedonian Albanians came to the aid of the Albanian Kosovars. relationships between Albanians in Macedonia and Kosovo were better than with Albanians from Albania. Due to unrestricted internal

mobility, Albanians in the former Yugoslavia were able to create their ethnocultural community, even though they are in different federal units. The most important members of the Albanian community do not differentiate between citizens and the Macedonian or Yugoslav state and perceive only the Albanian community.

After 1998, the subject of Kosovar refugees was not discussed publicly in Macedonia. The refugees were officially described as Albanian “guests” of their Macedonian families.

From the Albanian side of Macedonian society, there is no problem as to how the Kosovo issue should have been resolved. After the crisis in Kosovo erupted in March 1999, a large flow of refugees from Kosovo arrived in Macedonia. (Vankovska, 1999: 8).

The conflict in Kosovo had several main points of impact on Macedonia:

- a) Repercussions of the conflict in Kosovo and the flow of refugees almost caused an economic and social disaster. Macedonia is one independent state with a burdensome legacy of being the most underdeveloped and the poorest Yugoslav republic. In the center of a turbulent region, it could not attract foreign investments. A large number of refugees threatened to destabilize Macedonia and Albania, economically and socially.
- b) A large number of refugees changed the demographics of Macedonians by encouraging Albanian and Serbian nationalities, leading to ethnic and religious changes in Macedonia. Macedonia faced great problems, but despite all the difficulties, it accepted refugees.
- c) The conflict in Kosovo produced a change in Macedonia regarding national security.
- d) Unintended involvement in the conflict in Kosovo due to actions undertaken by the community International. Macedonians were afraid of being invaded by their neighbors (Ortakovski, 1999: 3).

8. Conclusions

Today, with all the high levels of economic development in Macedonia, the radical minority movements have not disappeared, definitively, that's why Macedonians try to treat all its citizens as equals. This article analyzes inter - ethnically the relations in the Republic of North Macedonia in the period preceding the conflict in 2001. The parties ethnic defend and improve the rights of the groups ethnic, but at the same time create segregation policies and disallowance. States to integrate with the others members and supporters of the rest of the political parties in politics the system. The most important thing is that ethnic parties fight for the rights of their ethnicity. The parties ethnic defend and improve the rightsof the group or ethnic, but at the same time create

segregation policies and I don't allow States to integrate with the other members and supporters of the rest of the political parties in a state.

There are a lot of indicators to classify parties as ethnic, among the best indicators we mention the following three:

1. the name Party political;
2. program Party political;
3. status the party.

Even if the existence of parties are ethnic this does not mean that the rights of the specific ethnic group will be improved, however, their existence enables to there a society multicultural.

In my opinion, ethnic parties have parted their positives and negative, but, in the final, I think the benefits are more significant than the losses. If there are no ethnic parties, then who will fight for the rights of the ethnicity?

References:

1. Census. (1994). *Data on the Present and the Future: First Results*. Skopje: Republic Statistical Office.
2. Census. (2002). *Data on the Present and the Future: First Results*. Skopje: Republic Statistical Office.
3. Census. (2021). *Data on the Present and the Future: First Results*. Skopje: Republic Statistical Office.
4. *Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia*. (1991). Skopje: NIP "Shop 21".
5. Encyclopedia site: wikiroro.top
6. Frăsie, M. C. (2010). *Minoritățile naționale și drepturile omului*, în vol. *Tratat de sociologie generală* (coord. D. Otovescu). Craiova: Editura Beladi.
7. Keith, D. (1995). *Aristotle politics*, in the translation his Richard Robinson. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
8. Lee, D. and Cott, V. (2005). *From Movements to Parties in Latin America*. The Evolution of Ethnic Politics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
9. Mihailo, A. and Haralampie, P. (1974). *The Socialist Republic of Macedonia*. Skopje: Kultura.
10. Ordanoski, S. (2000). *Educational Policy in a Divided Society: The Case of the "Tetovo University"*. Skopje: Forum - Center for Strategic Research and Documentation.
11. Ortakovski, V. T. (1995). *Co-existence of Nationalities in Macedonia*. Washington DC: The Brookings Institution.
12. Ortakovski, V. T. (1999). *The Kosovo Conflict and Macedonia*, paper presented at the Fourth Annual Convention of the Association for the Study of Nationalities, New York: Columbia University.
13. Otovescu, A. (2013). *Conservarea identității culturale în mediile de imigranți români din Europa*. București: Editura Muzeului Național al Literaturii Române.
14. Otovescu, D. (2009). *Sociologie generală*. 5th edition, Craiova: Beladi

15. The Law on Local Self-Government, part XIV: Official use of the languages in the units of local self-government) is quoted from *Sluzhben vesnik na Republika Makedonija*, no. 52/95.
16. the law the parties political, (*Monitor Official of country Macedonia*, no. 76/04, 5/07, 8/07, 5/08 and 23/13).
17. Vankovska-Cvetkovska, B . (1999). *Between Preventive Diplomacy and Conflict Resolution*. Chicago: Tribune.
18. Woodward, S. L. (1995). *Balkan Tragedy: Chaos and Dissolution after the Cold War*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution.

