



Forum on *Studies of Society*



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**FORUM ON STUDIES OF SOCIETY
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ABOUT THE FORUM ON STUDIES OF SOCIETY

The first edition of the **Forum on Studies of Society (FSS) International Conference on Social Sciences and Humanities** was organized by the University of Craiova, Faculty of Social Sciences, Specializations: Sociology and Social Work, Romania, in co-operation with National College of Social Workers-Branch Dolj, Faculty of Sociology and Social Work, Department of Social Work, University of Bucharest, Romania, Faculty of Philosophy and Faculty of Economics, St. Cyril and St. Methodius University, Bulgaria and Faculty of Science and Literature and Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Süleyman Demirel University, Turkey and The Off-Campus Faculty of Law & Social Sciences in Stalowa Wola, The John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin, Poland.

The purpose of the Conference was to create a forum for debating topics of great interest to society, thus, trying to expand the network of interested stakeholders and extend the ground for best practice exchanges from different institutions and various domains.

The Conference aimed to bring together already involved key actors as well as engaged participants, representatives of academic, economic and social partners to discuss and exchange their experiences and research results on different aspects of Social and Humanistic Science. Based on the multi-field methodology-encompassing, inter-disciplinary character of the Conference, we strongly encouraged potential participants and stakeholders with background and research interests in the fields of Sociology and Social Work, European Studies, International Relations and Security. There are currently numerous challenges to be tackled in approaching past and present subjects on society.

The rationale for the Conference relied on initiating reflection and launching debates on the following main topics: Sociology and Social Work, European Studies, International Relations and Security Studies, Political Sciences, History and Philosophy.

The conference sessions for paper presentations were as follows:

- Session 1: Sociology: “New social realities”
- Session 2: Social Work: “Social workers towards an undivided humanity”
- Session 3: European studies: “United in diversity”
- Session 4: International Relations and Security Studies: “Towards a new world order”
- Session 5: Political Science: “Europeanization, policy-making and institutional change”
- Session 6: History: “History and Politics through time”
- Session 7: Philosophy: “Contemporary Philosophical Issues”

The Conference sessions welcomed papers approaching theoretical studies and empirical research, good practice examples or lessons learnt in practice.

Aiming to create a space for discussing different approaches related to social sciences and humanities, the conference included over 120 communications from 140 participants representing 8 countries.

The international conference Forum on Studies of Society (FSS) was included and indexed in 7 international databases and services:

- **Elsevier**, Global Events List:

<http://www.globaleventslist.elsevier.com/events/2016/03/forum-on-studies-of-society-fssinternational-conference-on-social-sciences-and-humanities>

- **GoREF**, Indexed Conferences:

<http://goref.ro/conferences-and-proceedings/goref-index-conferences/>

- **Conferences International**:

<http://conferences-in.com/conference/romania/2016/europe/forum-studies-society-fssinternational-conference-social-sciences-humanities/>

- **Conference Index**: <https://index.conferencesites.eu/conference/9068/forum-on-studies-of-society-fss-internationalconference-on-social-sciences-and-humanities>

- **Web of Conference**:

http://www.webofconferences.org/index.php?option=com_conference&task=search&type=conference&lang=en

- **Conal. Conference Alerts**:

<http://www.conferencealerts.com/show-event?id=168449>

- **Scientific Indexing Services (SIS), USA**:

<http://www.sindexs.org/Conflist.aspx?ID=525>

Over 50 employees in the fields of sociology and social work also attended the sessions of the Conference, and were involved in the debates occasioned by the Forum on Studies of Society.

We provided the authors with the opportunity to publish the results of their research in scientific journals indexed in international databases and collective volumes. Some papers have been published in the partner journals and another part in the present volume.

The coordinators

Disability and Home Care of Persons with Disability (PWDs) in Turkey

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Abstract

Policies towards the persons with disabilities (PWDs) started in the 1970s and the disability movement opened up approaches and service models on disability for debate. This change also caused a turn in understanding disability as a matter of citizenship and equality beyond just a matter of care and rehabilitation. As a result, a social model evolved in which the PWDs as individuals are considered to have independent lives as citizens with some basic rights. In Turkey, disability became a topic for discussion as impairment at the end of the 1990s, shaped by the medical model. In the 2000s, home care income support programs for the PWDs and their needy families were developed. Especially after the disability law enacted in 2005, family based home care seems to have replaced institutional care. In fact, the Ministry of Family and Social Policy started to provide income support to the families and relatives caring the PWDs at home in 2006. In 2014, one out of every twenty PWDs (a total of 418.645) received home care. However, there is not any comprehensive research on how identity is socially constructed among the people giving home nursing care to the PWDs and the PWDs themselves. The subject matter of this study is to explore the social construction of identity among the PWDs cared at home and their needy family members or relatives providing home care to them. The process of the social construction of identity among the PWDs takes place basically in families and related social environment in which they are cared for. The social environment in which the PWDs live, the relationship between the normal people (the care takers) and the disabled and the determinants of this relationship, opportunities and resources shape the care taking of the PWDs at home.

Keywords: *disability; home care; medical model; social model; identity; Turkey.*

1. Introduction

Disability is a multi-dimensional and complex issue. Disability experience as a result of the interaction of health conditions, personal, social and environmental factors varies greatly from one person to another. The percentage of the persons with disabilities (PWDs) in the world population in 1970 was 10% but it went up to 15% in 2010 (WHO 2011: pp. 3-4). More than one billion people in the world live with some form of disability, nearly 200 million of whom experience considerable difficulties in functioning, live with various types of disability, and struggle with different types of

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discrimination. Across the world, people with disabilities have poorer health outcomes, lower education achievements and economic participation and higher rates of poverty than persons without disabilities. This is partly because people with disabilities experience barriers in accessing services that many of us have long taken for granted, such as health, education, employment, transportation as well as information (WHO 2011: p. xi).

Although it is difficult to describe disability, WHO (2011) sees disability as an umbrella term, “covering impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions.” An impairment is a problem in body function or structure. Yet, an activity limitation is a difficulty encountered by an individual in executing a task or action and a participation restriction is a problem experienced by an individual in involvement in life situations. Thus, disability is not just a health problem but a complex phenomenon, reflecting the interaction between features of a person’s body and the society in which he or she lives.

Overcoming the difficulties faced by the PWDs requires interventions to remove environmental and social barriers. It means that the PWDs have diverse personal factors with differences in gender, age, socioeconomic status, sexuality, ethnicity, or cultural heritage. Therefore, people with disabilities have some similar health needs as non-disabled people (immunization, cancer screening etc.). Yet, they have further social, economic and health needs due to the fact that they experience increased risks of poverty, social exclusion, and extra health problems. Besides; evidence suggests that people with disabilities face barriers in accessing the health and rehabilitation services they need in many settings (WHO 2016).

2. Shift from the Medical Model to the Rights Based Social Model

Until the 1960s the medical sociological approach was widely embraced. The medical perspective emphasized the biological roots of disabilities, and situates the ‘problem’ within the individual. The impaired people were seen as ill and offered medical help. The aim was to rehabilitate the impaired and make them “normal people” like the others. (Oliver 1990; Thomas 2011) The medical approach to disability has fostered artificial divisions within the disabled population. At the end of 1960s, this was accepted as the stigma and caste of second-hand citizenship and the incorrect judgement of social inferiority (Oliver and Zarb 1989; Oliver 1990). So policies towards the PWDs started in the 1970s and disability was not seen simply as a purely medical problem anymore.

The disability movement, started during the late 1970s and early 1980s and spearheaded by disabled activists and academics predominantly based in the United Kingdom and the United States, opened up approaches and service models on disability for debate. In the context of post-Fordist economy, the disabled formed themselves into a new social movement, and waged a struggle for emancipation from social oppression and exclusion. People are viewed as being disabled by society rather than bodies. It is also the same for the people with impairments who do not conform to mainstream expectations of appearance, behaviour and/or economic performance (Finkelstein 1980; Oliver 1990). Thus, the issue of disability has been transformed from a purely medical problem to a political one and social model. This change has caused a turn in the understanding of disability as a matter of citizenship and equality beyond just a matter of care and rehabilitation (Finkelstein 2007).

The disability movement has successfully politicised social and physical space by drawing attention to the ways how dominant values and practices in society have impacted the lives of and opportunities for the PWDs. Besides, the challenge to disablism, oppression and exclusion has produced the new politics of disablement which includes, as its intellectual expression, the social model of disability. A rights-based social model has evolved seeing the PWDs as individuals who can live independent lives as citizens with basic rights (Oliver 1990 and 2011; Thomas 2011). The fundamental assumption underpinning the social model approach is that people with impairments are disabled and excluded by a society that is not organised in ways that take account of their needs (Finkelstein 1980; Oliver 1990 1996).

In social model, differentiated impairment and disability are seen as an important issue. *Impairment* is the functional limitation of an individual's capacity, ability and movement caused by physical, mental or sensory impairment. Disability is the loss or limitation of opportunities to take part in the normal life of the community on a fair level with others due to physical and social barriers (Barnes 1991; Tregaskis 2002). Thomas (2011) pointed out that it is not impaired persons that have to be repaired and changed but rather the type of social and spatial organization and social, cultural, mental and physical obstacles that have to be removed. In addition, the social model offers an analysis of the role of culture in creating and maintaining exclusion of the PWDs (Barnes 1991; Hevey 1992; Shakespeare 1994; Burcu 2006). Especially the exclusion of the PWDs and disability are the creations of cultural practice, in that we learn in our family or society and from one another how to categorize and even stigmatize people as the same/different or normal/abnormal. As Barnes (1996: p. 51) stated, we need to see current social responses to impairment as the cultural product of the interaction between the means of production and central societal values. This is also accurate with regard to the use of negative imagery in media and in literature portraying differences as unacceptable, evil, or a punishment from the God (Thomas 1982, Barnes 1991, Hevey 1992).

The social model proposes to take into account impairment as an important issue in the lives of the disabled because this would help to develop a strong argument about social structures and social processes (Shakespeare and Watson 1997: p. 298). Thus, in sociology, disability is considered as a product of sociological construction process rather than impairments in a body. In other words, disability is a process in which a disabled person views oneself from the eyes of normal others and embraces his or her status as disabled and disadvantaged. In sociology, the cultural and mental obstacles are focused upon in addition to hegemonic social institutions, and inclusive and exclusive practices and rituals in order to help to overcome mental, social and cultural barriers (Barnes 1991; Shakespeare and Watson 1997). For instance, social constructionists as Prestley (1991) stressed the role of culture in the formation of attitudes. Thus, disability is considered as socially and structurally constructed rather than as a product of individual interactions between people with and without impairments.

3. International Regulations on Disability

Shift from the medical model to the rights based social model has also had impact on the international efforts to overcome obstacles before the integration of the disabled into society. Especially since 1980's some international organizations, such as the EU and UN, have accepted and used social model, and have taken a leading role in this

shift in understanding of disability, disability rights and the disabled; in the enhancement of medical and other social services for the PWDs; in the fight discrimination against the PWDs and the development of related anti-discrimination programs for the PWDs. In the case of Turkey, Turkey's relationships with international organizations such as the EU and the UN have functioned as an anchor to adapt rights-based approaches in Turkey and, thus, disability has become a matter of social and political rights especially since the mid-1990s (Bezmez 2013: p. 110).

In fact, the history of international regulations on disability could be traced back to Article 25/a of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), and the 1965 Council of Europe's European Social Charter (signed by Turkey in 1989 with some reservations). Later came the 1976 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, ILO's 1983 Convention concerning Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment of Disabled Persons, and the 1986 UN Declaration on the Right to Development have played an important role to improve disability rights. Over 40 countries have accepted to the World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled People (1982), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), and the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for People with Disabilities (1993) in the 1980s and 1990s.

The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), adopted on 13 December 2006 by the United Nations General Assembly and entered into force on May 3, 2008, is the first international human rights treaty specifically related to the rights of people with disabilities. The UNCRPD outlines the civil, cultural, political, social, and economic rights of the persons with disabilities, and includes measures to facilitate providing persons with disabilities full and equal rights within the scope of anti-discrimination principle. It also promotes, protects and ensures the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by people with disabilities and to promote respect for their inherent dignity (WHO 2011: pp. 8-9).

In accordance with the UNCRPD, many states have taken steps to recognize the human rights of persons with disabilities. Turkey was one of the first countries to sign the UNCRPD. Being the first and only international instrument with binding provisions, the UNCRPD was signed by Turkey on 30 March 2007. The Convention was ratified and thus enacted by the cabinet on 27 May 2009. Since the date of ratification, the Convention has been taken as a basis in disability policy of Turkey (MFSS 2013: p. 2).

The European Union also joined the Disability Rights Convention by signing the treaty in March of 2007. However, as of 2015, 11 of the 27 EU members have yet to ratify the convention, including Turkey, Bulgaria, Cyprus and Romania, although all have signed. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Persons with Disabilities has the potential to create a "paradigm shift", (as understood by Thomas Kuhn), in the manner in which disability policy and practice is formulated (Lang 2009: p. 283).

4. Situation and the Rights of the PWDs in Turkey

Total number of the PWDs in Turkey is around 10 million (12.8 % of the population). 18% of the PWDs have more than one type of impairments. 20% are considerably restricted. 58.6% of the disabled are men while 41.4% are women. 56.8% of the disabled have impairments due to diseases (TÜİK 2011). 35% of the people aged over 75 have disabilities. The PWDs in Turkey are classified accordingly: 29.2% has mental retardation; 25.6% chronicle diseases; 8.8% orthopedic or physical disabilities; 8.4 % visual impairments; 5.9% hearing impairments; 3.9 psychological problems; and 0.2 speaking impairments.

Illiteracy rate was 36.3 % for the PWDs in 2010 as opposed to 12% for general population. 45 % of the disabled have only primary level education, 6 % secondary level, and 7 % high school level. Only 2.4% of them have a university level education. The employment participation rate for the male disabled people was around 33% but only around 20% of them were employed in 2002. This figure radically differs according to gender. It was 32% for the disabled men whereas it was only 6.7% for the disabled women.

Employment rate of the disabled was 25.6% in urban and 17.8% in rural areas in 2002 and no recent data is available. In 2002, over half of the disabled people did not have any social security but that figure has improved over the years. Besides, 75% of 31 thousand disabled people who have applied to İŞKUR (the Public Employment Organization of Turkey) for placement on a job do not have any occupational skills in 2012. The number of the PWDs employed in public institutions increased from 5.777 in 2002 up to 32.021 by June 2013 (MFSS 2013: p. 7).

These numbers show that a great majority of the PWDs in Turkey has not employed and they are cared for by their families. Poverty increases the risk of disability so poor families are provided social aid by government social safety programs. In retrospect, disability has been considered together with poverty and as the responsibility of the family. Disability has been handled on the base of a protective approach combined with a voluntary philanthropy and religious solidarity. In the 19th century, private education institutions were also involved in social aid to people who were disabled, orphan or deserted. After the World War II and Korean War, regulations on pensions for veterans were enacted. In 1976, social benefits given to persons with disabilities who were not able to work or could not find a job in accordance with the law numbered 222, some cash and health assistance was provided for the disabled as well as the lonely and needy elderly who were over the age of 65.

The UN announced the year of 1981 as the International Year of Disabled Persons for “full participation and equality” of the PWDs. The UN brought disability to public attention as a matter of political debate and called for a plan of action at the national, regional and international levels, with an emphasis on equalization of opportunities, rehabilitation and prevention of disabilities. Then, the UN declared the 10-year period from 1983-1992 as the Decade of Disabled Persons to provide a time frame during which Governments and organizations could implement the activities recommended in the World Programme of Action.

Turkey also declared the same period as “the Decade of Disabled Persons” and the problems of the disabled were brought forward and discussed. The Law on Social Services numbered 2828 and enacted in 1983 specified the types of social services to be provided to protect the PWDs. It also established the Bureau for the Disabled People under the Social Services and Child Protection Agency, which had the responsibility to help and protect the disabled people by creating “Care and Rehabilitation Centers”. Under the Ministry and Labor and Social Security, the National Coordination Committee on Protecting the Impaired was established.

Accordingly, disability as impairment has become a topic for discussion at the end of the 1990s and 2000s in Turkey. In the policies on disability adopted by AKP governments in recent years, there seems to be three basic characteristics (Bezmez 2013: p. 100). These characteristics are:

- Disability in the Turkish context is rarely perceived as a matter of legitimate political struggle and disabled people are not seen as an identity group with political demands.
- The tendency to associate disability primarily with some sort of ‘dysfunctioning’ and ‘missing parts’ of the body has made medical approach the prime model in dealing with disability. The dominant medical approach contributed to a view of disability as something which is needed to be ‘cured’ and ‘rehabilitated,’ and to the reinforcement and legitimization of charity-based practices.
- Increased reference to Islam has inspired the Islamic ethos of charity and family-based care, and, thus, AKP embraced these new values in its approach to disability and in developing policies toward the PWDs.

5. Legal Status and Rights for the PWDs

Turkey has ratified international agreements on disability (ILO, UN and EU regulations), enacted several laws on disability, increased political representation of the disabled people, and legally established quotas in the public and private sectors for the employment of the disabled. In 1981, based on the suggestions by the UN, a Commission on the Protection of the Disabled and National Coordination under the Ministry of Labor and Social Security was established and it became a permanent commission. Besides, Turkey accepted the policy on inclusion of the disabled students in combined classes, establishment of a new commission to follow up the implementation of the laws at public and private organizations in provinces and increased efforts to include the disabled people and eliminate offending and stigmatizing language in the laws and regulations. Moreover, laws have been amended to encourage the local administrations to make more effort to include the disabled people and to meet their needs.

However, there are still a lack of access to formal and vocational education, very low levels transition to upper levels of education and vocational programs, a lack of access to certain financial resources/credits and inadequate implementation of the laws on the rights of the disabled on the front lines. In addition, there is an absence of adequate recreational, rehabilitation and support facilities for the disabled and their families. Moreover, severity and extent of social exclusion, medical rather than social approach to the issue of impairment/disability and marginalization and chronic poverty are also important problems for the PWDs.

The 1982 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey provides that “The state shall take necessary measures to protect the disabled and secure their integration into community life” (Article 61), and that “no one shall be deprived of the right to learning and education” (Article 42). Article 50 of the Constitution states that “No one shall be required to perform work unsuited to his age, sex, and capacity. Minors, women and persons with physical or mental disabilities, shall enjoy special protection with regard to working conditions. All workers have the right to rest and leisure.” Additionally, according to Article 61 of the 1982 Constitution, the state has a responsibility for the protection, employment and integration of the disabled people.

6. Institutionalization Process for the PWDs

In 1997, the Prime Minister’s Office’s Administration for Disabled People (Özürlüler İdaresi Başkanlığı, ÖZİDA), was established under the Social Services and

Child Protection Agency, which had the responsibility to help to develop policies toward the PWDs and to protect the disabled people by creating "Care and Rehabilitation Centers." In 1999, the first Assembly on the Disability was held in Ankara, which helped improve the rights of the disabled. In the 2000s, efforts to collect data and build a data set on the PWDs have been intensified. Besides, disability is considered together with poverty as a matter of indigence because of economic crises. Thus, disability issues have become a matter of public matter with an understanding of social aid shaped by the medical model.

In 1997, Administration for Disabled People affiliated with the Prime Ministry was established. Also in 1999, the first assembly on disability issues was held, which helped improve the rights of the disabled. 2004 Metropolitan Municipality Law, 2005 the Law on Disabled People and 2006 Social Security Law all have provisions regarding disabled people.

In Turkey services for disabled people are given by different bodies either governmental or non-governmental organizations. Administration for Disabled People, Social Services and Child Protection, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Public Works and Settlement, Prime Ministry Under-secretariat of Customs and Municipalities are the other state organizations that were involved in the services delivered to the disabled people in the country. In addition to the state bodies, there are numerous foundations and societies working directly or indirectly in this area. Inadequacy of the care centres for the PWDs are one of the most scarce health and social care units of the country. In the 2000s, types of social aid and care services were diversified and home care income support programs for the PWDs and their needy families were developed. In 2011, the Administration for Disabled People was abolished and a new agency by the name of the Directorate General for the Disabled and Elderly Affairs was established under the Ministry of Family and Social Policies (Sallan Gül and others 2015; Evsen 2015).

Until the 2000s, the majority of the working but disabled were employed in the public sector but as of 2015 only 13% of the working disabled are employed in the public sector whereas 87% in the private sector. The quota in the public sector for hiring disabled people was 47,000 but only 9,000 people were hired, indicating a ratio of 1/5 in 2012. Article 30 of Labor Act Numbered 4857 and enacted in 2003 requires that the establishments employing 50 or more employees employ disabled persons and ex-convicts (3% in the private sector and in the public sector 4% for the disabled and 2% for the ex-convicts). Half of those cared for at home are female whereas the other half are male. However, those who care for the disabled at home are almost entirely female family members (91.4%). However, there is not any comprehensive research on how identity is socially constructed among the PWDs and the people giving home nursing care to the PWDs.

Article 14 of Disability Act Numbered 5378 and enacted in 2005 provides that *"During the employment, no discriminative practices can be performed against disabled people in any of the stages from the job selection, to application forms, selection process, technical evaluation, suggested working periods and conditions...."*. This law is also the main legal instrument that stipulates comprehensive affirmative measures for the PWDs in the fields of health, education, employment, rehabilitation, care and social security. With this legal regulation, it is prohibited to discriminate against the PWDs and provides that affirmative action policies could be adapted for the

PWDs. In 2006, the Law on Social Insurance and General Health Insurance Numbered 5510 was passed in the Parliament to provide health insurance to the disabled people without any health insurance coverage and poor.

7. Home Care for the PWDs in Turkey

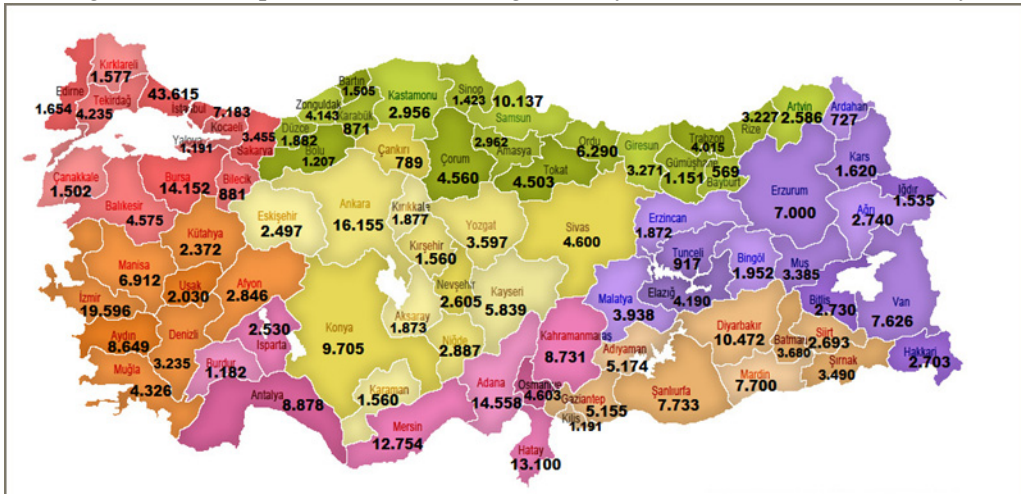
It is important that disability is viewed as neither purely medical nor purely social, because the PWDs often experience problems arising from their health conditions so they also need care. Thus, a bio-psycho-social model is needed to combine the two approaches (WHO 2011: p. 2-3). Since 2005, care and support services have been efficiently provided to persons with severe disabilities who cannot lead their lives without support (MFSS 2013: p. 15-16). In 2007, the poor family members caring for the disabled at home were given the right to receive cash assistance under the law numbered 2022.

However, home care is mainly considered for the elderly and sick whereas the PWDs are left to the domestic care of the families. The social services and assistance for the disabled and their families are provided on a rights based approach only to the poor families. Yet, the well-off is excluded from many of the cash income support for the disabled and their families. Particularly home care services are critical for those with heavy impairments. About 98% of the disabled people are cared for by their families or relatives. Currently, professional home care service is a newly emerging private service. Only 0.3% of the disabled population receives institutional care.

The Disability Act provides for the care for the PWDs. The law states that “policies toward the PWDs give priority to provide services to the PWDs without separating them from their social and physical environment. Mostly as a result of this provision in the 2005 disability law enacted in 2005, family based home care seems to have replaced institutional care. Besides, with the effects of neo liberal policies, the services for the PWDs are considered rather as social aid. In fact, the Ministry of Family and Social Policy (MFSP) has started to provide income support to the families and relatives caring the PWDs at home since 2006.

The number of the beneficiaries receiving disability home care aid was 30,638 in 2007 and this number went up to 421,093 by June of 2013. Taking into consideration the problems faced in private care centers in previous years, a regulation was passed on 16 August 2013 with the title of “Regulation on Private Care Centers Rendering Service to Persons with Disabilities in need of Care”. In 2002, 1,843 PWDs benefited from such services in 21 Care and Rehabilitation Centers. By June of 2013, these figures increased to 5,258 PWDs in 79 centers (MFSS 2013: pp. 17-18). In 2014, the number of people giving home nursing care to the PWDs reached 465,571. Accordingly, one out of every twenty disabled people received home care. Since 2010, public policies on families with disabled persons seem to have been evolved into family based home care. Related programs have been developed and nursing and income support programs for families with disabled persons have become diversified.

Figure no. 1. Map of families receiving disability home care cash aid in turkey



Source: The map is prepared on the base of the data compiled by the General Directorate of Services for the Disabled and Elderly in the Ministry of Family and Social Policy (2014).

In 2015, 18,567 people received home care cash assistance in return for taking care for their disabled family members. On the base of up-to-date data as of August 20 2015, the number of the PWDs receiving cash home care aid is 465,777 persons. The families with only one disabled person receiving cash home care aid make up 55.9% of the total families receiving aid. The families with two disabled person constitutes 25.4% of the total families receiving aid whereas 19% of the families receiving cash home care aid have 3 or more PWDs in the household. The PWDs receiving home care assistance are evenly divided on the base of gender (49.7% female and 50.3% male). As mentioned above, the home care givers are predominantly female family members and relatives. 91.4% of the home care givers are women whereas only 8.6% are men.

8. Conclusion

Disability is among the major social problems in Turkey as in the world. It is not sufficient to give disabled people egalitarian rights; freedom, support and opportunities to be able utilize them is also required in Turkey. It is important to overcome cultural, social, mental and physical obstacles and stigmatization of the disabled rather than to heal the impairments of the disabled (OZIDA 2002; Burcu 2006; TÜİK 2011; Sallan Gül and others 2014). The negative image of disabled people in the language and imagery of professional journals, textbooks, government guidelines, training materials, policies, TV programmes and so on are widespread (Tregaskis 2002: p. 463). There are also some structural problems, many barriers to accessing help, care and other facilities, requiring the development of related policies to overcome such obstacles.

Accordingly, there is a necessity for informing society about the problems faced by the disabled through educational campaigns, the media, etc., and by integrating disabled pupils into the school system. There is also a need for awareness raising activities in all education institutions starting from the kindergarden. Moreover, the prejudice and discriminative contents embeded in school textbooks should be

eliminated. Furthermore, there is an obvious need for increased effort, awareness and legal amendments to include the disabled in the social, economic and everyday life.

Most importantly though, rights based social model for care for the disabled ought to be fostered. In this model, it is not enough just to cover the PWDs under the social security system, but people providing the care for the disabled should also be included in the social security system. Considering that the care givers are mostly women, the current system leaves these women out of the coverage of the social security system in Turkey.

Care services for the PWDs are relatively new in Turkey. Until the early 2000s, care for the PWDs was coordinated around a traditional family based model. The inadequate physical and personnel capacity of local administrations regarding the services provided for the PWDs, and the shortcomings and inequities in the market provision of disability services have also resulted in increased responsibility for the families. However, in recent years some improvements have been achieved especially for the PWDs in poor families. In this regard, since 2007, home care cash aid is offered for the poor families with the PWDs. Around 500,000 heavily disabled person receive some home care cash assistance. The plight and poverty of the families with the PWDs could be alleviated by providing assistance and social security coverage to care-givers, a great majority of whom are women (91.4%). Current status of care givers without a social security coverage mostly means leaving home disability care and hence women out of social security coverage. In other words, the most important shortcoming in the home disability care seems to be the lack of social security coverage for the care giving female relatives. Thus, an insurance scheme for the home care givers should be developed (Oğlak 2007; Genç and Barış 2015). Besides, there are other problems such as the inadequacies, inaccessibilities and poor service quality associated with current home care services and a lack of standardization and integrated approach in service delivery. Moreover, the care giving capacities of home care givers ought to be developed through training and and some other support services, which is non-existent. The exclusion of and the stigmatization and prejudice against the disabled also causes adverse influence on home care givers, restricting and suppressing home care givers who are mostly women. Thus, home care giving should be considered not only from the perspective of home care receiving PWDs but also home care givers. Home care giving is not an easy and short term service, and ought to be supported in different respects.

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The reciprocity of the forms of conjugal violence.

Case study Jiu Valley

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Abstract

In the pages of our paper we wish to make a description of the current forms of domestic violence of the actual, former or presumed life partners towards each other, which led or have a high probability to lead to a divorce: emotional-verbal violence type, social violence and that provoked by the partner's infidelity, the use of children (where they exist) to "solve" some marital problems, physical violence. At the same time we have planned and resolved certain intra and intergroup comparisons regarding the received responses to be able to see how marital status influences the willingness to recognize that these events took and take place and how they influence the availability to divorce in the case of those that are currently not married (or singles, as we resorted to differentiate in their case by an arbitrarily chosen threshold: over 30 years old).

Keywords: *marriage; family; conjugal violence; reciprocal behavior; divorce.*

1. Introduction

The couple life and especially the family life in its integrality (developed under the form of the nuclear family or extended family), suppose ample reconsiderations about the way of existence and behavior of each of the partners that make up the conjugal dyad. In some couples the overlapping of the ideas, preferences, and lifestyle generally takes place in a reasonable time. These are the situations in which we can appreciate a marriage as successful. In other cases, although there may be successive attempts that the partners agree on the elements that make up the couple and the family life there is not a happy result. The couple, and the family procreated by the couple (if it is the case), go through a troubled period, full of malfunctions, marked by tensions and unilateral or reciprocal abuses. Then we can speak of the manifestation of domestic and conjugal violence. The differentiation between the two types of violence is one of essence.

While the domestic violence has a larger area of comprehension/ inclusion (it's about the abuse over more members or over all of the family - spouse, parents, siblings, children, etc.), the conjugal violence occurs only among those who make up the couple. An operational definition of domestic violence, which we have used in a large part in the elaboration of our research instrument, is the one provided by M.Voinea. According to this definition, the domestic violence has the following symptoms from one or both partners: *emotional aggression* (the humiliation of the partner in front of others), *the aggression through children* (the use of children as a

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means of revenge or punishment), the *aggression through control* (the verification of the daily program and of all other activities of the other partner), the *aggression through intimidation* (permanent observations and threats), the *financial aggression* (total control over money and expenses), the *physical aggression* (beating and kicking) (Voinea 2005: p.191).

2. The area and the methodology of the research

This research took place in 2012, concerning the population over 18 years of all the administrative territorial units which make up the Jiu Valley. We're talking about the three towns: Aninoasa, Petrila, Urlicani and the three municipalities: Petrosani, Lupeni and Vulcan. The methodology we chose to use was one that had at its base as main method the survey under its direct form (such as face to face). The interviewers were students at the University of Petrosani, Faculty of Science, the specializations of Sociology and Social Assistance. The research instrument was a questionnaire designed on several sections (and subsections) by the type of family living together (married - having children or not; remarried - having children from the previous marriage or not, or in the new marriage, divorced - having children in care or no; single and celibate - we resorted to a distinction between the latter two categories according to age, appreciating, arbitrarily, that the "chance" of the unmarried to become truly celibate increases after the age of 30 years). Because we wanted to obtain some representative results, we prepared a sample with a volume of 800 persons (over 18 years) on the principle of quotas linked (the total population over 18 years from each administrative unit and its share in the total population over 18 years from the Jiu Valley, the age and the gender of the subjects as objective and verifiable variables etc). The processing of the data was done through the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 program.

3. Conceptual specifications

The human family knows many definitions, thus helping us to discern between the types it can be seen depending on the socio-cultural, geographical and historical environment. The sociologists have offered the family characterizations as accurate as possible taking into account the above mentioned boundaries. Thus, it can be considered as "*a group of people related by kinship and / or domestic inclusion*" (Vlăsceanu, in Vlăsceanu (Eds.) 2011: p. 650), "*a group of persons directly linked by kinship whose adults take the responsibility for raising the children*" (Giddens 2000: p. 154), "*a relatively permanent social group of individuals bound together by roots, marriage or adoption*" (Goodman 1998: p. 243) or "*a social group whose members are bound by relationships of age, marriage, or adoption and who live together, cooperate from the economic point of view and take care of the children*" (Murdock 1949 cited Mihailescu, in Zamfir and Vlăsceanu (Eds.) 1993: p. 238).

The analysis of the multiple definitions of the family offers us the image of a *group of people* whose personal relationships are very strong. Moreover, the *conjugal family* acquires a new meaning when the couple's children occur. The relationships between children but also those between children and parents are normally warm relations, disinterested, based on blood ties because of which numerous altruistic acts are foreseeable. On the above theorized details we could understand the family as a group characterized by a positive psycho-moral atmosphere. The reality shows us, however, that this is not always the case, many families are dysfunctional,

accomplishing poorly or not at all their respective functions, the atmosphere within them is one marked by conflicts.

4. Results

For the beginning we offer an overview of the sample that we worked and on the types of conjugal violence that had manifested between partners or it is possible to manifest. Thus, we chose to elaborate the Table 1. The sample was segmented as a result of the responses of the subjects in sub-collectivities that were resulted from the categorizing the civil status that corresponded to each situation. For those who are married we have offered a set of five understood manifestations and as possible causes that could lead to a divorce. For those who are remarried we added to the initial set two reasons. Furthermore, for the proper discernment of the situation encountered in the field we have included as a cause of remarriage the death of one of the partners. The set of seven manifestations of domestic violence we have maintained for those who are currently in the position of divorced persons, but we proposed for reflection for those who are not married/celebates (which we merged into a single sub-collectivity, from the perspective of the number). Specifically, we asked the latter ones to express the availability for divorce if they passed through any of the situations from the set of six events.

Table no. 1. The description of the sample and of the forms of conjugal violence (%)

The type of violence / causes of divorce	Married (n = 445)	Remarried (n = 93)	Divorced (n= 66)	Not married / Singles (n = 196)
The humiliation by partner / the former partner / the presumptive partner	7.2	27.95	31.81	78.6
The instigation of the child / children against you	2.2	13.97	25.75	73.5
The verification of your daily program	10.1	31.18	45.45	53.1
Physical violence	5.6	35.48	36.36	94.4
The interdiction of the meeting with friends / relatives etc.	5.4	29.03	48.48	74
We didn't love each other	///	63.44	68.18	91.3%
Infidelity	///	58.06	59.09	98%
Death	///	3.22	///	///

Let us note that the status of married person causes a restraint in the disclosure of the unpleasant realities of marriage. It is a natural reaction started from the desire to maintain the conjugal union and a positive image of the couple. We say this basing on the responses of those who already have the experience of the divorce and feel relieved of the obligation to maintain a positive image of the marital dyad, in the conditions of a tense climate. And not only that. The "Liberation" which we mentioned increases from one category to another. For example, the divorced "denounces" in a larger proportion the types of conjugal violence than those who are remarried (through the appeal at the manifestations of the ex-partner of couple, in both situations). Entering in the perimeter

of hypothetical circumstances, and asked to judge the situations of conjugal discomfort in which they might find, the unmarried are proving more willing to divorce than those who were already divorced. At least in the declarative stage those who were never part of the institution of marriage are characterized by a high degree of intolerance to the negative circumstances we have presented in Table 1. Compared to the other categories it is easy to imagine that once married their position will change, following a path already trodden, being no longer so intransigent and determined to end the marriage if they are subject to some form of conjugal violence.

5. The reciprocity of the forms of conjugal violence

In this work we didn't aim to analyze the causes that are at the base of the conjugal violence, although in the research we probed this aspect by joining in the perimeter of the sociological theories regarding the violence within the couple. We even established that the families from the Jiu Valley are endogamous; most couples are similar from the perspective of socio-demographic characteristics. It remained to be determined, in a future work, in which couples conjugal violence occurs more frequently: in the endogamous or exogamous ones. The fact is that after some research the conjugal violence is favored by the discrepancies between the partners that form the couple (Janosik 1994 cited by Voinea 2005: p. 195).

Table no. 2. The share of the forms of conjugal violence (%)

The type of conjugal violence	The manifestations of the partner	Your manifestations at the partner
The humiliation of the partner	7.2	4.7
The instigation of the child / of the children against the partner	2.2	0.4
The verification of the daily schedule of the partner	10.1	7.9
Physical violence	5.6	2
The interdiction of the meeting with friends / relatives etc.	5.4	5.2

Using the data from Table 2 we can *only* compare between them the weights in which the different forms of aggression meet in the sub-collectivity of the married ones. Concrete, the interviewed subjects reveal the abusive practices that their partners of life use against them and also their own actions against their partners. It is inaccurate to say that we resort to the analysis of the reciprocity forms of conjugal violence because it is not obligatory that those who said they were abused to practice the abuse at their turn and vice versa. So *there is not an association of the responses by simply comparing the weights*. An observation can be made, however: the respondents register as a percentage, from the perspective of the recognition of the aggressions, under what it indicates at their own partners. It isn't a big difference but it may mean something. It is an aspect that leads us to a certain restraint in receiving the declarations of the subjects either because they tend to minimize their own actions, or they can easily exaggerate the actions of their partners. In order to precisely determine the reciprocity, we used the entire database (for each sub-collectivity in part). We want to emphasize

that the subjects' answers took the form of contingency tables (association) 2x2 type, being developed on the base of nominal variables (categorical) Yes-No type (where Yes denotes the presence of a particular type of violence and No its absence). We used the association of the responses desiring to emphasize the simultaneity of the behavior of the individuals regarding the two variables (Rotariu, in Rotariu (Eds.) 1999: p. 120).

Although we initially tried using the chi-square Test, because its uses are limited (the occurrence of some expected minimum frequencies less than 5) we applied many times Fisher's exact test (Howitt and Cramer 2006: pp. 112-118; Rateau 2004: p. 152). And not only that. Although we were very tempted to use at the significance tests the **one-tailed** option, because most of the research hypotheses are directional, according to L.B. Mohr (1990), i.e. the relationship has a certain direction, we finally chose the conservative **two-tailed** option preferred by most researchers, as we could not predict the nature of the relationship, as A. Field reminds (2009). In addition, **two-tailed** is the default option in SPSS (Mohr, Field cited Vasile 2014: p. 180).

Table no. 3. The reciprocity of behavior in the case of the forms of conjugal violence

The type of domestic violence	The two-tailed Fisher exact probability	χ^2 test	The interpretation
The humiliation of the partner	$p < 0.0001$	Not applicable	The association is highly statistically significant
The instigation of the child / children against the partner *	$p = 0.0521$	Not applicable	The combination is not considered highly statistically significant
The verification of the daily schedule	$p < 0.0001$	Not applicable	The association is highly statistically significant
Physical violence	$p = 0.4086$	Not applicable	The combination is not considered statistically significant
The interdiction of meeting with friends / relatives etc.	$p = 0.0007$	Not applicable	The association is highly statistically significant

We want to make a statement. Not all the couples have children, which made that in the research instrument to introduce the variant *it is not the case*. Thus for the answers to this question we eliminated the subjects who do not meet the test, the sub-collectivity being reduced from 445 to 379 subjects. From the set of five forms of violence we found that **in three cases there is reciprocity of behavior** which makes us say that emotional aggression and aggression through control do not exist as reaction in the absence of the action initiated by one of the partners or, on the contrary, generates reply if there is any aggressive action, at least in the case of the population studied by us. The aggression through children is placed somewhere *at limit*, being not *highly statistically significant* but inducing the perspective of reciprocity. Sometimes the children become instruments of aggression, used by both parents. In the case of the

physical violence the fact that there is no association from the statistic point of view doesn't mean the lack of significance in a certain way. On the contrary, it proves that the aggressor dominates the couple relationship inducing the other a profound fear, a reaction at the physical violence could be fatal. In other words, the dominator tends to become more and more dominant. Among the most probable causes of divorce, in the position of those who are in a marriage for the first time, *the verification of the daily schedule* seems to be the most often met, followed by the *humiliation of the partner*. We continue our analysis this time on the ``remarried`` sub-collectivity. We specify that we will use the above used model. In the Table 4 we introduced for comparison both the share of the behaviors of the former partners and those of the current partners towards the respondents. We previously mentioned about the fact that the married status prints a restraint in the disclosure of the unpleasant realities from a marriage. There seems to be a recurrent pattern. The respondents, again trapped in a new marriage, denounce the abusive practices of the ex-partner, which is why they divorced, but they expose them in a much lesser measure in the case of the current partner.