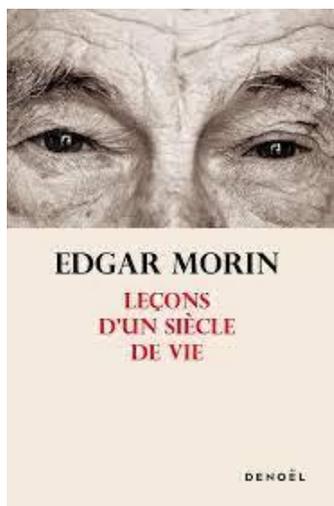
BOOK REVIEW:

Edgar Morin (2021): *Lessons of a Century of Life*, Paris, Denoel Editions, 100 p.

Hatem BENAZOUZ

Associate Professor, PhD., Larbi Tebessi University (Algeria)

E-mail : hatem.benazouz@univ-tebessa.dz



The current presented work of the Denoel editions (Paris – France) that was published formerly in 2021 sheds light on a very significant personal experience of a man who spent an entire hundred years of his life in a troubled and a worrying epoch. It was a very peculiar century in a sense that it evoked different negative issues such as cruel conflicts, callous wars, nuclear threat, pollution danger and especially the deterioration of the social status of life. Furthermore, this era noticed a huge unlimited willingness to acquire gain and to make progress as far as scientific, technological, relational aspects and many other matters are concerned. It was a real important double sword age since it made an increase to humanity in general and to the author's life in particular as well as the decrease noticed in several other things.

The French author Edgar Morin mainly known as Edgar Nahoum was born in 1921 in Paris. He was a great sociologist as well as philosopher. Starting from the 1950's to the current time, Edgar's studies occupied a vital and a decent position since it added a lot to the French sociology. He is endowed with such intricate way of thinking. He described himself as a constructivist. More precisely, he once revealed that in order to build up reality, the talk should mainly focus on the cooperation of both; the mind as well as the outside world. He was such a real great teacher and researcher. The sociologist Edgar Morin stated that he took a lot of courses in various domains such as philosophy, economics, history, geography and political science. (<https://lejournal.cnrs.fr/articles/edgar-morin-ou-leloge-de-la-pensee-complexe>). Besides, he lined up his career at the CNRS from 1973 to 1989; he worked as a Co- Headmaster at the Transdisciplinary Studies Centre (Sociology, Anthropology and Politics). It is related to the School of Higher Studies on Social Sciences. He was also a former research headmaster at the CNRS. (Loridant,2008: p 17). Moreover, Edgar made himself eternally famous through writing several crucial works in the domain of social sciences and humanities.

It is worthy to discuss one of Edgar Morin's Valuable works, which is entitled as "Leçons d'un Siècle de Vie" i.e., Lessons of a Century of Life. This precious book consists of seven main chapters. Each of these chapters holds various diversified ideas narrated in a chronological manner. It tackled the author's personal and intellectual way of living. More precisely, it dug into his origins and especially his own manner of seeing the world. Morin's notable work wondered about his own personal life so that to find out his own way of living and sum up his own perspective about life. He brainstormed his thoughts and visions without delivering any moral lessons to anyone. This is clearly stated at the preface of his book when he claimed that he is not giving any kind of lessons to anybody, but rather, he is trying to pick out lessons from a secure and a secular experience of life. (p.3)

Initially speaking, Edgar Morin is a human being and an individual. He is a combination of numerous different identities among which the French, Spanish, Italian, European, Mediterranean and others are stated in the eighth page of his work. This is the reason why he tackled the topic of identity in the first chapter of his work. Edgar pointed out that every single person possesses his/her unique complicated identity. From his own point of view, a person is the only one capable of making the change and helping one's self to build up and improve his/her relationship with others. Moreover, he added that people should be extremely aware of the affective situations they live in their everyday life since they identify emotions of pleasant and delightful moments. Every person should value these valuable instants of love and brotherhood. In fact, Morin was a religious person. This condition of being religious pushed him to search for a humanist consciousness and self-awareness above all. He defended the idea that he is certainly a humanist since he is fond of the Spanish culture, which comes from the old Castilian i.e., the standard variety of Spanish spoken in his family on the one hand, and the Italian identity that is backdated to his maternal family on the other hand. In addition to his European identity since he followed politics in 1973 (p9). The famous author lived an absolute intersection of identities; he was known as Gaston Poncet on his identity card during the Resistance period, whereas, Morin was the common name among his friends of the Resistance. In addition, his parents used to call him Nahoum. This suggests that his multiple identities are not a path to his inconsistency and irregularity, but rather a reason to his intellectual wealth and prosperity. For Morin, these various identities are polished up due to the mixture of the internal and external different states that he met in his entire life.