Table no. 4. The share of the forms of conjugal violence. The remarried ones (%)

The types of conjugal violence / Causes of divorce	The manifestations of the former partner/causes of divorce	The manifestations of the current partner	Your manifestations at the actual partner
The humiliation by the former partner / current partner	27.95	3.2	4.3
The instigation of the child / children against you *	13.97	4.3	0
The verification of the daily schedule	31.18	9.7	7.5
Physical violence	35.48	2.2	4.3
The interdiction of meeting with friends/ relatives etc.	29.03	5.4	5.4
We no longer loved each other	63.44	//////////	//////////
Infidelity	58.06	//////////	//////////
Death	3.22	//////////	//////////

Table no. 5. The reciprocity of the violent conjugal behavior. The remarried ones

The type of conjugal violence / Causes of divorce	The two-tailed Fisher exact probability	The χ^2 test	The interpretation
The humiliation of the partner	$p = 1.0000$	Not applicable	The association is not considered statistically significant

The instigation of the child / children against the partner *	$p = 1.0000$	Not applicable	The association is not considered statistically significant
The verification of the daily schedule	$p = 0.1357$	Not applicable	The association is not considered statistically significant
The type of conjugal violence / Causes of divorce	The two-tailed Fisher exact probability	The χ^2 test	The interpretation
Physical violence	$p = 1.0000$	Not applicable	The association is not considered statistically significant
The interdiction of meeting with friends / relatives etc.	$p = 1.0000$	Not applicable	The association is not considered statistically significant

The main reasons of the divorce (in the case of those in the second marriage) are some related to *the lack of mutual love* (63.44%) and because of *the infidelity of the partner* (58.06%). The very high percentages compared to those found for the same manifestations in the case of the married ones can make us believe that the myriad of *conjugal aggression can enroll in the ship wake of the two major determinants of divorce*, which we mentioned above. The *physical violence* (35.48%) and *the verification of the program* (31.18%) were very well felt. The data from the Table 5 reveals us that *between any of the aggressive behaviors that occur between the partners from the couple in the category of the remarried ones there is no association that is statistically significant*. We mention that this time too we have reduced the number of persons who enter into the category of those who have children and at which the possibility of aggression through the medium of children is applicable. That is why for this variant the number of subjects was reduced from 93 to 74. Let's indicate that the test used by us uses the absolute frequencies, not the relative ones (Howitt and Cramer 2006: p. 112), so we should not be misled by percentages, that are a result of the interbreeding of the frequency tables (and it modifies according to the placing of the variables horizontally or vertically, without modifying the results of the test of significance). The idea that we can draw is that *a normal behavior, without violence or exaggerations entails a similar type of behavior*. Finally, we address the same aspects for those who find themselves in the category of the divorced ones.

Table no. 6. The share of the forms of conjugal violence. Divorced (%)

The type of violence / Causes of divorce	The manifestations of the former partner against you	Your manifestations against your former partner
The humiliation by the former partner/current partner	31.81	15.2
The instigation of the child / children against you *	25.75	10.6

The verification of the daily schedule	45.45	28.8
The humiliation by the former partner/current partner	31.81	15.2
The instigation of the child / children against you*	25.75	10.6
The verification of the daily schedule	45.45	28.8
Physical violence	36.36	7.6
The interdiction of meeting with friends / relatives etc.	48.48	24.2
We no longer loved each other	68.18	33.33
Infidelity	59.09	3

It is important to note that although all the respondents were included in the same sample the categories of civil status were reorganized into separate sub-collectivities. It is an aspect that doesn't refer only to the methodology of the work but also helps us compare between them the weights recorded by the conjugal aggressions according to the different categories. For example, if we compare between them the main causes of the divorce among those who remarried or those who are still divorced we will find that they are the same as hierarchy: *the lack of mutual love* (68.18%) and *the infidelity of the partner* (59.09%). Moreover, *the weights are so close that they induce the idea of some deconstructed factors of the couples that generally act in a valid manner gen*. It remains to establish the reciprocity of these marital aggressions.

The analysis of the Table 7 shows us that only in two of the types of conjugal violence there is reciprocity (an association) statistically recognized as very significant. On one hand we refer at the *humiliation of the partner of life*, and on the other hand at the *lack of mutual love*. We include *the lack of love from the partner* in the affective-emotional type of violence. People need to offer affection and to receive affection; the need for love is on the third level in the hierarchy of Maslow's pyramid of needs. Engaging in a marital union involves the satisfaction of certain expectations, or that of being loved is perhaps one of the first, especially in the case of romantic marriages.

Because we brought into question the idea of romantic marriage we want to make two clarifications helping us by the words of some well-known authors in social and human sciences. First, we should not just limit at the results lent us by statistics, these results just offer us an image about the relationship between phenomena without replacing "*the theoretical reflection about the studied field*" (Rotariu , in Rotariu (Eds.) 1999: p. 126). In the extension of the first specification we show that we have included *the lack of love from the partner* (and by extension *the infidelity of the partner*) in the category of affective-emotional type conjugal violence relying on the idea that the expected values in the romantic marriage can have serious consequences at individual and social level, especially that in such unions the expectations are constantly increasing (Vlăsceanu, in Vlăsceanu, (Eds.) 2011: p. 660).

Table no. 7. The reciprocity of the violent conjugal behavior. The divorced

The type of conjugal violence	The two-tailed Fisher exact probability	The χ^2 test	The interpretation
The humiliation of the partner	$p = 0.0088$	Not applicable	The association is very statistically significant
The instigation of the child / children against the partner *	$p = 0.3995$	Not applicable	The combination is not considered statistically significant
The verification of the daily schedule	<i>The χ^2 test applies</i>	The calculated χ^2 exceeds the minimum probability level accepted from the scientific point of view (p = 0.05)	There is no significant association
Physical violence	$p = 0.6455$	Not applicable	The association is not considered statistically significant
The interdiction of meeting with friends / relatives etc.	<i>The χ^2 test applies</i>	The calculated χ^2 exceeds the minimum probability level accepted from the scientific point of view (p = 0.05)	There is no significant association
He / she did not love me anymore/ I did not love him anymore	<i>The χ^2 applies</i>	χ^2 calculated is greater than the critical value of χ (p = 0.01)	There are more than 99% chances that the answers associate
Infidelity	$p = 0.5091$	Not applicable	The combination is not considered statistically significant

6. Conclusions

Without claiming that we have exhausted an issue that is so vast as that of *the family* and relationships between couple partners we appreciate that we caught a few interesting aspects that sketches out the portrait of the families from the Jiu Valley. Moreover, in this paper we only stuck on the elements that aim at the idea of conjugal violence, deliberately eliminating from the analysis other aspects that make up together the realities of the families from this geographic and socio-cultural area.

First we managed to achieve, on each civil category in part, a hierarchy of the reasons which led or may lead to divorce. For those who have experienced this, the decisive reasons were the *lack of mutual love and the apparition of infidelity*. Those who currently have the unmarried status would be influenced in their decision to divorce by the same reasons as those who have already done it, just that the hierarchy is reversed: *infidelity* followed by *the lack of mutual love*. However, we found that not being caught in the "net" of marriage, that imposes a series of obligations (let's think only at the children of the couple) they show a greater intransigence being more determined to divorce (declarative) than they would actually be. We are encouraged to support this because the "dissolution of the marriage is almost always accompanied by an emotional stress and can create financial difficulties for one or both parties" (Giddens 2000: p. 164). Those who are married (and remarried, related with the current partner) we have not addressed the questions that aim the lack of mutual love and the infidelity in order not to arouse reactions of prestige or to damage the self-love that would contribute to the distortion of the reality by the recording of some responses that do not correspond to reality. We consider that we acted correctly, the arguments are given in the Table 6, the last two lines: the subjects greatly minimize their own mistakes, but they highlight the mistakes of their partner, perhaps more than those mistakes actually exist. In the sub-collectivity of the married ones, the determinants of a hypothetical divorce would be the *aggression through control* and *the emotional aggression*.

We show that we have made the distinction between the reasons of the divorce (factual or hypothetical) and the association of the types of conjugal violence. In the case of those who are married we determined three cases of reciprocal behavior highly statistically significant. It is about *the humiliation of the partner, the verification of the daily program and the interdiction of meeting with some friends, relatives or acquaintances*, so, facts like emotional aggression and aggression through control. In the category of those who are remarried we didn't even meet a significant association between the different forms of conjugal aggression (we refer to the current partner). On the one hand it may be about the experience learned from the failed marriage, and on the other hand it is about the fact that the partners soon imitate the positive behaviors, desirable, that make the marital union to be functional. Finally, for those divorced (at the moment of the survey) from the seven types of marital aggression only between two there is a reciprocity certified from the statistic point of view as highly significant: *the humiliation of the partner of life* and *the lack of mutual love* (emotional aggression).

Finally we want to show that the conjugal aggressions in the families from the Jiu Valley do not act separately, but simultaneously (the same person may be the victim of many abuses), that the reciprocity is not a condition of their manifestation. Even if the physical violence does not "catch" the top, it is a reality that cannot be denied. Therefore we affirm that in many families there is or there was a tense situation, marked by various abuses - physical inclusive – that have ceased, at least formally, by

divorce. But no one can offer guarantees that they will not continue in less obvious forms, but just as incisive.

We appreciate that the State, the local authorities, the community and the Church should be involved in the education of the future partners and the counseling of those who live the dramas of the breakdown of the family. A special role plays the social assistance that must identify the cases in good time and to propose intervention measures that reduce, if not eliminate, the personal dramas of those who are transformed in victims in their own homes.

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Professional deformations in social work: Burnout and Secondary traumatic stress

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Abstract:

The social workers professional quality of life is a topic of increasing interest over the past twenty years. It involves two aspects - positive /compassion satisfaction/ and negative /compassion fatigue/. The second one can be differentiated in two parts. The first part refers to symptoms such as exhaustion, frustration, anger and depression typical of burnout syndrome, and the second one is associated with secondary traumatic stress (STS), which is a negative feeling, driven by fear and work-related traumas. Some traumas at working place can be primary. In other cases, the trauma may be a combination of both - primary and secondary trauma. Studies show that the helping professionals exposed to traumatic stressors are in a larger risk of developing negative symptoms associated with the burnout, depression and PTSD. The negative secondary results are identified as burnout syndrome, countertransference, compassion fatigue, secondary traumatic stress and vicarious traumatization. STS is associated with the syndrome of emotional burning - burnout syndrome, but are not similar. The similarities are that both conditions: 1/tend to be accumulated and 2/produced similar effects as insomnia, depression and impaired communication with significant people. The differences between them lie in reasons for their occurrence. While STS occurs mostly as a secondary reaction to the emotional response to clients with traumatic situations, the burning syndrome may occur when working with clients with different problems. Moreover burnout syndrome manifests gradually /accumulated stress/ while secondary traumatic stress may occur suddenly and without warning. Social workers are increasingly called upon to assist victims of violence in childhood, domestic violence, violent crimes, disasters and terrorism. It becomes more and more obvious that the psychological effects from traumatic events extend beyond directly affected individual. STS began to be seen as a professional risk for these who directly provide services to traumatized individuals.

Keywords: *social work; professional deformations; burnout; secondary traumatic stress; professional risks; compassion fatigue.*

1. Introduction

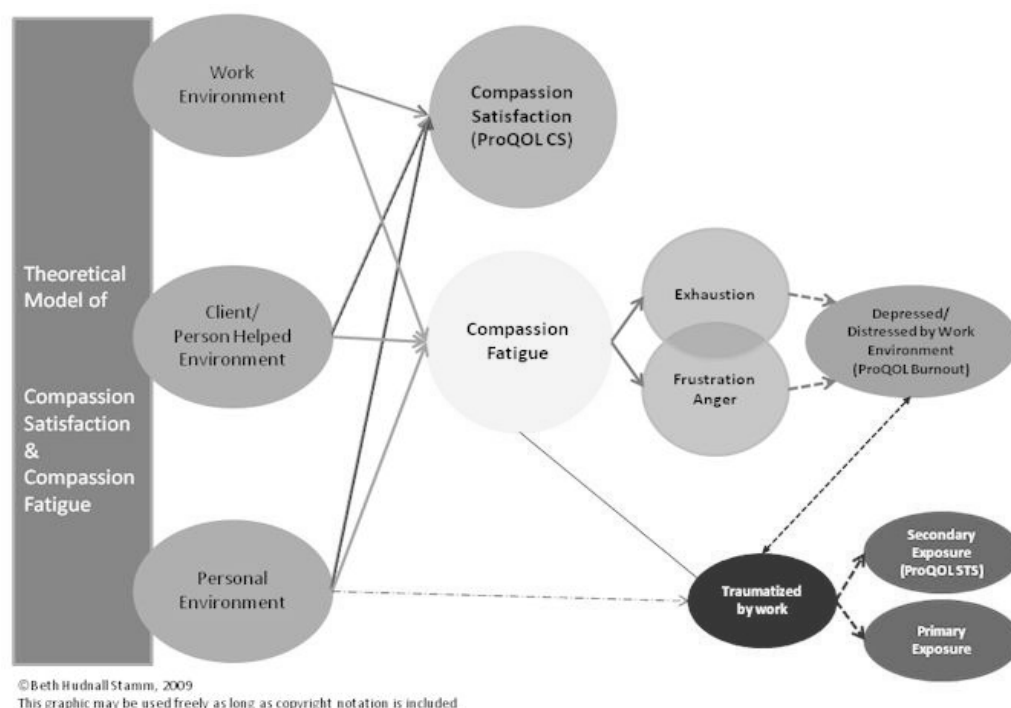
Traditionally, in the public mind, and in the scientific literature in the study of the professional activities of specialists from the helping professions, the emphasis is primarily on the positive aspects of working with people. However, it is obvious that

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this work imposes high requirements, special responsibility and emotional stress, potentially contains the danger of heavy experiences associated with work situations and the risk of professional stress.

The professional quality of life of social workers is a topic of increasing interest over the past twenty years. It involves two aspects - positive /compassion satisfaction/ and negative /compassion fatigue/. The second one can be differentiated in two parts. The first part refers to symptoms such as exhaustion, frustration, anger and depression typical of burnout syndrome, and the second one is associated with secondary traumatic stress /STS/, which is a negative feeling, driven by fear and work-related traumas. Some traumas at working place can be primary. In other cases, the trauma may be a combination of both - primary and secondary trauma.

Fig. no. 1. Complex relationships between the elements of professional quality of life



Source: Stamm 2010.

Studies show that the helping professionals exposed to traumatic stressors are in a larger risk of developing negative symptoms associated with the burnout, depression and PTSD. The negative secondary results are identified as burnout syndrome, countertransference, compassion fatigue, secondary traumatic stress and vicarious traumatization.

Job burnout and STS have been recognized as the crucial consequences of extreme job demands in human services professionals. Such demands may include frequent and intense contact with traumatized clients and chronic exposure to traumatic content at work.

The emotional and psychological risks associated with providing direct social work services to vulnerable populations should be conceptualized as occurring in two separate forms: trauma-related stress and professional burnout. Vicarious trauma, secondary traumatic stress and compassion fatigue are conditions related specifically to work with trauma populations, while professional burnout is considered a more general phenomenon which may occur within any social service setting. The forms of trauma-related stress conditions and professional burnout are often incorrectly discussed or grouped together as one condition in the literature. It is best to conceptualize each of these conditions separately in order to have a comprehensive understanding of these complex phenomena.

2. Stress

According to H. Selye (1976: pp.4-8), stress can be defined as non-specific response of the body to requirement in order to adapt, no matter if to pleasure or pain. The same stressors may induce different responses in different individuals, depending on the conditions or interaction with the environment. Lazarus advocated a psychological view in which stress is "a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being". However, the stress is not inherently deleterious. Each individual's cognitive appraisal, their perceptions and interpretations, gives meaning to events and determines whether events are viewed as threatening or positive. Personality traits also influence the stress equation because what may be overpressure to one person may be exhilarating to another.

Stress goes through several phases:

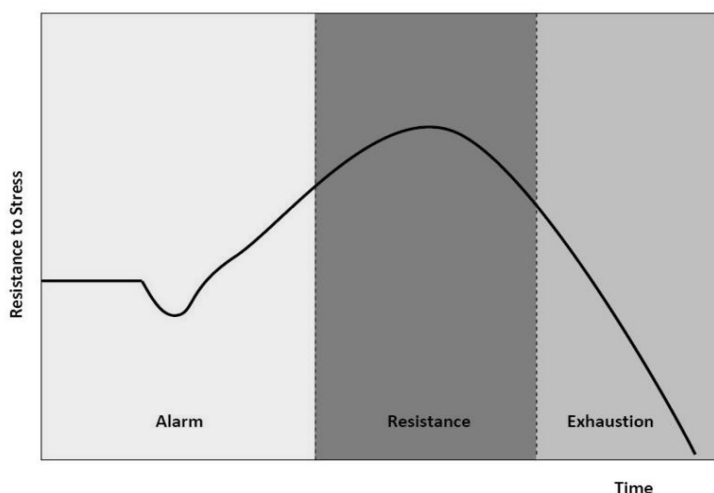
The first stage of stress is the reaction of anxiety /phase of shock/ expressed in mobilization of all resources of the body, especially physiological and biochemical, that contribute to fast defensive reaction, often called the "reaction of fight or flight." Some individuals cannot withstand such a mobilization and the impact of intense stressors can cause acute stress reactions. At this stage, the individual is in "standby mode".

The second stage - adaptation or resistance, it begins when the body is ready to cope with the harmful factors. In this period, there is an increased resistance to stress. The adaptation reserves from the first stage continue to operate, the individual feels self-assured.

If the action of causing stress factors not be stopped, comes the third stage of stress - exhaustion. Adaptive capabilities of the organism are lowered. Reappears alarm signal as the first stage, but now amid low energy adaptation. In this period appears desperate need from outside help to remove stressors or psychological maintenance of the system of adaptation.

The third stage is associated with the development of burnout syndrome.

Fig. no. 2. General Adaptation Syndrome



Source: McQuillan 2008.

Some of the physical signs of stress:

Heart problems; Anxiety; Headaches; Allergies; Arthritis; Eating problems; Infections; High blood pressure; Immune system problems; Nervous tics; Rapid heartbeat; Backaches; Cancer; Stroke; Ulcers; Sleep disorders; Addiction; Depression; Burnout; Poor self-esteem; Colds/flu; Bowel problems; Hives; Jaw pain

Some behaviors and emotions signaling stress:

Difficulty managing emotions; Relationship problems; Social withdrawal; Irritable, moody; Difficulty problem solving; Boundaries not as clear (work/home); Loss of meaning/value of life; Feeling of powerlessness; Taking on too much responsibility; Staying at work long hours; Trying to control lives of others; Accident prone; Addictive behaviors; Hyperarousal/hypervigilance; Emotional volatility; Fear; Not being able to focus; Triggers (connected to client trauma); Impulsivity; Feeling numb; Decrease in pleasurable activities; Feeling disconnected from work/home or relationships; Guilt; Absence from work; Obsessive compulsive behavior; Feeling numb; Mental lapses.

Burnout has been often mistaken for stress. Despite the symptoms may be quite similar, important distinction should be made. Stress can intensify burnout but is not the main cause of burnout (Korunka et. al. 2010: p. 10-11). Although employees experience stress, they may not experience burnout. In addition, stress symptoms may be more physical rather than emotional. The opposite holds true for burnout. Stress produces urgency and hyperactivity. On the other hand, burnout produces helplessness. Emotions associated with stress are over-reactive, those associated with burnout are more blunted. Another difference between burnout from stress - the degree of its prevalence. In contrast to the stress that occurs in a variety of social situations (war, natural disasters, unemployment, illness, family problems and more), burnout is a professional syndrome, which is most pronounced in socially oriented professions. Thus, in contrast to the stress, which may cause temporary disorders of the mental and physical activity of the individual, burnout is a chronic dysfunction. The diagnosis of occupational stress

syndrome and is relatively independent phenomenon, which distinctive features are its unsuitability character and professional orientation.

Table no. 1. Stress vs. Burnout

Stress	Burnout
Characterized by over-engagement	Characterized by disengagement
Emotions are overactive	Emotions are blunted
Produces urgency and hyperactivity	Produces helpless and hopelessness
Loss of energy	Loss of motivation
Leads to anxiety	Leads to depression
Primary damage is physical	Primary damage is emotional
The exhaustion of Stress affects physical energy	The exhaustion of Burnout affects motivation and drive
Stress produces disintegration.	Burnout produces demoralization
Stress can best be understood as a loss of fuel and energy	Burnout can best be understood as a loss of ideals and hope
Stress produces panic, phobic, and anxiety-type disorders	Burnout produces paranoia, depersonalization and detachment
Stress may kill you prematurely, and you won't have enough time to finish what you started	Burnout may never kill you but your long life may not seem worth living.

3. Burnout

H.J. Freudenberger (1974) was the first to characterize burnout, stating it as feelings of failure and being worn out. He described burnout as “the feelings of failure and being worn or wrung out, resulting from an overload of claims on energy, on personal resources, or on the spiritual strength of the worker”. Over the years, however, the definitions and characterizations of burnout have varied. For example, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) characterize burnout as a progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose. Pines and Aronson (1988) define burnout as a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion. Sarros and Densten (1989) define burnout as a maladaptive coping mechanism to working conditions that are stressful, demanding, or lacking sufficient challenge and recognition. But, arguably the most widely adopted definition comes from C. Maslach (1982) who defines burnout as "emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind" (Keith, W.C., Judd, M.R., 2003: p.48).

Burnout syndrome is a state of emotional, physical and mental fatigue /exhaustion/ manifested in the professional sphere. Burnout is a state caused by excessive and prolonged stress. It occurs when the professionals are feeling overwhelmed and unable to meet constant demands. The persistent stress leads to losing of interest or motivation.

The reasons for the burnout syndrome can generally be differentiated into two groups:

- Subjective / individual / - linked to the characteristics of the individual, age, values, methods and mechanisms for individual psychological defense, personal attitude towards pursuing a professional activity, relationships with colleagues and relatives. To

this group we can match the expectations of the results obtained from the professional activity, the tendency to self-sacrifice and others.

■ Objective /situational/ - they are connected with the official responsibilities such as increasing the workload, unclear roles and responsibilities, inadequate social and psychological support and more.

Table no. 2. The signs and symptoms of burnout

PHYSICAL	PSYCHOLOGICAL	WORK BEHAVIOUR
Fatigue	Feelings:	Dehumanization of patients
Sleep disturbances	Anger	Victimizations of patients
Difficulty sleeping	Frustration	Fault finding
Difficulty getting up	Depression	Blaming other
Stomach ailments	Boredom	Defensiveness
Tension headaches	Discouragement	Impersonal, stereotyped communication with patients
Migraine headaches	Disillusionment	Applying derogatory labels to patients
Gastrointestinal problems	Despair	Physical distancing from patients and others
Frequent colds	Apathy	Withdrawal
Lingering colds	Guilt	Isolation
Frequent bouts of flu	Anxiety	Stereotyping patients
Backaches	Suspicion	Postponing patient contact
Nausea	Paranoia	Going by the book
Muscle tension	Helplessness	Clock watching
Shortness of breath	Hopelessness	Living for breaks
Malaise	Pessimism	Absenteeism
Frequent injuries	Immobility	Making little mistakes
Weight loss	Resentment	Unnecessary risk taking
Weight gain	Moodiness	Use of drugs and alcohol
Stooped shoulders	Attitudes:	Marital and family conflict
Weakness	Cynicism	Conflict with co-workers
Change of eating habits	Indifference	Decreased job efficiency
	Resignation	Over commitment
	Self-doubt	Or under commitment
	Other:	
	Loss of empathy	
	Difficulty concentrating	
	Difficulty attending	
	Low morale	
	Decreased sense of self-worth	

Source: Pines and Aronson 1988.

4. Models describing the phenomenon of "burnout syndrome"

Single-factor model /Pines, Aronson/ - exhaustion is considered to be a major cause and the other symptoms arise as a consequence.

Two-factor model /Dierendonck, Schaufeli, Sixma/ - burnout syndrome comes down to emotional exhaustion relating to the affective area and depersonalization / dehumanization / in the field of interpersonal relationships.

Three-factor model /C. Maslach, Jackson/ - emotional burnout is seen as a combination of three factors - emotional exhaustion, manifested in a reduction of the emotional background, depersonalization, characterized by deformation of interpersonal relationships, and reduction of personal achievements, expressed in low self-esteem, poor efficiency and disincentives to work.

Four-factor model /Firth, Mims; Iwanicki, Schwab/ - it accepts the elements of a three-factor model, but one element is divided into two factors / depersonalization - work-related and clients-related/.

Burnout is seen as a dynamic process, which evolves over time and characterized by an increasing degree of markedness. This process goes through the various stages.

Veninga and Spradley (1981) believed that burnout occurred in the form of five distinct stages:

- First stage /"Honeymoon"/ - despite the desire for work, the worker began to experience less pleasure from the nature of the work, his energy begins to decline, especially if there is a mismatch in the expectations and monotony.

- Second stage /stage of "awakening", "lack of fuel"/ - appears distress, apathy, sleep problems, fatigue, loss of self-confidence.

- Third stage /stage of the chronic symptoms/ - interest in the work gradually disappears and is replaced by irritation and fatigue. Appears frequently problematic behavior, for example substance abuse /alcohol, cigarettes, drugs/.

- Fourth stage /crisis/ - is increased frustration from the personal effectiveness and quality of life. Are developing chronic diseases, which further reduces operating efficiency.

Fifth stage /"Drilling on the wall"/ - the physical and psychological problems endanger the life of individuals. Career, personal and social life of workers at risk.

The dynamic model of B. Perlman & E.A. Hartman (1982) examines the process of "burning" as a manifestation of three types of reactions /physiological, affective-cognitive and behavioral/, which occurs during four-phase process:

- First phase - it appears a tension which requires additional efforts to adapt to the work requirements. The reason for this tension could be a mismatch in the role, value, organizational or professional expectations of the social worker or insufficient personal and professional resources to deal with professional requirements.

- Second phase - characterized by strong emotions and experience of stress. The dynamics of the transition from the first to the second phase depends on the personal capabilities of the social worker and the organizational or social role changes.

- Third phase - there are manifestations of the three types of reactions - physiological, affective- cognitive and behavioral.

- Fourth phase - experienced as a chronic psychological stress. There is a physical and emotional exhaustion, inefficient cognitive and behavioral defense

The model of M. Burisch (2010), examines "burnout" syndrome as a process in six phases /stages/:

1. A warning phase

- Increased activity, characterized by a large amount of energy to operate, weak social contacts;

- Exhaustion with feelings of fatigue and insomnia.

2. Activity decrease

- Regarding the colleagues and customers - positive attitudes are lost towards colleagues are lost; ascribes a blame to others for personal mistakes; inhuman treatment of others;

- Regarding the friends and family - indifference, cynicism, lack of empathy;

- Regarding the professional activities - an unwillingness to fulfill their obligations; dissatisfaction with the work, low-quality in the work;

- Regarding the personal development - lost the vital ideals, there is a concentration on individual needs, especially those of first order / basic living needs /, jealousy and selfishness.

3. Emotional reactions

- Depression - low self-esteem, guilt, fear, mood lability, apathy;

- Aggressive - shifting the blame to others, no tolerance and compromise, increasing number of conflicts with others.

4. Phase of destructive behavior

- Fields of intelligence - low concentration of attention, rigidity of thought, poverty of imagination, inability to perform complex tasks;

- Motivational sphere - lack of personal initiative, low efficiency of operations;

- Emotional and social sphere - avoid informal contacts, avoiding topics related to work, loneliness, boredom, lack of hobby.

5. Psychosomatic reactions - reduction of immunity, sexual disorders, insomnia, headache, tachycardia, hypertension, gastrointestinal problems, addiction to psychoactive substances etc.

6. Disappointment - negative life attitude, a sense of helplessness and meaninglessness of life, despair.

C. Maslach (1982) describes three dimensions of burnout:

1. The first dimension in this model is emotional exhaustion and can also be described as a wearing out, loss of energy, depletion, debilitation and fatigue. This exhaustion in burnout refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and is more emotional and psychological in nature than physical.

2. The second dimension is depersonalization, which when broadly defined, refers to a negative shift in response to others and involves negative or inappropriate attitudes towards the recipients of one's service or care, loss of idealism and irritability, taking a cold, cynical attitude toward responsibilities.

3. Reduced personal accomplishment, the third dimension, refers to a decline in one's feelings of competence and successful achievement of one's work, ineffectiveness, when people feel ineffective, they feel a growing sense of inadequacy.

B.A. Farber (1998: pp.6-13; 2000: p.677) criticizes the fact that most researchers have contemplated burnout as a syndrome with relatively consistent etiology and symptoms in all individuals. On the contrary, he proposed differentiation of the syndrome based on the description of three clinical profiles. These different types of burnout, which the author called "frenetic", "under challenged" and "worn-out", could be the result of different ways of responding to stress and frustration at work.

The frenetic type works increasingly harder until he or she is exhausted and seeks satisfaction or success to equal the stress caused by the invested efforts.

The under challenged type is presented with insufficient motivation and must therefore cope with monotonous and unstimulating work conditions that do not provide necessary satisfaction.

The worn-out type gives up when faced with too much stress or very little gratification at work.

Consequently, while some professionals cope with dissatisfaction by investing greater effort in an attempt to achieve expected results, others cope by neglecting their tasks, in an attempt to balance the reasoning between rewards and their investment (Montero-Marín, García-Campayo, Mera and López del Hoyo 2009: pp.4-31).

5. Secondary traumatic stress

Burnout is work-related hopelessness and feelings of inefficiency. Burnout is about being worn out. Secondary Traumatic Stress (STS) is work-related secondary exposure to extremely of traumatically stressful events. STS is about being afraid. Secondary Traumatic Stress is an element of Compassion fatigue and is related to Vicarious Trauma. STS is about your work-related, secondary exposure to extremely stressful events.

Primary trauma is when the event happens to you, such as being a firefighter or front line in a conflict situation as a soldier or humanitarian aid worker. Secondary trauma is sometimes called vicarious trauma, the trauma that comes from hearing stories about traumatic events that have happened to others. STS usually comes on quickly and occurs after a specific event. You may feel afraid, have difficulty sleeping, re-experience images of the event unexpectedly or find yourself avoiding things that remind you of the event. If you feel yourself to be more cynical and disconnected from your loved ones that you would like you may be suffering the effects of vicarious trauma.

According to Charles Figley, the secondary traumatic stress - is "a natural reaction to the knowledge of the traumatic event experienced by a significant other. This is a stress resulting from helping or desire to help the suffering person or a survivor of trauma" (Figley, 1995, pp.3-28). L. Perlman, calls it "vicarious injury" or "cumulative transformative effect on the person working with individuals who have experienced a traumatic event" (Pearlman and Saakvitne, 1995, p.31). As claimed Figley, the only difference between PTSD and the secondary trauma is that with secondary trauma you are "a step away" from a trauma. Symptoms of primary and secondary trauma can be identical.

Table no. 3. Burnout vs. Secondary Traumatic Stress

Burnout	Secondary Traumatic Stress
Can occur as a result of a single exposure or traumatic event	A process that develops over a period of time
May contribute to burnout	May be a variety of causes for burnout
Faster recovery rate	Can occur independently of secondary trauma or in conjunction with it

Affects the individual worker	Often characterized as an organizational problem, not as an individual problem, but can both
Comes from the helpers relationship with a traumatized clients	Systematic factors, such as poor supervision or lack of resources, often contribute to burnout
Individuals can take steps to reduce secondary trauma	Organizations can take steps to reduce burnout
Can often be addressed and treated while the staff remains on the job	The cure may involve quitting the job or taking a sabbatical
Cumulative, over long period of time	Immediate and mirrors client trauma
Predictable	Less predictable
Feel under pressure	Feel out of control
Related to work environment conditions	Related to empathic relationship
Lack of motivation and/or energy	Symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder similar to client
No evidence of triggers	Often have triggers that are similar to client's triggers

Social workers are at risk for secondary traumatic stress for several reasons (Conrad 2011: pp.1-5; 2004: pp.4-5):

1) Empathy: the empathy or the understanding of the feelings of another person and the situation in which he found himself, is one of the key components of social work. Unfortunately, when professionals imbued with the situation too deep, they increase the risk of transfer of patient trauma on itself. There are two kinds of empathy. Cognitive empathy is the counselor's ability to cognitively understand the trauma-affected person's experience, narrative, and meaning of it. The other kind of empathy, affective empathy, is the counselor's ability to feel some of the client's emotions, such as anger, fear, helplessness, hopelessness, etc. Both cognitive and affective empathy put the counselor at risk of developing secondary traumatic stress.

2) Lack of time for recovery: Many experts are often in contact with victims of violence and neglect. They listen to their stories and feel their pain. Unfortunately, excessive load often does not allow to "take a break" needed for it to recover from what he saw and heard.

3) Unresolved personal trauma: Many experts have experienced a personal loss or a traumatic event. The pain from the experience may "return" if the client talks about traumatic event, similar to what they had experienced. If the social worker did not fully coped with the consequences of his trauma, he/she runs the risk of transfer on himself the client's trauma.

4) Children - the most vulnerable members of our society: All children are dependent on adults to help them meet their emotional and physical needs. When adults abused children, social workers, who have dedicated their careers to protect children who perceive such cases are especially painful. The sadness and helplessness, they experience significantly increase the risk of secondary trauma.

5) Secondary trauma is a summary: secondary trauma in social workers may arise not only because of the work on the most egregious cases of abuse. Preconditions

for the occurrence of a secondary trauma can be accumulated. Even minor events such as the sad sight of the child in the receiving end, can cause trauma. If such circumstances occur again and again, they can negatively affect even the most compassionate and emotionally strong people.

The development of secondary traumatic stress is recognized as a common occupational hazard for professionals working with traumatized children. Studies show that from 6% to 26% of therapists working with traumatized populations and up to 50% of child welfare workers, are at high risk of secondary traumatic stress or the related conditions of PTSD and vicarious trauma (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, Secondary Traumatic Stress Committee 2011: p.2).

Common sources of secondary trauma in social services include:

- Facing the death of a child or adult family member
- Investigating a vicious abuse/neglect report
- Frequent/chronic exposure to emotional and detailed statistics by children of traumatic events
- Photographic images of horrific injuries or scenes of a recent serious injury or death
- Continuing work with families in which serious domestic violence or sexual abuse is occurring
- Helping support grieving family members following a child abuse death.

Everly and Mitchell (1997) claim that there are ten events which represent the top risk factors for developing STS among emergency responders including Social Workers. The list they entitled “The Terrible Ten” and can be used as markers for high risk screening whereby supervisors can be watchful for those who might be struggling (Salhany, M.,2014):

- Line of duty deaths
- Suicide of a colleague
- Serious work related traumas
- Multi-casualty / disaster / terrorism incidents
- Events with a high degree of threat to the personnel
- Significant events involving children
- Events in which the victim is known to the personnel
- Events with excessive media interest
- Events that are prolonged and end with a negative outcome
- Any significantly powerful, overwhelming distressing event.

6. Conclusion

Professional deformation of a personality means changes in the personality traits which occurs during performance of professional duties and manifest in professional jargon, manner of behavior and the physical image. The professional activities and individual properties change the level of manifestation of professionally significant properties, and this has negative impacts on the quality of the activity. The specifics of the professional occupation, in its turn, may, under certain conditions, cause negative impacts on the psychological structure of the personality by deforming it. There are own stressors and traumatic factors in every profession, but the professional deformation has the highest impacts on the personality in helping

professions such as medical personnel, pedagogues, psychologists, social workers etc. (Blumberga and Lagzdona 2014: p.219).

The relationship of human with the profession for many years has been studied through the prism of the individual adaptation to the activity, its suitability, satisfaction with labor process and improve its effectiveness. Under the influence of working conditions, individually-typological characteristics of employees, their age, develop professionally undesirable qualities that adversely affect the productivity of the professional activity. In addition, psychologists have stressed that professional development is accompanied by periods of regression, maladjustment, stagnation, crisis, deformations, and in some cases, and professional degradation.

The professional destruction is a destruction, alteration or deformation of the current psychological structure of the individual in the process of professional work. The origin and development of professional degradation reduces the productivity performance of activities that negatively affect the motivation and professional position. The most prominent professional destruction is in the helping professions.

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Adaptation strategies of inmates to prison environment. Theoretical and empirical evidence

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Abstract

This paper aims to present the ways of adaptation of the inmates to the prison environment. The first part of the article describes theoretically, the prison environment and the detainees' life, starting from the theories of deviance and the integration theories, and reaching legal description of the limitations imposed by the prison system. The second part of the paper, identifies, in practice, ways of adaptation of detainees, by presenting the results of a sociological research, conducted in the Maximum Security Penitentiary in Craiova, on a sample of 104 people, representing 20% of all inmates, who were incarcerated at the time (spring, 2015). The research explores adaptation strategies of persons deprived of liberty and the way they are influenced by the prison environment.

Keywords: *prison environment; adaptation of inmates; sociological research; theories of integration; penitentiaries.*

1. Integration to prison environment

Totalitarian institutions such as penitentiaries are closed spaces, with strict rules, which must be followed to the letter by the imprisoned people, in order to meet the objectives of the incarceration itself. Unlike the purpose of the punishment of deprivation of freedom, that is to represent a lever for inmate rehabilitation, it appears that this type of punishment often has the contrary effect, as penitentiaries tend to become a place where inmates learn bad things, a restrained space, often overcrowded, wherein a long series of criminal stories are told and taken as an example by the others. But are these examples positive or negative? We can wonder. The answer obviously depends on the moral structure and on the values the detainee has. Once imprisoned, detainees are forced to interact with their cellmates, whether they like it or not. During detention time, inmates must live in detention conditions and will therefore try to adapt to this environment. How do inmates manage to accommodate to the conditions in this totalitarian institution? Is there an inmate assimilation? Integration? Segregation? Marginalization? Sabatier and Berry have provided a classification based on these terms (Sabatier and Berry 1997: p. 211). There follows an analysis of the way inmates adapt to the penitentiary environment and their acculturation strategies.

In his study "Inmates and prison relationships. Interview – Case studies" Mihai Ioan Micle mentions the fact that, once inside the carceral space, inmates must assume specific identities: an individual social identity, a personal identity and a common identity (Micle

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2004: pp. 4-5). All of these identities are concomitant and superposed, and they are necessary in order to adapt to the new system. According to Goffman and Pollak, there is therefore a case of a major change of the character of the detained person. We can even talk about a re-personalization, which is a process consisting of an initial desocialization, followed by re-socialization (Goffman 2004: pp. 56-94; Pollak 1990: p. 260). Common identity is imperative in order to convive with the ones who have rejected them, those who have not committed any criminal acts. Social identity refers to that specific identity an inmate reconstructs within the penitentiary, which is necessary for the inmate to interact and convive with the other detainees. Personal identity is that specific identity which makes the difference between one inmate and the others. They may live in an inevitable physical proximity, but there are certain differences between them, related to age, educational level, race or crimes. Each of them must create their own barriers, by means of their own prejudice and moral values (Micle 2004: p. 5).

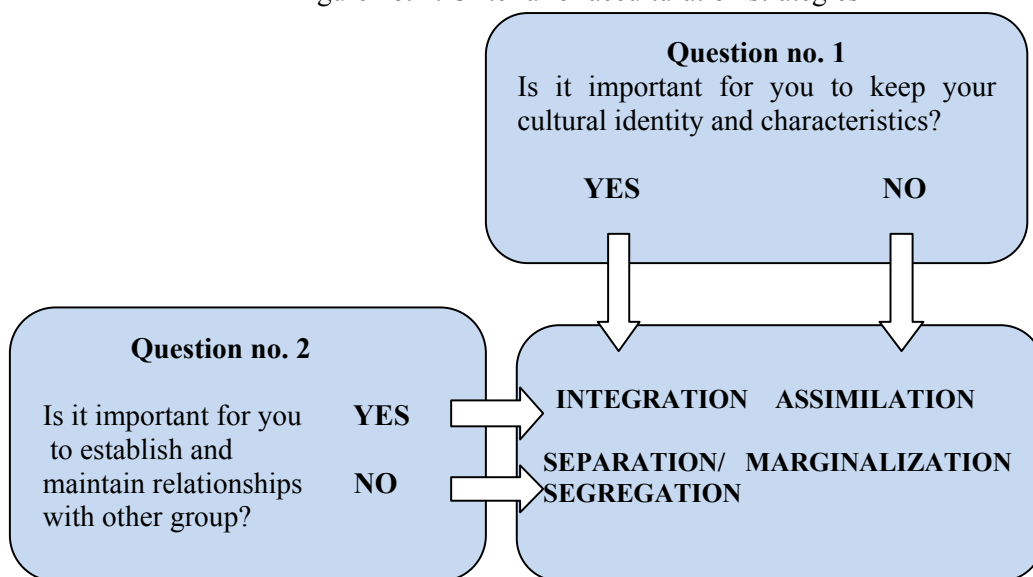
Detainees find themselves in a position to blend the identity and values they used to share while free and those they must adhere to in prison. They are caught between their inmate identity and values, on one hand, and the personal identity and the values which they must display when dealing with the prison staff, on the other hand. They get to reassess their former values. Their obligation to live alongside other inmates and the need to survive within the collectivity make them assume a common identity and integrate collective moral values. In order to survive, inmates must construct an identity to distinguish themselves from their mates (Micle 2004: p. 6). Within the penitentiary environment, inmates get doubly integrated: socially and within a system, as defined by Lockwood in his book "Social integration and system integration". Thus, social integration consists of people being included within a specific system by connecting the individuals to their attitudes towards the society and it is the result of a conscious effort of individual and group cooperation. System integration refers to the result of the relationship between institutions, organisms and mechanisms (Lockwood 1964: p. 371).

We have chosen to analyze the inmates' acculturation strategies, because in our opinion, a penitentiary is a new world for the inmates, a society which is entirely different from the one outside, having its own culture, rules, formal and informal leaders, interest and even pressure groups, language and organizational structure. Therefore, given the definition of the term acculturation - "cultural change generated by the contact between social groups which belong to different cultures" or its description as the way an individual or a group adapt to a new culture (Marcu 2000: p. 45), we have chosen the new inmates as those who come in contact with the specific culture of the carceral environment in order to analyze its impact on the inmates' culture upon incarceration.

In 1936 Redfield, Linton and Herskovits defined acculturation as a "change of cultural patterns which affects the members of the groups, resulting from the direct contact between two groups who share different cultural values" (Redfield, Linton and Herskovits 1936: p. 149). Keesing emphasizes the adoption of various cultural elements by one or by several other groups after a certain time of interaction (Keesing in Popescu 1978: p. 23). In the Social Psychology Dictionary we can find the following definition of acculturation "a slow, selective psychological and social process, which consists of an individual or a group of individuals adopting another culture, either totally or partly" (Chelcea, Golu and Golu 1981: p. 17). Gavreliuc established a culture hierarchy depending on their influence, thus noticing the fact that "an integrating culture imposes its defining patterns upon the representatives of a less influential culture, by means of agents of socialization" (Gavreliuc 2011: p. 54).

In 1989 Berry and his collaborators suggested the 4-direction classification of the acculturation strategies: Assimilation, Integration, Separation and Marginalization. In field research, 2 Yes or No questions are asked in order to determine the acculturation level: “Is it important for you to establish and maintain relationships with other groups?” and “Is it important for you to keep your cultural identity and characteristics?” (Sabatier and Berry 1997: p. 211 in Ilie 2015: pp. 158-159).

Figure no. 1. Criteria for acculturation strategies



Source: Sabatier and Berry 1997: p. 211.

Assimilation constitutes the first type of acculturation and it includes the adoption of habits, values and then of the entire lifestyle of the dominant group by the newcomers who are thus completely assimilated in the host environment (Gavreliuc 2011: p. 57), and completely lose their original cultural identity. Integration represents the strategy which consists of the new-comer maintaining their original cultural identity, while trying to adapt to the host society in order to become a part of it (Gavreliuc 2011: p. 55). Segregation or separation is the third type of acculturation resulting from the absence of any kind of relationships with the members of the receiving society, associated with the maintaining of the national identity, which would eventually lead to a separation of the minority group from the majority one. Marginalization is a specific form of acculturation characterized by losing the initial identity and and keeping away from the members of the receiving community (Ilie 2013: pp. 85-86).

We shall try to analyze the different types of acculturation within the penitentiary environment, by taking into account the inmates' attitude towards the penitentiary subculture, with its own elements such as criminal vocabulary, oral norms, habits, entertainment, stratification etc. Oleg Rusu presents the criminal subculture as “the lifestyle of the people who have gathered together in criminal groups and who respect certain laws and traditions”, characterized by a loss of generally human qualities (such as pity or compassion), sexual depravity, cruelty, lack of prohibition regarding any type

of information, including the intimate information, low development rate etc. (Rusu 2008: 107). Rusu mentions the fact that among the fundamental values of the inmates there are freedom, possessions, independence, security, justice (in their own hypertrophied conception), and the “features of criminal subculture are conditioned by the connection of those factors which are only specific to a freedom depriving sentence, such as: forced isolation under permanent violence threats, inclusion in homogeneous groups, wherein each neighbor has their own rich personal criminal experience, strict regulations regarding behavior, resulting in a considerable limitation of the range of the social possibilities of fulfilling one's needs for self-realization as a personality” (Rusu 2008: 107).

Here follows a presentation of the definition of criminal subculture as seen by certain authors[10, p. 8] according to whom this is the lifestyle of the people who have gathered together in criminal groups and who follow certain laws and traditions. These groups are characterized by cruelty, loss of generally human qualities (such as pity, compassion etc.), sexual depravity, lack of prohibition regarding any type of information, including the intimate information, low development rate etc.

2. Case study: Integration to prison environment: adaptation of detainees in the Maximum Security Penitentiary in Craiova

The following results are those of a field sociological research conducted in the spring of the year 2015 within the Maximum Security Penitentiary in Craiova on a lot of 104 detainees, both men and women, be that 20% of the detained population at that time.

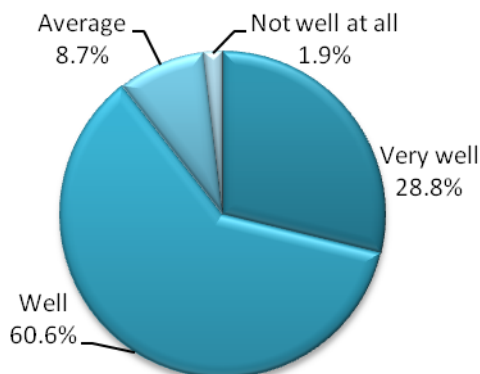
The research started from the causative variable of the existence of a penitentiary subculture and resulted in the effect variable of the influence thereof on the behavior of the detainees who needed to adapt to the penitentiary environment.

Our hypothesis is that there is a high level of influence exerted by the penitentiary subculture over the detainees' culture, which helps them assimilate criminal culture.

This brings us to the main purpose of the research, that is to identify the influence of the penitentiary environment over the the detainees and their adaptability.

Question no. 1. How do you get along with most of your mates inside the penitentiary?

Options	Percent
Very well	28.8%
Well	60.6%
Average	8.7%
Not well at all	1.9%
Total	100 %



When asked how they got along with their mates within the penitentiary, 60.6% of the respondents answered that they got along "well", 28.8% very well, 8.7% answered that they had an average relationship and 1.9% that they do not get along well at all.

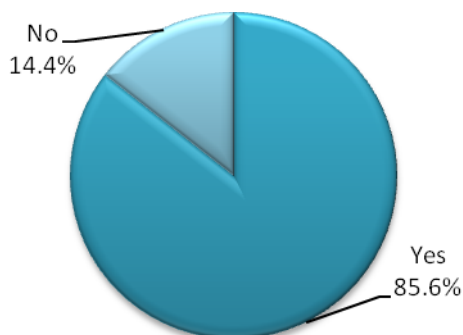
Question no. 2. Have you become friends with your mates within the penitentiary?

Options	Percent
Yes	72.1%
No	27.9%
Total	100 %

When asked if they had become friends with their mates within the penitentiary, 72.1% of the respondents mentioned "Yes", as in, "Yes, I have become friends with my mates", whereas 27.9% mentioned that they had not.

Question no. 3. Have you maintained your cultural characteristics while inside the penitentiary?

Options	Percent
Yes	85.6%
No	14.4%
Total	100 %



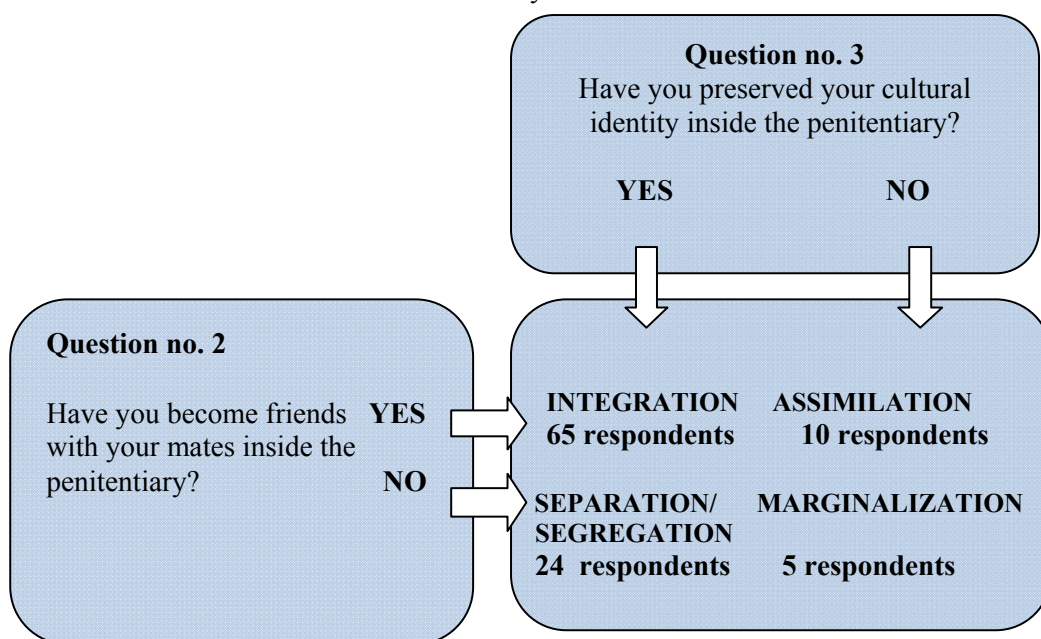
When asked if they had maintained their identity and cultural characteristics while inside the penitentiary system, 85.6% answered “Yes” while 14.4% said that they had not.

The questions mentioned above aimed to identify the type of detainee acculturation to the penitentiary environment.

Thus, it is extremely important to know “whether or not the detainees preserve their cultural characteristics” and whether or not “they become friends with their mates inside the penitentiary”. Therefore it is necessary to correlate the answers to the two questions in order to determine the precise type of acculturation.

Correlating the answers will enable us to discover the types of acculturation existing among the detainees.

Figure no. 2. Types of acculturation of the detainees in the Maximum Security Penitentiary in Craiova



By corroborating the results we are able to identify the existence of all four types of acculturation among the detainees inside the penitentiary:

1. *Assimilation* is the first form of acculturation and it results from the negative answer to question no. 3 and to the affirmative answer to question no. 2. It is a process which involves adopting the values, habits and eventually the entire lifestyle of the penitentiary environment. Therefore we can conclude that 10 respondents, be that 9.61% of them can be seen as “assimilated”.

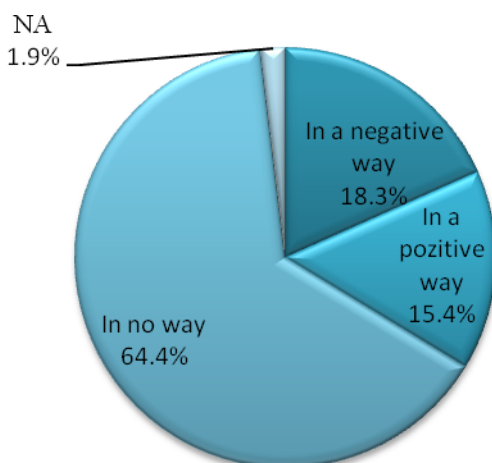
2. *Integration* can be noticed in instances of affirmative answers to both questions. The detainees maintain their cultural identity, while trying to adapt to the freedom depriving system. 62.55% (65 – absolute value) of the respondents can be classified as integrated under the conditions of the carceral system.

3. *Segregation (Separation)* results from the affirmative answer to question no. 3 and from the negative answer to question no. 2. The low incidence of inmate relationships, along with the conservation of cultural characteristics will eventually lead to a separation of these detainees from the rest of the carceral world. 24 respondents, be that 23.07% of them can be listed as “segregated”.

4. *Marginalization*, the fourth form of acculturation, can be identified by the incidence of negative answers to both questions. When cultural characteristics are not conserved and inmate relationships are scarce, there is a case of segregation, along with a significant level of individual and collective confusion and anxiety. Only 5 people of the interviewed ones can be seen as marginalized, be that 4.8% of the detainees.

Question no. 4. How did living among your mates inside the penitentiary affect you?

Options	Percent
In a negative way	18.3%
In a positive way	15.4%
In no way	64.4%
No Answer	1.9%
Total	100 %



When asked whether or not living alongside their mates inside the penitentiary had had any effect upon them, 64.4% of the respondents mentioned no effect, 18.3% of them estimated it had had a negative impact, whereas 15.4% mentioned positive effects.

3. Conclusions

The initial hypothesis was refuted, as merely 9.61% of the detainees were assimilated and had changed their initial cultural values, as a result of detention. Most of them have kept the cultural values they shared prior to their sentence and used them to integrate in the penitentiary environment. This aspect is further emphasized by the answer provided by 64.4% of the detainees, who mentioned the fact that detention had had no effect upon them.

We can therefore infer that most of the detainees have had a set of cultural values which had been in consonance with those in the penitentiary subculture from the very beginning. Detention life had therefore but corresponded to their identity and characteristics prior to their sentencing. On the other hand, the fact that almost 10% of the detainees have changed their cultural values is a negative aspect, given the fact that they got to be assimilated to the detention subculture, which is in itself a sum of negative elements.

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Comparative analysis of existing methodologies of mentoring teachers in 7 European prison facilities with educational programs

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Abstract

In this paper the participating partners make a comparative analysis of existing methodologies of mentoring teachers in prison education in 7 European facilities. Recent studies show that a mentoring program contributes to the quality of the practice of new and experienced teachers, not merely their retention in a special environment as a correctional facility (Hawley 2013: p. 6). Moreover, the experiences of each partner confirms that an ongoing, comprehensive mentoring program could go a long way toward achieving the broader potential of stimulating students and teachers towards prison education. This study wants to focus on two major kinds of support which are considered necessary by researchers and practitioners: psychological support and instruction-related support (Feiman-Nemser 1999: p. 6). Both categories of support have been found critical for new teachers who come to an array of new responsibilities with little time and few resources to direct toward transitioning into those responsibilities. Survey responses of this study show that in some European countries teachers are offered a relevant training during the first year on the job. These trainings cover areas that relate to the prison context, such as negotiating security matters, preventing burnout of teachers using motivation techniques and adapting materials for prisoners. Moreover, in some countries each prison has a prison education manager who supports the teachers with organizing the schedules, analysing the prisoners' participation, providing appropriate professional training for teachers and planning the availability of work equipment.

Keyword: *prison; education; mentoring; teacher; europe; training.*

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1. Introduction

1.1. Problem statement - The usefulness of mentoring teachers in prison

Too often beginning teachers in prisons find themselves alone at the bottom of the world's most difficult educational environment. This was one of the outcomes of the Grundtvig project "IN & OUT" (IN & OUT 2011) completed by three organisations with field experiences on mentoring teachers in correctional facilities. During the project they were listening carefully to how novice teachers describe their early experiences on the job.

Increasingly, organisations inside prisons are working with teacher associations, centre for adult educations, universities, and others to establish mentoring programs to help beginning teachers in to build up their knowledge with the assistance of a guide (Sandra A. 1999). The hope is that in due time the profession of a teacher inside a prison will be able to tackle the mountains of this specific educational landscape.

Informal mentoring programs for teachers have been around for generations. In a lot of countries in Europe, teachers require a pre-entry training before starting their assignment in prisons. However, organisations which are active in prisons are beginning to realize that senior teachers are needing help of mentors as much as their new colleagues who are fresh out of university.

National policy trends show that the importance of having mentoring programs in prisons is growing. A lot of countries face a lot of teacher retirements, the numbers of student enrollments is increasing and the need of class-size reduction efforts represent serious challenges to prisons seeking to ensure the quality of classroom instruction. A carefully designed mentoring programs can help in three ways to meet these challenges: (1) time for mentoring can be used as a recruitment tool, (2) confidentiality during the mentoring program can improve teacher retention rates and (3) teacher schedules can help to improve efficient use of skills and knowledge of both new and veteran colleagues. Overall, mentoring teachers holds the potential to help the entire profession of education to advance with time.

1.2. Purpose of the study - Guidelines for effective programs for mentoring teachers

Of course, there is no single program model available that meets the needs of every educational program in prison in every country. Penitentiaries with closed regimes often encounter different challenges from those with open regimes. Likewise, prisons with large numbers of long sentenced inmates may wish to structure their educational programs (and additionally the mentoring of teachers) differently from prisons with short sentenced inmates. However, regardless of the situation, all the partners involved agree that mentoring of teachers in prison is no longer seen as an option but it's seen as an essential part of educational staff development.

The questions of the survey outlined below served as guidelines for discussion and planning rather than a "how-to" manual. They were intended to initiate reflection — by educational institutes, prisons, social workers, and teacher associations — about how they currently serve teachers in prisons and how they can ensure that every new teacher and every teacher new to an assignment is an effective teacher.

2. Study methods – A survey on existing methodologies of mentoring teachers

The process by which the survey has been developed, started during the meeting in Verona (It) on March 2014 of the Grundtvig project M_TIPE (M_TIPE 2015). During this meeting the partners shared some effective practices in preparation of the survey

stage, defined the relevancy of the questions and made the plan to organise the survey in the following months. The survey on existing methodologies of mentoring teachers in prisons has been done in the frame of a qualitative small scale action research project carried out by the 7 institutes involved with focus on the period from the 1st of October 2013 until the 31st of April 2014. By early May 2014, the partners organised a meeting in Usak (Tr), to reflect on the results of the survey. After this meeting, the partnership was ready to share the outcomes by publishing the results on the project website. During the next meeting in Tallinn (EE) in September 2014 all partners approved a model of a mentoring program in 9 phases as a way to help meet the staffing needs of institutes which are involved in prison education (M_TIPE 2015).

3. Results

3.1. Outcomes of the survey

Table no. 1. The prisons involved in the survey

Country	What is the name of the prison ?
Belgium	Wortel Prison and Tilburg (NL) for extra cells
Estonia	Tallinn Prison and Harku Prison
Greece	EKKNA Special Detention Center for Youth
Hungary	Balassagyarmati Fegyház és Börtön
Italy (Genoa)	Casa Circondariale di Genova Pontedecimo
Italy (Verona)	Casa Circondariale di Verona Montorio con sezione di reclusione
Turkey	Uşak Prison

Table no. 2. Average time of stay in the prison

Country	What is the average time of the actual stay in the prison ?
Belgium	5-6 years
Estonia	3-4 years
Greece	Approximately 36 months
Hungary	4-6 years
Italy (Genoa)	5 years
Italy (Verona)	6-7 years
Turkey	7-8 years

Table no. 3. Number of prisoners

Country	What is the number of prisoners ?
Belgium	300 male in Wortel and 450 male in Tilburg (NL)
Estonia	998 male in Tallinn Prison and 191 in Harku Prison
Greece	330 male, aged 15-21
Hungary	450 male
Italy (Genoa)	400 male and 250 female
Italy (Verona)	827 male and 86 female
Turkey	772 male

Table no. 4. Number of prisoners enrolled into a course of formal education

Country	What is the number of prisoners enrolled into a course of formal education?
Belgium	30 vocational and 50 general secondary education
Estonia	71 vocational and 40 general secondary education
Greece	200 general secondary education
Hungary	59 vocational and 93 general secondary education – 1 university
Italy (Genoa)	26 vocational secondary education
Italy (Verona)	196 general secondary education – 3 university
Turkey	278 vocational secondary education

Table no. 5. Intake of prisoners before entering a course

Country	Is there an intake of prisoners before entering a course ?
Belgium	Yes, motivation and testing of EVC skills
Estonia	Yes, motivation and testing of EVC skills
Greece	None
Hungary	Yes, motivation
Italy (Genoa)	Yes, motivation
Italy (Verona)	Yes, motivation and testing of EVC skills
Turkey	None

Table no. 6. Educational areas in the prison

Country	What are the educational areas in the prison ?
Belgium	ICT, languages, industrial painter & bakery
Estonia	Languages, construction, electrician, woodworking & horticulture
Greece	Languages, math, physics, history & geography
Hungary	Languages, arts
Italy (Genoa)	Dental technician, hairdressing
Italy (Verona)	ICT, languages, arts
Turkey	ICT, languages, textile/handcraft

Table no. 7. Penitentiary instruments for motivating prisoners for education

Country	What are the penitentiary instruments for motivating prisoners for education ?
Belgium	Certified skills & € 0,63/hour for participation
Estonia	Out of cell & certified skills
Greece	Out of cell & certified skills
Hungary	Out of cell & interaction with the outside world
Italy (Genoa)	Out of cell & certified skills
Italy (Verona)	Out of cell & certified skills
Turkey	Out of cell & certified skills

Table no. 8. Negative impacts of having education inside for prison staff

Country	What are the negative impacts of having education inside for prison staff ?
Belgium	Security issues & prison rules
Estonia	None
Greece	Security issues & prison rules
Hungary	None
Italy (Genoa)	None
Italy (Verona)	If they 're in a course they can't work
Turkey	None

Table no. 9. Pedagogical mentoring done in prison

Country	By whom is the pedagogical mentoring done in prison ?
Belgium	Mentor of the educational institute
Estonia	Mentor of the educational institute
Greece	School advisor of the educational institute
Hungary	Other teachers of the educational institute
Italy (Genoa)	Other teachers of the educational institute
Italy (Verona)	Other teachers of the educational institute
Turkey	Other teachers of the educational institute

Table no. 10. Organizational mentoring in prison

Country	By whom is the organizational mentoring done in prison ?
Belgium	Prison education manager
Estonia	Prison education manager
Greece	Headmaster & prison director
Hungary	Headmaster & prison director
Italy (Genoa)	Headmaster
Italy (Verona)	Headmaster
Turkey	Staff of educational institute

Table 11. New teachers having a specific training during the first year at the post

Country	Are new teachers having a specific training during the first year at the post ?
Belgium	2 local instruction meetings & 2 one-day specific trainings in prison education in the first year
Estonia	2 local instruction meetings
Greece	Occasional one-day specific trainings in prison education in the first year
Hungary	None
Italy (Genoa)	40 hours of training before starting and 1 year of "dual presence" during class lessons
Italy (Verona)	None
Turkey	None

3.2. A model of a mentoring program in prison education in 9 phases

Phase 1 - introduction at the competence centre outside the prison

- concept and checklist
- job description
- explanation of the curriculum
- introduction IT-infrastructure
- quality through appraisal interviews
- contents of the continuing training
- checklist for introduction in prison

Phase 2 - introduction in the prison by the coordinator

- general Information
- security issues
- tasks of different services in the prison – networking!
- use of the prison PC network
- introduction to penal code and different sanctions
- contact persons for the teachers
- duration up to 2 weeks!

Phase 3 – probationary period of 3 months

- self-study of the curriculum
- self-study of all the teaching materials
- at least two visits of the new teacher at classes of colleagues
- start to teach after a period of 4 to 7 weeks
- 2 visitations of the class by the divisional head
- appraisal interview
- indefinite employment

Phase 4 – continuing training – management and contents

- 5 ‘exchange days’ per year – attendance compulsory
- 2 ‘exchange days’ per year – attendance optional
- organised and fully paid by the centre of competence
- issues
 - intercultural communication (external expert)
 - how to behave with inmates within the total system of a prison
 - introduction about the system for execution of sentences
- introduction about the penal code
 - how to deal with psychiatrically treated inmates within a study group
 - how does our brain learn? Neurophysiological approach
 - strategies and techniques in learning, types of learner
 - best practice – learning from each other
 - how to teach basic maths to educationally marginalised
 - introduction educational software for learning the regional language
 - planning to get her with the teachers the contents of the next exchange

Phase 5 – mutual visits in the classes – time management

- 1 compulsory visit and 1 optional visit per year
- giving feedback to the visited teacher following the guidelines
- visits must be working time and transport must be paid too

Phase 6 – peer consulting – intervention

- 1 hour of intervention at every compulsory exchange day in small group
- discussing an experience made while teaching in prison brought up by a teacher
- getting advice from the colleagues

Phase 7 – visitation of classes by the divisional head

- quality, amount, and level of classroom instruction (including shared instruction)
- development of curricula, new courses, and classroom materials

Phase 8 – appraisal interview

- 2 visitations per teacher and year
- giving feedback
- if necessary counselling the teacher how to improve or teach in another way
- 30% of the success in learning depends on the personality and the behavior of the teacher (John Hattie, visible learning)
- qualifying the teacher talking about personal training and objectives for the following year

Phase 9 – personal continuing training – projects and contents

- 5 working days a year (full time job)
- expenses for fees and transport are paid up to a certain amount per year
- examples:
 - course in presentation techniques
 - personal energy balance
 - getting older and dying behind bars
 - guided excursion to Auschwitz
 - participate in a football tournament together with prison staff (network)
 - job shadowing, KA1 or KA2 projects with ERASMUS+

4. Conclusions

Successful mentoring will benefit all stakeholders in prison education. Mentoring in prison education is not suited for those who prefer to work alone, either as individuals or as organizations. It requires partners who want to collaborate in this specific environment. From the recruitment of first-time teachers, to finding time and space for mentoring, to cope with issues of confidentiality, mentoring works well when everyone with a stake in prison education is fully involved in its planning and implementation.

As the results of the survey show, mentoring programs of several project partners have become progressively more structured, more formalised, and more dependent on the cooperation between the educational institutes and the prisons themselves.

The partnership of the Grundtvig project M_TIPE (M_TIPE 2015) highlight three issues to support effective programs: time, confidentiality and beginning teacher placement.

4.1. Time for Mentoring

Experiences in the 7 institutes involved in the project demonstrate that the efficiency of mentoring teachers in prison is linked to the amount of time that a mentor and a teacher work together. Only a small number of teachers who work with mentors “a few times a year” report substantial improvements of their instructional skills. The teachers who work with mentors at least once a week report a much higher perception of improvements of their instructional skills. Therefore the project partners identify time as an issue of primary importance for mentoring programs in prison education. They recommend that a prison education manager provides mentors and teachers with adequate opportunities to observe one another, model good teaching, and discuss resources and instructional strategies.

In Tallinn, Estonia, mentors work with their teachers on site in the prison during the school year. Mentors maintain a logbook of everything that is observed and discussed during this time. The school district and the prison education manager also collaborate to organize 2 instruction meetings a year for new teachers in prison.

The issue of full-time versus part-time mentors was a unsolved discussion within the partnership, where Thomas Wüthrich -a external advisor for this project from Switzerland – delivered insights on the benefits of his work as a full-time coach for teachers in prisons during the meeting in Tallinn (EE) in September 2014. Many teachers who serve as mentors of teachers in prisons emphasize the extent and complexity of their role and the difficulty of balancing the classroom schedule with consistent attentiveness to assist their teachers. This is especially true if a mentor’s responsibilities include peer reviewing, which involves evaluating teachers and making recommendations pertaining to continued employment. Others partners prefer to maintain part-time their classroom activities to some degree so they keep in touch with reality of full-time teachers.

4.2. Confidentiality

The confidentiality of mentoring teachers in prisons is another area that is often best governed by clear agreements and rules. When Els Gillijns– a mentor of teachers in prison in Belgium - her principal invited her to serve as a mentor, she made it clear that she considered to take the position but was not going to have conversations with the principle about any of the individual teachers. The intent of such an agreement is to encourage people to share their inadequacies with a mentor whom they trust. Teachers need to have confidence that the dialogue they have with their mentor is secure and that they will get constructive feedback from their mentor.

4.3. Teacher schedules

The survey indicates that mentoring programs operate within, and are influenced by, the laws, climate and habits that characterize educational institutes and prison facilities. Even the best mentoring programs improve if teachers, institutes and prisons agree to change these traditions that assign the most experienced teachers to the best schedules, while the new teachers are struggling to teach basic competences to students with learning difficulties.

Some partners of the project with a specific program in mentoring teachers in prison suggest that institutes should engage discussions about how best to induct new colleagues to the site. Veteran teachers can set a good example by teaching the most challenging classes. Hereby those highly experienced teachers are challenged by a tough assignment where new teachers acquire confidence have more chance at success. In addition the students are better served, and the institute as a whole benefits from an environment of collaboration between colleagues.

If teachers and mentors dare to ask questions — and having the right answers — is the first step in reflecting on the context, climate, and structure of an effective mentoring program. The 9 phases of the program of the M_TIPE Grundtvig project may be used to initiate a dialogue among teachers, mentors, educational institutes, prisons, and other partners seeking to create or refurbish a teacher mentoring route.

4.4. Measuring the effectiveness of mentoring in prison education

The quality of classroom learning in the prison facility is the bottom line for evaluating a mentoring program. There is little research about the direct connection between teacher mentoring and prisoners achievements. A next step after this research might be the complex task of documenting this link. In current programs, however, evaluation shows promising positive outcomes on many different levels. In mentoring programs that include peer review, the coaches play a role in evaluating the teachers with respect of an open, trusting dialogue.

At the program level, careful documentation and evaluation helps to improve the effectiveness of coaching of teachers and to justify the investment of time and money. As they study was based on experiences of 7 institutes, future research has to statistically prove that mentoring pays dividends on a long term.

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Theoretical approaches in the study of international migration. Migration networks

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Abstract:

A constant theme in the research of international migration, the phrase “migration network” defines a system of relations built in a certain region, among migrants and former migrants, migrants and non-migrants or potential migrants, both in the areas of origin or in the destination ones, based on various types of relationships, being relatives, friends, or sharing a common history. This paper aims to introduce several paradigms that form the foundation of the migration network theory in the study of international migration. As further presented, some authors claim that, due to the existence of said social networks, the migrants’ flows are being directed towards certain areas and fields of work, by creating a connection between the labor market in the country of origin and that of destination. The perspective of social networks in the approach of migration can be summarized by the following: the networks connect migrants in time and space. Once the migration flows are being initiated, they come to sustain themselves, reflecting the institutionalization of information networks, help and obligations that develop among migrants in the host society, and the friends and relatives in the emigration area.

Keywords: *migration networks; theories; migration flows; communities; labor market.*

1. Introduction

One of the defining characteristics of modern countries all over the globe is that their societies are diverse, multiethnic. The emergence of international migration, as a structural feature of most of the industrialized states, confirms the strength and coherence in the forces that shape and form it. Despite this, the theoretical foundation for understanding the real magnitude of these forces is not adapted to the current size of this phenomenon. Therefore, the significant increase of migration surprised the citizens, the authorities, as well as the researchers. When speaking of international migration, the currents patterns of analysis are still pegged in the concepts, models and premises of the XIXth century (Massey *et.al.* 1993: p. 432). In the theoretic research of international migration there has not yet been defined a structured, coherent frame theory, but a fragmented set of theories, which were separately developed sometimes even fragmented by the limits of the various fields of science. However, the trends in current international migration suggest that a common understanding of these processes based on the tools provided by only one subject of study, or by focusing on one single level of

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analysis. Their complex and nature requires a rather sophisticated theory to embody a wider variety of perspectives, levels and hypotheses.

In order to explain what triggers international migration, a series of theoretical models were designed, and, although, eventually, each one of them argues for the perspective, they are based on radically different concepts, hypotheses and frames of reference. The neoclassical economic theory is focused on the wage differences between states regarding the costs of migration, and explains, most of the times, migration as an individual decision in order to maximize incomes. The new economy of migration, on the other hand, considers the conditionings in a variety of markets, not only those of workforce. This theory regards migration as a decision taken at the family level, with the purpose of minimizing the risks and overcoming temporary financial restrains. The theory of dual (segmented) labor market and the theory of global systems ignores, in general, the processes of ad migrate at a smaller level, focusing, in return, on the forces that act at a larger scale. The first theory connects immigration to the structural demands of modern industrial economies, while the latter regards immigration as a natural consequence of economic globalization and of vanishing national borders under the pressure of international markets.

Massey argues that, considering the fact that the theories regarding migration conceptualize causal processes at very different levels of analysis- individual, family, national, international- one cannot argue-beforehand, that they are not compatible (Massey *et.al.* 1993: 433). Furthermore, it is very likely that the individuals act in order to maximize their income, while their families reduce the risks, all these in the context in which both decisions are determined by structural forces which operate at national and international level. Despite all these, various models reflect various research objectives, interests, and methods to decompose an extremely complex topic in parts that can be easily analyzed. Therefore, we can consider that the only equitable reason to confirm the consistence of these theories demands that the logic, hypotheses and arguments of each of this theory are clearly specified and well explained.

2. The importance of theoretical interpretation and field research in studying the phenomenon

Classical research, such as those of Durkheim and Weber, reveal the importance of observing social reality and its evolution. Starting from several observations on the evolution of the suicidal rates, Emile Durkheim introduces the concept of anomy and develops an entire explaining theory. Also starting from empirical evidence in the apparition and development of capitalism in the protestant communities, Max Weber created a theory of the capitalist spirit. This argues for the importance of social knowledge in formulating explaining theories.

First of all, theories do not grow by adding, and the mere accumulation of data does not lead to theoretical innovation; empirical evidence are not theories, and the presence of information does not necessarily generate new information. The important thing is that, starting from a series of data, the researcher should formulate questions regarding them, and the emerging puzzle is solved by previous research (Ciobanu 2006: p. 84). Furthermore, theories should be separated from common knowledge, or, in other words, they do not match the common perceptions in all the situations. A theory requires simplification and abstraction, and the individuals are not in touch with what is happening at a global scale, or may have different perspectives. For instance, a group can be considered as going through a rapid assimilation process from the point of view

of external standards, while its members think of themselves as being forgotten or isolated by the host society.

Explanatory analysis and the comprehensive initiatives in the field of sociology revealed important data on the amount of international migration flows, and the values that led people in their actions, on the relations, goals and means established by migrants. At the same time, the field data allowed the creation of a migrant's typology. But these typologies do not always match and they do not fulfill the explaining part of theories. Their functionality is rather a practical one, such as for the administrative categories used by the naturalization and immigration services, but they do not hold a theoretical value because they state the differences without explaining their origin or anticipating their consequences. Portes and Rumbaut described the typology of immigrant manual workers, creating a distinction between professionally trained migrants, entrepreneur migrants, political refugees, as an explanation for the contemporary American immigration (Portes and Rumbaut 2006: pp. 68-70). These categories have a descriptive rather than explanatory meaning; they only capture reality as it is a certain moment.

3. The main theoretical approaches to international migration

Starting from Joaquin Arango's comment, stating that: "the construction of theories in this field is practically a matter of the XXth century, as especially its latter third. Most of the contributions prior to the '60s only present now a historical interest, except for a number of contributions to the vocabulary of migration and the special significance of a couple of remarkable predecessors" (Arango 2000: p. 285), we can argue that the sociologically arguing valuable theories in the field of international migration start with the neoclassic economy. Contemporary specialized literature no longer studies in a profound manner the gravitational or push-pull models. Furthermore, some theoreticians of international migration argue that the gravitational models are rather a "collection of empirical regularities" (Massey *et. al.* 1998: p. 15), than a real theoretical approach. The analysis of the gravitational models also marks the beginning of concern in the study of migration, with the statement that the volume of a flow is the result of the action of distance and volume of population in the two areas: origin and destination.

Essential for the debut of the studies on migration are the seven laws issued by E. G. Ravenstein at the end of the XIXth century, hypotheses that created the base of an impressing amount of studies on migration performed in various regions of the world. They are as follows (Ravenstein 1885: pp. 167-227):

1. Most of the migrants travel short distances, and a population movement occurs, creating "migration flows" in the direction of the major industrial and economic centers.
2. The absorption process resulted from immigration occurs in the following manner: the population around the big cities migrates towards these, and the space they free in the rural area is occupied by migrants coming from further areas, until the force of attraction of the economically developed centers transfers to the surrounding areas.
3. The dispersion process is the opposite of the attraction one, and has similar features.
4. Each major migration flow generates the appearance of the corresponding counter-flow.

5. The migrants that travel long distances usually prefer the big industrial and commercial centers.

6. People living in the cities are less prone to migrating than those in the rural areas.

7. Women migrate more than men.

Although these laws were issued based on the data obtained at the Population Counting in Great Britain in 1871, they were in the next century developed and analyzed in the works of other researchers in the field of migration. We also owe Ravenstein the first classification of migrants in five categories, classification accomplished by referring to the distance traveled by migrants and the duration of migration (Lee 1966: p. 52):

1. Local migrants – those who change their living place within the same area, so they travel very short distances;

2. Short distance migrants – those who change their residence in neighboring area;

3. Long distance migrants: those who change their residence beyond the neighboring areas;

4. Migrants in stages – who travel longer distances, but in smaller steps;

5. Temporary migrants – who only migrate for a certain period of time.

This classification designed by Ravenstein leads us to the conclusion that, depending on the space and time coordinates, migrants can be grouped in several types. The criteria based on which he operated still keep their validity and operability within the sociological studies of migration.

By defining the push-pull models, migrations was approached as the balance point between the two spatial elements of the phenomenon (origin and destination), but the factors taken into account have an exclusive economic nature. In the contemporary literature, the terms are used to define the influencing criteria that generate migration at the zone of origin, and direct it towards a certain destination. Being given this orientation, we can consider that the value of the push-pull models is represented rather by the usage of certain terminological references in the previous research, than by defining a proper theory *per se*.

In 1966, Everett Lee reformulated the theories enunciated Ravenstein, focusing on the pull factors in the internal environment (Lee 1966: p. 48). He was also the one who highlighted the influence of obstacles such as distance, or political and physical frontiers on the process of migration. In Lee's opinion, people react differently to the push and pull factors, based on differences of age, gender, or social class, differences that also influence their ability to overcome the obstacles they meet. To these fundamental differences we can also add specific ones, such as education, family or other kind of links, knowing the host country's population, which have the ability to influence the migration processes.

Various theories explain the fact that several reasons may be the cause for immigration, such as a desire for individual income gain, an attempt to diversify risks to household income, a program of recruitment to satisfy employer demands for low-wage workers, an international displacement of peasants by market penetration within peripheral regions, or some combination thereof. But the conditions that initiate international movement may be quite different from those that perpetuate it across time and space. Although wage differentials, relative risks, recruitment efforts, and market penetration may continue to cause people to move, new conditions that arise in the

course of migration come to function as independent causes themselves: migrant networks spread, institutions supporting transnational movement develop, and the social meaning of work changes in receiving societies. The general thrust of these transformations is to make additional movement more likely, a process known as cumulative causation (Massey *et.al.*, 1993: 448).

4. The migration networks theory

A constant theme in the research of international migration, the phrase “migration network” defines a system of relations built in a certain region, among migrants and former migrants, migrants and non-migrants or potential migrants, both in the area of origins or in the destination ones, based on various types of relationships, being relatives, friends, or sharing a common history (Granovetter 1973: p. 1368). Arango wrote: “Few things, if any, are so defining for the contemporary approaches to migration as the central attention paid to migration networks” (Arango 2000: p. 291).

In the specialized literature there is no specific term dedicated to this social reality. Different authors use various expressions, such as: “migration networks” (Arango, Gurak and Caces), “immigrants networks” (Boyd), “personal networks”, “social networks”. This phrase also includes within its meaning the institutional aspects of the flows - the recruiters, the smugglers, the touring agencies (Constantinescu 2002: 104). The expression we see most fit is the one also used by Massey, “migration network”, phrase that explains “sets of interpersonal relations connecting (linking) migrants, former migrants and non-migrants in the area of origin and that of destination by friendship, family, or common origin ties” (Massey *et. al.* 1998: p. 42).

The construction of the migration networks theory in the study of international migration starts from a couple of fundamental premises, which can easily be tested. First of all, it is assumed that if someone migrated, it is more likely that he or she will migrate again. Also, the possibility of transnational migration increases in the second or higher wave migrants. An important type of networks facilitating migration is that based on family relations. The more difficult the international barriers to migration are, the higher the part played by networks becomes.

The perspective of social networks in the approach of migration can be summarized by the following: the networks connect migrants in time and space. Once the migration flows are being initiated, they come to sustain themselves, reflecting the institutionalization of information networks, help and obligations that develop among migrants in the host society, and the friends and relatives in the emigration area. With the support provided by these networks the population in the country of origin is connected to the one at destination, and the mobility of population gets a continuous character through time, is permanent and has one single direction (Vartovec 2001: p. 13).

The importance of social networks for migrants resides in:

- finding a workplace at destination
- ensuring a housing place
- the circulation of goods (transporting and distributing packages from migrants to the relatives and friends in the country of origin)
- circulation of information
- psychological support at destination.

Some authors claim that, due to the existence of these social networks, the flows of migrants are directed towards certain areas and occupations at destination, by

connecting the work markets in the countries of origin and destination. These connections can develop both at individual and institutional level.

The migration systems and networks do not exist by themselves; besides the flows, there are a couple of essential actors which are to be taken into account: first of all, there are the institutions that facilitate or stop migration; then, there are the organizations, that also facilitate migration; and we should also take into consideration the individuals, to whom, within this theoretic approach, a less important part is given (Ciobanu 2006: p. 82).

Nation states represent the first institutional level to be taken into account within this approach, because the legislative decisions are being taken on this level, being able to influence the migration flows. After that, there are the earlier mentioned migration networks. In the absence of such networks, the individuals who wish to migrate reach out to organizations that facilitate migration. The lack of balance between the limited offer of workplaces and the increased request of people wishing to migrate creates international migration systems. Massey argues that these are the institutions that promote migration, and, furthermore, create a black market of migration. Other authors, however, believe that "the institutions facilitating migration are complementary to the migration networks", claiming that "the personal connections are not the only means in which international migration is continued" (Massey *et. al.* 1998: p. 44).

Despite the fact that none of these theories has the capacity to argue by itself the evolution of the phenomenon of international migration, but a too wide perspective can diminish the importance of the aims of sociological investigation. When selecting a theoretical perspective on which the research should be based, one should especially consider the characteristics of the migration flows in the researched area, as well as the main mechanisms that influence them.

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Questioning Women Empowerment and Entrepreneurship in Turkey

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Abstract

Women employment in Turkey is at the back rows in OECD countries, European and Middle Eastern countries. As women employment rates change between 62% and 64% in OECD countries and European Union this rate is about 27% in Turkey. The trend related to women entrepreneurship is nearly the same. In 2003 women entrepreneurs were 4% and self-employed women were 14% of all when compared to the men. In fact in 1980s and in 1990s women entrepreneurship was supported. Because entrepreneurship was considered a key factor in development in parallel with the adaptation of neo-liberal politics after the government had left the market and women entrepreneurship was supported in this context. Women entrepreneurship was accepted one of the ways of leaving out the economic crisis and increasing women employment under the effects of subsidies obtained by European Comission especially in 2000s. In spite of all these subsidies and policies the rate of women in employment was 30.3% and the rate of self employed women was 8% according to the figures released in 2015 by Turkish Bureau of Statistics. In this paper gender dimension of women entrepreneurship and the role of entrepreneurship in women empowerment in Turkey is dealt with. Women employment is questioned in terms of effects of globalization on local economy, domestic relations, socio-economic and cultural dimensions of it, considering experiences of Turkey and other countries. Lastly determinants of women empowerment is evaluated according to a research carried out on successful women entrepreneurs in the West Mediterranean Region of Turkey.