Edgar Morin's intellectual as well as cultural journey founded its first steps when he gave birth to his first valuable book "Morin, 1946". His work shaped his way of thinking in addition to transdisciplinary method of grasping knowledge. His first work was considered as an introduction to several different other books that really illustrate a fascinating intellectual mind. Edgar considers himself as a whole for himself and indeed, he deserves it. Edgar the author is before all a human being, an individual, a single and a unique product for the world of writing.

Moving to the second chapter of Edgar's work, one can illustrate that this phase of the work is presented under the title of The Unforeseen and the Uncertain. In this part of his book, Edgar Morin sailed in the ocean of the hardships he encountered in the different experiences he lived. He argued that escaped death several times. Death chased him even before his birth time. He said that his first encounter with death was when his mother went to the hospital so that to bring him up to life. Furthermore, death faced him again when he was hiding during the Resistance period. He thought that this is a concrete image of the reciprocal relation between luck and bad luck. (p17). He believed that this close relationship between them would be repeated in several coming up situations. The great author Edgar Morin also raised up a relevant question about the chance. This question was set as: what is a chance? He combined this term with the several events he experienced and in which he has been lucky in some of them. The writer linked the term chance to the chapter's title "unforeseen" . For him all life is marked without interruption by what can be called chance. The unforeseen, the luck , the bad luck or the misfortune may be a source of happiness and vice versa. The author emphasized that one of the great lessons of his life about the concept of "life" in general is that life itself is uncertain since it is full of different unexpected situations. The unexpected is always there. It always comes to shake up or transform our individual life, our citizenship, our nation's life and the humanity's life in general. It sometimes provides us with delightful moments and other times with melancholic moments. He learnt to believe in the unexpected from the great crisis of 1929 which devastated the world and co-produced Nazism as well as the war , Hitler's extension to the power, the unexpected riot of February 6th, 1934 against the parliament which aroused an unexpected reaction of the Popular

front and that led to the Spanish war (p 26). Edgar knew many other events that really impressed his own life and marked a great change in it.

Talking about the third chapter of this book. One can argue that it deals with the idea of the *Savoir-vivre* or what is mainly known as the know how to live notion. It is in this chapter where the author introduced a double meaning to the word "to live". He first mentioned the biological signification of it and that refers to the act of being alive. Then, he added the other meaning, which is related to the conduct of life with all its chances, risks, and joyful moments and pains as well. Edgar Morin wanted to live in a community of love and friendship, but he later discovered that it is impossible. He emphasized its impossibility since he thought that every individual would become an individualistic and through time, he/ she becomes a selfish person. After that, he argued that the coming stage is the notion of the ego "the me or the I", which dominates and imposes itself above all else and here the «I" hides into the "we" (p 30). In the same context, the author described the great moments he lived in the Saint Benoît Street. He argued that these are periods of happiness, which became a source for poetry of life. He also approached what he called "the ecstasies of history" these are the rare extraordinary historical moments such as the general strike of June 1936, the liberation of Paris in August 1944 and other important historical moments dug in the author's mind.

The next chapter of Edgar Morin's presented work delved thoroughly into an extremely essential subject mainly identified as the human complexity. The author pondered deeply about the history of the human being conditions that are influenced by the different events lived by his friend George Delboy (p44). Edgar Morin was engaged at that time in a scientific research in different sociological, anthropological, methodological and political fields guided by the thoughts of Marx, Pascal, Hegel and Bolk. He discovered that myths, religion and the different ideologies constitute a human and social reality that is of much importance as the economic processes and the conflicts among the social classes. He also wondered about the inconstant human versatility i.e., that notion of the worst and the best, which evolves under the real effect of the circumstances, the influences and the experiences from adulthood to an old age. The author also addressed the question of the complex human trinity of the individual, the society and the species, which defines every single human being.