Keywords: *women; self employment; entrepreneurship; empowerment; Turkey.*

1. Introduction

Women entrepreneurship first came to the agenda in 1970s with feminist discussions of employment within the frame of development theories in the world. The issues related to development first came up for discussion after the World War II and women were included in development early 1970s. Boserup (1970) first used the term “women in development” in her book “Women’s Role in Economic Development” and the term adopted by the Women’s Committee of the Washington DC, Chapter of the Society for International development, a female development professionals network. Women in Development (WID) approach emphasizes that women are untapped resource who can provide an economic contribution to development (Moser 1993;

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Toksöz 2012). WID is criticized by the feminists as it ignores gender relations and their reproductive roles, overemphasizes women's productive roles and does not cover patriarchal relations. WID mainly focuses on welfare, equity, anti-poverty, and efficiency. Welfare approach and anti-poverty approach is family oriented and aims to alleviate poverty through integrating women in economic activities. Efficiency approach is more interested in women in national economies than their empowerment. In the late 1970s Women and Development approach became common because WID approach was considered disappointment by the feminists. Women and Development approach (WAD) not only emphasizes on integrating women in development but also attracts attention to the relations between women and development process. WAD states that both the women and men in Third World countries are affected by the global economic system in the same way. This approach is criticized not stressing the relationship among patriarchy, capitalism, production and classes. WID and WAD do not take women's extra work in private sphere into consideration and is just interested in their productive roles. For this reason Gender and Development approach (GAD) appeared in late 1980s under the influence of Oakley (1972) and Rubin's (1975) focus on "gender" rather than "women".

Kabeer's (1994) request for gender analysis of social relations and Moser's (1993) desire for empowerment influenced the transition towards GAD. In this approach the focus is more on gender than sex because the social relationship between men and women is socially constructed and women are systematically subordinated. While early development theories focus on welfare, equity, anti-poverty, and efficiency, GAD adopts empowerment approach. It is the most recent approach, articulated by Third World women. Its purpose is to empower women through greater self-reliance and internal strength. It also questions the fundamental assumptions concerning the interrelationship between power and development that underlie previous approaches.

Feminists have come up with different dimensions of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship was discussed in development theories at first. Within this context micro-credit programmes were initiated to integrate women into economic activities and get them to empower in this way. The main reason here was to integrate more women in labour market and eliminate poverty especially in Third World countries, this policy is also accepted as a social and economic policy in Turkey too. At the same time, entrepreneurship discussions were affected by neo-liberal politics and globalization process which became prevalent in the world. This process also affected women labour market in Turkey and an increasing interest to women entrepreneurship started in the country after 1980s with the effect of neo-liberal politics adopted by the government at that time.

Entrepreneurship has been considered as an opportunity for women's empowerment and a solution to poverty especially in the third world countries as well. Thus women entrepreneurship needed to be evaluated with an approach different from entrepreneurship in general. It has got its own peculiarities that are special to women. For this reason, a feminist point of view is necessary to understand dynamics and processes of women entrepreneurship while thinking about it. The study dealing with entrepreneurship in general cannot explain women entrepreneurship as the entrepreneur is usually considered "male" in literature. Cantillon (1931) emphasized the willingness of the entrepreneur to assume risk and to deal with uncertainty. Similarly Schumpeter (1934), who made one of the most accepted definition, entrepreneurs are expected to be risk-takers and entrepreneurship activities requires innovation. Alfred Marshall (1961)

viewed the entrepreneur as a multi-tasking capitalist. These features of entrepreneurship are usually considered they are compatible with men according the common dichotomies such as public/private, men/women, production/reproduction and so on.

As of 1980s women entrepreneurship has become an area which is supported because of welfare state's withdrawing process and flexibility of labour market. However women entrepreneurship has brought politics which includes harmonization of family and worklife to the agenda to make women stay in labour market and eliminate the discrimination they experience in worklife. So the history of women entrepreneurship is closely related to women employment in Turkey. It has been affected by the dynamics of social and political changes in the country. There have been some conditions that affect the progress of women entrepreneurship. First of all women movement in Turkey became apolitical after the military coup in 1980 and they concentrated on the strategies to increase the number of women in labour market under influence of liberal trends and globalization process. The second agent that affected the entrepreneurship was that Turkey's European Union (EU) membership policies. Turkey's integration process which accelerated after EU recognized Turkey as a candidate for full membership at Helsinki Summit in 1999, influenced the issues related to women as well. Women NGOs started to put pressure on the government about employment.

The relatively low representation of women in labour market was also influential on the increasing interest towards women entrepreneurship. The rate of women employment in Turkey has declined gradually since 1950's. In 1950 the rate of women in employment was about 80% but deteriorating each year it went back 50% in 1980 and it became 34.3% in 1988 (ILO 1989). In Turkish case, there have been several reasons creating this situation. The major reason why women have withdrawn from the labour market is that the immigration from rural areas towards cities as a consequence of increased use of machinery replacing human labour in agriculture. Immigrant women were unable to find jobs in the city with their present educational levels and qualifications. Even they found jobs which were usually compatible with their gender roles, those were the ones in the secondary market with low or no benefits. Lack of childcare services supported by the government and expensive cost of childcare in cities, concerns of male relatives and husbands about women's working in terms of tradition and customs and low wages and lack of benefits in the secondary labour market got women to leave the market and go back home (Özar 1998; Ecevit 2007; Toksöz 2012).

Turkey has always been behind OECD countries, European and Middle Asian countries in terms of women employment and women entrepreneurship. Similarly among 61 out of 83 economies featured in GEM Report (2015) and also in the previous report based on 2012 data, overall Total Early-Stage Entrepreneurship Activity (TEA) rates have increased by 7% since 2012, and the gender gap (ratio of women to men participating in entrepreneurship) has narrowed by 6%. The 83 economies examined in the report indicate substantial differences in women's TEA rates, ranging from a high of 41% in Nigeria and Zambia to a low of 2% in Suriname and Japan. The rate of women participation in OECD and European countries changes between 60% and 70% but in Turkey, it is always far behind these rates. Although all the interventions and supports after 1980s, the rate of women in labour market has become at most 30%. According to the data released by TURKSTAT (2015) the rate of women participation in labor

market could reach 27.1% despite all the efforts of the government to increase the number of working women.

As low rates of women employment cause the same view in women entrepreneurship, it has been considered a plausible way within the efforts to increase women participation in labour market. It is difficult to estimate the exact number of women entrepreneurs in Turkey. The rates including self-employed women and freelance workers might offer a rough number about women entrepreneurship. In 2015, the rate of women entrepreneurs was 8% in Turkey (TURKSTAT 2016). The rates related to women participating in entrepreneurship activities in Turkey are far behind the most of the countries featured in GEM reports (GEM 2015).

In this paper, firstly conditions of women employment and entrepreneurship are dealt with, and social and economic agents that inhibit women empowerment are discussed accordingly. Within this context, reasons for dramatic decline in women employment in the last five decades are questioned. Secondly empowerment dimension of women employment influenced by EU membership process is tried to be analysed with a feminist point of view. Finally empowerment dimension of women entrepreneurship in Turkey is evaluated within the frame of literature and a field work carried in 2014-2015.

2. Causes of women entrepreneurship coming to the agenda in Turkey?

Women entrepreneurship is significant in increasing employment rate of women entrepreneurship. This process has been started to be supported in 1980s and 1990s in Turkey in parallel with the global trends. Main determinants of the process were feminist movement and EU membership efforts of Turkey. Neo-liberal politics adopted by the government as a consequence of political changes and transformation after 1980s caused the government to withdraw from the market. Within this context Esping-Andersen's (1996) "welfare regime" was adopted by many countries and women entrepreneurship was supported as a way of increasing the number of women in labour market in the frame of WID. However welfare regime approach has been criticized on different accounts by the feminists. They assert women entrepreneurship to be dealt with in terms of GID. Similarly O'Connor and her friends (1999) emphasize its ignorance of the relationship between gender-based inequalities and social policies. Her contribution in gendering the welfare regimes is extremely valid in understanding the case of Turkey. As family is assumed a very pivotal role in the welfare regime where almost all welfare services are provided by women (Özar and Yakut-Cakar 2013), welfare regime in Turkey has been structured over women's traditional gender roles and responsibilities. Thus the number of women in paid labour market outside the private sphere has become limited despite the increased urbanization.

Multinational institutions like World Bank (WB) and International Money Fund (IMF) have come up with WID approach in parallel with neo-liberal politics to find a solution for low representation of women in labour market. Thus entrepreneurship activities were considered the key of economic development and started to be supported. Women entrepreneurship came to the national agenda with the effect of rising women movement as well as increased interest of governments to liberal politics at that time. Turkey agreed CEDAW in 1985 and promised to prevent all kinds of discrimination against women. Supporting women entrepreneurship was brought up to the political agenda in late 1990s and 2000s with the effect of Turkey's EU membership process. In 1995 Turkey's signing Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action made

the governments become responsible for women's employment to provide gender equality. Turkey's being recognized officially candidate for full membership to EU in 1999 influenced the entrepreneurship process in a positive way and accelerated women entrepreneurship subsidies obtained by the government.

Within this aim, women entrepreneurship is supported by three main channels in Turkey. First one is government institutions, second one is trade unions and NGOs, and third one is WB and EU support programmes. Political concerns about dramatic decline of women employment have also alarmed policy makers to change the situation in favour of women. Both the governments and women organizations have considered entrepreneurship a chance to integrate women in labour market. At the same time women's demands for economic freedom from women NGOs (Ecevit 2007; Toksöz 2012) has made them search ways to integrate women who are not well educated and qualified for professional jobs in the labour market. So women organizations being a type of entrepreneurship are seen to empower women through getting women to gain economic independence. Empowerment approach presumes women will be empowered when they get a salary (Özar 2005; Ecevit 2007; Toksöz 2012).

Women entrepreneurship was started to be supported with micro-credit programmes for the poor women after 2001 economic crisis in Turkey. During the crisis, projects which were based on the understanding of "establish your own business" came forward and they were offered as the grounds of employment programmes to reduce poverty. Because the number of women who benefit from public subsidies for the poor go up in the period of crisis in tandem with rising unemployment and informal sector (Sallan Gül 2005: p. 28). Within this context micro-credit programmes were initiated to integrate women into economic activities and get them to empower in this way. Especially EU, World Bank and UNDP started to support women entrepreneurship to fight against poverty and unemployment. In fact women entrepreneurship was first supported in terms of alleviating poverty in Third World Countries in 1970s. Microcredit is of the potential to increase and to integrate more women in labour market and eliminate poverty especially in Third World countries women empowerment. Within the same frame women entrepreneurship was seen a solution to increase family income especially for the poor families living in cities in Turkey too (Sallan Gül 2005; Ecevit 2007; Gül and Sallan Gül 2007; Özgün Baltacı 2011). However the contribution of microcredit programmes has been at low levels as they do not produce long term alternatives towards structural reasons of poverty (Gül and Sallan Gül 2007: p. 20).

3. The reasons why women entrepreneurship failed in Turkey

Government subsidies and loans towards women entrepreneurs provided by EU increased and more women started to benefit from them in 1990 and 2000s. For the governments supporting women entrepreneurship was significant in terms of national development and productivity. As for women organizations, they considered women employment with entrepreneurship activities a way to empower women and provide gender equality. That is, as women entrepreneurship was seen a component of women participation in labour market and economic development, it was considered an opportunity to empower women by women organizations. Actually they did not come up with this question at first. Increased women organizations aiming gender equality with the effect of international treaties signed by the governments faced with women's requests to earn money. Because women saw economic freedom a mean to escape from violence, poverty and patriarchy but they were unable to find jobs with present human

capitals. Thus women organizations found themselves in a situation where they tried to create jobs for these women. Entrepreneurship could be a solution (Ecevit 2007; Toksöz 2012).

With the help of supportive policies and efforts mentioned above for women entrepreneurship increased the rate 8% in 2015 but the rate was far behind the desired numbers. There are several reasons to create this situation. First of all, the released figures do not reflect the real numbers of women entrepreneurs. Because self-employed women such as lawyers, doctors, engineers and architects are included in entrepreneurs, male relatives and especially husbands who want to benefit from subsidies and support policies for women entrepreneurs run the so-called women firms, and in the statistics the companies which have even a woman shareholder are counted as women enterprises. The second reason why supports and subsidies could not increase the number of women entrepreneurs is that policies and programs aiming to support women entrepreneurship were gender blind. Women who wanted to start a business faced with difficulties to raise capital because of limited subsidies to certain areas of the government. Bank request about appointing someone as guarantor or having a real property to give loans held the women back integrating in entrepreneurship activities. These influenced women employment and entrepreneurship negatively. Most women was frustrated and went back home when they realized entrepreneurship activities were not fully supported in terms of law, consultancy and subsidies (Toksöz, 2012). Another problem is that even women have cleared all the blocks on their way to be entrepreneurs, they are still affected by the social and economic conditions like the other women in labour market. When women became entrepreneurs their traditional domestic gender roles did not change and they undertook double burden. Gender stereotypes and prejudices in the society also prevented women from starting their businesses. Especially the women who did not have any job experience were deterred by male relatives or husbands. Evaluating all the discussed processes and dynamics of being successful women entrepreneurs above is crucial to understand the relationship between women entrepreneurship and empowerment.

4. Women empowerment through entrepreneurship

Empowerment stemmed from development theories and emerged in the middle of 1970s with the effect of women movements. Empowerment is a broad term covering individual, social, psychological and economic components. Self consciousness, participation in decision making processes and economic activities and collective awareness are vital for empowerment (Stromquist 1995; Moser 1993). Empowerment approach presumes women will be empowered both individually and collectively through participating in labour market and gaining their economic independence. Women's participating in paid labour market and economic independence will increase their consciousness and get them to integrate in decision making processes (Moser 1993, Batliwala 1994, Stromquist 1995). Kabeer (1999) suggests being able to make choices has two dimensions; decisions about the future and economic decisions. Batliwala (1994) states that empowerment means having control on material values, intellectual sources and ideology. Kabeer (1999) expresses that women empowerment is related to gender equality, but beyond this empowerment covers not only controlling their situation against men but also having control on their own destiny and making choices. According to Stromquist (1995) women empowerment must comprise of cognitive, psychological, economic and political components. Economic empowerment,

which generates the most significant component in empowerment approach, is the main unit in making women entrepreneurship programmes and politics. Women entrepreneurship is presumed to affect other components of empowerment realizing economic empowerment and to have women empowered. It is essential that women entrepreneurs need not only getting income but also undertaking risks to be successful and empowered. Yet women entrepreneurship has not reached to the desired levels because of their limited financial sources that inhibit to take risks and discriminations stemmed from their gender (Gül and Sallan Gül 2007; Özgün Baltacı 2011).

Women participation in labour market via entrepreneurship activities in Turkey has been considered a mean for women empowerment in parallel with global trends. In the late 1990s and 2000s women entrepreneurship was supported by political bodies in Turkey because there had been a dramatic decline in women employment and worrisome increase in women unemployment. Entrepreneurship activities were seen a solution to alleviate poverty among the poor families living in cities. The focus here was on the family (Sallan Gül 2005; Ecevit 2007). Since women entrepreneurship was supported in terms of development theories and seen as a mean to alleviate poverty, the rate of women entrepreneurs could not reach the desired level. The rate of women entrepreneurs was released 8% in 2015, but it does not reflect the real figures as discussed above. The problem was that policy makers ignored characteristics which were peculiar to gender. Therefore the efforts to get women participated in entrepreneurship and make them empowered in this way went for nothing. This view requires examining women entrepreneurship phenomenon with a gendered point of view.

It will be useful to understand the relationship between women entrepreneurship and empowerment through examining successful women entrepreneurs. When the processes and dynamics of being a successful women entrepreneur are understood, it will be easier to get the way to empowerment. There are limited number of studies (Özgün Baltacı 2011; Gümüsoğlu 2012; Balkız Öztürk 2013; Örümcü 2015) questioning this problem. One of them is Örümcü's (2015) discussion of this problem in her study will be discussed below.

5. Empowerment experience of successful women entrepreneurs in the West Mediterranean Region of Turkey

The study was carried out in West Mediterranean Region of Turkey in 2014-2015, with 30 successful women entrepreneurs. The aim of the study is to understand whether being a successful woman entrepreneur makes women empowered. Within the scope of the research in-depth interviews were carried out with successful women entrepreneurs in three cities; Burdur, Isparta and Antalya which are located to West Mediterranean Region.

Successful women entrepreneurs are well educated when compared to general women entrepreneurs' educational situation in Turkey. 80% of women entrepreneurs have at least high school degree. 93% have previous job experience and the rate of the ones who have more than 5 years job experience is 73.3%. Women entrepreneurs express that they get support from family members in entrepreneurship process. Women also state that the cities they live promote the women entrepreneurship (Örümcü 2015: p. 159).

As for empowerment, successful women entrepreneurs emphasize they are empowered individually. As Rowlands (1997) stated empowerment is experienced

within different dimensions individually, in intimate relations and groups. They indicate their awareness and consciousness increased, they gained self-confidence and they feel their status has changed positively in their families and in the society. They point out being successful women entrepreneurs transforms their status «business women», thus they are empowered in the society. The women state that they have a better, more respected and cared status in the society with the entrepreneurship process. Economic component of empowerment carries potential to change gender relations in the family and women emphasize this quite often. Successful women entrepreneurs also express that they are empowered psychologically compared to their past lives. A 40-year old woman entrepreneur living in Antalya expressed how she is empowered: *“As I learnt, became successful and entitled, I gained self confidence. When I learnt new things, I felt myself very special. I trusted myself more and I had an increased belief on I could do everything.”*

Another point is that the more economic power women have, the greater chance they get to participate in decision making processes. Decision making, participation and control are the main components of empowerment (Moser 1993; Stromquist 1994; Kabeer 1999). Women express having better life conditions and an opportunity to spend money without consulting anybody and helping the poor with the process of getting income as the concrete aspects of empowerment. Another thing they point out is having flexible working hours and gaining the control on their own lives. One of the women who is a 42-year old entrepreneur in Burdur emphasizes how she is empowered with the following words: *“Except for economic freedom, you cannot make yourself empowered.”*

Another 42-year old woman entrepreneur from Burdur also states: *“Economic empowerment gives a woman high level of self-confidence. You can buy whatever you wish without consulting anybody and reach a capacity of doing everything.”*

A 32-year old woman entrepreneur from Antalya says: *“Being an entrepreneur and having my own income has definitely changed my family relations. As my self-confidence has increased, I involve in decisions more. I can make more independent and precise decisions. I am consulted by the family members indeed.”*

But collective empowerment of successful women entrepreneurs is relatively low (17%). Collective empowerment requires participating in decision making process to change the society. Being a member of a political organization, trade chamber or NGO membership is relatively low among the interviewed successful women entrepreneurs. Women entrepreneurs mostly use informal networks and family relations in their socio-cultural activities.

Women have been empowered in many ways but there are also some conditions hampering empowerment. They have to keep meeting household responsibilities in addition to their work load. Women entrepreneurs as working women cannot get away from household responsibilities and their maternity status. Women working long hours during the day go on doing the housework when they come home and they try to live in a “Double Shift”. Even though childcare is not stated as a problem, women experience more emotional problems when the children are in question. Stable gendered roles defined by the women are kinds of “Patriarchial Shackles”.

A 37-year old woman entrepreneur from Antalya states: *“You are strained in family life very much. You get tired much more. Because you have to start the day earlier, you need to organize your dinner, plans and your house accordingly. You are a wife, at the same time you are a mother and the housewife of that house. That is, the*

tasks added to yours are much more difficult and you are supposed to fulfill more tasks.”

Another 48-year old woman entrepreneur from Burdur says: *“As I work dinner is not ready when I go home, I cannot go home earlier either. I get home at 9 or 9.30 pm and we have dinner at about 10.30 or 11 pm. Of course this creates dissatisfaction and inconvenience among family members.”*

Women mention they have developed some adjustment strategies to balance their family lives and worklife. They use three main strategies to make their business lives compatible with the family lives: The first strategy is that they get professional help for cooking and cleaning. The second one is getting support from the husbands and children. Their third strategy is organizing the worklife according to the family life and women try to intertwine the roles of working women and mother. Even they assert they are empowered they have to make “womanistic regulations” in their private sphere to avoid from family conflicts.

6. Conclusion

Although women entrepreneurship had been supported by different funds and subsidies provided by the government, international organizations and institutions and women NGOs in 1990s and 2000s, the rate of the women in entrepreneurship activities could only reach 8% in 2015. But in Turkey, all the self-employed women are accepted as women entrepreneurs, the rate seems high but figures do not reflect the real situation. Because so-called women firms run by male relatives, pseudo women enterprises in documents with just an inactive woman partner, and companies owned by professionals such as doctors, lawyers or dentists counted as women initiatives and considered in women entrepreneurship. This uncompleted picture of the situation affects women employment and entrepreneurship negatively. Like other women in labour market, women entrepreneurs are affected by the social and economic conditions. Gender stereotypes and prejudices in the society prevented women from starting their businesses. Especially the women who did not have any job experience were deterred by male relatives or husbands. To sum up, evaluating processes and dynamics of being successful women entrepreneurs is crucial to understand the relationship between women entrepreneurship and empowerment.

Being entrepreneurs and earning money empower women and make them self-confident in family and economic lives which are beset with patriarchal patterns. Similarly women’s collective empowerment is still quite weak. In this context patriarchal government politics play a significant role as well as reluctance of women organizations. Entrepreneurship activities normally functioned in public sphere become family focused and can only be maintained in private sphere provided that fulfilling women’s roles and getting support from male partners or family members. Thus women are forced to participate in patriarchal bargaining process, and barriers are still existed in terms of social and collective empowerment even though they are empowered financially to some extent.

But all the efforts to increase the number of women entrepreneurs in Turkey it seems to have not been reached desired level. The main reason which is responsible for creating this situation is the approach that usually ignore gender dimension of entrepreneurship. In addition ignoring women’s entrepreneurship characteristics as well as constructing entrepreneurship as a male employment area for many years has played a significant role. In Turkey case, patriarchal family structure and women enterprises’

small-size character have kept on affecting women entrepreneurship negatively together with lack of support mechanisms to relieve women's gendered domestic responsibilities and childcare. Moreover, women can only exist in entrepreneurship activities of which rules are determined by masculine capitalist system within the limits set by capitalist government and labour market and they cannot be empowered under these circumstances.

For this reason, women's existence in entrepreneurship activities might be possible as long as gender focused policies are developed. Future studies dealing with various dimensions of empowerment might center on successful examples to find out how new policies and programs need to be shaped. In conclusion, women entrepreneurs' empowerment depends on eliminating gender based barriers, ensuring gender equality and developing politics towards harmonizing domestic and business lives.

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The training impact on the labor market. Case Study: Mapping the labor market in Dolj County during 2015

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Abstract

In a society where the population is steadily decreasing, the importance of investing in education increases. The transfer of skills and abilities between generations, acquires even greater value. In order to adequately capitalize the existing resources, education is the only solution. It remains the engine of social and economic development, becoming from effect, the cause (Păun 1974). But to what extent it is appropriate to the dynamics of current social and economic life? Are the labor market demands correlated with the educational offerings? Can the mandatory education system still provide qualified young people for the employing organizations? Is the National Qualifications Authority flexible enough? OG 129/2000 modified and completed in the last 16 years meet the expectations created by the labor market? These questions led to the sociological survey conducted for identifying the need for training in Dolj County, in order to correlate it with the employers demand. The opinion survey carried out at accredited suppliers that are providing training programmes, correlated with data taken from CAJ Dolj statistics on dynamic programs and graduates, as well with the information provided by ITM Dolj regarding the newly created jobs and occupations, helped to map the labor market at 2015 level in Dolj County.

Keywords: *adult education; demand and supply; labor market training; globalization; knowledge and innovation..*

1. Introduction

Education and implicitly continuous professional training have a major contribution to maintaining a socio-economic equilibrium in a dynamic contemporary society. But the efficiency of educational programs is largely conditioned by interconnecting to the needs of the labor market by using the full capacity of the strategic methods of coherent and clear identification of the employers' demands, communicative resources, but also the models of good practice, which bring in fore the ongoing training and development of human resources. The educational system is one of the support pillars of a society interested to invest in sustainable development and that tends to access a higher step in the evolutionary process. However, in Romania studies indicate a context where education is not a priority, fact determined also by allocations of funds insufficient for optimum deployment of the educational process. The financial resources provided in the periodical budget do not cover the entire range of identified needs, so that the chance of achieving progress standards found in other European Union member countries is minimized.

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Competitiveness and economic dynamism were obvious targets outlined for the European Union under the Lisbon Strategy, adopted in 2000. Each Member State has aligned to the Strategy and in this regard actions have been initiated and impact programs were implemented, so the final result to represent a contribution to the aims of the Strategy. Post-communist Romania has undertaken considerable efforts to create an economic market similar to the European one: opportunities were identified to attract investors, technology infrastructure has made its mark in many areas, there were operationalized many changes in the classification of occupations, etc. During this period, investments in education have declined substantially, which resulted in an inconsistency between the educational offer and demand of the labor market.

The guidelines of the Lisbon Strategy for employment have been integrated into three general guidelines: the first aimed to attract a large number of people in employment and modernizing social protection, the second highlighted improving the adaptability of employees and enterprises and the flexibility of the labor market and the third one reinforced the need for Knowledge and innovation in the labor market (Commission of the European Communities 2005).

Although two of the three Directives were oriented towards continuous education, adaptation and knowledge, the provided measures did not support the quality of education process adapted to the innovation that would be found on the labor market.

2. Legislation regarding Continuous professional training

Significant changes in the occupational structure of Romania are the effects of globalization and socio-economic reforms have led to the elimination of some occupations and the appearance of others. All these transformations, as a consequence of the dynamics of the market economy, have led to the increase of a phenomenon unknown to the communist era and particular to the capitalist period: unemployment.

Romania has today a moderate market, but towards increasing the role of employers, in order to offer them flexibility in competition and better conditions for profit. In this sense, George Roboacă mentions in his book „The labor market and sustainable development” that „the state appears, more than ever, attached to capital interests siding with the employer” (Roboacă 2003: p. 310).

Consequently, to meet the regulation needs of the labor market reviewing the legislation on labor was triggered and roles were redistributed regarding employment incentives on the competent institutions to create a favourable framework for integration and development of work.

The need for permanent education must be assimilated as an attitude of life. Robert Mathias and John Jackson stated that „professional training is a learning process during which candidates acquire theoretical and practical knowledge necessary for carrying out their current activity and professional development is a more complex process, which aims to acquire the theoretical and practical knowledge necessary both to the current position as well as the future one - professional anticipation.” (Mathias and Jackson 2000: p. 96)

The connection between socio-economic development and education is seen „...as a univocal relationship. In fact, this relationship is bilateral. Education becomes itself the cause effect, an essential factor of economic development.” (Păun 1974: p. 175)

In this context, the evaluation of training programs is essential. Starting with the 70s major changes occurred in the personnel evaluation process precisely by the impact that personal appraisals had on legislation in many countries. „Organizations in the US

and some European countries have shown that regular evaluations of personnel in relation to work are fair and non-discriminatory. Psychological studies on this topic have received both a scientific and a legal basis. This also triggered a revival of the practice of psychological selection through tests in the context of managerial potential assessment.” (Pitariu 2002: p. 114).

European principles referring to the transparency of qualifications and the recognition of competences, without imposing a framework of acquiring them, are implemented through the legislation of Adult Professional Training.

In Romania, Government Ordinance no. 129/2000 on adult professional training, republished, as well as the subsequent normative acts GO 129/2000 (i.e. regarding implementation rules, methodologies, procedures, specific classifications and nomenclatures) regulates the system of quality assurance of training programs, the whole process of continuous training, including assessment, certification and recognition of competences.

Individuals, in order to adapt to new requirements of the labor market, imposed as a result of growth and innovation, should always benefit from customized training programs so the quality of the obtained results to support them in integrating into employment. One of the major problems is represented by providing access to information to persons who do not hold in their usual behavior concerns for technology, permanent information, adaptability to new changes, etc. *„The manner of „delivery” of information is overwhelming in importance if we want to achieve a significant impact in terms of career development. This form must be adapted to the prevailing perception form of the target population and with maximum impact in terms of career development”* (Jigau 2003: p. 20)

The main objectives of the Ordinance 129/2000 on adult professional training, adopted pursuant to Art. 107 par. 1 to 3 of the Constitution of Romania aims to integrate individuals into a effervescent labor market by linking market needs with professional aspirations and continuous training and improvement of human capital.

The National Qualifications Authority is the entity under the Ministry of National Education and Scientific Research which regulates and manages the institutional framework of education and adult professional training. In accordance with art. 20-21 and 26 of the Government Ordinance no. 129/2000 on adult professional training, republished, the authorization is requested by training providers wishing to organize certificated qualification programs or graduation with national recognition.

Nationwide, at present, according to the National Registry of Adult Professional Training Authorized Providers, there are 14,697 authorized professional training programs, that include both initiation, specialization, training, and qualification of adults. Of these, 621 are authorized in Dolj county. (see Table 1)

Tabel no.1. Centralization of adult professional training programs

Types of professional training programs	Number of CPT programs authorized in Romania	Number of CPT programs authorized in Dolj county
Qualification	6900	329
Specialization	2726	150
Training	3500	82
Initiation	1571	60
Programs of authorized professional training	14697	621

Source: http://www.anc.edu.ro/?page_id=34

Qualification is the main need of individuals to adapt to the current demands of the labor market, identifying initiation programs on the opposite. Each of the four types of training are very important, but following a course that does not correspond with someone's professional plan and not correlated with the job offer can help generate the negative mismatch of the individual to the labor market and can determine professional incoherence.

"The labor market in Romania underwent a significant transformation enrolling in the overall context of economic reform during the transition period towards the modern competitive market economy" (Buigudui 2009: p. 14-15).

3. The importance of labor market demand correlation with the educational offer

Dynamics and innovation in the field of employment attracted for themselves competitiveness, so the individual is permanently in a competitive process to fill a job or change it with another. Competences and skills acquired through training activities, courses or any other activities that involve acquiring knowledge, are an advantage, a chance to achieve the goal.

Educational achievements and professional training are an important indicator of the level of performance where the labor market operates from. Individuals with a higher degree of education and a deeper specialization are generally better paid and manage to find easier a job. Therefore, training must be ongoing and tailored to provide the necessary knowledge and skills directly related to the provision of employment services.

Active adults in the labor market are often treated in terms of human capital, in the sense of existing human resources available to an economic unit, an entire community or a nation. Specialists in the area bring into question the notion of meta-human capital, which is, in fact, the managerial capacity of an individual to use existing human resources in an effective manner with the focus on the distribution of tasks depending on the skills of the personnel.

Identifying key internal and external factors that can stimulate and maintain the quality of education and analyzing the main approaches, dimensions, criteria and organizational, financial, managerial, pedagogical and sociological indicators reflected in the standards and assessment strategies to educational institutions may be alternatives to improve the quality level of education.

The deficiency of financial allocations can be improved through the diversification of funding sources of schools in Romania. Beyond the use of grant funds from the European Union, either directly or through the Romanian state, revenues can increase by exploring a series of alternative sources based on proposed strategic operational plans. Developing partnerships with strong economic agents represents, for some scientific fields with greater practicality, a possible development direction.

Financial incentives to increase performance had a positive role in the functioning of education in Romania over the last decade. The under-financing of the education system generated that the human resource to be poorly motivated to support a quality educational act and the interest of teachers for the systematic transmission of knowledge of a discipline has decreased significantly. The components related to quality assurance (standard, indicators, criteria, descriptors, etc.) need to be understood, accepted and used permanently and unitary for system of education to be focused on quality.

Continuing with the difficulties of the education system, the disastrous failure of high school graduates at the baccalaureate exams in the last four calendar years is a problem whose cause must be identified and stopped. Experts in the area believe that failure on the baccalaureate exam or for admission to high-school is due to a faulty organization of the evaluation process.

On the other hand, teachers should consider new educational methods, unlike the coercitive ones today, so to develop curiosity and interest of those who take part in education.

The gaps in the education system are supplemented at relatively short intervals when legislation changes in the structure of the curriculum and the assessment methodology affecting the educational system's quality through the lack of unitary continuity of the whole process.

The entering o the labor market for graduates of secondary or higher education is dependent on the correlation of school curriculum with labor market needs and implementing a social policy in education. Deficiencies identified in the two major areas in which there is want for competitiveness, dynamism and innovation threaten the evolution of generations and predict major socio-cultural changes.

Amid these findings, boosted by demographic decline and constant maintainence of the migration flow, sociological analyzes come to confirm fears and outline alarming predictions regarding the educational and occupational future of young Romanians. Although there are viable solutions to help the education system perform and align to the employment system, there has not yet been created the framework of reflection on the possibilities of change and there has not been used exhaustively the practical framework of social policies in the area of family, education and employment.

Besides the educational system, which plays a significant role in the correlation of the educational offer with the demand of the labor market, the Agency for Employment has in Romania the role of Public Employment Service, its main activity being to stimulate the compatibility of the demand and supply on the labor market and reduce unemployment, in order to ensure transparency in the labor market and provide services for its beneficiaries - the unemployed, people who want to change jobs and employers.

4. Research: Mapping the labor market in Dolj County during 2015

Methodology

The main objective of the study was to identify shortages of qualifications, competencies and skills on the labor market and the demands of employers for 2015 in order to link supply and demand and adapt professional training programs in Dolj County to the employers' needs.

The specific objectives aimed to identify issues such as:

- Establishing skill shortages on the labor market from the perspective of public and private training providers
- Identifying specific professional training programs in order to adapt them to the existing offer on the labor market and employers' requirements
- Identifying staff shortages on the labor market in the current economic context in the city of Craiova and making the profile expected by employers

The research method used was the opinion survey based on administered questionnaires:

- A questionnaire applied among employers in Dolj County, completed at the companies in order to identify their personnel needs;
- A questionnaire completed by professional training providers to identify the qualification programs required on the labor market in Dolj County,

Respondents' lot - The study group included 53 active employers in Dolj County and 13 authorized professional training programs providers

According to the study, depending on company size, about 43% of surveyed economic agents have between 50-100 employees, while 17.0% have between 151 and 200 employees. Thus, 13.2% have over 200 employees or between 26 to 19 employees. On the opposite, with a percentage of 5.7% there are companies with under 25 employees or between 101-150 employees.

Nationally and regionally difficulties in professional integration/reintegration is determined by several factors: lack of skills needed to search for a job in market economy conditions, lack of experience in a particular field, lack of flexibility in changing a job, specialization, and sometimes the place of living, lack of skills required to meet employers' demands and an increasingly competitive environment.

Studies estimate that the workforce with medium-level qualifications will increase, coming to represent the majority of the workforce worldwide (48% in 2020).

This trend is also seen through the research: 60.4% of respondents claim that the personnel includes graduates from completion year, vocational school, workers skilled through training courses, while level 3 qualifications of the personnel (technological high school graduates, post-secondary school graduates, craft school graduates, personnel qualified through post-secondary training courses) is reported at over 77.4% of respondents.

Table no. 2. Structure of employees according to the qualification level

What is the structure of employees according to the qualification level?	
Level 2 - Graduates of completion year, professional school, workers	
Yes	60.4%
No	26.4%
Cannot appreciate	13.2%
Total	100%

Source: Analytical research

Nationally, the proportion of people with a high qualification level has increased steadily in recent years. The trend to increase qualification requirements involves more and more places of work and better paid ones for middle and high skilled workers and job losses for the less skilled ones.

The percentage of respondents supporting the existence of level 3 of qualification of the employee (technological high school graduates, post-secondary school graduates, craft school graduates, personnel qualified through post-secondary training courses) is over 75% and lows are recorded at 9.4% of the interviewees.

According to survey results, 75% of respondents say they have employees who have completed their university education (Master's equivalent). Employers are demanding in terms of personnel training, more than that, for many university studies are not so important.

When it comes to secondary school graduates without qualification, the percentage of "No" increases considerably: over half of employers said they would not employ persons who have this level of education.

The proportion of poorly skilled labor, i.e. secondary school unskilled and illiterate graduates, illiterate with incomplete general education, represent 3.8% of all employees. Thus, against the backdrop of increased human capital requirement of employers it is observed the exclusion from the labor market of people who develop the most conspicuous scarcity of knowledge, skills or professional qualifications.

When asked what are the occupations few which there is need within companies personnel, most of the respondents mentioned "welder/mechanic/metal construction locksmith/assembler" (15.2%), followed by salesperson/cashier/sales representative/dealer (11.4%) and Psychologist/IT programmer/engineer (11.4%).

Regarding the age preferable for staff to be employed, nearly 40% of companies want to work with people whose ages fall between 26 and 35 years and young people aged between 18 and 25 years are preferred in a proportion of 15.1%, as well as the age group 36-45 years old.

Age is very important to many employers. Depending on the activity, persons under the age of 26-35 years are sought, as some have more flexibility, availability to learn and improvement and may also have labor market experience.

For almost three quarters of employers the qualification of a future employee is very important, while a rate of 18.9% consider professional qualification important enough. At the opposite only 1.9% give less importance or none at all to professional training of individuals selected for employment.

Table no.3. The importance of the level of education of the potential employee

How important are for you the following aspects: the candidate's level of education	
Very important	49.1%
Quite important	30.2%
Least important	5.7%
Not important	1.9%
Cannot appreciate	13.2%
Total	100%

Source: Analytical research

The candidate's education level at employment is very important for almost half of employers, and 30.2% think it is quite important.

The practical experience of job applicants is very important for half of those which provide jobs and important enough to 22.6% of employers. Approximately 15% of respondents pay little or no importance to the practical experience of a future employee.

Between 2014 and 2015 a percentage of 28.3% of the companies have hired on an average between 21 and 50 people, followed by a percentage of 20.8% of companies that employed between 11 and 15 people. At the opposite lie only 9.4% of companies that have hired over 50 people.

Between 2014 and 2015, 28.3% of companies have hired technological high school graduates, post-secondary school graduates, craft school graduates, personnel qualified through post-secondary training courses. Ranked next in a ratio of 20.8% of the companies have hired graduates of arts and crafts school, apprentice school graduates, but also university education graduates (undergraduate and college level equivalent). On last place there are graduates in completion year, vocational school, workers skilled through training courses that were integrated into the workforce by 17% of respondents.

Table no. 4. Heterogeneity of the market of candidates

Do you consider having difficulties in finding personnel qualified according to your needs?	
Yes	39.6%
No	50.9%
Cannot appreciate	9.4%
Total	100%

Source: Analytical research

Most employers (41.5%) manifest distrust of the skills acquired by Romanian citizens abroad. However, a proportion of 35.8% of them prove to be confident in key skills and competences acquired by Romanians on the abroad labor market.

Regarding the arguments intended to set priorities for professional training, 66.7% of professional training providers in Dolj have mentioned that the requirements/demand of the labor market are determinant, while 16.7% of the organizations of training programs attending this study revealed that they have use of the personal

needs/requirements of employees. The economic and political development prospects underlie the decisions concerning the selection of professional training priorities.

Regarding the area where the professional training graduates in respondent organizations can operate, a quarter of them (25%) have stated as area Agriculture, 16.7% of professional training graduates may work in Commerce, while 8.3% for each field ticked curricular areas such as: Road construction and infrastructure, Hotels and restaurants, Information technology, Education, Medical services, etc., and 8.3% of respondents did not answer this question.

Regarding the ratio of professional training graduates and those who have found a job, 41.7% stated that between 1 and 25% have found a job on completing a professional training course, 25% have ticked the option between 26 and 50%, other 25% did not answer or did not know to answer, and other 8.3% between 51 and 75%.

Table no. 5. Barriers faced by candidates in finding a job

If the graduates did not find a job, what do you think are the reasons for that?	
They intend to emigrate	33,3
They did not find a job according to their training	25,0
They did not find any jobs	8,3
They attend the courses of another form of education	8,3
DK/NA	25,0
Total	100,0

Source: Analytical research

Analyzing the reasons according to which graduates of professional training courses in Dolj county did not found a job, 33.3% of them have justified their intention to emigrate abroad, 25% indicated they did not find a job appropriate to their training and another 25% of respondents chose the answer DK/NA, while another 8.3% said they did not find any jobs and other 8.3% attend courses of another form of education.

Half of professional training courses graduates have estimated that the skills and knowledge acquired during the course largely match the requirements of the labor market, while a significant percentage of 33.3% felt that these fit very much.

In contrast, 8.3% stated that abilities and knowledge gained concord to a lesser extent, while other 8.3% of graduate respondents chose the answer DK/NA.

Analyzing the importance of successful professional duties by graduates of professional training courses in terms of specialization utility in the area of activity, 66.7% of them considered to be a very necessary element in order to obtain the best results in work, while other 16.7% said it was only necessary, and other 8.3% indicated that it is just a quite necessary detail, and 8.3% chose the study option DK/NA.

Continuous professional training of graduates comes after the initial training and ensures graduates either develop already acquired professional skills or acquire new ones. 58.3% of respondents have put first “the need to update the skills of workforce”, 25% opted for “Deficit of skills/qualifications on the labor market”, while 16.7% chose the option of upgrading competencies and professional skills.

5. Conclusions

In a context of permanent change, labor market needs a new approach in terms of the educational development. On the labor market, like other markets, we find demand and labor supply: demand carriers (employers) with labor supply carriers (workers). Labor demand is the amount of work that employers are willing to purchase at different wage levels to perform their activity in one of the areas covered by the national economy. Continuous changes, employment reprioritisation and permanent redesign of services determine the employed or claiming to be part of the workforce human resource to acquire basic skills, but also specific ones adapted to match the requirements of employers.

In contemporary society where population is continuously decreasing, concerns for quality and not for quantity should have priority, even more as the transfer of skills and abilities between generations is ever more difficult. Capitalizing existing resources through continuous education and permanent development represent aimed solutions in getting a positive impact on training and education on the labor market.

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Social Services for Elderly People with Disabilities: Choices and Rights

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Abstract

The paper presents a survey which is part of a thorough research study of the accessibility and quality of social services for people with disabilities. The research interest has been provoked by the profile of disability in Bulgaria and the national policies in the field of social services and people with disabilities. The survey was conducted in the town of Veliko Tarnovo in June - July 2015. It covers two groups of people with disabilities over the age of 60. The first group includes adults with disabilities who are not users of social services and the second group - adults with disabilities who are users of such services. The focus is on identifying the attitudes and preferences of the elderly people with disabilities to social services, with a view to leading a good and fulfilling life. The results show that respondents - people with disabilities, prefer the social services in the community. Their expectations are associated with receiving care according to their individual needs, material security, freedom of choice and the opportunity to participate in taking decisions regarding their care. The results suggest problems with the target orientation of the social services as part of their accessibility

Keywords: *people with disabilities; age; social services; social work; social inclusion.*

1. Introduction

Social services are a tool for social inclusion of the people with disabilities. Creating an adequate network of affordable, high quality and efficient social services tailored to the real needs of the people and communities is essential for improving the quality of life and the participation of the people with disabilities in public life.

The political framework for the development of social services in Bulgaria is based on the understanding that social services should be designed and delivered by keeping human rights. The quality of the care provided in them should be defined and measured not only by changes in the health of the user but in broader frameworks, including aspects such as freedom of choice, preserving of personal dignity, inclusion of the user.

2. Disability profile among people aged 60 and over

Under Bulgarian legislation a disability is “any loss or impairment in the anatomy, physiology or mentality of an individual”, and a person with permanent disability is “a person who as a result of anatomical, physiological or mental illness is with

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permanently reduced ability to perform activities in the way and to the extent possible for a person without disabilities, and for which the authorities of the medical expertise have established a degree of reduced working capacity or specific type and degree of disability of 50 and over 50 percent” (ASA 2005a).

According to the National Statistics (NSI 2011) data people with permanent disabilities in Bulgaria are 474 267 people, of which 98% are aged 16 and over. Among them the highest is the proportion of persons with loss of working capacity or a degree of disability from 71 to 90% (40%). Women predominate among the people with disabilities, about 2/3 live in urban areas and are economically inactive 96% of the economically inactive people are retired.

Almost 61% of the people with disabilities are aged 60 and over. The largest number of people with disabilities is in the age group 60-69 years. In the higher age groups an increase in the degree of disability has been observed as among the most elderly (over the age of 80), more than half of the people are with over 90% permanently reduced working capacity (52.9%). About 98% of the people with disabilities live in households, with the largest proportion of households with one person with a disability – 87.8%. In institutions only 2% of the people with disabilities are housed and they are mostly people with over 90% disability.

The largest proportion among major diseases that hamper the lives of people with disabilities are neurological and mental conditions - 25%, heart and circulation diseases - 16%, diseases of the locomotor system (14 %). Among the youngest (aged 16-24) the most prevalent are the neurological and psychological problems (30%), and among the oldest the greatest proportion - 28% suffer from diseases of the heart and the circulation (Kalchev 2011: p. 99).

The majority of the elderly people with disabilities aged 60 and over are with combined pathology. Major diseases among them are the diseases of the organs of the circulatory system, neoplasms, diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue, diseases of the endocrine system, nutrition and metabolism disorders (NSI 2015).

The study of disability in terms of age shows that with ageing and increasing life expectancy, a rise in the risk of disability has been observed. In older people an increase in the incidence of chronic diseases has been reported, and the number of these diseases also increases in one person. Chronic diseases leading to disabilities create various by type and weight limitations in carrying out the normal activities of daily life. This aggravates ageing and exacerbates the need for using informal and formal care. However, it should be noted that age affects the emergence and development of disability in combination with factors such as socio - economic conditions, lifestyle, type and dynamics of chronic diseases, adequacy of health and social services, etc. (Baev, Denkova and Yordanov 2002: p.65; Ivkov 2006: pp.539 -558).

3. Policy for elderly people with disabilities

In Bulgarian society there are serious challenges related to poverty, unemployment, migration, deepening of ageing processes and deterioration of the health of the population. This leads to an increase in the number and intensity of risk factors in people's lives, to changes in the citizens' employment and lifestyle. These changes are associated with increasing mobility, changes in the family model, increase in the number of households consisting of one member; more cases of different generations of a family living at great distances from each other. This affects the elderly

with disabilities as the most affected are those who live alone citizens. That poses policy challenges to elderly people with disabilities and determines the increase of the demand for social assistance.

The policy towards people with disabilities in Bulgaria is placed in the context of social inclusion. It is based on the universality, indivisibility and interdependence of all rights and fundamental freedoms. Its aim is to integrate people with disabilities in society by removing barriers of different nature (psychological, educational, social, cultural, professional, financial and architectural) to their social inclusion, so that they can achieve an optimum level of independence within their disability.

The personality-centered approach applied in the policy aims to achieve compensation of the functional deficits and to create conditions and guarantees for equal access to resources, rights and services necessary for full participation in public life and a dignified existence, and to combat all forms of discrimination leading to exclusion. In practical terms the involvement in public life is implemented by improving the social and employment activity of the people with disabilities. The social services especially for elderly people with disabilities aged 60 and over play an important role in this process.

The policy conducted in social services in Bulgaria is focused on establishing a system of affordable, high quality and efficient social services in the community and at home. Services that are actually interconnected with the needs of the people and the communities. Their development is subject to the concept of person-centered care. This concept puts the user at the center of the design and delivery of social services. The focus is on the needs and requirements of the persons with disability and their families and aims at satisfying their real needs. Basic concepts are the principles of partnership, complex assessment of the needs and risks, maximization of the independence and choice. In technological plan the emphasis is on the target orientation of the services and the rights of the people with disabilities. The aim is the social services to maximize the quality of life of the users to the extent corresponding to their physical and mental condition.

4. Social services for elderly people with disabilities

Established practice in Bulgaria is the social services to assist and expand the opportunities of people with disabilities to lead a relatively independent assisted life. They mostly meet their daily needs, security needs, social networking and organizing their free time. Social services are provided in the community and in institutions on the basis of social work to assist the social inclusion of people with disabilities. Their range includes - personal assistant, social assistant, home assistant, home respite care, day care center, social rehabilitation and integration center, family-type center, protected housing, homes for elderly people with disabilities.

According to the Agency for Social Assistance (ASA 2015b) at the beginning of 2016 there are 642 social services for the elderly as a delegated activity by the state. The focus in their development is on the community services, e.g. 46 new community based social services were opened in 2015. They are mainly orientated to people with mental disorders and mental retardation. Nearly 40 % of the new social services are centers for family-type accommodation. The social services provided at home - personal assistant, social assistant, home assistant - are used by over 16 000 users.

The social services are provided after the individual assessment of the users' needs and on the basis of the individual assistance plan developed by a multidisciplinary

team. The right of choice is formally guaranteed, but the practice suggests that it is limited to the type of social services on the territory of a particular town or village and by their capacity.

The main activities in the social services are:

- Social services providing home care - activities mainly to meet the daily needs. Their users receive assistance for the organization of their free time and for establishing contacts; personal maintenance of personal hygiene and housing, shopping, cooking, laundry and other public utility activities; delivery of food, assistance in obtaining the necessary aids, devices and equipment for people with disabilities; utilities, consulting etc.;

- Social services providing day care - activities to meet daily, health, educational and rehabilitation needs, as well as the organization of the free time and personal contacts. Their users master basic domestic skills, preparation of meals, shopping skills; acquire various hygiene and work skills, etc. The services offer mainly a variety of consulting, therapeutic and rehabilitation activities aimed at establishing, maintaining and expanding social skills and training of users to lead an independent life.

- Social services in specialized institutions provide material supply and medical monitoring. Users receive daily care in feeding, dressing, personal hygiene and hygiene of the housing, heating, lighting, medical monitoring and assistance for access to health services; assistance in using the administrative services related to certain aspects of their daily lives; access to a variety of daily activities.

The users' participation in the process of selecting a particular service, its planning, providing, monitoring and in assessing their real needs is formally protected by the introduced statutory regulations that oblige the providers of social services in the country:

- to provide information to the users about the services they provide;
- to provide the services on contractual basis which clearly and precisely specify the responsibilities of each party;
- to provide an opportunity for the user's control over the service consumed by creating councils with the participation of representatives of the users and their families, suppliers and staff;
- to provide to the user procedures for making complaints and appeals.

The active participation of the user, however, is still an intention rather than an actual fact. The elderly people with disabilities have difficulty in influencing the process of providing social services, i.e. to exercise their right of users and to have a leading role regarding the type and method of provision, quality, timing and scope of the offered activities.

In recent years social services in Bulgaria have been actively created, targeted primarily towards children with disabilities, persons with intellectual disability and mental disorders. The majority of people with disabilities, however, are over the age of 60 with a combined pathology. The use of social services by these people is dependent on certain eligibility criteria which limit the circle of users mainly to poor lonely and highly disabled elderly people.

5. Methodological notes

The elderly people, who, due to a disability, are incapable to cope with objective difficulties in their daily life, need assistance. Their incapability to care for themselves

entirely or in certain aspects requires the involvement of third parties. The care provided by these people can be classified as informal and formal.

The informal care is performed by family, relatives, friends. This is a commitment that is performed free of charge at home. The informal care includes an extremely wide range of activities: bathing, dressing, personal hygiene, feeding, taking medication, managing personal finances, household activities (shopping, cooking, laundry, housing hygiene), keeping in touch with the health and social structures, etc. Its specific parameters in terms of content and intensity are determined by the degree of dependence of the person with disability.

A significant part of the dependent elderly people receive adequate informal assistance. However, there is a significant number of elderly people who have no relatives or do not have a good relationship with them, or need specific care that can not be met by their family, relatives, friends, and require the intervention of specialists. These elderly people need to receive formal care. Care that is designed in a way that allows to minimize, restore or compensate their deficits and reduce their fears - fear of bodily suffering, fear of loneliness, fear of poverty and deprivation, fear of the unknown, especially of the states and experiences accompanying death. Care which can enable them to lead a relatively independent, assisted life.

The social services for elderly people with disabilities should not only provide care and comfort but also maximize the quality of life of elderly users to the extent corresponding to their physical and mental condition. Several studies confirm that dependent elderly people appreciate much higher than other elderly people, life quality indicators such as control over daily activities, access to care and environment quality (Brow, Bowling and Flynn 2004; Bowling 2005; Lawton 1991; Vaarama, Pieper and Sixsmith 2008).

The limitations associated with disability and high age, lead to losses that affect the performance of normal daily activities. This requires a change of the environment with the increasing vulnerability of the elderly persons in accordance with their capabilities. The care becomes an important part of their environment, and the relationships associated with it affect their subjective assessment of life quality (Pulova 2011; Pulova 2014).

Ensuring good life quality of the dependent elderly people in social services is by providing appropriate support and care for overcoming the limitations associated with the disability, health and age, and by improving the environment - housing, food, hygiene, access to various activities that bring satisfaction and give meaning to their daily lives, good relationship with the staff, access to information and contact with family and friends.

Social services should provide an opportunity for assistance in everyday life and participation in community life.

The aim of the study is to identify the attitudes and preferences of the elderly people with disabilities over the age of 60 to social services, with a view to keeping a good and full life.

Material

The survey was conducted in the town of Veliko Tarnovo in June- July 2015. It covered two groups of people with disabilities aged over 60 years. The first group included elderly people with disabilities who were not users of social services. In their

random selection a list of members of the Union of Disabled People in Bulgaria, Veliko Tarnovo region was used. The second group was formed by elderly people with disabilities who were users of social services 25% of them use home care, and 75 % are users of services for day care.

6. Basic results

6.1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

The majority of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities who did not use social services had a disability or degree of disability from 71 to 90% (51%). 88% were retired. The employed people were 12% and were mostly males. 1/2 of the respondents were married. 3/4 of the male respondents lived with their families. In contrast, more than half of the surveyed females lived alone (60 %). They were widowed (43%) or divorced (17 %). Half of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities had a monthly income of up to 400 BGN.

Just over half of the elderly people with disabilities who were users of social services had a loss of working capacity or degree of disability from 71 to 90% (53%). All respondents were retired. A significant proportion of the users were women. Almost 90 % of the respondents lived alone. 79% of the elderly people with disabilities had a monthly income of up to 400 BGN.

Among the elderly people in both groups dominated those with a disability or degree of disability from 71 to 90%. They were mainly women living alone and had a monthly income of up to 400 BGN.

6.2. Coping with normal daily activities

All the respondents who did not use social services indicated that they coped with their daily activities. They admitted that their disability limited them in their performance in varying degrees. The respondents accepted, however, the difficulties as natural and used different coping strategies, which helped them maintain compatibility between the environment and their capabilities. Most often they performed fewer activities than they would like (46 %). To this strategy adhered mostly women, and a significant proportion of the male respondents made further efforts to perform the activities they wanted. Only 17% sought help to carry out these activities. The assessment of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities of their capabilities to cope with the routine activities of everyday life was mostly positive, though it was not high.

The users of social services also indicated that their disability limited them in the performance of daily activities in varying degrees. About 37% of them stated that the difficulties they experienced were significant. Their assessment of the capability to cope alone with the routine activities of everyday life was not high. Most often they maintained compatibility between the environment and their capabilities by performing fewer activities than they would like (32%) or sought assistance to fulfill the desired activities (26%). The frequency of assistance seeking among them was higher compared to the elderly people with disabilities who did not use social services.

The elderly people from both groups had difficulty in performing daily activities. The users of social services, however, were more pessimistic regarding their capability and capacity to cope with everyday life.

6.3. View on social services

A significant proportion of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities considered the social services as an opportunity to improve their lives (37%). They tended to use such services if the life circumstances compelled them (70%) and if they could afford them financially (15%). Almost half of the respondents, however, believed that social services could not help them in everyday life. 25% of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities expressed their clear conviction in that. This group was formed mainly by people highly dependent on the performance of different activities, but who had the support of their families. A significant part of them were well informed about the activities offered in services. They were not interested in social services because they did not think they needed to use them.

68% of the users of social services believed that social services enabled them to improve their quality of life. A significant part of them used social services because they were forced by life circumstances - low income, lack of relatives to give them financial and emotional support, poor health, functional limitations resulting from their disability and age. Over 2/3 of them were satisfied with the service used. Their view on social services was predominantly positive as it was based mostly on the attitude of respect and attention from the staff. As for the activities included in the service - the elderly people believed that they corresponded to their needs (74 %).

All surveyed elderly people with disabilities associated social services with assistance of various everyday life aspects due to deficiencies related to self-service, organization of everyday life, performance of routine activities, mobility, and with the maintenance of a decent standard of living.

6.4. Information on social services

Of the surveyed elderly people with permanent disabilities who did not use social services 2/3 had information about the existing social services. Of these, 24% were well informed. These were mainly people with a degree of disability of over 90% who lived alone. The main source of information on social services for 60% of the respondents was the Social Assistance Directorate. Other sources of lesser importance were municipal employees, neighbours, the Internet.

Well informed about the existing social services were 42% of the users of social services. These were mainly women living alone. The main source of information on social services for 68% of the respondents was the Social Assistance Directorate.

The elderly people from both groups were informed about social services. The main source of information for them was the Social Assistance Directorate.

6.5. Attitudes and preferences towards social services

The majority of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities who did not use social services expressed a preference for the social services in the community.

As most important parameters of social services for keeping a good and full life they indicated: care provision adequate to the needs (48%), provision of material security (43%), health monitoring (20%), respect of user's view on issues related to their service (18.5%), preserving the normal way of life (15%) (i.e. the users to have control over their daily lives to perform their routine duties, to maintain social contacts, to be independent) .

The respondents appreciated highly the receiving of care that corresponded to their individual needs, providing them material security and medical monitoring and performed in a way that preserved their sense of independence.

With the increasing degree of loss of working capacity a change in the preferences to the type of care has been observed, as well as in the ranking in importance the basic parameters of social services with respect to the quality of life.

92% of the surveyed elderly people with a degree of disability of 50% to 70% tended to use social services if the life circumstances compelled them. They would prefer a service providing day care. Their expectations were mainly related to the material security provision, care adequate to their needs, freedom and opportunity to choose how to spend their time.

77% of the respondents with a degree of disability of 71 % to 90 % tended to use social services if they were forced by life circumstances. The preferences were for services, providing day care (26%) and services for home care (22 %). The respondents expected from the services primarily adequate care and material security and respect for their view on matters pertaining to their servicing and health monitoring, social contacts and maintaining their normal lifestyle.

All surveyed elderly people with a degree of disability over 90 % tended to use social services if they needed to. They would prefer home care service. Their expectations were mainly related to the care adequacy, respect for their view on matters pertaining to their servicing, health monitoring and material security.

The elderly people with disabilities who did not use social services associated social services with the receiving of adequate support for their efforts to lead a relatively independent life within the disability. They perceived the support as assistance in their everyday life, which according to them should cover areas like care, health, material security. They focused on the relation "individual - environment" as their attention was directed to the physical living environment. The good relationships associated with the care and the provision of psycho-social support, the elderly people with disabilities accepted as an attribute of the professionalism of the staff.

It is noteworthy that there was skepticism among the majority of the respondents - elderly people with disabilities to social services. It can be assumed that this is due to the adequate informal support provided by their family, relatives and friends on one hand and on the other hand – to the irrelevance of the target orientation of the services to the wishes and needs of the elderly people with disabilities.

The elderly people with disabilities who were users of social services identified the parameters of social services, care and respect by staff (44%), provision of adequate needs care (40%), maintaining social contacts (28%), respect for their views on issues related to their service (22%), participation in various activities (22%) as most important to leading a good and full life.

The elderly users of social services highly appreciated the responsiveness of the staff to their needs, the adequacy of the care provided to their needs, the social contacts and the participation in a variety of daily activities.

With the increasing loss of working capacity a change has been observed in the ranking of importance of the basic parameters of the social services related to the quality of life.

The users of social services, providing home care, are mostly elderly people with a degree of disability over 90%. They expect from the services adequacy of the care to their needs, respect for their opinion on matters pertaining to their service, attention and

respect by staff, material security and emotional support. Crucial for them is the adequacy of the care and they associate the performance of a particular task by the staff with their attitude towards them and the reception of emotional support. The elderly users want the activities to be carried out in a way that reflects their preferences. Their subjective assessments of the care quality are influenced by its relevance to their individual needs and their relationship with the staff.

The users of social services, providing day care, are mostly elderly people with a degree of disability of 71% to 90%. Their expectations for the social services are mostly related to the rationalization of their everyday life (social contacts, participation in a variety of daily activities) and the responsiveness of the staff to their needs. They highly appreciate the availability of rehabilitative interventions and also that they are engaged in activities that bring them satisfaction and positive emotions. It should be noted that the users associate the service used mostly with care, and not with activation - empowerment, control, participation. It can be assumed that it is conditioned by the concept of the social service, set in the methodology of ASA on the one hand and on the other - an attempt to compensate for deficits resulting from systems such as health, social insurance, etc. and in the field of personal relationships and family.

Elderly users indicated as leading parameters of social services the provision of social and emotional support, the improvement of the characteristics of the living environment, the material security.

The results correspond to the users' profile, which has been determined by the existing regulations for access to social services. The profile has been formed by lonely elderly people with disabilities with low income, with no family members or family members in a difficult financial situation. In terms of health status and functional limitations – the users of home care were severely disabled, and the users of day care, despite having difficulties were capable of self-care and performed normal daily activities independently. Among the vast majority of respondents deficits in terms of social contacts and free time - loneliness (lack of close relationship with at least one person), boredom (lack of meaningful activities) have been reported. Their social contacts were limited mainly to their closest environment - staff and relatives. The most important role in their daily lives played their relationship with the staff. This affects the needs and preferences related to care. Their subjective well-being depended mostly on the characteristics of the occupied living environment, their satisfaction with the care received, the social contacts and the opportunities for spending their free time.

7. Conclusions

A significant part of the surveyed elderly people with disabilities aged 60 and over lead a relatively active and independent life within their disability, they have the support of their family, relatives and friends. This affects the needs and preferences related to social services. With increasing loss of working capacity their dependence on other people in everyday life also increases, as well as their propensity to use social services.

Elderly people with disabilities want to lead a peaceful and full life. They strive to maintain their normal quality of life. Most of them achieve this with the support of their families. Social services are an alternative in severe life circumstances.

In need of social services the surveyed elderly people with disabilities prefer to use the social services in the community. According to them, the service should assist them in their efforts to remain in their own home, among friends and relatives. It should

create opportunities and conditions for these people to maintain their usual lifestyle by providing support to compensate for the deficits. Elderly people with disabilities associate this with receiving of care according to the individual needs, financial security, freedom of choice and the opportunity to participate in decision-making with regard to their care. The importance of medical monitoring increases with the deterioration of health and increasing degree of disability.

In social services of elderly people with disabilities regulations and procedures have been set for assessing the needs and involving the users in the provision of social services. Conditions and guarantees have been created for respecting the civil rights of elderly people with disabilities as well as formal prerequisites for freedom of choice and control in meeting their needs.

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Cultural and practical challenges for child protection

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Abstract

Despite the contemporary world wants to be a centred on the child society, she not only fails to meet the fundamental needs of all children, but also produce specific risks for children, such as children left behind by parents moving abroad for work, trafficking children, discrimination, violence in cyberspace etc. Attitudes towards children have developed spectacularly in the last century, but violence and neglect against children continues to be problems internationally, including in the Member States of the European Union. Often it is culturally justified and tolerated by legislative omissions. The challenges in child protection addresses to the European Union are in the same time cultural, political and pragmatic, such as unification of the policies and practices of child protection, the availability and training of human resources, the allocated financial resources, the interstate collaboration, the children's access to social services, the quality of child protection services, the necessity of discernment in understanding and applying laws and many others. In this study are analysed relevant European legislative documents aimed at promoting and developing an integrated child protection approach and underlined the shortcomings observed in the Romanian child protection system. At the same time, the study proposes, as theme of reflection, an approach to child protection taking into account the wider context of family, community and society in order to avoid the danger of a fragmented vision that can have perverse effects detrimental to the best interests of the child.

Key words: *child protection; child rights; social work; state; parents.*

1. Introduction

Violence and child abuse are among the most serious problem facing children today, but they are not the only ones. Moreover, they are associated with other problems affecting children and direct and indirect, favouring or even generating abuse and violence, such as poverty, unemployment, social inequality, marginalization and discrimination, membership in minority groups or subcultures.

According with some epidemiological evidence, the number of Romanian children who are in formal care remain very high: with 57.279 children in the care of the state at the end of 2015, which represents 1.36% from the total number of the children. Very worrying is the fact that almost two-thirds of these children end up in state care because of the poverty, which is a structural risk factor in Romania.

From the perspective of the practitioner, things seem arranged, clear and binding. Any European social worker believes that rights-based child protection practice is all that could happen better for the child in contemporary times. Living in the European

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Union and making multilateral attempts to unify the knowledge, the laws, the practices and the values, living in a globalized world, we begin to think that everything that comes from the "centre" or from "West" is good and should become a goal to achieve. Given that scientific knowledge is being asked to provide solutions to problems of society and people today, researcher carries a huge responsibility. So he must ask questions and look at things from multiple perspectives, aiming to propose measures really beneficial.

Sometimes, social workers observe their self the fact that their intervention in area of child protection are ineffective: children are taken from their families, but they didn't grow happier or better social integrated, but on the contrary. The social worker can address at some personal or family issues, but the causes of that problems are related to community or are resulting from social structures and cultural attitudes. In such situations, invoking a deficiency of parenting means to propose inadequate and ineffective solutions, and, ultimately, work against the best interests of children.

The national legislations in the area of child protection are relatively coordinated at the European level, more unequal are developed the training of professionals and the coordination of the child protection system with a comprehensive approach. The Est-European countries, as Romania and Bulgaria, are faced with many cultural and practical challenges in the area of child protection, and we consider it is very important to understand and explain the sources of this difficulties.

2. Theoretical framework

The study is mainly based on social constructivist theory, but involves and a systemic and ecological approach of the child protection, the structural functionalist perspective of Emile Durkheim and some concepts of the social geography school. With this theoretical framework, a part of the issues of child protection in Romania are explained and some efficiency measures in this area are proposed.

Through a systemic approach, this study analyses relevant European legislative documents aimed at promoting and developing an integrated child protection approach and underlined the problems observed in the Romanian child protection system. At the same time, the study proposes, as theme of reflection, an approach to child protection taking into account the wider context of family, community and society in order to avoid the danger of a fragmented vision that can have perverse effects detrimental to the best interests of the child.

In order to understand the child protection's evolution, it is necessary to relate meanings of three major topics: the social construction of the childhood, the role of the state and the meaning of parenting. This is important for having a larger picture of reality: How are reflected this topics in the law? Are this topics the same in the entire Europe? Which are differences? How can we harmonize the mentalities and attitudes in a sense of protecting children?

The hypotheses on which we had tested in this study was that the european child rights approach concentrates on the child as an individual with an independent relation to the State, rather than seeing the child only as part of the family. As method was utilised content analysis of main Eu documents about children rights.

Nett and Spratt (2012) identify four imperative to protect children: the scientific imperative - the epidemiological evidence for the prevalence and effects of child maltreatment, the economic imperative - the recognition of the need for investment in children, the legal imperative - the importance of children's rights and the moral

imperative - the inter-country comparisons highlighting governmental responses to the rights and needs of children within a discourse of child protection. Analysing five developed European child protection systems, these authors conclude that exists six stages of the evolution of a child protection system, or six theme:

1. Children require protection because of societal changes. Their difficulties are caused by societal or global changes and not by the family.

2. Children require protection from parents whose pathological features result in the abuse of their children. This point means „a relocation of danger to children from the streets to their homes”, that is attributed to the echoes that the fundamental book of Henry Kempe and colleagues, ‘The battered child syndrome’ (1962) had. The child protection system develop procedures and accentuates: the assessment of risk, policing of parenting, and individualistic interventions with victims and perpetrators.

3. Children’s families require protection from the effects of structural inequalities. It is the moment of understanding that poverty is a factor strongly associated with the occurrence of physical abuse and neglect, and that system must address both causes and effects, with a a wide range of professional interventions.

4. The protection of children is understood within an ecological model. The theory is currently popular because it presents a more nuanced and less ideological model which indicates a need for effective action to be taken across all dimensions to ensure children are protected, because the abuse of the child is caused by complex environmental interactions with family functioning.

5. The protection of children becomes understood as a human rights issue, since the implementation of the UNCRC legislation has tended to represent the rights of the child as separate and sometimes different from the rights of their parents.

6. The protection of children by prevention through early intervention, through identification of the population exposed to multiple risk factors. (Nett and Spratt 2012: pp. 76-77).

Unfortunately, not all the child protection systems from the world are in the same stage. The law itself can be an instrument of evolution in this sense, but it is not sufficient, as we explain. Actually, in a very large part of the world, including East Europe, despite the fact that their systems of child protection are under level four, and the children and their families are confronting with structural problems, but there are a political pressure to behaviour as in the level five or six.

3. EU legislative and policy documents

All European Countries have signed and ratified the *United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child*(1989).Article 3 of the *Treaty on European Union*(2007) enshrines the European Union’s obligation to promote the protection of the rights of the child. Article 24 of the *Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union* explicitly recognizes the rights of the child.

At the level of the European Union were elaborated directives, strategies, guidelines, communications, recommendations about different child protection issues, as: the *Communication "Towards an EU Strategy on the Rights of the Child"* (2006) in which the European Commission established a basis for promoting and protecting the rights of the child in its internal and external policies, and the *EU Guidelines on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of the Child* (2007) etc.

In the area of child protection European Union has at its disposal instruments such as:

1. *Legislative instruments* relevant to child protection systems or several of their components.
2. *Assisting Member States* in the field of child protection when implementing EU law, or when exploring new dimensions of a policy field. (European Commission).
3. *EU financial programmes* (research and innovation, capacity-building, peer reviews, the support of mutual learning and the implementation of international standards, fostering of cross border cooperation and exchange of expertise).
4. Help in *cross border situations* (Need of clear roles and responsibilities, procedures, regular dialogue on child protection matters among EU institutions, EU Agencies, Member State authorities and other stakeholders.)
5. *Research, statistics and data collection.* (EC-DGJC 2015)

All of this – law and instruments – show the involving and the support of the EU in the child protection, and illustrate the role of the government at the European level.

The Council of Europe admits that „in spite of the comprehensive framework of instruments, standards and commitments on the rights of the child and of first progress in achieving the agreed objectives, the daily reality for millions of children worldwide is still in sharp contrast to these commitments and objectives Children still face major threats to survival, lack opportunities for quality education, proper health and social care; they are victims of worst forms of child labour, sexual exploitation and abuse, diseases, armed conflict, various forms of violence; they are forced into early marriages and have to endure harmful traditional practices. Children belonging to vulnerable groups or children in particularly difficult situations face particular risks and are exposed to discrimination, marginalization and exclusion. Girl children face specific risks and need particular attention” (Council of Europe, I.4. 2007: p. 3). Which are the reasons for that all this resources and measures have not the expected results?

One of them is, in our opinion, the fact that there are not enough focus on family and parents, on their point of view and their support. Other reason is that in a part of Europe, the child protection system is determined from the top to the bottom, so is artificial one, not from the bottom to top, not a natural one, and this generate a barrier of mentality. To address by this barrier using exclusive the law is insufficient.

To illustrate the first argument, we made a content analyse of two main documents of EU: Communication "Towards an EU Strategy on the Rights of the Child" (2006) and the „EU Guidelines on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of the Child” (2007). In both documents were search the words: “parent / -s” and “family/-s”.

In the first communication, the word “parent /-s” is used five times: first time to illustrate the fact that exist children's rights different from the rights of adults in general, as “for example the right to education and the right to maintain relations with both parents” (CEC 2006: p. 4). The second and the third time in a context about the poverty of the parents that limits opportunities of the children (CEC 2006: p. 5) The fourth mention is about children living without parents, and the fifth is about a communication strategy on children's rights, that „will help both children and their parents to improve their knowledge of children's rights” (CEC 2006: p. 5). The word „family/-s” appears one time, in the context of discussions about forms of violence against children: „violence in the family and in schools” (CEC 2006: p. 5).

The “EU Guidelines for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of the Child” proposes four operational tools: political dialogue, by including children’s rights in negotiations and discussions held within international or regional organizations and with non-EU countries; demarches, to react to topical issues with an impact on children’s rights and to remind non-EU countries of the need to take appropriate measures to protect children; bilateral and multilateral cooperation to draw up humanitarian assistance and development aid programs, placing the emphasis on children’s rights, and to raise the question of children’s rights in all areas of the EU’s external action; partnerships and coordination with international stakeholders, such as the United Nations, regional organizations, the European Forum on Children’s Rights, research institutions, public-private partnerships, but also civil society and international financial institutions. (EU Guidelines 2007).

The term “parent/-s” is missing from the document, and the term “family/-s” appears ones, in one of the nine general actions proposed by the Guidelines: “Enhance families’ and other caretakers’ capacities to fully carry out their roles with regard to the protection of children’s rights” (EU Guidelines 2007: p. 13). The parents are not seen as part in political dialogue. The adults who are involved in child protection, as policy makers or social workers are not necessary parents. We consider that the parents must be consulted and involved in designing the policy for their children, because, on other point of view, we can slip on a dangerous ramp in seeing in every parent a potential abuser. It is necessary to understand their perspective about the difficulties of the parents in performing their roles, the problems of the children in society, the ways to improve the lives of the children and their families.

As shows an American author, “the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child has undoubtedly raised the visibility of children in the eyes of states and governments”. But she comes into notice the fact that “the focus on ‘participation’, that is, eliciting children’s views on matters that are important to them, can be a distraction from more urgent structural and political factors that affect children in their everyday lives” (Morrow 2011:14). The participation of the children must be seen more as a mean, than as an end in itself, because being only in the centre of perception gives the risk that a lot of very important things to remain unresolved. This is the reason for that we sustain a holist approach of child protection, with a great emphasize on the structural problems that put children in risk, as poverty, violence in society, lack of access to or inadequate services etc.

4. The social construction of the childhood

Philippe Ariès states that “there is a connection between the idea of childhood and the idea of the family” (Aries, 1962, p. 10). In the same time, he consider that: “*In medieval society the idea of childhood did not exist*; this is not to suggest that children were neglected, forsaken or despised. The idea of childhood is not to be confused with affection for children: it corresponds to an awareness of the particular nature of childhood, that particular nature which distinguishes the child from the adult, even the young adult. In medieval society this awareness was lacking. That is why, as soon as the child could live without the constant solicitude of his mother, his nanny or his cradle-rocker, he belonged to adult society. That adult society now strikes us as rather puerile: no doubt this is largely a matter of its mental age, but it is also due to its physical age, because it was partly made up of children and youths” (Aries, 1960/1962:

p. 125). This controversial idea underlines actually the fact that the social perception about childhood is different today in comparison with medieval era.

Probably, the special status of childhood begins to stand out since expanding education for all children, especially the compulsory education: they are children, not adults, their work is to learn, not to do adult jobs. Important are and the social and economic changes linked with the rise of capitalism, when the large families were no longer needed, as in the medieval period, because transmission of the capital by several heirs would have weakened the family business. Sigmund Freud in his explanations about neurosis underscores this economic determination on the social life and on the options procreative families. This is the context in which Romanticism appears, in which families choose to limit the number of births. It is understood that caring for children become more evident. On the other hand it is a natural evolution of expectations regarding quality of life as the society progresses in economic terms.

In the modernity, the childhood is a distinct stage of life. Children are seen as having a proper psychological profile, own activities different by those of adults, their increasing participation by school may be a factor for this change in perception. But saying that in the Middle Ages the carry on children didn't exist or that in the third Christian millennium all children are protected is equally false. Education writings of St. John Chrysostom in the fourth century or Didactic Magna of Jan Amos Comenius (1657) disaffirms the first statement, while statistics on child abuse, child trafficking, child exploitation etc. invalidates the second. Anthony Giddens notes this last paradoxical aspect of modern society: "Because of the long period of childhood that we recognize today, societies are now in some respects more child-centred than traditional ones. But a child -centred society, it must be emphasized, is not one in which all children experience love and care from parents or other adults. The physical and sexual abuse of children is a commonplace feature of family life in present -day society, although the full extent of such abuse has only recently come to light" (Giddens 2009: p. 298).

After a more than a hundred years of child - centred society, we assist today by dilution of the borders between childhood and adulthood, caused by consumerism: children and adults consuming the same products, watching the same TV programs etc. The postmodern fragmentation of the social order is the result of great and rapid economic, social and technological change and the childhood itself was affected by this. The distinction between adults and children was firmly established in modernity, but now, „seems to be blurring”, (Prout 2005: p. 7) so we assist today by deconstructing of the childhood, by a dilution of the borders between childhood and adulthood.

Social constructionism can explain this through the influence of politics, philosophy, economics, and social policy. The most part of sociologists refers to the European child. In reality, even today, in other areas of the world, exist children without the experience of the childhood as we understand in Europe or USA. A lot of children are involved in work, wars, criminality in the same way as the adults.

The concept of childhood differs not only historically but also geographically. The idea of child rights is not universally accepted at this moment and Giddens raises legitimate questions about the possibility of implementing universal of the UNCRC, this document being in fact the start point of the globalization of the Western concept of childhood: "The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) came into force in 1990, setting out the basic rights of all children across the world, which all UN member states have ratified (except the USA and Somalia). The UNCRC defines a

child as anyone under the age of 18, unless nation-states already have an earlier definition. The attempt to universalize the rights of children and definitions of childhood in very different social and economic contexts is a bold one that raises some important issues. Is the UN definition culturally sensitive to different societies, or does it impose Western ideas of children and childhood onto the rest of the world? Can the governments of the developing world really put in place the same safeguards for protecting children's rights that already largely exist in the developed societies? And if they do, will it restrict economic development and effectively restrict the income-generating capacity of the poorest families? For example, in many developing countries, 'street children' earn money for poor families by selling goods, and if states penalize such practices as 'deviant', then how will such families survive?" (Giddens 2009:298).

In a troubling manner, Neil Postman „argued that in the collapse of ancient Rome and the move into the Dark Ages, several things happened that are relevant to the history of childhood: The first is that literacy disappears, the second is that education disappears, the third is that shame disappears. And the fourth, as a consequence of the other three, is that childhood disappears" (Postman apud. Darbyshire 2010: p. 87). Postman considers that the equal access on information is responsible for disappearance of the childhood and advocates that "the maintenance of childhood depended on the principles of managed information and sequential learning", but „electric media find it impossible to withhold any secrets" and that "without secrets ... there can be no such thing as childhood" (Postman apud. Darbyshire 2010: pp. 72, 80)

Depending on what we consider to be the childhood and what is good for the children, we will create the policy to protect them. So, what is childhood today? In the vision of the European Commission, the advantages of being a child today are the next:

- Youth is a time of fun and freedom from responsibility, many now having more opportunities to travel and have chances than in the past.

- Recognition of the support networks of family and friends and appreciation of the financial support provided by a secure family.

- Technology is liberating and providing new opportunities for entertainment, interaction and communication.

- The provision of health services, access to education, increasing well-being and respect from adults is welcome. (EU-DGC 2010: p. 10).

In the same time, the childhood can have disadvantages too: lack of respect by the adult world, pressure to succeed, lack of parental support, external restrictions and influences, peer pressure, addiction and violence (EU-DGC 2010: p. 11). Actually, these are risk factors, not inherent conditions.

The contemporary world produces specific risks for children. A set of new needs of the children are named „emerging needs", because they are actually new contexts in which the children are facing with difficulties. They emerge from contexts as: demographic changes in the structure of the family, in family size, the economical and cultural globalization, the increasing commercialization of lifestyles, use of technologies, exposure by information, the pollution of the environment. (Oudenhoven and Wazir 2006: p. 32). It is necessary to search innovative solutions to meet this newly emerging needs

5. The role of the state

If in traditional societies, with mechanical solidarity (in the sense given by Durkheim), the family is responsible for children, and the relationship between parents and children are inalienable, in the national states, as societies with an organic solidarity, with a great social division of the work, the state intervenes in a lot of social relations, including the parent-child relationship.

In 1884 was formed the London Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, that became five years later the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC), with Queen Victoria as patron. In the same year, 1889, the Children's Charter was passed. This was the first legal measure for the prevention of cruelty to children. It enabled the state to intervene, for the first time, in relations between parents and children. Probably, Charles Dickens (1812–1870) had an important contribution through his work, especially through *Oliver Twist*, to raise the consciousness of the child abuse (Carter 2007: p. 238).

Durkheim says that, normally, “the morals/habits do not oppose to the law, but rather is based on it”. Sometimes, the law are not constructed on the habits, but this must be seen as a pathological cases (Bădescu 2011: p. 115).

Social geography (Frederic Le Play, Edmond Demolins) creates an explanatory structure with three elements: place – family – work and a superimposed stratum, formation, from another population (migration, wars, conquest, trade and combining roads). In this cases appear the composite societies, which are also of two types: organic (based on an intimate weld between the local communities and the superposed societies) and artificial (the two societies remain external to each other) (Bădescu 2011: pp. 115, 132). One of the exponents of this school, Edmond Demolins, writes about bashkirs: The formation of a complex society is generally the product of a meeting between a community formation, established and developed through natural growth and diversification, and a superimposed social formation, that added over the first. Social geography school's idea is that in any process of social composing act two determinisms: one from the bottom to top, organic, natural, and another from up to down, that sometimes, in the case of foreign domination, is inorganic and unnatural artificial. We can see this type of action from the top to the bottom in the area of child protection.

In the twentieth century the role of the state in the welfare of children is increasing, and this area tends to be more a state affair, than the family responsibility. The state intervenes in children's education, health and diet. The idea that families and in particular mothers are not to be trusted to act always in the child's and the nation's best interests became a particular concern in same countries (Clarke 2004: p. 10). Because of that, most part of the EU and UN documents about child protection illustrates this kind of approach, from top to bottom. The agents of the change are the governments, the multilateral organization, international nongovernmental institutions and civil society (Wulczyn et. al 2010: p. 22).

Giddens rises some questions about the consequences of the attempt to universalize the rights of children and definitions of childhood in very different social and economic contexts, fact that is, actually, a manifestation of globalization: „Is the UN definition culturally sensitive to different societies, or does it impose Western ideas of children and childhood onto the rest of the world? Can the governments of the developing world really put in place the same safeguards for protecting children's rights that already largely exist in the developed societies? And if they do, will it restrict economic development and effectively restrict the income-generating capacity of the

poorest families? For example, in many developing countries, 'street children' earn money for poor families by selling goods, and if states penalize such practices as 'deviant', then how will such families survive? These are very difficult questions which are currently being worked out in policy and practice across the world" (Giddens 2009: p. 298).

In my practice as social worker, I have met very poor children who are begging and are going home with what they receive (food or money). Is this a form of child exploitation or a mechanism of surviving? It depends on some circumstances, but sometimes, it is a mechanism of surviving: the brothers of the begging child will remain hungry, if he will not share his gain with them. Some children from rural areas are involved in agricultural activities: feed animals, grow plants. Is this an abuse on the child? It may be in the same situation, but in other ways may not. The social worker, but the policy makers too, must understand the contexts and avoid to look at the child protection legislation in an ideological way.