The fifth chapter of the book tackled the idea that the author is a reference himself since he lived different and various political experiences. In fact, these experiences in his life are preceded by a former political consciousness built up from a very young age. The latter, has founded his political ideas and his own culture towards the different political events. Edgar drew down many lessons from the various experiences he has been living with. Among these previously lived stories, the pre-war period i.e., the Second World War in addition to the Nazi war occupation of France and its consequences and influence. Furthermore, Edgar extracted many lessons from the 1950s. These lessons were about the topic of the U R S S "the Soviet Communism" (p 63) , the workers' revolutions of Poland, the popular democracies of the Fourth French Republic and the ecological questions of the great danger on plant and animal's biodiversity as well as on the human being. Besides, the author wondered about the progression of an ecological consciousness that was flourished in the sixties and the seventies where the ecological question was a major issue of that time. Edgar Morin simply led a huge fight and an immense commitment to save nature, biodiversity and the ecosystem, which are crucial topics of wars and crises unfolded in Europe and the Middle East in the nineties. These also were a part of the author's concerns by the end of his work.

The sixth chapter of Morin's book dealt with the issue of ethics in science and the political judgments towards the scientific development. He tackled this topic since their role in the history of the different societies has gradually become immense (p 71). Edgar thought that it is of a great

importance to point out that despite the great advantages science has, it consists of many disadvantages too. He argued that sciences know no internal ethical limits; he considered that the ethical sense could only come from the external morals. The author became aware of the perverse effects of the techno-economic globalization, which had created a community of destiny among all humans because they have a common history, common challenges and a common destiny too. He also talked of the human beings need for a complex thought that helps them to reform the human thought ... He added that it is only the complex thought that will allow us to civilize our knowledge (Morin, 1990: p 25). To sum up, Edgar Morin came up with the idea that it is this knowledge that would help us to understand the causes of the major multidimensional planetary crises that are taking place, in particular the crises resulting from this latest pandemic.

As far as the last chapter is concerned, Edgar Morin focused on what is called mistakes. He emphasized on the various mistakes he has done in his entire life. He learnt that mistakes are urgently needed in anybody's life so that to grasp lessons and benefit from them. He argued that they are advantageous for him since he is a human being. For him, mistakes have a clear link with knowledge. Morin was greatly inspired by the great philosophical questions formulated by Emmanuel Kant. He declared that he learnt many things from life and he was always ready to learn. He added that knowledge in his life plays a significant role, but it is always there with the presence of errors that are usually considered as the permanent risk for every individual's personal, social and historical life with all its decisions and actions (p 77). In the same context, Edgar Morin presented the two great errors he made in his entire life and which are made in two different periods. The first one was during his adolescence, whereas the second one during his youth. He elucidated the personal journey that had led him to convert to socialism and the illusions that he later discovered about this ideology i.e., all the mythology based on the Stalinist Communism (Delannoi & Morin, 2008 p 174). Furthermore, the mistakes that he made during the Cold War period, in particular the dogmatism. In fact, Edgar thought of his own mistakes positively since they taught him the power of the illusion, of error and the one of the historical lie. He came up to conclude that although errors educate, teach and make people mature enough to face the obstacles of life, they also present a threat mainly in life and for life too.

To make a long story short, one can say that this work presents a sincere and a very genuine autobiography of a great intellectual as well as a pure spiritual adventure of an excellent sociologist on the one hand and a skilful philosopher on the other hand. He worked on the recapitulation of a deep lengthy experience of an old man and his hundred years spent in this mysterious challenging world. This work delivered a collection of great thoughts and fascinating images of wisdom and passion from both sociological and philosophical perspectives. These ideas are presented about a peculiar world that surrounds us; they are about societies in which human beings live in, societies of crisis and difficulties, societies that have experienced rapid social, technological, economic and cultural change. They are stories of different societies full of events and memories that have inspired the author and drawn an immense impact on his way of living as well as thinking.

References :

1. Delannoi. G, et Morin. E (2008), La gauche, du XXe au XXIe siècle Pour une double autocritique, idéologique et écologique , Dialogue avec Edgar Morin sur son parcours politique et idéologique , « Communications » 2008/1, n° 82, <https://www.cairn.info/revue-communications-2008-1-page-171.htm>.
2. <https://lejournel.cnrs.fr/articles/edgar-morin-ou-leloge-de-la-pensee-complexe>
3. Loridant, C (2008), Biographie et Bibliographie (non exhaustive) d'Edgar Morin, Synergies, Monde, n° 4 – 2008.

4. Morin. E (1946) , l'An zéro de l'Allemagne , Paris, Éditions de la Cité Universelle.
5. Morin. E (2005), Introduction à la pensée complexe. Paris : Ed. Du Seuil. 2005.