The voices that criticise the interventionism of the state in individual life are growing, as Howard who reports abnormal, but real situations and appeals to reason and common sense: „Relying on personal beliefs seems old fashioned, like using a horse and buggy. But what's our alternative? Law can't think. Good values and good judgement aren't provable. Zero tolerance, stupid warning labels, paranoid doctors and burnt-out teachers are all symptoms of a legal system that doesn't allow personal belief" (Howard 2010: p. 2016).

Because it is more easier to control individual person, than social processes, we can fall in a dangerous trap: the state cannot all the times to control the social processes and cultural attitudes, it fails to create secure communities, secure schools, secure life, but he can control individuals, parents in this case.

6. The meaning of parenting

The third reality who is involved in the social construction of the child protection is the parenting. The concept of parenting has developed after the 1950 and became more and more visible. It involves a lot of cultural and historical conceptions, values, practices and social relations. Most authors agree that the parenting is a learned behavior, and culturally, social and economic determined (Bornstein 2013).

In every community are beliefs about what is a good parent. In the last century were written hundred of books about parenting. The social workers and the psychologist apply standardized test to put the verdict if someone is or not a good parent.

The role and meaning of parenthood has changed in recent years. „Compared to the past, it is a time- and emotion-expensive enterprise, that parents should find personally fulfilling, yet also one that has increasingly (and ironically) been deemed far too important and difficult to be left up to parents" (Furedi 2002). In the context of debates around "work/life balance", parents can therefore feel as if there is 'never enough time' to parent properly, even though – in the US, at least – they are spending more time than ever with their children (Gauthier et al. 2004). It has developed in time an increasing erosion of the confidence in the parental skills to raise the children. (anxiety, suspicion). The parents themselves doubt their own parenting skills.

Professor Frank Furedi of Kent University, author of „Parents paranoid" stresses that all children today grow up in a healthier environment and safer than they have ever done. Professor Furedi's thesis is that paranoid parents make their children believe that the world is a dangerous place. In fact, most issues of concern which make parents

afraid to not save his children are far looks disproportionate in relation to the current risk of something happening (Eckersleyd 2006: p. 17). Guilty of producing and feeding these fears are the state, the scientists, the childcare experts, the media and the market. In fact they are shaping the existing fears of the parents. The results are fearful parents, a growing erosion of the confidence in the parental skills and an increasing suspicion about any adult-child interactions – a veritable, unhealthy obsession with paedophilia: „Since the turn of the century, mistrust of adult interaction with children has escalated to the point where it has led to a crisis of inter-generational interaction. Suspicion towards adult behaviour is not confined to strangers; increasingly, parenting has become an all-purpose cause for all the evils afflicting society. Month after month, reports blame the parenting deficit for problems such as low achievements in schools, low self-esteem, drug taking, obesity, crime, and mental-health problems (Furedi 2014).

But promoting this paranoid attitude in relation to every aspect of children's lives has serious damage for the socialization of youth, actually has the opposite of what we want for them, explain the known sociologist Frank Furedi: “When youngsters are protected from risks, they miss out on important opportunities to learn sound judgments and build their confidence and resilience. The promotion of suspicion towards adult behaviour seriously undermines the ability of grown-up people to play a constructive role in the socialisation of youngsters. The estrangement of adults from the world of children has the perverse effect of leaving youngsters to their own devices and diminishing their security” (Furedi 2008).

The children are exposed to many social influences: family, school, neighbourhood, community, society. This are shaping the parental attitudes and behaviors too and are affecting the parent's self-esteem and motivational processes. The ecological approach explains the way in wich the parenting is partially the result of this influences. It is important to recognize the value of the social capital, defined by Robert Putnam as “features of organization such as network, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” (Daro and Dodge 2009).

A good definition of the child, parent and state, means equilibrium between limits, rights and responsibilities.

7. Conclusions

All child protection systema must be strenghted, because the epidemiological evidence shows a great number of suffering children and they confront with multiple risks in contemporary world.

In some areas of the world, the children are exposed by structural problems and risk factors. Aiming a child rights approach without a systemic view will results in inadequate support.

The parent-child relationship is shaped by nature and culture. The role of the parents is to love, to grow, to educate and protect the children. It is a relationship with reciprocal benefits.

The role of the state is to intervene when the child is in risk in his own family (because his parents or with them).

It requires a huge attention in defining issues of children's rights, in defining what is a good parent and definig those things necessary for the growth of healthy and happy children. The families, the neighbourhoods and communities have a profound effect on the children and their well-being, and the ecological approach can offer a proper view

on the child protection in his environment. Better child protection needs social consensus. (UNICEF 2008: p. 8).

From the perspective of social geography, the child rights approach can be an aspect of a superimposed stratum/formation, for some areas from East-European countries, than a natural cultural evolution. Due to this fact, focusing only on the child rights is inefficient. A more appropriate approach will include not only the child, also the family and the community, and will address to the deeper causes of the violation of child rights.

Child rights approach concentrates on the child as an individual with an independent relation to the State, rather than seeing the child only as part of the family, and puts children's rights above parents' rights and emphasises parents' obligations as caregivers (Bajpai 2012: p.31)

It is necessary to create the frame for consulting parents about what is need to respect the children's rights, to promote the children's well-being.

EU regulations are centered on an authoritarian state role in parent child relationship. It would have recommended a great discernment and a holistic approach to raising children, more centered on family and community. Wellbeing of the families and communities will be reflected in the quality of life of the children.

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What kind of a public administration for Turkey

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Abstract

There is a need for a different understanding and implementation of public administration not only in Turkey but in the world in general due to recent transformations that have been shaping the field of public administration and public policy, including but not limited to, globalization, democratization, marketization, decentralization, economic crises, immigration, diversifying and increasing needs and demands. Discussing the future of public administration requires taking a stock of the current status of public administration and a more detailed account of the recent developments and trends in the field of public administration. It is widely acknowledged that there is a trend from the classical public administration to the New Public Management (the NPM) and to the New Public Governance with important consequences for the understanding, implementation and reform of public administration and public policies, and this trend deserves to be taken into consideration in a discussion on the future of public administration. Accordingly, this paper presents a brief theoretical and conceptual background on public administration and trends in the field of public administration. Then, the current status of the public administration, and a brief overview of the dynamics of change and reforms in the public administration and policies in Turkey are discussed. The paper further questions the meaning of the reforms and developments for the future of the public administration and policies in Turkey.

Keywords: *public administration; public policy; reforms; New Public Management; New Public Governance.*

1. Introduction

Turkey, as many other countries, has gone through major shifts in terms of its administrative structure and public policies since the 1980s. Many different factors have had an impact on the direction of these shifts. These factors include, but not limited to, globalization, democratization, marketization, decentralization, Turkey's EU accession process, continuing high foreign trade deficits, economic crises, urbanization, highly urbanized population with diversifying and increasing needs and demands, Kurdish issue, regional conflicts, the Arabian Spring and immigration. Besides, it is generally acknowledged that neoliberal wave, the New Public Management (the NPM) paradigm and the principles of free market, competition, entrepreneurship, efficiency, transparency, accountability etc. have had an important impact on the understanding and implementation of public administration (PA) and policies, and the direction of changes

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and reforms in the public administration system and public policies in Turkey. Yet, there has always been a hot debate on the compatibility of the NPM paradigm and its principles with the basic principles and methods of public administration.

This paper firstly presents a brief theoretical and conceptual backdrop on, and discusses the current status of the public administration in Turkey. Secondly, a brief overview of the dynamics of change and reforms in public administration and policies, and the possible future directions are evaluated. Thirdly, the paper attempts to entertain the question of what such reforms and developments tell us about the prospects of the public administration and policies. In other words, what kind of a public administration we should expect or long for in the near future in Turkey with implications for the organization of public administration, public policy and the study of public administration is inquired in the paper.

2. Theoretical background on trends in public administration

Okcu (2013) asserts that it is doubtful if the public administration has had its own unique identity in Turkey. Yet, it is quite obvious that neoliberal view and the New Public Management (NPM) had an important impact on the understanding and implementation of public administration in Turkey (Güler 2004; Kickert 1997; Miller 2012; Okcu 2012; Övgün 2009: p. 23). Hood (1991: p. 3) defined the NPM as “one of the most striking international trends in public administration” during the early 1990s. Privatization wave since the 1980s has focused on the adoption of the practices or values of private sector by the public sector (such as imperative of self-interest, value of competition, sanctity of the market, and respect for the entrepreneurial spirit). The supporters of the NPM paradigm argue that many people today do not trust public administration and are not satisfied by its services because it does not operate like a business. According to this approach, public administration could increase trust and efficiency by applying new liberal values in public administration. Thus, there is a focus on business management techniques and tools with a customer-oriented approach based on efficiency and administration-politics dichotomy (Cepiku 2013: p. 17).

However, there has always been a heated debate on the compatibility of the NPM approach with the basic principles and methods of public administration. Farmer (2010) acknowledges that the NPM “has made admirable contributions to the field” but public administration is concerned with more than business matters. Hence, there is a need for more perspectives in the field of public administration and for a new paradigm on public administration centered especially on governance capabilities (Frederickson 1997; Kooiman and van Vliet 1993; Rhodes 1997). Similarly, Barth (1996) argues that autocratic management styles have to be changed to more participative, bottom-up styles; and that governance may offer new solutions and flexibility in this respect.

The democratic governance approach asserts that people do not trust government because they do not see public administration as being responsive to their needs, accessible, open to participation, transparent, accountable and ethical. To restore the confidence of citizens in public administration, public institutions must be more responsive, participative and collaborative (Denhardt 1999: p. 287; Cepiku 2013: p. 20). For instance, Ostrom (2008: p. 115) argued that public administration ought to focus on “diversity, variety, and responsiveness to the preferences of the constituents.” Besides, Frederickson (1997: p. 107) believes that public benefit, the equal distribution of public services, social justice and equality of opportunity are some of the basic principles guiding the policies and actions of public administration. Public administration also has

to be attentive to the needs of the underrepresented or disadvantaged groups and minorities. Providing the necessary services to the public is one of the primary goals for the public sector (Frederickson 1997: pp. 87-88).

Borgonovi (2002, cited in Cepiku 2013: p. 14) identifies a change in the understanding and implementation of public administration. This is a change from the classical public administration to the new public management (NPM) with a neo-liberal market orientation, and now to a new public (democratic) governance (NPG) with the new conceptions of an active public leadership, participation, self-organization and management and public service as well as a complex view of an intertwined world involving multiple private and civic actors and the public (Cepiku 2013: p. 11; Frederickson 2007). Similarly, in Rhodes's (2000a) definition of the NPG, the central role played by networks is underlined and interdependent public and private organizations are considered to collaborate and exchange different kinds of resources and share objectives.

In the traditional public administration paradigm, decision-making authority is top-down, commonly exercised in a hierarchical command and control structure, and legitimized by formal institutional rules. The NPG model consists of formal and informal exercise of authority and collaboration, with the aim of building consensus on specific decisions in an open system. Not compulsory requirements but incentives and conditions determine the behavior of multiple actors. In addition, the traditional politics-administration dichotomy or the democracy-bureaucracy dichotomy is questioned. Bureaucracy and democracy may be incompatible because the former encourages "calculative inhumanity, technological efficiency, subordination of the individual to the agency, and nonparticipation" (Farmer 2010: p. 71). The NPG model involves a higher emphasis on democracy, democratic ideals and citizen involvement, and the utilization of a policy approach, political philosophy, politics etc. in public administration.

Governance is, in general, identified with the process of "hollowing out of the state" in a glocal world in which the power and functions of the state is delegated upward to international institutions and to the global market; and downward vertically to local and regional governments through decentralization, intergovernmental contracting etc., on the one hand (Cepiku 2013: p. 7; Jessop 2004). On the other hand, the power and functions of the central government are dispersed horizontally to regulatory authorities and executive agencies, and to the market, private and civic sectors through intergovernmental contracting, contracting out or out-sourcing, collaboration and public-private partnerships (PPPs) (Frederickson 2007 and 1997; Gül and Özgür 2004). In the new public governance approach (NPG), networks and public administration play a central role. Besides, autonomous but interdependent public, civic and private organizations exchange different kinds of resources and share objectives in the process of the NPG (Cepiku 2013: pp. 7-8; Rhodes 2000b). In the NPG, public administration is seen to have "the legitimacy and strategic role necessary to steer and coordinate networks and governance process" (Cepiku 2013). Morçöl (2013) points out that governance is inevitable. Yet, democratic governance (and free, pluralist and participative democracy) is not. It requires an intentional and serious effort to achieve because pluralist societies are always harder to govern than to manage homogeneous ones. In a free and open society, there are conflicts of interests in a framework of shared purposes, and all kinds of people can pursue their various visions of the common good. Therefore, the new debate and reform efforts have to focus on "public responsibilities" and speak in a language of ethics, citizenship, the public interest, democratic

participation, deliberation, public leadership, expertise, justice, equity and fair access to public services (Denhardt 1999: pp. 282-284). And, in this process, public administration and public administrators have or should have a leading, steering and motivating role.

This paper focuses on the recent changes and, thus, there is not much discussion on the classical model of public administration. Yet, a concise presentation of the paradigm shift in public administration from the classical public administration to the NPG is presented in Table 1.

Table no. 1. Shift in public administration paradigms

Classical Public Administration	The NPM	The NPG
Focus on bureaucratic rules & power	Focus on market tools / values & productivity	Focus on governance & the market
Public/bureaucratic interest	Customer orientation & self-interest	Policy orientation, networking & common good
Bureaucratic administrator	Entrepreneur manager	Steering/sharing leader
Efficiency, effectiveness, economy & coordination	Efficiency, effectiveness, economy & coordination	Efficiency, effectiveness, economy, accessibility & collaboration
Equality, standardization, neutrality & predictability	Competitiveness, choice & flexibility	Equity, fairness, participation, diversity & complexity
Top-down hierarchical command & control	Top-down business-like operation	Participative decision making & networking
Employees subordinated to the agency	Productive and self-interested employees	Empowered and participating employees
Administration-politics dichotomy	Administration-politics dichotomy	Responsiveness, governance & need for politics in PA

3. How to study changes and reforms in public administration

Okcu (2013: p. 2) maintains that it is questionable if a majority of researchers and practitioners in the field of public administration recognize the clear need for or are in need of a search for “a different public administration.” He believes that it is necessary and possible to develop a new and different understanding of public administration in Turkey, and gets into a retrospective (historical) and introspective (contemporary) discussion on public administration. Yet, he leaves aside a prospective (futuristic or predictive) discussion on public administration (Okcu 2013: p. 2). The main goals of this study are to contribute to the debate on and to discuss some implications for the future of public administration specifically in Turkey on the base of the recent national and global socioeconomic, political and technological changes as well as the current characteristics of Turkish public administration.

The main rationale behind the study of the future of public administration is that an inspection of the possible reflection of what happened in the past or what happens today is needed in order to study the future or to make prediction about the future, on the one hand. On the other hand, studying the future is needed because what happens today is

the reflection of the imposition of the future (as well as the past) on the present. Besides, today is shaped by the future expectations, wishes and intentions. In March and Olsen's words (1995: pp. 10-11), "The basic idea is that expectations about the future and experiences of the past are efficient in converting environmental requirements into institutional forms and practices... The resulting indeterminacy in outcomes within a particular (present) environmental context provides a possible role for deliberate political action."

In order to make an attempt at predicting the future of public administration, one needs to take a more detailed account of the recent developments and trends (the past and today). Denhardt (1999: p. 285) asks three basic questions that would help to predict the characteristics of the future public administration, and searches answers to these 3 questions. Thus, there are frequent references to Denhardt's views about the future of public administration in this paper. The questions Denhardt asks are as below:

- What will public administrators need to know? (Knowledge based decisions-policies)
- What will public administrators need to be able to do? (Competences, skills...)
- What attitudes and values should they possess?

In addition to a need to search for answers to these three questions, it is also important to take stock of the major changes and factors shaping the current status of public administration in order to be able to say something about the future of public administration. As presented in Table 1 above, there has been a trend in public administration from the classical public administration to the NPM and to the NPG. In this trend, the market had been taken as the basic driver of change in public administration in the 1980s and 1990s. As Baimyrzaeva (2012) and Güler (2004: p. 27) state, in the 1980s the market was taken as the new basic driver of change in the public sector, but starting in the 1990s, the efforts have concentrated on improving competitiveness in the market and the capacity of the public administration or the state as the facilitator of good governance as the market has still continued to be the driving force. The role of public administration is now seen as more of a facilitator in the society, market, management and policy making process.

One of the major factors and dynamics shaping the current status of public administration and the basic driving force for the reforms in Turkey is the accession process to the European Union (EU). The European Council announced Turkey as a candidate country for the EU membership in 1999 and approved the opening of accession negotiations between the European Union and Turkey in 2004. According to the EU rules, candidate countries have to meet the economic and financial standards (Maastricht or convergence/market criteria) and Copenhagen (accession/democratic) criteria. These criteria involve principles related to a free-market economy and the euro zone, a stable democracy, the rule of law, human rights, and the acceptance of all EU legislation. Besides, being a rapidly urbanizing, developing and changing country located astride two continents and at the crossroads of the geopolitically conflict-ridden regions of the Balkans, the Caucasus and the Middle East is another factor that influences the status of the public administration in Turkey. Today, crisis and immigration management have become the major issues and challenges for Turkish public administration, especially after becoming host to almost three million asylum-seekers fled to Turkey after the Arabian Spring uprisings in Syria.

Even though having a globally integrated, technologically advanced and market-driven economy in the G-20 major world economies, Turkey has a patch-work constitution prepared and enacted under the Military regime in 1982. Almost twenty amendments have been made in the 1982 constitution, but a need for a new constitution based on developed democratic principles, the rule of law and human rights as well as an effective, efficient and participative political and administrative system continues to exist. However, a strong, paternalist and centralized state and administrative structure established by the 1982 constitution as opposed to a weak civil society constitutes a major problem. Turkish democracy is handicapped by this strong centralist state tradition, causing paternalism and authoritarianism while repressing civil society, pluralism, and independent voices (Cizre-Sakallıoğlu and Yeldan 2000: p. 482; Gül and Kiriş 2015: p. 26; Heper and Keyman 1998: p. 266; Kubicek 2002: p. 4). The democracy index prepared by Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) indicates a deterioration for Turkish democracy since Turkey ranks the 97th out of 167 countries in 2015 in the world down from the 88th in 2010 (EIU 2015). Besides, continuing pressures from the current AKP government for an amendment in the 1982 Constitution to change the current parliamentary democracy into a presidential system may bring about a further empowered and authoritarian executive branch. Moreover, there are deficiencies in the functioning of auditing mechanisms, political interference in the judicial system and poor performance in protecting the freedoms of expression, assembly and press (WJP 2012: p. 39). Furthermore, the underrepresentation of women in politics and administrative ranks continues to pose a threat to the goal of developing a better serving, representative and diverse public administration.

The list could be enlarged and more factors could be added to this list to consider in defining the current status of the public administration or predicting the future of public administration in Turkey. The enlarged picture is presented in the Table 2 below, and a list of national and international developments and trends; changes and reforms; and shortcomings and needs for further reforms in Turkish public administration are provided.

Table no. 2. Recent developments, reforms and shortcomings in Turkish public administration

Global / national developments	Responses by Turkish public administration	Shortcomings / reform needs in Turkish public administration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Technological changes - Faster and easier access to information - Increased use of social media 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased use of technology - E-government - Reduced red-tape - Increased speed in service delivery - Increased transparency and accountability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Need for democratic governance & participation - Need for enhancing individual freedoms and empowering employees - Need for more transparency and accountability
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increasing globalization and interconnectedness of business, politics & culture - Increased human 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Marketization - Privatization - Competitiveness - Establishment of autonomous regulatory bodies - Accession to the European 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Need for merit & better collaboration - Unproportional private sector influence but need for public participation & responsiveness - Need to recognize complexity &

rights/environmental concerns	Union (which has been taken as an anchor for political, legal economic & financial reforms in Turkey)	diversity
- Post-Fordist economies		- Need to comply with the Convention of Human Rights, Maastricht (market convergence) and Copenhagen (democratic) criteria
- Blurred lines among civic, public & private sectors	- Local administration and governance reforms	- Need for better & shared leadership
- More complexity and rapid change	- Recentralization at the local level (i.e., the new provincial metropolitan municipalities)	- Need for more avenues for civic involvement
- Decentralization	- Establishment of ombudsman	- Need for genuine local autonomy
- Democratization	- Increased leadership (powerful metropolitan mayors, vice ministers)	- Need for the representation of the disadvantaged & general public in public policy process
- Search for effective leadership	- Redesigned state/market/society relations	- Need to curb political influence over the Judiciary and media blackouts
	- Political control of bureaucracy & the army	- Need to establish the rule of law & accountability
	- Increased private sector & NGOs involvement & collaboration (PPPs)	- Need to stop influx of asylum-seekers
- Increased education & diversity in society and workforce	- Increased control and authoritarianism	- Flawed democracy
- Continuing migration / immigration	- Increased politization	- Over-responsiveness to needs & values of the majority & private sector
- Syrian influx of asylum-seekers	- Increased professionalism	- Need for better representation & responsiveness
- High ethnic consciousness	- Turkey-the EU deal on the return of asylum-seekers to Turkey	- Need for enhanced protection of individual rights & employee empowerment
		- New constitution
		- Need for better international collaboration to solve refugee crisis

4. Some Major State and administrative reforms and continuing need for further reforms or for the reforms of the reforms in Turkey

The major public administration reforms were launched at the end of the 1990s and during the early 2000s. The AKP governments, first established at the end of 2002, continued the reforms with an increasing pace. The first wave of the reforms had the goals of restructuring public administration, the relations of the central and local administrations as well as the state, market and society; establishing economic and political stability; and shrinking the role of the state and introducing market mechanisms and principles into the public sector. Accordingly, the responsibilities and powers of the local administrations were expanded, and the central government's power and influence over local administrations were limited. Similarly, more opportunities were provided for public and civic organizations to involve in local decision making process and to be represented in the city council and local commissions. The local

administrations were handed over more active role in local and regional economic development initiatives to develop and implement their own projects in accordance with the directions, principles and standards set by the central administration.

Another major reform area involved the legal and judicial structure, which was seen as necessary to achieve compatibility with the European (Copenhagen) democratic principles and norms. The 1982 Constitution were amended to improve basic rights and freedoms, democratization, the rule of law, the principles of the market and privatization, which all also helped to meet the preconditions of the EU accession process (Özbudun, 2007: 180-195). Besides, the state security courts and the special-authority courts were abolished. Moreover, the Constitutional Court is assigned the new duty by the 2010 constitutional amendments to decide about individual appeals of human rights disputes before persons plead the case to the European Court of Human Rights. Similarly, the 2010 constitutional amendments establish an ombudsman system in order to provide confidential and impartial assistance in mediating and resolving complaints and disputes between individuals and the public administration.

Structural market reforms promoted by the international organizations have been also put into effect by the governments in the 1990s and the 2000s. These reforms have helped to develop properly functioning markets without being interfered by the governments (such as the establishment of autonomous regulatory bodies), and to increase efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability in the public sector. The new laws have been enacted or the existing laws have been amended to provide for the prevention of unfair competition, the use of international arbitration in global investment and commercial disputes, the establishment of sufficient mechanisms and penalties to protect consumers, and the right for civil servants to membership in trade unions and to collective bargaining without a right to strike. In addition, the laws on public procurement, public financial management and control, and access to information were enacted in 2002, 2003 and 2005 respectively in order to ensure competition, transparency, accountability and efficiency in the process of public finance and procurement, and to provide access to the information about administrative decisions and actions. Moreover, there were reforms in the areas of health services and social security and public sector employment, making it easier to use market mechanisms and providers in the delivery of public services, and to hire temporary and part-time personnel on contract. Furthermore, a comprehensive strategy for establishing an e-government system as e-Transformation Turkey Project was adopted to coordinate information society activities (Gül and Kiriş 2015: pp. 45-47).

Despite important reforms and improvements in the state and administrative system in Turkey, there has been a slowdown in the speed of and a change in the contents of the administrative and democratic reforms since 2011, when a general election was held. Before this election, the AKP government had passed some laws, centralizing some of the ministries and taking back some of the powers previously transferred to the local administrations. For example, the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization is given more discretionary and preemptive powers to regulate and use municipal lands, bringing about a more centralized, top-to-bottom, less participatory and transparent administrative structure, which in turn has increased corruption, patronage and clientelism. Much the same way, the new province-wide metropolitan municipalities established by the 2012 law numbered 6360 recentralized the local administration system in the provinces by consolidating many small municipalities,

villages and provincial special administrations. There is now an initiative of the current AKP government to reform the 2012 metropolitan municipality reform.

Another recent tendency is that the AKP governments have also become more concerned with the Islamization of educational, cultural, and social life on the base of Sunni Islamist values. Thus, the number of elective religious courses in all secondary and high schools are increased. Even though the courses are elective, all students are deliberately and eloquently encouraged to take these courses as if they were compulsory. Similarly, all the students who are not enrolled in regular schools are redirected to religious schools.

A further issue is the current President's and AKP government's insistence on a presidential system despite already very strong executive branch and the heavy control of the government over the judiciary and bureaucracy. Besides, the recent influx of asylum-seekers from Syria and other Middle-East countries, increased ISIS and PKK terror threats, among others, are used a rationale for stronger leadership in the form a Turkish style presidential system. However, this insistence on a presidential system causes concerns about the probability of increased leanings towards a majoritarian and authoritarian and even totalitarian political system in Turkey. For example, the Human Rights Association asserts that the new law on new security pack enacted in 2015 creates a fear of police state because of an increased discretion of and protections for the police, increased punishment for terror related crimes etc. Besides, the emphasis on ethnic and religious aspects may result in a resurgence of extreme manifestations of religious and ethnic primacy in social life and separatist and religious movements. The probability of such threats is higher now due to the influx of refugees from such countries as Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan.

There are also some shortcomings in the implementation of previous reforms and the understanding of democracy, such as flawed democracy, corruption, human rights abuses especially in the areas of the freedom of press, speech and assembly, inadequate levels of participation in public policy making processes, recentralization created by the new province-based metropolitan municipality system, and fair competition, impartiality and merit in public procurement and employment, among others. Especially since 2011 the strong state tradition and centralism seem to have revived due to the AKP government's lure for stronger executive branch and political influence over the judiciary and bureaucracy, low levels of civic democratic culture and participation, and relatively weak democratic structure of political parties. These reasons accompanied by continuing dominance of the center over the local and regional administrations and the recentralization created by the provincial metropolitan municipalities in the local administration system in Turkey have limited the success of the reforms. Therefore, the necessity for reducing extreme centralization and bureaucratization of the state and administration structure, and the need for the reform of some recent reforms continues in Turkey. The creation and implementation of real and functional participatory, pluralistic and democratic governance processes and mechanisms at the national, regional and local levels are still needed. Yet, the central government has grown hesitant especially since 2011 to devolve its powers (especially financial) down to local and regional administrations and civic organizations.

Another important group of the shortcomings is related to legal and constitutional structure. The 2010 amendments to the 1982 Constitution provided the government with the power to appoint several members in the Constitutional Court, the Supreme Court of Appeals, and the State Council. In addition, the Ministry of Justice is still the president

in the Supreme Council of Judges and Public Prosecutors (HSYK), a body with administrative, auditing, and disciplinary power over judges and public prosecutors after they are appointed. These specific provisions have increased the influence of the government over the judicial system, which is supposed to function according to the principles of the independence of the courts and the security of tenure of judges.

A final shortcoming relates to the Kurdish problem, PKK terrorism and the conflicts between the state and the PKK, which resurged after the 7 June 2015 elections. This resurgence has led to the erosion of the gains achieved through the Kurdish opening between 2013 and 2015, and a security-based approach has been once again resorted to solve the Kurdish problem. Aydın and Keyman (2004: pp. 34-35) state that the security-based policies had led to serious human rights abuses in the 1990s. Therefore, the recent escalation of the conflicts between the state and the PKK and returning back to the security-based policies have increased the tensions and mistrust between the state and the people in the region, and concerns about the possibility of a solid solution to the Kurdish problem.

5. Conclusion: A discussion on the future of public administration

The recent state and administrative reforms before 2011 defined new parameters for the state and public administration in Turkey mostly within the framework of governance. These reforms had helped to reorganize the powers and functions of the central government and local administrations, and of the state, market and society. The local administration reforms until 2011 had expanded the responsibilities and powers of local administrations and clarified the limits of central government's power and influence over local administrations. They helped to decentralize the centralist system by establishing some local participative decision and policy making processes and mechanisms and by devolving some powers and responsibilities down to the local and regional administrations. Another major characteristic of these reforms is that they have introduced market principles into service provision processes in the public sector such as privatization, outsourcing and performance.

However, the understanding of a prospective public administration for Turkey or the World should dwell upon the development of more participative and pluralistic mechanisms of democratic governance and shared and steering public leadership and continuous leadership education. Public managers cannot be leaders as long as they serve their self-interest, group interests, political interests, etc. Public leadership involves serving the public in the public interest, diminishing polarization, teaching diversity, and building community with a focus on democratic participation and common good. It is also about building networks of varied interests through collaboration that can work effectively to develop policies, solve public problems; and establish future directions for the community. Thus, focus should be on greater principles guiding public administration and public policy such as common good, equality of opportunity, justice, freedom, responsiveness, participation etc. Miller (2012: p. 19) underlines the importance of addressing complex social problems and questions of "greater principles" such as equality of opportunity, freedom and responsiveness above the "dull level of mere technical detail" of government or "business" of public administration. However, there are hardly any research on the implementation outcomes of the NPG model and leadership in the public sector. And

only a small number of empirical studies address the wider issue of meta-governance (or meta-steering) (Cepiku 2013: p. 12).¹

The future of public administration and success in public administration require that public officials need to play simply more than a service delivery role, perfect compliance to rules and regulations, or excellent obedience to the superior or commander managerial command and control role based on formal power and position. They need to exert more leadership, which will require better communication, negotiation, conciliation, mediation, networking, steering, coordination and collaboration capacity (Denhardt, 1999: 287, 288, 291; Cepiku 2013: p. 20). Thus, there is a need to rebuild a bottom-up approach, teamwork and a system of shared public leadership and governance. Public leaders must have a commitment to the idea of public service, motivated by their will to make a difference and inspired by their vision of a better future for all; and to a view of public administration as a moral and ethical undertaking directly related to the maintenance and expansion of democratic citizenship (Denhardt 1999: p. 290). The job of the new public leader or manager involves creating opportunities for constructive dissent, preserving diversity and innovative climate and providing opportunities for diverse groups to share in building community and in establishing future directions for the community. Public administrators should promote active citizenship and the public interest; focus on the environment of the public sector and interactions; and develop more democratic forms and mechanisms of decision making and participation (Denhardt 1999: pp. 284-289).

The future of public administration is also closely associated with the use of new perspectives/methods in public administration education and with better educated graduates. There is a need for multi-disciplinary/pluralist approach, taking into account ongoing changes and international developments, student and sectoral demands, and the increased importance of interdisciplinary studies, quality and ethics. Those involved in the study and practice of public administration education should attend to the integration of theory and practice, reflection and action, the university and the community.

Farmer (2010) argues that there are more than one best way to approach public administration theory and practice, and advocates for the inclusion of important, but systematically ignored, theoretical perspectives from other disciplines (such as political science, economics, political economy, moral philosophy, sociology, civil society, business administration, social work and beyond) in the study of public administration. Instead of relying on the theoretical and practical guidance from a single discipline, epistemic pluralism would provide a framework for approaching public administration from multiple perspectives. Such a multidisciplinary approach would serve to guide public administration scholars and practitioners to pursue lines of inquiry and plans of action that are relevant, well-reasoned, inclusive, equitable, legitimate, politically feasible, ethical, and creative. Besides, it would provide more and better applicable data, theories, techniques and insights from an array of non-public administration disciplines (Farmer 2010: p. 164).

An enhanced understanding of democracy and democratic governance to involve the public as well as respecting and managing diversity should also be an integral part of the future of public administration (Denhardt 1999: p. 289). Besides, functional

¹ A recent study is done to measure the performance of the hollowed out state by Frederickson and Frederickson (2006).

organizational competence; the strong establishment of the rule of law, local capacity building, local autonomy are important principles that will shape and, in fact, are already shaping the future of public administration. Moreover, there is a need to establish a third way beyond the love and hate of the market or the state and to increase the involvement of the NGOs and civic organizations (i.e. unions, chambers, think tanks etc.) in policy development and implementation with a goal to foster common good, collaboration, accessibility, fairness, equality of opportunity, solidarity, democratic governance, responsiveness, efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and transparency. Furthermore, the success of the prospective public administration will require policy development and evaluation on the bases of better follow up of policy implementation and robust data.

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Diplomatic, cultural and political relations between Romania and Italy (1956-1959)

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Abstract

The period between 1956 and 1959 was one of many changes not only in Romania, but also in Europe. The two ideologies, communism and capitalism were in the middle of their cold confrontation. In the Iron Curtain zone the changes are not welcomed by the Soviet Union which doesn't allow any deviation from their strict ideology. The Hungarian Revolution from 1956 is stewed in blood as any attempt to become independent from Moscow. Nevertheless countries like Romania, Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia are becoming more and more independent from the USSR. In 1958 Romania succeeded to free itself from the soviet army which redraw outside its frontiers. In the meanwhile, the diplomatic relations between Romania, a communist country, and Italy, a capitalist one, will continue to be strained. However, at cultural level and even diplomatic level the relations will continue to exist even if they will have a sinuous route. They will become more tide after 1968 when Romania will turn towards the Occident by not interfering in the Prague Spring along with the other members of the Warsaw Treaty.

Keywords: *international relations; Romania; Italy; cultural relations; diplomatic and political relations; 1956-1959.*

1. Introduction

The period between 1956 and 1959 was one of many changes not only in Romania, but also in Europe (Carpentier and Lebrun 1997: p. 11). The two ideologies, communism and capitalism were in the middle of their cold confrontation (Gaddis 2009: p.15). Nevertheless the diplomatic relations between Romania and Italy (Guichonnet 2002: p. 10) were still on normal levels. The two countries were working in to developing straight economical and cultural relations while the diplomatic and political ones were cold because of the two different systems they were in.

Their common Latin origins and moreover their share of common history in certain periods such as the 1848 revolution (Procacci 1975: p. 328), 1859 – the beginning of their official diplomatic relations (Șerban 2013: p. 7) - or the Italian unity in 1970 (Stiles 1998: p. 112) kept their diplomatic and political relations at a normal level stressing more on the cultural and economical ones.

During the cold war period (Harbutt 2002: p. 14), technically the two countries were on opposite sides, but nevertheless it didn't exist between them an open political or diplomatic conflict.

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2. Diplomatic, cultural and political relations between Romania and Italy (1956)

On 22th of February 1956, the sub secretary of the Italian Foreign Ministry, Badini Confalonieri received Petre Iofif, the Romanian foreign ministry, to discuss economical and cultural relations between Romania and Italy and their future development. They also discuss about the Italian parliamentary delegation that would visit the Romanian Parliament following an invitation of the last one from 1955 (RFMDA 1956: p.1).

Earlier that month a delegation of the Ministry of Industry visited chemical factories in Italy and looked for offers for chemical hardware for Romanian industry. At the end of February 1956 a Romanian delegation of the syndicalist movement participated in Rome to the Congress of the Confederation of Labor from Italy (RFMDA 1956: p.1).

Also, the Italian Legation in Bucharest invited our government to participate various events held in Italy such as the International Exposition of Artisanal workers (Florence, April-May 1956), International horse contest (Rome, April-May 1956) or the Congress of the Italian Growers (Padua, March 1956). At cultural level, the Milano library started a publication exchange with different academic institutions from Romania (RFMDA 1956: p.2).

Regarding the interpellation of the socialist deputy Mario Belinguer, president of the Italian-Romanian Association, referring the economical relations between the two countries, the sub secretary of the Foreign Ministry Folchi answered that the commercial exchanges between Romania and Italy increased lately while the cultural ones are starting to revive although the cultural agreement between Romania and Italy was denounced by the first one (RFMDA 1956: p.2).

Trying to revival the cultural relations between Romania and Italy, Romania participated to the International Art Exposition in Venice (June - October 1956), the Milano Fare (April 1956) and to the International Exposition of Artisanal workers (Florence, April-May 1956) (RFMDA 1956: p.2).

On 16 of March 1956, at the House of the Architect in Bucharest was held the exposition entitled "Photographs from Italy", containing photos of the most important monuments from Rome, Florence and Pisa made by Pompiliu Macovei. The Italian Legation from Bucharest was represented at the event (RFMDA 1956: p.2).

Also in March 1956 the Italian Legation asked the Romanian Foreign Ministry if it would be possible to expose and sell the Luigi Pirandello's works in Romania (RFMDA 1956: p.2).

In September 1956, the Romanian Foreign Ministry comes with a proposal for tiding the cultural relations between Romania and Italy. The proposal was referring to a Romanian architectural exposition, a tour of a Romanian folk band and of some Romanian singers, bandmasters and lecturers. The Italian part would come with its own proposals. There should also be some manifestations occasioned by Ovid's bi-millenary in Romania and the Italian part should be co-organizers. The manifestations would have the following program: launching an international contest among Latin countries for the best poetry dedicated to Ovid; a Romanian – Italian co-production film regarding the manifestations; launching the "Ovid scholarship" program for Romanian and Italian students that major's in Romanian and Italian language (RFMDA 1956: p.3).

3. Diplomatic, cultural and political relations between Romania and Italy (1957)

Regarding the proposal of the Romanian Foreign Ministry, Romania would participate at the Goldoni international festival in Venice with a formation of Romanian actors (RFMDA 1957: p.3).

The proposal provides also an Italian book show organized in Romania and the Italian counter-part should provide the necessary material (RFMDA 1957: p.3).

Another proposal was a tour of the Milano “Piccolo Teatro” in Romania and an exchange of singers, bandmasters and lecturers and also scientific and technic exchanges (RFMDA 1957: p.4).

In 1957 the commercial relations between Romania and Italy indicated a 10% growth as supposed 1956 rising at 20 millions us dollars (RFMDA 1957: p.4).

The political relations were held back a little and the Romanian authorities blamed the Italian relations with USA and the Vatican for that (RFMDA 1957: p.5).

The cultural relations between Romania and Italy were very tide in 1957 as the Ovid’s manifestations were organized and a cultural delegation from Italy attended (RFMDA 1957: p.5).

4. Diplomatic, cultural and political relations between Romania and Italy (1958)

For even more tied rations with Italy, the Romanian Foreign Ministry proposed for the year 1958 the following:

For the political relations:

- a tidier relations with the Italian parliament members concluded in an inter-parliamentary delegations exchange;
- to send an important delegation at the Ovid’s manifestations in Italy in order to establish contacts with important cultural and scientific personalities;
- to engage some visits of Italian and Romanian mayors and local representatives;
- to invite political and cultural personalities such as: prof. G. Leone – president of the Deputy Chamber; the engineer E. Mattei – the president of E.N.I; prof. Raffaele Ceasca – the president of the Italian Senate Commission for Education and Arts to visit our country;
- to invite to visit our country the directors of the publications ‘La Stampa’ and ‘Il Globo’;
- to reopen the Romanian consulate in Milan and the Italian consulate in Constanta (RFMDA 1958: p.5-6).

For the commercial and technical relations:

- to buy from E.N.I. a petrol processing installation;
- to participate with specialist delegations at the International fare in Milan, the International Mediterranean fare in Palermo, the International Levant samples fare in Bari;
- to send delegations or observatory at the most important congresses and technical expositions such as the ones organized in Rome, Parma, Torino, Piacenza or Busto Arsizio;
- to invite in Romania Italian scientific personalities such as prof. G. Centola, prof. Padovani, engineer F. Wiskeman etc.;

- to send in Italy a delegation of specialist in agriculture and one for an intership at E.N.I.
- to study the possibility of opening a Romanian – Italian Commerce Chamber (RFMDA 1958: p.6).

For the Cultural and scientific relations:

- to continue our efforts in obtaining a copy of Trajan's Column;
- to organize a book exposition in Rome and Bucharest;
- to start a collaboration with the Italian Art Gallery from Milan and organize some joint expositions;
- the Romanian Academy and the universities should invite up to ten personalities to lecture in Romania;
- to organize in Romania "Giacomo Puccini week" to celebrate a centenary from its birth;
- to start exchanges between Romanian and Italian universities;
- to participate at the Italian cultural manifestations held this year;
- to convince Italian cultural personalities to build Romanian libraries or cultural houses named after Romanian personalities such as Nicolae Balcescu or Nicolae Iorga;
- to try to build a statue of Nicolae Balcescu in Palermo (RFMDA 1958: p.7).

As a result of the Romanian Foreign Ministry proposals, between 1956 an 1958 there were numerous cultural activities organized in collaboration with Italy:

Romanian cultural manifestations in Italy:

- a big Romanian popular art exposition organized in Rome, Bologna, Milan and Florence (1956-1957);
- participation of 6 plastic artists in Bi-annual Congress in Venice in 1956;
- the participation of the National Theatre "I.L. Caragiale" at the Goldoni Festival in Venice (1957);
- the participation at the tri-annual of decorative art and architecture in Milan (1957);
- the participation of numerous Romanian personalities such as acad. Iorgu Iordan, Al. Rosetti, Constantin Daicoviciu etc., at numerous lectures in Italy;
- granting by the Italian Mathematical Institute from Rome of 3 scholarships to Romanian specialists (1958);
- the participation of the Romanian Foreign Ministry at the celebration of Ovid's bi-millenary in march 1958;
- the participation of a Romanian folk group at the Agrigento Festival in 1958;
- the concerts of the bandmaster G. Georgescu and the pianist V. Gheorghiu in Florence (1958) (RFMDA 1959: p.8).

Italian cultural manifestation in Romania:

- the concerts of Italian bandmasters Zecchi and Mainardi (1956);
- the Italian film festival (1956);
- the photographic exposition "Aspects from Italy" and the exposition "Leonardo da Vinci"(1956);
- the participation of Italian scientists at the Mathematician's Congress and Medical Sciences Congress in Romania (1957);
- the celebration of Carlo Goldoni and G. Carducci by the Romanian academy (1957);
- the participation of the Italian delegation at the Ovid's celebration in Romania in September 1957;

- granting 2 scholarships in Romania for two graduates of the Naples Institute for oriental languages in 1958;
- the exposition organized in Bucharest dedicated to the contemporary Italian plastic art in collaboration with the Italian gallery from Milan "La Colonna" (1958) (RFMDA, 1959: p.9)

5. Diplomatic, cultural and political relations between Romania and Italy (1959)

For the years 1958 and 1959 the Romanian legation in Rome proposed the following cultural manifestations:

- to organize book exposition in Bucharest and Rome;
- to organize several Romanian exposition of plastic arts in some of the most important Italian cities and mainly in Florence;
- to send 2-3 Romanian archeologists, musicians and painters for specialization in Italy;
- to invite Italian lecturers to Romania in fields like chemistry, history, agriculture, medicine, physics, constructions etc.;
- library exchanges, Ph.D. scholarships for majors in Romanian and Italian languages;
- to organize in Italy several tours of Romanian folk bands;
- to convince Italian cultural personalities to build Romanian libraries or cultural houses named after Romanian personalities such as Nicolae Balcescu or Nicolae Iorga;
- to convince the Italian authorities to allow the Romanians to use the Academia di Romania and the Romanian school in Venice for accommodation purposes;
- to publish in Rome a scientific bulletin in both Romanian and Italian;
- organizing cultural trips in Romania and Italy to visit Sarmisegetusa, Histira, Agrigento or Gela;
- to organize scientific manifestations celebrating common historical events (1848, 1859, 1870);
- to study in common historical periods significant for both countries;
- to intensify the exchange of scientific publications (RFMDA 1959: p.10).

6. Conclusions

During the years 1956-1959 almost all the proposals from the Romanian Legation in Rome and of the Romanian Foreign Ministry for cultural manifestations were held in Romania and Italy. Thus the cultural relations between the two Latin countries were very tide at that moment, but the political and diplomatic ones were still to improve.

Several issues were still to solve such as visa policies, common international and diplomatic actions, political visits etc.

In the years to come the gap between the two countries will become even more wide concerning the political and diplomatic relations thus to their orientation in international relations, one in the communist part, the other one in the capitalist one.

The diplomatic relations between Romanian and Italy will normalize after 1970 when the Romanian international policy (Malița 2007: p. 83) will start to grow apart from the soviet foreign policy and to get closer to the occidental one.

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Evolution of social and health market in Bulgaria

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Abstract:

Bulgaria is situated on the Balkan Peninsula with an area of 111k sq. m., the country has a population of 7. 327 million people (National Statistic Institute, 2012 according to 2011 census). Bulgaria's economy is a free market economy and the country experienced rapid economic growth during the period 2002-2012. The main trade partners of the country are Germany, Romania, Italy, Greece and Belgium, which present 72 % of the export to the EU. After several failed stabilization attempts in mid 90s, Bulgaria introduced a currency board on July 1, 1997 and this is a specific of the country compared with its neighbors. The Bulgarian Lev has a fixed exchange rate with the DM and subsequently with Euro with exchange rate DM/BGN 1:1 and EUR:BGN 1:1.95583. The agreement with IMF about currency board, Bulgarian governments could not lead the monetary policy, except the base interest rate. The levels of money supply must comply with the country's foreign reserves. The impact of the world financial and economic crisis over Bulgaria started late 2008. The estimated Gross Domestic Product year-end 2012 is EUR 39.667 Billion or EUR 5,436 per capita (NSI report, 2013). The Nominal Gross Domestic Product of given county is the total value of goods and services produced within a nation's borders, measured in current prices (Schiller, 1996), while the economic growth is an increase in output (real *GDP*). Bulgarian insurance market was affected by the financial and economic downturn, the non life insurance has been decreasing since 2009, following the global trend of the Bulgarian economy. These studies are based on data from Bulgarian insurance broker and explore opportunities for social progress. Explore the possibilities of the Bulgarian insurance market. Looking for the consequences of its evolution in social and economic terms.

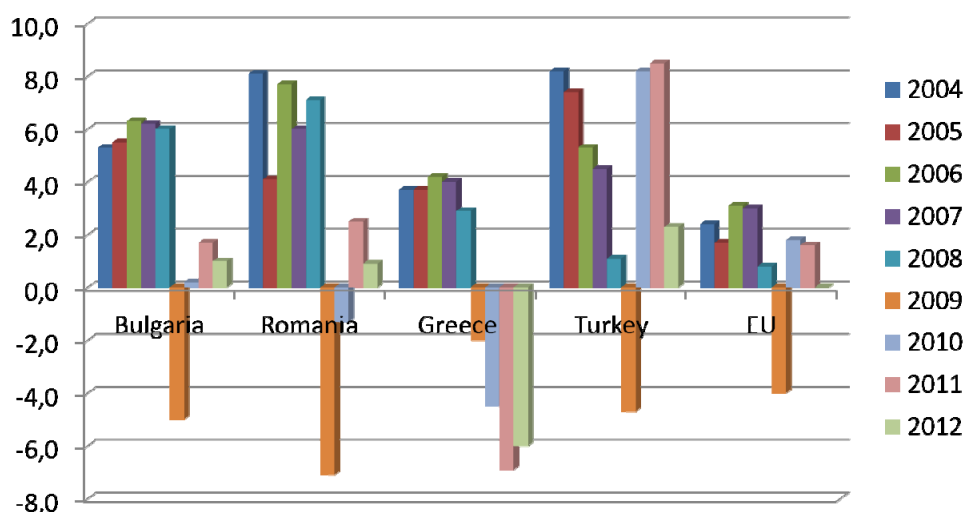
Keywords: *health; social; insurance; economy; income.*

Bulgaria is situated on the Balkan Peninsula with an area of 111k sq. m., the country has a population of 7. 327 million people (National Statistic Institute, 2012 according to 2011 census). Bulgaria's economy is a free market economy and the country experienced rapid economic growth during the period 2002-2012. The main trade partners of the country are Germany, Romania, Italy, Greece and Belgium, which present 72 % of the export to the EU. After several failed stabilization attempts in mid 90s, Bulgaria introduced a currency board on July 1, 1997 and this is a specific of the country compared with its neighbors. The Bulgarian Lev has a fixed exchange rate with the DM and subsequently with Euro with exchange rate DM/BGN 1:1 and EUR:BGN

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Figure 1. A compassion table of the real growth rate of several countries in the region.



Source: NSI, Eurostat, Veleva calculations

The estimated Gross Domestic Product year-end 2012 is EUR 40.667 Billion or EUR 5,436 per capita (NSI report, 2013). Bulgaria has attracted considerable amounts of foreign direct investment since 2001 and while it marked a decline of 5.5% in the economy in 2009, it quickly restored positive growth to 0.2% in 2010 before other Balkan countries. Although Bulgaria's economy has been growing, its income level was and still remains the lowest in the European Union.

Economic growth (measured by the real GDP growth rate) had been rising since 2002 with the average is 3.8% exceeded 5.3% in 2004. In 2005 it rose to 5.5 percent, in 2006 it was 6.3 percent (BNB, 2013). Bulgaria's NATO and European Union memberships (done at 2004 and 2006) are two of the main prerequisites for a fast economic development. The fixed exchange rate of Bulgarian currency to the euro (the currency board agreement with IMF, dated 1997), was another important precondition for the boost of the Bulgarian economy and the attraction of significant amount of foreign investments.

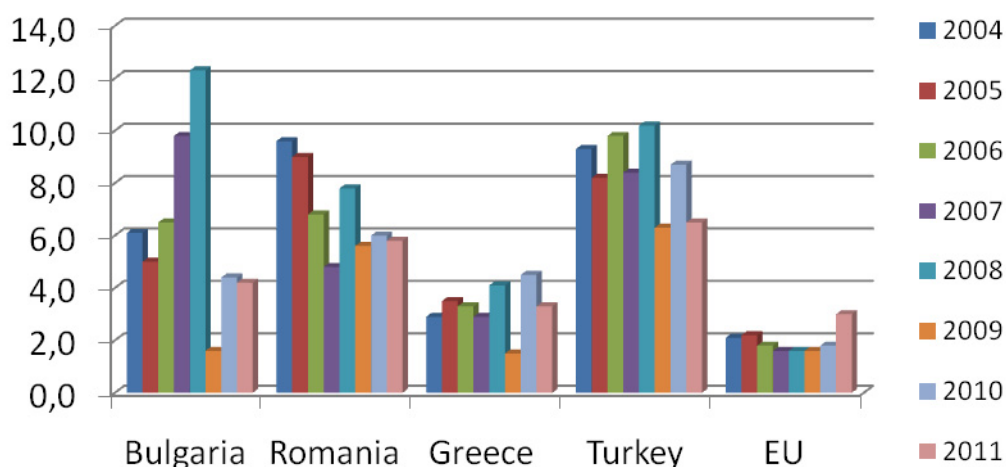
World economy impede significantly in 2009 (down 0.6 %), its first contraction in 30 years, while the EU economy saw a sharper fall (more than 4 percent). The Bulgarian economy followed a similar trend as the other countries in Central and Eastern Europe. The same process applied to the insurance business. Parallel to the decline of Bulgarian economy, both life and non life insurance premiums have been

growing from 2002 to 2008 and decreasing since 2009 and subsequently after 2009. Contrary to the trends of the overall insurance business, the brokerage insurance business increased their share to the total gross premium income.

As it is seen Bulgarian economy was affected from the global crisis in 2008 and more strongly in 2009. The economic growth for this year is negative for all 4 countries and EU, but the recovery is extremely different: while Bulgaria, Romania and EU growth recovered rapidly with 0-1,4 percent in 2011 and 2012, Greece downturn is significant -6% and Turkey has a significant GDP growth of more than 8% in 2010 and 2011. The economic shutdown in Bulgaria in 2009 involving a radical decline in GDP growth rates was partly the result of external influences and partly the overheating of the economy in the pre-crisis period that pushed its growth to its upper limits. The GDP growth rate dropped from 6 percent in 2008 to -5 percent in 2009.

Bulgaria has been having negative trade balance since the beginning of 90es. Household consumption in years of the crisis was reduced, but the trend of a negative trade deficit is keeping in 2012, due to imports of machinery and equipment on and the successful absorption of EU funds.

Figure 2. Comparison Inflation Rate



Source: NSI, Eurostat, Veleva calculations

At the end of 2012 the nominal amount of government debt is EUR 6.284 bln.(16.3% of the projected full-year GDP), which included domestic debt of EUR 2.23 bln. (Which is 6.4% of GDP) and external debt of EUR 4.05 bln, according to Bulgaria's Ministry of Finance. Bulgaria has a ratio of 18.7% external debt to GDP and this is the second lowest level of all EU 27 countries for 2012, for the end of the third quarter (January 2013 Eurostat data). Although the positive total picture Fink, J. at all () points out "very concerning development is the rapid increase of the current account deficit of Bulgaria and Romania.

Gross external debt increased by EUR 1 364 million and at December 2012 it amounted to EUR 37.6 billion (94.8 percent of GDP). The agency pointed out the

country's commitment to maintain a strong financial discipline and to provide effective management of the currency board and supervision of the banking system. Before the debt crisis in the euro area, the main target of the current Bulgarian government was entering into ERM II mechanism, before Bulgarian entering in Euro Zone in 2013. Entering into the joint EU currency would release 5 billion BGN from the currency board. Bulgaria joined the Financial Stability Pact for the euro, but does not fully stick to the overall EU tax policy.

The recent trend of globalization and deregulation has weakened the role of classical banking institutions and strengthened the role of insurance companies as financial intermediaries. In addition, the ever-increasing presence of catastrophic risks such as natural disasters and terrorist attacks has led to the agglomeration and concentration of insurance industry capital. Insurance companies channel the funds raised by selling their own indirect financial instruments – insurance policies – to the purchase of financial instruments belonging to deficit agents” .

Bulgarian insurance market was affected by the financial and economic down turn, the non life insurance has been decreasing since 2009, following the global trend of the Bulgarian economy:

Bulgarian Insurance market is relatively non mature market. At the beginning of 90s demonopolization of the insurance business was done. The Bulgarian Financial Supervision Commission is doing the direct supervision of the insurance sector. There was a process of adaptation of laws to European Union Directives and Solvency 1 requirements. State insurance companies were privatized, and foreign capital enters to the market, for 4 years from 2000 until 2004 international insurance companies like Generali, Uniqa, VIG, KBC entered into Bulgarian market. As per 2013 there are 19 Non Life insurance companies on the market. Some specifics of the Bulgarian insurance non life market: 55% of the market is formed by the first 5 players; 71 % of the overall Gross Written Premiums GWP is motor business.

The Bulgarian non-life insurance sector prevails, accounting for 80.9% of the gross written premium in 2012. The non-life segment's penetration is expected to increase from 1.67% in 2012 to 1.73% in 2017. The Bulgarian non-life segment was driven by the motor third-party liability segment during the review period and this is expected to continue over the forecast period. Bulgarian non-life insurers are heavily dependent upon insurance brokers who accounted for 43.8% of total gross written premium from new business collected in 2012. The non-life segment is concentrated with the six leading companies accounting for 66.2% of the gross written premium in 2012. The frequent occurrence of natural disasters in Bulgaria has enhanced the public awareness about property insurance and its benefits.

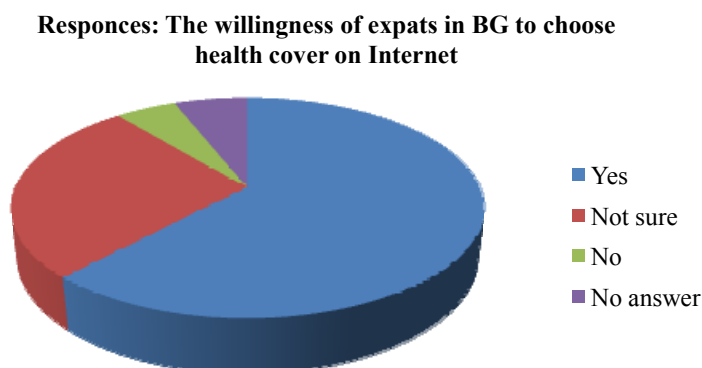
Bulgarian insurance density is extremely low if compared to the average EU insurance density. In 2012 an average of €1 843 per capita was spent on insurance in Insurance Europe's full member countries. Of this, €1 083 was spent on life insurance (less than the €1 102 spent in 2011) and the remaining €760 on non-life insurance, of which €190 was on health.

Insurance penetration is another a commonly recognized indicator of insurance activity. It is expressed here by showing total gross written premiums as a percentage of GDP. Average insurance penetration fell slightly from 7.7% in 2011 to 7.6% in 2012. A review of life and non-life business shows that average penetration rates in Europe decreased for both in 2012, amounting to 4.5% (4.6% in 2011) and 3.12% (3.14% in 2011) respectively. per person spent on insurance.

In 2012 an average of €1 843 per capita was spent on insurance in the 32 full member countries of Insurance Europe. Of this, €1 083 was spent on life insurance (a small decline compared to the €1 102 spent in 2011) and the remaining €760 on non-life insurance, of which €190 was on health insurance. An example of the development of health services we present is of Bulgarian property insurance “Balcan”- ALC.

ALC is an International Health insurance product. Balkan is a Bulgarian insurance broker, who has exclusivity to sell ALC on Bulgarian insurance market. ALC HI provides flexible international private health insurance plans covering pre-hospital, hospital help for individuals and business organizations. Product: ALC HI is an international health cover that includes any expenses for pre-cover for oncology, heart and neurological diseases, transplant services up to 240 000 EUR, the total limit of the insurance is 1,500,000 Eur. It should be considered as an unsought product (in accordance with Kotler and Armstrong (2001): little interest as a typical Customer Buyer behavior and personal selling efforts by the reseller. As the customer don't see and realize the need of these kind of product, it should be broadly promoted to help the consumers seeing the exiting needs and the make the consumers aware of the respective needs. A lot of advertising efforts are needed as well as personal selling by the producer/reseller. Balkan is selling the product only by personal selling. Originally, the health product name is “ALC Prima Classic HI”, hospital help – doctors' examinations, medical treatments, hospital treatment, as well as full it originally does not have a special sign, symbol and design. The Health insurance service is always delivered to the client, delivery is a supplementary service for this product, our of the core service.

Figure 3. The willingness of expats in Bulgaria to choose health cover on Internet

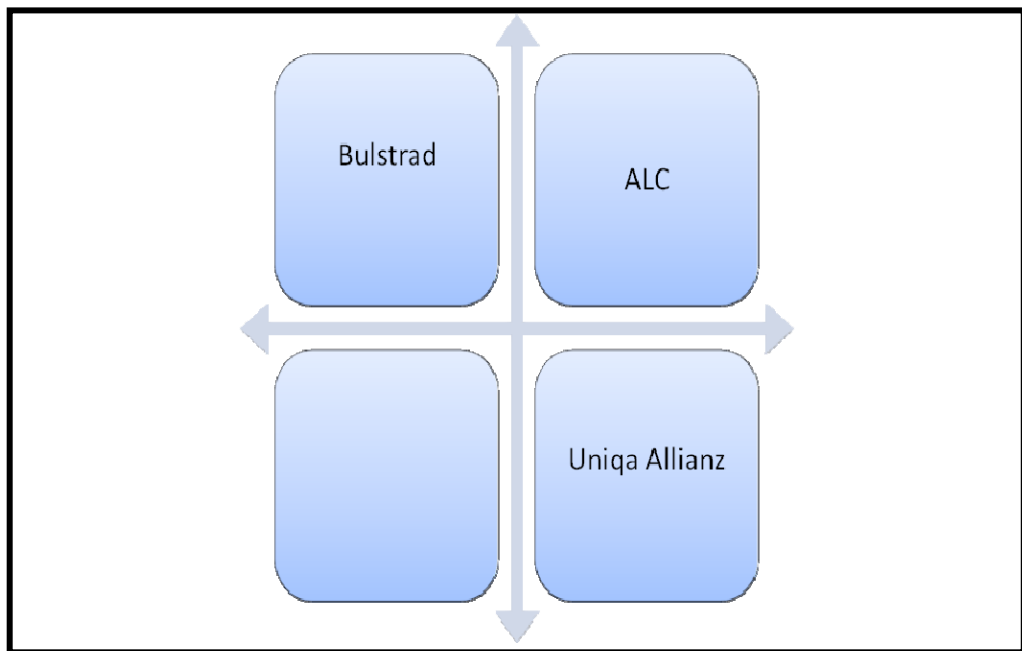


The suggestion for delivery process is to establish a second channel: an internet page for this product in English, Bulgarian, and Russian. ALC IH can be offered via Internet and this channel can be used for expatriates, living in Bulgaria and abroad. This suggestion is based on our own inquiry among expatriates for their willingness to use a web for Health cover search and offers. In regard to Bulgarian target group, the most important part of the buyer decision process will be the need recognition the classic theory. An attempt not only to sell the product, but to put there a lot of educational

materials and practical advice like “Health help” separately for Bulgarians and for expatriates. This can be online help in a case of any difficulties with their existing local health or international insurance, even this is not written with Balkan, medical news, etc.

We can say, that we can say that offering health services evolved during this period.

Appendix 1: Inquiry, The willingness of expats to choose a Health cover on Internet



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Carrier's liability in the Romanian Civil Code of 2009 and the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail (COTIF), Berne, 1980

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Abstract

This paper debates the topic of "carrier's liability", analyzing both national and international legislation. In the beginning, are shown preliminary notions in the field, followed by an overview of the laws that governed in Romania the transportation field, focusing on the elements of the Romanian Civil Code of 2009, like the legal nature of the carrier's liability, causes of the contractual liability of the carrier, scope of compensation in case of loss of or damage to goods, conventions on the limitation or relief of liability of the carrier etc. The second part of the paper presents the carrier's liability as provided by the Berne Convention of 1980, and in the final part, are presented the similarities in the legal framework for the liability of the carrier in the Romanian Civil Code of 2009 and in the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail of 1980.

Keywords: *Carrier's liability; Romanian Civil Code of 2009; Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail of 1980; contract of carriage.*

1. Preliminary issues

The contract of carriage in Romanian law. The contract of carriage was defined by the Romanian legislature as the contract whereby "a party, called a carrier, undertakes, primarily, to carry a person or goods from one place to another for a price which the passenger, consignor or consignee promises to pay at the agreed time and in the agreed place". In the doctrine, the essential elements of the contract of carriage are the same, both in the doctrine related to the old Civil Code and in the current one (in this sense see: Stătescu 1967: p. 14; Demetrescu 1962: p. 27; Cristoforeanu 1925: p. 39; Căpățână and Stancu 2000: p. 48; Stanciu 2015: p. 61) .

During the period of private law dualism, there was a distinction between the contract of civil and commercial carriage; the civil carriage contract was governed by the Civil Code of 1864, and the commercial one by the Commercial Code of 1887; since the regulations in the Civil Code were the general legal framework for private law relations, they were also applicable to commercial relations when trade legislation was incomplete. The new Civil Code consecrated the monistic view in the system of private law, the aim of this code being to bring together all branches of private law (civil law, commercial law, family law etc.) in a single branch of law. In this situation, the legal relations between professionals (a category which includes tradesmen) are directly

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regulated by the new Civil Code, “not only in subsidiary or in addition, as a general legal rule” (Piperea 2012: p. 4).

The consequence of the legislative consecration of the unitary private law paradigm is that the rules of the new Civil Code represent the general legal framework for the contract of carriage, whether the legal relations concern individuals or professionals.

The new Civil Code regulates the contract of carriage in Chapter VIII, Title IX (“Various special contracts”), of Book V (“On obligations”).

Referring to the scope of the provisions of this chapter, art. 1958 provides that they shall apply to all modes of transport (air, rail, sea, road), unless otherwise provided by special laws, or if there are no applicable usages or practices established between the parties. Free transport is not subject to the provisions of this chapter of the Civil Code, unless it is performed by a carrier that offers services to the public in his business.

The legal rules of the chapter on the contract of carriage are grouped into three sections: the first section contains general provisions, the second section contains rules governing the contract of carriage of goods, and the third section contains rules governing the carriage of persons and luggage.

The contract of carriage in international agreements. The contract of international carriage by rail is currently regulated by the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail (COTIF), signed in Berne on May 9, 1980.

The adoption of uniform rules in matters of international rail transport became necessary in the nineteenth century, due to the complex nature of this way of transport (which is characterized by the fact that the transport of goods is performed by means belonging to several railway administrations, several countries are crossed in transit, the transport management varies from one railway to another, and the consignor and consignee of the goods belong to different states), which makes the transport of particular goods be subject to two or more national legislations, and the fact that different national legislations regulated carriage by rail differently (giving contradictory solutions especially on carrier liability, the guarantees for the performance of contractual obligations, the remedy for damage resulting from the contract of carriage), which was an impediment to the development of international trade (Scurtu 2003: p. 239).

The first draft of an international convention on the carriage of goods by rail was elaborated at the Berne International Conference in 1878. Based on this project, in 1896 an International Convention concerning the Carriage of Goods by Rail was signed in Berne (the CIM Convention). This Convention was revised several times, and on 9 May 1980, a new convention was signed in Berne, called the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail (COTIF)². This convention entered into force on 1 May 1985³. Subsequently, the Convention was amended twice: first by the Protocol of Berne in 1990⁴, then by the Vilnius Protocol in 1999⁵. These protocols brought changes to the

² This convention is commonly referred to as COTIF, consisting of the initials of its French name (Convention sur l’Organisation des Transports Internationaux Ferroviaires).

³ The Convention was ratified by Romania by Decree no. 100/1983, published in the Official Bulletin no. 23 of 1 April 1983.

⁴ Romania ratified this Protocol by Law no.27/1992, published in the Official Gazette no. 55 of 1 April 1992.

contract of international carriage of goods by rail.

The signatory countries of the Berne Convention, 1980, agreed to establish the Intergovernmental Organisation for International Carriage by Rail (OTIF), which aims to establish a system of uniform law concerning international carriage by rail (art. 2).

The Convention consists of various provisions that contain:

1) The Protocol on the Privileges and Immunities of the Intergovernmental Organisation for International Carriage by Rail (OTIF);

2) Appendix A, the Uniform Rules concerning the Contract of International Carriage of Passengers and Luggage by Rail (CIV);

3) Appendix B, which includes the Uniform Rules concerning the Contract of International Carriage of Goods by Rail (CIM) and 4 annexes, namely:

a) Annex 1, which contains the Regulations concerning the International Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Rail (RID);

b) Annex 2, which contains the Regulations concerning the International Haulage of Private Owners' Wagons by Rail. (RIP);

c) Annex 3, which contains the Regulations concerning the International Carriage of Containers by Rail (RICO);

d) Annex 4, which contains the Regulations concerning the International Carriage of Express Parcels by Rail (RIEx).

The entry into force of COTIF (May 1, 1985) repealed the International Convention concerning the Carriage of Goods by Rail (CIM) and the Carriage of Passengers and Luggage (CIV) of 7 February 1970, and the Additional Convention to the CIV relating to the liability of the railway for death and personal injury to passengers, signed on 26 February, 1966.

The CIM Uniform Rules are applicable to the carriage of goods based on a through consignment note made out for a route over the territories of at least two States having signed the Convention, and exclusively over lines included in the CIM list published by the Central Office for International Carriage by Rail (art. 1 of CIM)⁶. The CIM list mainly contains railway lines, but it may include lines of road, sea, river, necessary to perform combined transport (art. 2 pt. 2 of COTIF). Each contracting State must notify the Central Office about the lines to be included in the CIM list or deleted from this list. The lines connecting Member States are listed in the CIM list only after the consent of those countries, but may be deleted after the service of a single state.

The main international railway lines that cross the territory of Romania are set out in the European Agreement on Main International Railway Lines (AGC), concluded in Geneva in 1985⁷.

⁵ Romania ratified this Protocol by Government Ordinance no. 69/2001, published in the Official Gazette no. 538 of 1 September 2001.

⁶ Such a contract of carriage has international character and is performed on the basis of an international consignment note of the CIM type, from which it results that the forwarding station and the destination station of the goods are located into two different states which signed COTIF. The carriage preserves its international character, even if due to some circumstances occurring over the route of the forwarding railway (for instance, an impediment, loss or damage), the transport does not cross the frontier of the country of delivery.

⁷ By Law no.100/1996, published in the Official Gazette no. 236 of 30 September, Romania agreed to the European Agreement on Main International Railway Lines (AGC), concluded on 31 May 1985, in Geneva.

2. Carrier's liability in the Romanian Civil Code of 2009

The legal nature of the carrier's liability. The carrier's liability may be in tort or contract. As a rule, in practical terms the approach is to the contractual liability of the carrier for the carriage of goods.

The tort liability of the carrier has its legal basis in general law provisions under art. 1349 of the Civil Code, which provides that a person who infringes, by his actions or inactions, upon the rights or legitimate interests of other persons, is responsible for all damage caused, having the obligation to fully remedy it. The tort liability of the carrier is rarely found in practice; theoretically, it can occur, for example, as a consequence of the violation of the legal obligation to accept any request for transport, an obligation derived from professional status; in this respect, art. 1958(3) of the Civil Code provides that "The carrier which offers his services to the public shall carry any person who requests his services and any property whose transport is required, unless he has a serious reason for refusal".

The contractual liability of the carrier is subject, first of all, to the provisions of special laws governing different modes of transport and, secondly, in the absence of special regulations, to the rules of the carriage contract contained in the Civil Code (art. 1955-2008); the Civil Code rules relating to contractual liability in general represent the general legal framework in the matter of the contract of carriage as well (Stanciu 2015: p. 144).

The contractual liability of the carrier has as a premise the existence of a valid contract of carriage.

Causes of the contractual liability of the carrier. In accordance with art. 1984 of the Civil Code, in the case of the contract of carriage of goods, the carrier is liable for damage caused by the following facts: a) by total or partial loss of the goods, b) by damaging them during the transport, c) by delaying the delivery of the goods.

In addition to the provisions of art. 1984 on the liability of the carrier, art. 141 of Law 71/2011, which refers to the transitional law issues involved in the application of the new Civil Code, provides that the carrier's liability is governed by the law in force at the time of the event that caused the damage, even if the consignor or consignee knew about it, after the entry into force of the Civil Code.

The time of the contractual liability of the carrier is between the conclusion of the carriage contract (when the goods are delivered by the consignor) and the time of the performance of the contract (when the carrier delivers the goods entrusted for carriage to the consignee). During this period, the carrier has not only the obligation to carry the goods to destination, but also to watch and preserve them.

The carrier's liability for total or partial loss of the goods entrusted for carriage and for damaging them during the transport, has as a premise the failure to perform the carrier's obligation to ensure the security and preservation of the goods during the transport, i.e. the relative presumption of fault in the failure to perform his obligations⁸ (Stanciu 2015: p. 147).

The old Civil Code assimilated the carrier with a depositary, considering that in the carriage of goods the liability of the carrier is similar to that of the depositary in the contract of required deposit (Căpățână and Stancu 2000: p. 100); the new Civil Code provides that in case of impossibility to deliver the goods, at the end of the storage

⁸ The Commercial Code of 1887 also established the relative presumption of fault of the carrier for failure to perform contractual obligations, in case of loss of goods or damage to goods.

period or the expiration of the time limit for receiving the instructions of the consignor, the carrier's obligations are similar to those in the free deposit, involving the consignor's obligation to reimburse all costs of preservation and storage of goods. On the contrary, from the moment of delivering the goods for carriage until the moment of delivering them to the consignee, i.e. during the entire period of transport under normal circumstances, the liability of the carrier is similar to that in the required deposit. The exception to this rule is the case when the beneficiary of the consignment, consignor or consignee, designates a caregiver who has the obligation to ensure the security and preservation of the goods to the destination.

Scope of compensation in case of loss of or damage to goods. As for the scope of compensation, art. 1985 of the Civil Code provides the following: a) in case of loss of goods, the carrier shall cover the real value of the lost goods or lost parts of the goods in transit; b) in case of damage to goods, the carrier shall cover their loss in value. Therefore, in order to determine the compensation payable by the carrier, one must consider, as in the legislation previous to the current Civil Code, only the actual damage, not the loss of earnings. The calculation of compensation is made by taking into account the value of the goods at the time and place of their delivery for transit (art. 1482 of the Civil Code on the conditions of discharging obligations, provides that every person who has the obligation to deliver an individually determined item is released by delivering it in the condition it was at the time of creating the obligation, so art. 1985 of the Civil Code is an application of the generally valid rule in the matter of discharging civil obligations) (Stanciu 2015: pp. 148-149).

In the event of partial or total loss of the goods presented for transport and in the event of damage occurred during the transport, art. 1986 of the Civil Code provides that the carrier must refund the charge of transport, ancillary services and transport expenses in proportion, where appropriate, to the value of the lost goods or diminished value due to damage or wastage.

The law entitles the parties to determine by mutual agreement the real value of the transported goods; thus art. 1987 of the Civil Code provides that the parties to the contract of carriage may determine the value of the goods delivered for transport, situation in which compensation is calculated in relation to that value, such a contractual clause being important by the fact that it removes the inconveniences of proving the value of lost or damaged goods; however, the legislature limits the freedom of the contracting parties to establish the declared value, in the sense that it stipulates that when the value declared by the consignor is higher than the actual value of the goods at the time and place of delivery, compensation shall be calculated in relation to this latter value (Stănescu in Băiaş et. all 2012: p. 1996).

By exception to the general obligation of the professional carrier to transport any goods whose transportation is required, unless he has a serious reason for refusal, an obligation provided under art. 1958 of the Civil Code, the law provides that the carrier is not bound to carry documents, money in cash, securities, jewellery or other valuable goods. In case of accepting the carriage of such goods, there is a special legal regime for the calculation of compensation, meaning that the carrier must cover, in case of loss, damage or wastage, only their declared value. Where a different kind of goods or a higher value was declared, the law penalizes the bad faith of the consignor, stating that the carrier is relieved from any liability (art. 1988 of the Civil Code.).

In accordance with art. 1993 of the Civil Code, if the consignment was encumbered by cash on delivery (according to the annex to the Regulation of carriage

by rail in Romania, approved by Government Ordinance no. 7/2005, cash on delivery is the process by which the consignor uses the services of the railway operator for cashing from the consignee the value of the carried goods) or if the carrier has undertaken to carry out customs operations necessary for the transport, the carrier's liability for cashing on delivery with which the consignor encumbered the transport and for performing customs operations is governed by the provisions on representation (see Stanciu 2015: p. 151).

Scope of compensation for delayed carriage. The carrier is also liable for damage caused by failure to perform the transport or by exceeding the transport period (art. 1992 of the Civil Code); usually, special rules adopted for each mode of transport establish the limits of the carrier's liability in case of delayed transport. For example, pursuant to art. 63 of the Regulation of carriage by rail in Romania, in case of exceeding the transport period, the railway operator is required to pay 2% of the transport charge for each day of delay, and the total amount cannot exceed half of the transport charge. If it is proved that damage resulted due to delay, compensation not exceeding the transport charge shall be paid. Compensation for exceeding the transport period cannot be added to compensation for total or partial loss of goods. In case of partial loss, it is paid, if necessary, only for goods which have not been lost. Compensation for exceeding the transport period in case of damage is added, where appropriate, to compensation provided for damage. Only the exceeding of the total transport period entitles to compensation. The railway operator may establish with its clients, through conventions, other forms of compensation for exceeding the transport period. The railway operator is subject to forfeiture of the right to invoke the limits of liability set out in the Regulation of carriage by rail in Romania, if proved that the damage resulted from an act committed by it with intent to cause such damage.

Conventions on the limitation or relief of liability of the carrier. In the general theory of liability, art. 1355 of the Civil Code provides that liability for material damage caused to another by an act committed intentionally or with gross negligence cannot be excluded or limited by agreement or unilateral acts, but the clauses that exclude liability for damage caused to the victim's goods, by carelessness or negligence, are valid.

As for the liability of the carrier, art. 1959 of the Civil Code provides that, as a matter of principle, the carrier cannot exclude or limit his liability through conventions; however, such an agreement is allowed in cases provided by law.

As for the limitation of the carrier's liability, art. 1989 of the Civil Code provides that the compensation which may be required from the carrier in case of failure to perform the carriage contract or in case of inappropriate performance, cannot exceed the amount established by the special law. If special laws established lower limits of coverage for such damage, these limitations would be taken into account; in case of higher limits and if the special law is applicable before the entry into force of the current Civil Code, its provisions must be considered as repealed because they are inconsistent with the Civil Code; instead, if the special law came into force after the Civil Code, it is applicable (Stănescu in Băiaș et. al 2012: p. 1998).

For example, pursuant to art. 63 of the Regulation of carriage by rail in Romania, in case of total or partial loss of the goods, the railway operator must pay, excluding other damages, compensation calculated according to the invoice or the current price of the goods and in their absence, according to the price of the goods of the same kind and quality, at the time and in the place of receiving the goods for transport. Compensation

cannot exceed the value per kilogramme of gross mass short, as determined by the Uniform Rules. In addition, the railway operator must return transport charges, customs duties and other amounts paid by the customer for the carriage of the lost goods. The railway operator must also pay compensation equivalent to the damage of goods without other damages. The amount is calculated by applying the percentage of damage to the value of the goods. The compensation cannot exceed: a) if the goods are damaged in full, the amount which would have been reached in case of total loss; b) if only part of the goods is damaged, the amount which would have been reached in case of loss of the damaged part.

The carrier's liability is relieved, so he is not liable for loss or damage to the goods delivered for transport, in the cases referred to, as examples, under art. 1991 of the Civil Code; for example, the carrier is not liable if the loss or, where appropriate, damage to the goods delivered for transport occurred because of: a) acts related to the loading or unloading of goods, if the operation was carried out by the consignor or consignee; b) lack or defect of the package, if by external appearance one could not notice it when receiving the goods for transport; c) an act committed with intent or negligence by the consignor or consignee or the instructions given by either of them; d) force majeure or an act of a third party for which the carrier is not bound to answer. In such cases, in order to operate relief of liability it is enough to prove the occurrence of the cause removing liability and the existence of damage, it is not necessary to prove the concrete causality relation (Stanciu 2015: p. 153).

With regard to the clauses which remove or limit liability established by law for the carrier, art. 1995 of the Civil Code provides that they shall be deemed unwritten and shall, by law, be replaced with the legal provisions related to the case. However, the consignor can assume the risk for transport in case of damage caused by package or in case of special transport that increases the risk of loss of or damage to goods.

Liability in case of intentional act or gross negligence. If the carrier acted intentionally or with gross negligence, he owes compensation for the damage caused, but liability is aggravated in the sense that it will not benefit from limitations or relief of liability as provided by law in matters related to contracts of carriage of goods (art. 1990 of the Civil Code); this provision is an application of art. 1355 of the Civil Code, which provides in the general theory of liability in tort that liability for material damage caused to another intentionally or with gross negligence cannot be excluded or limited by agreement or unilateral acts,

Liability in case of successive or combined carriage. In the case of successive or combined carriage, pursuant to art. 2000 of the Civil Code, in the relations between successive carriers, each carrier contributes to compensation in proportion to its rightful charge of transport. But if the damage is caused intentionally or with gross negligence on the part of one of the carriers, the entire compensation is incumbent upon it. When one of the carriers proves that the harmful act did not occur during its transportation, it is not required to contribute to compensation. The law establishes a presumption that the goods were delivered in good condition from one carrier to another if they do not require to mention in the transport document the condition in which the goods were taken. An action for damages, in the case of successive or combined transport, may be exercised by the entitled person against the carrier which concluded the contract of carriage or against the last carrier (art. 1999 of the Civil Code).

3. Carrier's liability as provided by the Berne Convention, 1980

The obligation of the professional carrier not to refuse the signing of the contract.

In accordance with the Berne Convention, 1980, the railway has the obligation to conclude any contract having as object the carriage of goods in complete wagon, if all the requirements laid down by the CIM Uniform Rules (art. 3 pt. 1) are met concurrently, namely: a) the sender agrees to comply with the Uniform Rules, supplementary provisions and tariffs; b) carriage is possible with normal transport resources available to the railway; c) carriage is not prevented by circumstances which the railway cannot avoid and which it is not in a position to remedy. Failure to comply with this requirement entails liability in tort of the rail operator.

Liability for loss of and damage to goods. The carrier is liable for the damage resulting from total or partial loss of the goods, as well as for the damage resulting from its deterioration occurring from transport up to release.

The rail carrier's liability is based on the presumed fault, operating from the moment of receiving the goods for transport to the moment of delivering them to the consignee, i.e. during the transport. As a result of this assumption it is not necessary for the beneficiary of the carriage to provide evidence regarding the guilt of railways in causing the damage, but it is necessary to prove the damage and the existence of a contract of carriage validly concluded.

Limitation of the carrier's liability. The CIM Uniform Rules limit the liability of the carrier in case of loss or damage to goods and in case of exceeding the transit period to the payment of compensation ensuring effective coverage of the damage, but not the loss of earnings. Moreover, the carrier's liability is limited to what the CIM Uniform Rules consider to be the value of the actual loss.

Thus, pursuant to art. 40 of the CIM Uniform Rules, in case of total or partial loss of the goods, the railway must pay, excluding any other damages, compensation calculated according to the commodity exchange quotation, and in the absence of such quotation, according to the current market price, or in the absence of such quotation or price, according to the normal value of goods of the same kind and quality at the time and place at which the goods were accepted for carriage; the compensation cannot exceed 17 units of account per kilogramme of gross mass short. In addition to compensation, the railway must refund carriage charges, customs duties and other amounts of money paid by the sender in connection with carriage of the lost goods. When the calculation of compensation involves the conversion of amounts expressed in foreign currencies, it is at the rate of exchange applicable at the time and place of payment of compensation.

As for the goods which, due to their nature, are generally subject to wastage in transit by the mere fact of carriage, the railway is liable, regardless of the length of the route, only to the extent that the wastage exceeds the following allowances: a) two per cent of the mass for liquid goods or goods consigned in a moist condition, and also for the goods expressly enumerated under art. 41 of the CIM Uniform Rules; b) one per cent of the weight for all other dry goods. The limitation of liability for the goods in the first category (for which the wastage does not exceed 2%), may not be invoked if it is proved, having regard to the circumstances of a particular case, that the loss was not due to cause which would justify an allowance. In case of total loss of the goods, no deduction for wastage in transit is made in calculating the compensation payable.

In case of damage to goods, the railway must pay compensation, without any other damages, equivalent to the loss in value of the goods. The amount is calculated

by applying to the value of the goods, the percentage of loss in value noted at the place of destination (art. 42 of the CIM Uniform Rules). The compensation for damage to goods may not exceed the following limits: a) if all the goods have lost value through damage, the amount which would have been payable in case of total loss; b) if only part of the goods has lost value through damage, the amount which would have been payable in case of loss of the damaged part.

In case of damage to goods, the railway must, in proportion to the percentage of loss of value of goods found at the destination, refund carriage charges, customs duties and other amounts paid in connection with carriage of the damaged goods

Liability for exceeding the transit period. In case of loss or damage resulting from exceeding the transit period, the railway must pay compensation which cannot exceed three times the carriage charge (art. 43 of the CIM Uniform Rules). The following rules apply: a) in case of total loss of the goods, the compensation for exceeding the transit period cannot be added to the compensation for the loss of the goods; b) in case of partial loss of the goods, the compensation for exceeding the transit period cannot exceed three times the carriage charges in respect of that part of the consignment which has not been lost; c) in case of damage to the goods, not resulting from exceeding the transit period, the compensation for damage is added to the compensation for exceeding the transit period.

In no case shall the total of compensation payable for exceeding the transit period and for the loss of or damage to the goods exceed the compensation payable in the event of total loss of the goods.

Compensation in case of wilful misconduct or gross negligence. When the loss, damage or exceeding of the transit period, has been caused by wilful misconduct or gross negligence attributable to the railway, the latter must provide full compensation to the person entitled for the loss or damage proved. In case of gross negligence (not wilful misconduct), compensation is limited to twice the maxima specified in the CIM Uniform Rules in the following cases: a) in case of loss, non-use or misuse of the documents listed in the consignment note and annexed to it for complying with administrative formalities; b) if the railway complies with the dispositions of the sender regarding the modification of the contract of carriage or an impediment to transport, without asking the duplicate and the duplicate was sent to the consignor and damage resulted from this; c) if the railway did not execute or inaccurately executed a subsequent disposition for modifying the contract of carriage given by the consignor or the consignee and damage resulted from this; d) in case of loss or damage to goods or for exceeding the transit period.

Liability for special carriage conditions. When the railway offers special carriage conditions through special or exceptional tariffs involving a reduction to the carriage charge calculated according to general tariffs, it may limit the compensation payable to the person entitled in case of loss, damage or for exceeding the transit period to the extent that such a limitation is provided in the tariff. When these special conditions of carriage apply only to part of the route, the limitation of the compensation can only be invoked if the fact giving rise to compensation occurred on that part of the route.

If the sender declared interest in delivery, apart from compensation for loss or damage to goods or for exceeding the transit period, compensation may be claimed for proved further damage, up to the amount declared.

Relief of liability. The railway is relieved of liability if the loss or damage or the

exceeding of the transit period was caused by a fault attributable to the person entitled, by an order given by the latter which did not result from fault on the part of the railway, by inherent vice of the goods (decay, wastage etc.) or by circumstances which the railway could not avoid and the consequences of which it was unable to prevent (art. 36 pt. 2 of the CIM Uniform Rules). The burden of proving that the loss, the damage or the exceeding of the transit period was due to one of the causes mentioned above lies with the railway (art. 37 of the CIM Uniform Rules).

The railway is relieved of liability for the loss or damage to the goods, when it is due to special risks inherent to one or more of the acts listed in the CIM Uniform Rules⁹ (Sitaru and Stănescu 2007: pp. 41-42). When the railway, taking into account the facts, establishes that the loss or damage could have arisen from one or more of these particular risks, according to the CIM Uniform Rules, there is a presumption that the damage resulted from those risks. The person entitled still has the right to prove that the damage, either totally or partially, was not caused by one of these risks.

Collective responsibility of railways. In the case of carriage of goods by rail in international traffic, the transport is attended by at least two rail lines belonging to different states. The railway which accepted the goods for carriage with the consignment note is responsible for the carriage over the entire route up to delivery (art. 35 pt. 1 of the CIM Uniform Rules). By the conclusion of the international carriage contract, the delivering railway undertakes the collective liability of all railways which will participate in the performance of the contract, thus becoming parties to the contract.

4. Conclusions

The creation of a legal framework for the liability of the carrier in the Romanian Civil Code of 2009 shows obvious similarities, in its essential aspects, to the regulations laid down by the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail (COTIF), Berne, 1980.

Both the Code and the Convention provide the professional carrier's obligation to accept any request for carriage unless there is a serious reason to refuse such a request; the failure to discharge this obligation entails the carrier's liability in tort.

The causes of contractual liability of the carrier are identical in the Code and the Convention: the carrier is liable for damage caused by total or partial loss of the goods, by deterioration of the goods, occurred during transport, by delaying the delivery of the goods. The length of time for the contractual liability of the carrier is between the conclusion of the contract of carriage (when the goods are delivered by the consignor for carriage) and the time of performance of the contract (when the carrier delivers the goods entrusted to him to the consignee). Over the entire route, the carrier has the obligation not only to carry the goods to the destination, but also to guard and preserve those goods.

Both the Code and the Convention establish the relative presumption of fault of the carrier in the event of damage, starting from the fact that the actual damage is the non-performance or improper performance of its contractual obligations.

The carrier's liability is limited in terms of its scope, in the sense that he has the obligation to provide compensation to the beneficiary of the carriage for the damage

⁹ For an in-depth approach to specific cases of relief of liability of the carrier, provided by the CIM Rules.

actually suffered, not for the loss of earnings.

In Romanian law, if the carrier acted intentionally or with gross negligence, he owes compensation for the damage caused, but his liability is aggravated in the sense that he will not benefit from limitations or relief of liability provided by law in matters of contracts of carriage of goods; in the regulations laid down by the Berne Convention, 1980, in the event of wilful misconduct or gross negligence of the carrier, his liability is aggravated as compared with that provided in Romanian law, as he must provide full compensation to the person entitled for the damage proved, i.e. to pay both the damage and the loss of earnings.

In both the Code and the Convention, an action for damages, in case of carriage involving several carriers, may be exercised by the person entitled against the carrier who concluded the contract of carriage and received the goods for carriage.

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Social entrepreneurship – a social policy challenge

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Abstract

Contemporary social policy in Bulgaria and in most European countries is developing in a new social, economic and societal context. In times of financial crisis and cuts in public finances, tackling social problems is a challenge for social policy and the process of decision making. Entrepreneurial initiative of individuals and the search for innovative ways to solve social problems marked the beginning of an idea - the idea of social entrepreneurship that finds more and more supporters among decision-makers and politicians in European countries and EU institutions. The relationship between social entrepreneurship and social policy is of particular interest in the study. More specifically, the study sought to address the following questions: Can it be argued that social entrepreneurship is one of the best ways to counter attempts to reduce the field of social policy to matters of re-distribution? What is the nature of the challenges that social entrepreneurship poses to social policy? The interest in social entrepreneurship stems from its role in addressing critical social problems and bringing about a substantial change in the social order. Satisfying the growing social needs of the people by generating mix of resources, financial and nonfinancial; solving social problems by adapting a business model, even though social, creates social policy challenges. They can be seen as driver for social change and improvement of society's wellbeing.

Keywords: *social entrepreneurship; social policy challenges; Bulgaria.*

1. The changing context of social policy

Today, more than ever, we are witnessing profound changes in society, in social, cultural and political life. The postindustrial world is increasingly affected by developments like globalization, structural changes in the economy and labor market, demographic changes and social changes. Revolutions in production and information transfer are the reason for production of goods and services on the worldwide basis. This situation leads to the risk that the nation-state becomes unable to manage and control the economy within its own borders. The pressure to compete in a global market could affect also the nation-state's social policy. Social policy is facing new circumstances and other tasks than a few decades ago. The universalistic way of thinking, as a basis of the welfare state, needs to be questioned. At the core of this thinking is the understanding that the universalistic welfare state should provide for everyone's needs in a similar way, because certain category of people has similar needs.

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There are new ideas for solving social problems through economic and market-oriented activities, which are reflected in phenomena such as social entrepreneurship. But their relationship with social policy remains little studied and poorly discussed in the scientific literature.

Regardless of the changes, the nature and purpose of social policy remains unchanged - to ensure social security and to satisfy the fundamental rights of citizens. The welfare state continues to be a guarantor in meeting basic social needs of citizens in society. Gradually, however, the basic theory, which underpinned its existence, is changing.

In solving social problems, public systems should increasingly promote and encourage citizen participation on the principle of self-reliance over government dependency. This means that the welfare state is turning more and more into a "participation society".

At state level, practical social policy uses universal mechanisms, rules and regulations. It aims to regulate social relations in society, so as not to resist to the market economic order, to mitigate and overcome its negative social consequences. Each state social policy pursues specific objectives that depend on its nature, on the social problems that occur in various areas and on the resources available.

However, regardless of what those concrete targets are, what unites them is to be created and maintained equality among citizens in the use of cross-cutting of all social rights; to be created additional guarantees for disadvantaged people in order to be able to use these social rights; to be maintained cohesion in society; to be achieved certainty for everyone in case of accidents and a discontinuation of his/ her socially useful activity, which certainly allows him/ her to lead a normal life. One of the main aim of social policy measures is to create conditions for better social inclusion of people at risk of social exclusion like - children, unemployed, working poor, illiterate, unskilled and low educated people of working age, homeless, living alone without relatives, large families, single parents, the elderly, Roma, people with disabilities, migrants (Йопрова 2011: p. 24) In order to implement these objectives social policy uses redistribution relations in all their aspects: redistribution of income, ownership, power positions and information.

The modern world is developing in a knowledge based economy, influenced by strong global competition and dynamic economic development. In these new circumstances public policy must encourage self-initiative, education, build-up of social capital. The policies of high taxes and encouragingly high benefits are likely to become obstacles to social and economic development.

Contemporary social policy is developing in conditions of world globalization. The concept of globalization has different dimensions - cultural, social, political and economic. The biggest challenge for the welfare state and social policy is the economic globalization. Its main engines are removal of trade barriers, rise of newly industrialized countries and technical innovation.

The economic globalization can be seen as a threat and as an advantage for the welfare state. The economic globalization is seen as a challenge, if it leads to cut of costs for social policy measures. According to Sharpf (Sharp 2000), liberalization of international markets leads to lower wage costs, reduction of tax's costs and others fees, which finance the welfare state. The owners of capital are choosing to invest in countries with low taxation and thus save paying higher taxes needed to finance the welfare state.

It is seen as an advantage if it leads to the development of the welfare state. According to Rodrik (Rodrik 1998: p.1021), international trade positively influences well-being. This leads to an increase in capacity of the welfare state for distribution. Citizens feel sure that they are socially secured against risks in international markets and tend to support the political decision for liberalization.

Studies on the impact of globalization on social spending cuts are controversial. More recent studies conducted since the mid-90s of the last century (Busemeyer, 2009) show that globalization still resulted in a reduction in social spending. Cuts in social payments, leading to repercussions for those entitled to benefits and assistance is political response by governments.

Social policy measures are significantly influenced by demographic changes too. According to Eurostat¹, the share of older persons in the total population will increase significantly in the coming decades. This will lead to an increased burden on those of working age to provide for the social expenditure required by the ageing population for a range of related services. The consequences of the aging process will affect the systems of pensions, health and care. It will increase the need for increase of the funding for these systems.

Structural changes in the economy and labor market are another area of change affecting systems such as education, labor and pensions. By refocusing on the services sector, the most affected are proving to be the following areas: education policy, unemployment and pension policy. This leads to the need for proper training, organizing employee's employment in such a way as to be socially secured. Inequalities in wages, job losses, breaking the continuous work cycle and the emergence of new work biographies are putting pressure on social policy. (Петринг 2011)

In recent decades there has been a change in value orientations. Traditional social norms give way to increased individual freedom and self-determination. The number of single parents is growing, the number of marriages decreases, and the household structure changes. Different groups of the population are at risk of poverty - single parents, the elderly, and the children. The welfare state, oriented towards traditional family model, proved to be not sufficiently prepared for these changes. These developments are putting pressure on social policy and the way social policy measures are programed and implemented. The need for better reconciliation of work and family life is a challenge for social policy. The individuals need to be supported in their efforts to do better performance in a work and in a family life. This means better social policy measures towards encouragement of personal choice and self-reliance over government dependency.

2. Recent developments in the social situation in the EU and Bulgaria

According to the Annual report of the Social Protection Committee on the social situation in the European Union (2014) (European Union 2015) labour market and social conditions remain extremely challenging. The EU28 unemployment rate was 9.9% in December, compared with 10.6% one year earlier. The number of (seasonally adjusted) unemployed in the EU28 reached around 24.1million in December 2014. This represents a total increase of 8.0 million since the low of 16.0 million recorded in March 2008.

¹For more information see: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Population_structure_and_ageing .

In the EU labour market many challenges remain, in particular long-term unemployment and low employment opportunities for youth (15-24) and young adults aged 25-39. These challenges have important social consequences. Poverty and social exclusion have risen over recent years in most Member States, and have negative effect particularly on the working age population and children.

Some positive developments in the social situation in EU member-states can be observed in real gross household disposable income, youth exclusion, in labour market participation of older workers. In some member states there is continued improvement in the income and living conditions of the elderly and reduction in the risk of poverty or social exclusion for the overall population.

According to Eurostat (population figures on 1 January of given year), the number of the Bulgarian population declines from 7,518,002 in 2008 to 7,284,552 in 2013 (3.1%). Data for Bulgaria are shown in Table 1.

Table no. 1. Macro-economic and labour market context

Bulgaria							EU28	
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2012	2013
Real GDP growth (y-o-y % change)	5.8	-5.0	0.7	2.0	0.5	1.1	-0.4	0.0
Employment growth (y-o-y % change)	2.4	-1.7	-3.9	-2.2	-2.5	-0.4	-0.1	-0.4
Unemployment rate	5.6	6.8	10.2	11.3	12.3	13.0	10.5	10.8
Long-term unemployment rate	2.9	3.0	4.7	6.3	6.8	7.4	4.6	5.1
Social Protection expenditure (% of GDP)	15.5	17.2	18.1	17.7	17.4		29.5	

Source: Eurostat (National Accounts, LFS, ESSPROS), Annual report of the SPC on the social situation in the European Union (2014).

3. Social entrepreneurship, social policy and the role of the state

Social entrepreneurship is a new concept that finds more and more supporters not only within the EU but also in other countries in the world. The indicated changes in the labor market, changes in the individual's and society's value system and the changes in demographic trends are affecting the understanding of the role of the individual and the state's role in providing welfare.

Through a social entrepreneurship the individual implements an innovative idea in order to solve a social problem. The main driving force behind is self-initiative, entrepreneurial spirit and opportunities created by the state for implementation of innovations.

In times of financial crises and reduction of social policy payments to disadvantaged groups, social entrepreneurship appears to be more resistant to change, because it combines different resources and relies on social capital.

The instability of the financial system reduces the capacity of individuals to empower themselves, increases poverty and ultimately hinders sustainable development.

Social entrepreneurship can be seen as a challenge for social policy, because social policy has to program its measures in such a way as to create an enabling environment for better individual education, training, health, employment. The entrepreneurship spirit and the individual responsibility for one's own life have to be stimulated. The forms of self-organization and self-empowerment have to be encouraged. In that way the achievement of common good is possible on the ground of individual entrepreneurship spirit and shared values. The benefits of such entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship are twofold - economic and social. The social benefits are commensurate with the integration and employment of disadvantaged people, with the contribution to the process of social inclusion and the creation of social capital. In economic terms, the benefits of social entrepreneurship are related to saving of public money for social benefits, on the one hand, and saving of additional funds offset the social costs of long-term unemployment. Simultaneously, the economic value created in the social economy also represents a significant economic benefit to the state. Additional economic effect of these organizations is their flexibility and ability to mobilize resources from different background - market and non-market resources, volunteer and community support.

The role of social entrepreneurship is to find flexible and fast way to solve various problems. The role of government is to create favorable conditions for development of social entrepreneurship.

According to research (EESC 2008; CIRIEC 1999; UNDP 2008; European Commission 2014) and several analysts, one of the reasons for the rapid development of social economy in recent years is the inability of the state to deal with growing social needs of a growing number of the population. In addition, the myth of the market economy as the solution to all problems is debunked. Thus there is a basis for development of a new hybrid form between government and business - the so-called social economy. Perhaps at first glance it is quite difficult to take a combination of economic and social objectives, but many and varied examples of European landscape confirm the huge potential of this sector.

The intention of governmental social policy is to create enabling environment for market-based economic activities for solving social problems, organized and implemented on the ground of self-initiative.

Social entrepreneurship adds social policy measures, does not displace the role of welfare state policies in solving social problems. It can be a challenge for social policy because it calls into question its ability to encourage individuals to empower themselves. Social policy reflects human relations. Not the measures itself, but the decision to conduct these measures are the essence of politics and a sign of the state's, community's, company's commitment to the holder of social problem.

4. The role of the social entrepreneur

In his book "How to Change the World: Social Entrepreneurs and the Power of New Ideas", David Bornstein identifies the social entrepreneur as an agent for social

change. He argues that social entrepreneurs are seen as “transformative forces” (Bornstein, 2007, p.1), people who use creative, innovative and powerful ideas to solve major problems. Every important social change begins, according to Bornstein “with single entrepreneurial author: one obsessive individual who sees a problem and envisions a new solution, who takes the initiative to act on that vision, who gathers resources and builds organizations to protect and market that vision, who provides the energy and sustained focus to overcome the inevitable resistance, and who – decade after decade keeps improving, strengthening, and broadening that vision, until what was once a marginal idea has become a new norm” (Bornstein 2007: p.3).

The task of the social entrepreneur is to recognize when a part of society is in a deadlock in order to provide new ways to get out of it.

Social entrepreneurs have a meaningful contribution to society. They use a different approach to problems, unbendingly stand behind their views, do not take “no” for an answer and would not give up until they spread their ideas as far as possible. They change old models and trigger waves of change in areas such as education, health, environmental protection, but they have also similar role towards disadvantaged people too.

Social entrepreneurship is a global phenomenon, and the social entrepreneur, no matter where it is in the world, solves similar problems: inadequate educational and health system, environmental threats, declining trust in political institutions, mass poverty, high crime rate, etc.

Social entrepreneurs are needed, because they are creative, determined and firm in their intentions individuals, who advance innovations, needed by society to cope with the most severe problems. They can succeed in their efforts only if there is a supportive social and economic framework, which multiplies the number and effectiveness of social entrepreneurs in the world.

5. The concept of social entrepreneurship. Social enterprise’s characteristics and field of activities. Implications on social policy.

The number of social enterprises in the European countries and in Bulgaria is increasing. This revolution of social entrepreneurship fundamentally changes the way society is organized and the way we approach social problems. However, it is not about substitution of the welfare state’s functions through social entrepreneurship, but rather about enabling the individual within the welfare state to develop its potential so as to take personal initiative and responsibility within its capabilities.

Social entrepreneurship concept is about shared values, provision of self-wellbeing by doing innovative business (economic activity) in a new, creative way on the basis of shared community values. This concept is different from the understanding of the paternalistic role of the welfare state, realized through redistribution processes, which are a major feature of social policy.

Social entrepreneurship is a well-known concept in most European countries. Social enterprises in these countries carry out significant share of activities in the social sphere, combining the generation of income from doing business and achieving certain social effect. It is unique in that it allows the integration of economic and social objectives into one, which allows for effective social policy and provides efficient support to socially vulnerable groups of society in the broadest sense.

One of the main characteristics of the social enterprises is their model – it is a model of doing market-oriented business and at the same time it integrates all involved

in the free market - workers, employers, investors, consumers and others. The economic activity is not only oriented towards profit, but also towards achieving results, connected with well-being of the whole community and some disadvantaged groups.

The social enterprise is an element of the social market economy. It is recognized as a tool for achieving sustainable development. Unlike social policy, which effectiveness decreases with the decrease of the direct support, social enterprises in their nature are innovative social models, through which social problems such as unemployment, social exclusion and poverty are permanently solved.

Social policy measures like social benefits and services, promotion of education, training and skills in various fields, improvement of the access to public services, should be complemented by targeted efforts and resources in order to maintain forms, which would, for socially vulnerable groups, serve as a bridge to primary labor market. In this situation, namely the role of social enterprises has been recognized as successful solution for achieving effective long-term results.

At EU level social enterprises are identified as key instrument for regional cohesion and reduction of poverty and social exclusion. As part of its policy towards promotion of the social economy and social innovation, social entrepreneurship contributes for achieving the strategic goals set in the Europe 2020.

In recent years there has been a clear European policy towards promotion of social entrepreneurship as a key tool to tackle the challenges facing vulnerable groups or to solve social problems, including replacement (or displacement) of the traditional forms of social support (social services and payments). More and more funds from EU budget are targeted for concrete measures for social enterprise support.

There are three models of social enterprises in Bulgaria and there are criteria, attached to them, which must be met in order to determine the activity as a social enterprise.

1. The social enterprise (SE) creates jobs for vulnerable groups by employing such people directly. The defining characteristic of the entity is that it creates jobs. Usually there is a % of the people, employed in the SE, who are from vulnerable groups (mainly people with disabilities).
2. The social enterprise operates by providing goods and services for the market in an entrepreneurial and innovative way. It provides social services and/or goods and services to vulnerable individuals. The vulnerable group in this case is a user of the goods or services. For this purpose, the SE can be financed from public funds by mechanisms that ensure compliance with the rules of competition (public procurement, social negotiation, public - private partnerships and etc.). SE is looking for volunteers and / or donations, and / or reduces the cost of its product in another, innovative way.
3. The social enterprise generates profit from the economic activity (SE produces and provides goods or services in exchange for payment on a market principle), which is reinvested in order to support the vulnerable group or to solve major problem in the society.

The social enterprises in Bulgaria operate in the following areas:

- Delivery of social services;
- Provision of jobs for people with disabilities;
- Mediation in finding employment for unemployed persons;

- Provision of health services;
- Activity in the field of education and others.

In the realization of these activities the leading motive is the social impact on the people towards the needed support for better integration in society, and not the end product itself.

The development of organizations, driven by an entrepreneurial spirit, but focused on social goals is a trend that can be observed in countries with different levels of economic development and different legal systems. This can be explained mainly by factors of supply and demand for services that social enterprises are providing. In recent years, on the supply side, there have been extensive growth and diversification of needs, which is a result from the interaction of various factors, including changing patterns of behavior and lifestyle, combined with the transformation of social security systems. At the same time the supply is very limited due to serious financial restrictions imposed by the crisis and bureaucratic burdens that hinder the expansion but also the delivery of certain services. The most serious cause for the activation of social enterprises is the financial crisis, the restructuring process on that basis, severe economic shocks, unemployment, and serious gaps in the provision of public services, especially for the most vulnerable people (Analysis of social entrepreneurship in Bulgaria, working paper, project "*Initiative for innovations in social economy*", financed under OP Human resources development 2014).

The contribution of social enterprises to socio-economic development of a country can be described as follows:

- Social enterprises provide access to basic services (social, educational and health) of local communities, including the most vulnerable groups;
- Social enterprises contribute to a more balanced use of local resources, moreover with the support of stakeholders; thus they use inclusive management models;
- Social enterprises are supporting the creation of new jobs as a result of offering new services provided to disadvantaged people;
- Social enterprises integrate disadvantaged groups in the labor market like minorities, single parents (usually woman), people with disabilities and others, who remain excluded from opportunities to generate income.

6. Conclusion

The social entrepreneurship in Bulgaria solves some of the most urgent and serious problems in the social field. The use of social innovations expands the portfolio of potential solutions to the problems, but also allows the implementation of innovative solutions from one geographic area to another. Although still modest, entrepreneurial initiatives are more effective than traditional "welfare state", because they are less bureaucratic, more flexible and able to form more attachment. The social entrepreneurship creates new models for active social assistance and inclusion, new ones, in which users and customers are encouraged to take greater responsibility.

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Combating domestic violence in Turkey

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Abstract

The matters of preventing domestic violence against women and enabling gender equivalence have been discussed since the end of 1960s. The issue of violence against woman has stayed as an unspoken matter until recently in Turkey. This matter was put forward as a problem in Turkey as the feminist movement gained strength in the 1980's. Accordingly, some policies have developed and some woman shelters were established in recent years. In order to deter violence and discrimination against woman and ensure the safety of women's and their children's lives, the first women's shelter was set up under the supervision of the Social Services and Child Protection Agency (The SSCPA) in 1990 and this has been followed up by other shelters founded by the municipalities and women's organizations in Turkey. Particularly, the new municipality laws enacted in 2004 and 2005 require that those municipalities with a population over 50 thousands to establish woman shelters for the woman victims of violence. In Turkey, to combat domestic violence against women more effectively, the law 4320 enacted in 1998 was reviewed in 2012, it was renewed as "the law 6284 for Protecting Family and Preventing Domestic Violence against Women" within the enclosures of Istanbul Agreement. With this law "Preventing and Watching Violence Centers" (SONIM) were decided to be founded as the single step system to combat domestic violence. SONIM's were foreseen to work as an alternative for the model of present women's shelters and be prevalent throughout the country to service and coordinate supporting mechanisms for preventing and watching domestic violence against women with the principle of "one door".

Keywords: *Domestic Violence; Combating Violence; Women's Shelters; SONIM; Turkey.*

1. Introduction

Women movements in 1970s carried fighting violence against women to the legal platform and preventing violence was accepted as the responsibility of governments in the late 1980s. Feminists placed the term domestic violence as a kind of violence against women in the center of women rights, awareness towards developing preventive and protective measures was created. Determinant character of violence shaping masculinity and male identity was attracted attention, politics and institutional structures hiding in the segregation of private and public sphere were questioned. They started to discuss dimensions of violence stemmed from unequal power relations between men and women in the family and society. (Anderson 1997; Walby 2009)

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Violence against women could be committed by battering women, by using physical force or by exerting pressure on women in public or private life. It limits women's freedom arbitrarily, and could cause physical, sexual and psychological harms. In fact violence against women is one of major violation of human rights and a social problem which based on gender and depends on eradication of the patriarchal social system. (Schneider 2000; Ertürk 2007) Violence, as an indication of unequal power relations between men and women, causes women's being overpowered by men, and gender based discrimination functions as a social mechanism that degrades women to a lower status than men in society. The disadvantaged position of women to reach financial resources and employment is an important contributor to domestic violence, but patriarchal social structure and gender based prejudices aggravate the problem.

Women's organizations in Europe and North America have developed protective and preventive services for the victims of violence despite the numerous obstacles encountered during the past decades. It has become much easier than before for women to access a variety of services such as women's shelters, counseling and advocacy services, social welfare services, rape crisis centers, call centers and recovery programs. In many countries, extraordinary vulnerability of women and children has been seen as a direct result of domestic violence and welfare regulations have given priority to the protection of battered or / and abused women and children. (European Women's Lobby 1999; WAVE 2009) Women's shelters, as one of the most important institutional mechanisms, play a critical role in the prevention of domestic violence against women through the provision of temporary accommodation and support services. First women shelters which are significant institutional structures in terms of fighting violence against women were opened in European Countries. Norway had been the pioneer to establish women's shelters in the world and the first women's shelter was opened in this country in 1968. This was followed by the opening of the other shelters in Europe in 1970's. On the other hand, in many underdeveloped poor countries and in the Middle East, intervention mechanisms against violence and support services have not developed to the same extent as in the developed countries because of the fact that domestic violence against women is still considered as a taboo and private family problem (Ilkcaracan. et al. 1996; Sallan Gül 2011).

As World Health Organization's (WHO 2005) evaluation on the basis of data from 48 countries, the rates of women's undergoing violence by their husbands or people they live with vary between 10 and 71 percent. The highest rates are recorded in Ethiopia, where the rate of physical violence is 71 percent, and where the rate of sexual violence is 59 percent, the rate of domestic physical violence is 53 percent and the rate of sexual violence is 37 percent in Bangladesh.

The process in Turkey started with the new women's movement of 1980s and legal arrangements have been done and institutional structures have been constituted and there are three determinants for fighting domestic violence against women in 1990s. Feminists attracted public opinion to the violence against women and helped understanding of domestic violence was not a private family problem. Public awareness towards this problem started with women's marching in the streets to find a solution to their common problem and expanded with protests and campaigns. (Mor Çatı 1996; Arın 1996) Thus domestic violence against women has become a part of political agenda. In 1990s legal and institutional process was started to fight against violence and discrimination, preventive and protective mechanisms such as women consultancy centers, emergency help-lines and women shelters were constituted. (Altınay and Arat

2009; Sallan Gül 2011) In this article a short history of combating domestic violence in Turkey will be discussed in terms of law and institutionalization process. Especially women's shelters and ŞONİM model will be evaluated to prevent domestic violence against women in Turkey.

2. Fighting against Domestic Violence in Turkey

In Turkey, in the cases where violence is observed, the relationship between men and women as a given situation is constituted by men with one sided rules and demands. Because of the idea of women's place is home and they are subordinated by men. Somehow this is often a hierarchical and obedient relationship controlled by men but adopted by both sides. As Arın (1998) emphasizes domestic violence results from unequal power relations and emerges through the forms that become evident with chastity and virginity controls in Turkey and the Middle East. Especially, when violence is against daughters in a family, the form of violence may vary from determination of the gender of the baby to be born, to the abuse of female child, from murder of female babies to abuse of female children in family, ban on flirting to forced underage marriages, and from custom or honor crimes to dowry or bride price. (Arın 1996; Ertürk 2007; Sallan Gül and Altındal 2014)

In Turkey, at the end of 1980s, domestic violence became visible and some feminist organizations to fight against domestic violence emerged and had a strong impact on the government policies. Turkey has ratified several international agreements regarding violence against women, including the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), an international bill of rights for women. In the 1990's, struggle against violence became more institutionalized, and the number of gender studies increased mainly because of the consequences of socioeconomic transformation, Turkey's EU accession process and the women's movement in Turkey. Turkey's international treaty obligations also require the establishment of women's shelters. Turkey ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1986 and the Optional Protocol to the Convention, which allows individual women to submit claims of violations of rights protected under CEDAW. Likewise, Turkey's European Union (EU) membership process calls for improved women's rights, including their right to live free from violence. (İlkkaracan and et al. 1996; Sallan Gül 2011) Thus in the 1990's, this struggle became more institutionalized. There are three main types of institutions that run women's shelters: civil society institutions, local governments (municipalities), and social service institutions affiliated with the General Directorate of Social Services and Protection of Children (Sallan Gül 2011 and 2013a). At the state level, since 1990 SHÇEK has been running shelters called "Women's Guesthouses" for survivors of domestic violence. It was followed by the Counseling Center of Bornova Municipality in Izmir in 1990 The first women center for solidarity was established by Purple Roof Women's Shelter Foundation in Istanbul (Işık 2007; Morçatı 1996).

In 1990s and 2000s there were some legal achievements dealing with violence and gender inequalities. For example the Law on the Protection of the Family, Law No. 4320 was enacted by the Turkish Parliament in 1998 and amended on April 26, 2007. This law allowed any family member who is a victim of domestic violence to apply to the court in order for the judge to issue a 'restraining order' to the perpetrator of violence. This new law, the protected individual, and if needed the children, are given some of the cautionary measures assigned by the administrative chief such as being

provided a shelter in the current abode or another location. It also provided temporary financial help for abused women. The protected person is also given some of the measures assigned by the judge such as having the work place changed. Moreover, a change of identification and other documents is applied if the person is in a situation of life-threatening danger and if other measures are not sufficient (İlkkaracan et al. 1996; Ertürk 2007).

3. Cultural Context of Domestic Violence in Turkey

Domestic violence is mostly kept as a secret and regarded as a private family matter. For instance, such kind of suggestions is very common in Turkey: “Marriage is not a rose garden. You will turn the bad into the good. Under all circumstances you will be with your husband. Your husband may be under pressure, you should behave as if everything is all right in spite of the fact that you might be going through difficult times.” And this discourse causes women to be passive and silent against violence and internalize violence for the privacy of home (Mavili Aktaş 1997). Such opinions as not believing in or objecting to the existence of violence transform into learned helplessness for women and acceptance of the dominance of man. In other words, women suffering from violence are socially alone.

Domestic violence is generally directed by men towards women and imposed on via economical dependency and patriarchal values. The non-participation of women in economical life and their lack of economic freedom make women dependent on men. Besides, traditional division of labor in which men are the breadwinners and women are housewives and care takers leads to consequent economic dependency of women on men. Thus, men are inclined to use this dependency as an excuse for his dominance in his personal life. It also causes economic violence and especially in patriarchal societies, economic violence is one of the most commonly used methods to control and subjugate women. In such societies, husbands take on the burden of providing for the family and, in turn, their wives are expected not to question where and how their husbands spend their money (İlkkaracan, et al. 1996; Sallan Gül 2011).

Moreover, low educational attainment, lack of work skills and inadequate financial assets prevent women from having a voice in her family or personal life, and increase pressure and control imposed on them. Consequently, women face other forms of violence ranging from physical to psychological violence. In fact, the struggle against violence has become stronger and more organized since the 1970’s. Such efforts seem to have focused on rehabilitating and helping battered women through crisis centers, woman shelters, advice centers etc. Women are inclined to believe that violence is not specific to them but an ordinary case observed in all marriages. As a result, women are left alone with violence and often do not have the necessary knowledge and awareness toward their rights. In this regard, women’s low level of educational attainment may also have critical importance because the ratio of illiterate women in Turkey reaches 17 percent even in 2011 (TÜİK 2011).

Another important problem with regard to factors deteriorating domestic violence is the lack of women’s control over family resources and their access to basic public services because the access to these services and control of these resources do have important effect on gender inequality and low status of women. Unfortunately, there has been very limited improvement regarding these issues during the last twenty years. The shrinkage of welfare state and efforts to hand over its responsibilities to the NGO’s also has adverse impact on women’s social and economic status.

Domestic violence against women is often tolerated due to learned helplessness until violence reaches the level of severe harming or killing, or when it is committed against children. Then, women start looking for help and solutions to their problems, but resort to the abandonment of house as the last choice. Encouragement of women to reunite with their batterers, women's feeling of loneliness and guiltiness, their love for their husbands cause violence circle to go on. Moreover, society and some public institutions helping victims as well as families have a patriarchal point of view on woman issues and consider domestic violence as a private family problem (Sallan Gül 2013a; Toktaş and Diner 2015). Hence, they show a reluctance to intervene in the above-mentioned circle of violence. Not only family members, relatives and members of close social environment, but also public bureaucracy assign women such roles as "the maintenance of the happiness of family life," compliance with the norms about "the privacy of family life" and with the social roles expected from a married woman.

Furthermore, abused or battered women do not get the needed sympathy or support from their families. As Anderson (1997) stated, women's unconditional financial and spiritual dependency on men brings about control and violence against women. In fact, men see violence as a natural extension of marriage. Men do not feel obliged to rationalize even physical violence because they regard it as their right in a traditional families and social structure. Verbal and psychological violence goes together with physical violence. Especially, in case of male joblessness or income loss, there seems to be a remarkable increase in male aggressiveness and domestic violence against women and children in family. On women's side, the reasoning seems to contribute to male dominance and domestic violence. In Turkey, domestic violence against women is justified on the base of financial difficulties, provocations by close relatives, male aggression, disobedience of women, among others, by many women. (AAK 1995; Arıkan 1996; KSGM 2009)

4. Appearance Dimension of Domestic Violence in Turkey

Violence against women and particularly domestic violence have rarely been discussed publicly in Turkey for they have been treated as taboos and/ or private family issues until recently. Different types of domestic violence are experienced by women in Turkey according to the findings of a large-scale study on 4.287 women carried out by the Family Research Institution (AAK) in 1994. 84 percent of women indicated that they had experienced verbal violence, 78 percent expressed that they had been exposed to physical violence, and 17 percent stated that they had suffered from economic violence. 42 percent of them reported that they had suffered from violence occasionally, and 17 percent indicated that they had experienced violence continually. 61 percent of women stated that they had experienced violence from the first day of their marriage (AAK 1995). According to the report of Grand National Assembly of Turkey (TBMM) in 1998, in the first three years of marriage, 90 percent of women living in squatter housing areas are subject to violence by their husbands.

According to a survey on "The Domestic Violence against Women in Turkey" by Directorate General on the Status of Women (KSGM), 85 percent of women were exposed to violence by those whom they had close relationship with. The same survey also revealed that 44 percent of women experienced psychological abuse whereas 39 percent suffered from physical violence and 42 percent were exposed to both physical and sexual violence in one stage of their lives (KSGM 2009). Another study made by Sallan Gül (2011) showed that of the 103 interviewed women staying in the shelters, 33

% experience physical violence varying from battering to ear-cutting; 12 %, physical and sexual violence; 11 %, physical and psychological violence; and 8 %, sexual violence. 97 % of domestic violence is directed towards women and children. 50 % of the abusers are husbands, and the rest are both husbands and battered women's own or her husbands' relatives. The single women or girls are also subject to violence from their fathers, brothers and other relatives.

Violence women suffer from also varies regionally in Turkey. The region with the highest rate of domestic violence is North East Anatolia, where traditions and moral code are followed closely, and where access to education and women employment are most restricted and problematical. According to the studies done by some woman foundations and researchers, the rate of married women experiencing any type of violence at one stage of marriages reaches up to 97 percent (Mor Çatı 1996). In Turkey there has been an increase in women killing which is the most intense kind of violence against women. An honor crime is commonly defined as the murder of a woman by members of her family who do not approve of her sexual behavior. While there are no official statistics on the crime in Turkey, an incomplete collection of the cases that received coverage in the national media shows. As a woman collective, platform for stopping women killings has taken over this responsibility. Customs make sure that the family safeguards the code of honor in order to prevent transgressions thereof. Custom crimes can be committed against both women and men. A survey between 2000 and 2006 in urban districts under police jurisdiction revealed that of 1,091 custom killings, 480 were committed against women and 710 against men. (Ertürk 2007; Hennecke 2008) Women killings including custom and honor killings were 66 in 2002 but the number increased 237 in 2013. (Sallan Gül and Altındal 2014) 303 women in 2015 and 94 women became victims of women murderers (Platform for Stopping Women Killings, 2016).

5. Role of Women's Shelters in Turkey

Some woman's organizations in Turkey started to bring the problem of domestic violence into public attention in the 1980's. Attention was drawn to the importance of remedial and preventive services to fight with violence and women's organizations have undertaken a leading role in forming supportive mechanisms through cooperation with local authorities. In the 1990's, struggle against violence became more institutionalized; the first women's shelter was established in 1990 by the Social Services and Child Protection Agency (the SSCPA, a government agency). Besides, the first woman center for solidarity was established by Purple Roof (Mor Çatı) Women's Shelter Foundation in Istanbul in 1990. It was followed by the Counseling Center of Bornova Municipality in Izmir in 1990. A Women Solidarity Center was also established by a woman's organization in Ankara in 1991 (Işık 2007; Sallan Gül and Gül 2011: p. 330).

Within the aim of fighting violence against women, the law numbered 4320 which was put into practice in 1998 was reviewed in 2012 and it was legislated as "The Law about Protecting the Family and Fighting Violence against Women" numbered 6284 in the scope of necessities of İstanbul Agreement. Inter-institutional cooperation is suggested in the law numbered 6284, 2006/7 Prime Ministry Declaration and Action Plans to Fight Violence against Women (2007, 2012) in Turkey. But this cooperation has been mostly on the paper in previous practices and a complete model has not been made yet in terms of how this cooperation enables, who irresponsible and how the

related commitments will be implemented. Institutions and actors expected to be in cooperation can have different approaches about problem perception and problem solving.

In the EU accession process of Turkey, the state has had to shoulder more responsibility to take any necessary steps to stop any violence against women. According to the Law on Municipalities (Law Numbered 5393 enacted in the year 2005), metropolitan municipalities and other municipalities with population above 50.000 are to establish shelters for women and children. The total number of women's shelters increased to 60 in 2010 in a tri-partite system: 36 for SHCEK shelters, 19 for municipality shelters and 5 NGO's (2 feminist organization and 3 other women) run by NGO's shelters (Sallan Gül 2011). To increase shelters run by municipalities the criterion of population of the municipalities was changed with a law amendment (number 6360) on 6th December, 2012 and Metropolitan Municipalities and municipalities having the population of 100.000 were obliged to open women shelters. The goal of this provision is to increase the role of local governments in providing support and shelter for the female victims of violence. Despite this growth in the number of women's shelters and increased awareness towards them, their number is still quite limited compared to the demand (Sallan Gül and Gül 2011; Sallan Gül 2011; 2013a and 2015).

Administrative structures of municipalities have weak social responsibility understanding as well as they are patriarchal. Local administrative services towards women are seen as risky political and social initiatives depending on Turkey's patriarchal social and cultural structure. Despite of the new law only 34 municipalities out of 149 that need to open shelters had women shelters. Total number of women's shelters reached 119 in 2015. In line with the requirements of European Union accession process there should be one family room for each ten thousand people, meaning that there should be 740 family rooms in Turkey (Sallan Gül 2011). However, in 2016, the total number of shelters is limited to 119. There is still need for increasing the number and improving the service quality of women's shelters in Turkey in order to keep our hopes high in the struggle against violence and deprivation.

6. One Door System to Combating Violence against Women in Turkey: SONIMs

There have been significant initiatives in Turkey to develop services towards the women and children exposed to domestic violence or having this risk especially in recent years. Although The Law for Protecting the Family and Preventing Violence against Women» number 6284 and Istanbul Agreement accepted 1st August, 2014 with the signatures of 12 countries, are the serious steps to prevent violence against women, domestic violence and violence against women still exist extensively. Istanbul Agreement fills in the blanks among public institutions in fighting against domestic violence. Within the scope of the law, Centers for Preventing and Watching Violence (SONIM) were proposed to be constituted in the bodies of Provincial Directorates of Family and Social Politics in 14 pilot cities (Sallan Gül 2013b). In the scope of the law, Istanbul, Bursa, Izmir, Ankara, Denizli, Antalya, Mersin, Adana, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır, Samsun, Trabzon and Malatya have been chosen as pilot cities, studies have been started in these cities since 2013 and it has been planned to be generalized in 81 cities. But there has been no progress about generalization process so far, only Legislation of SONIMs Practices was released on the Public Newspaper on 17 March

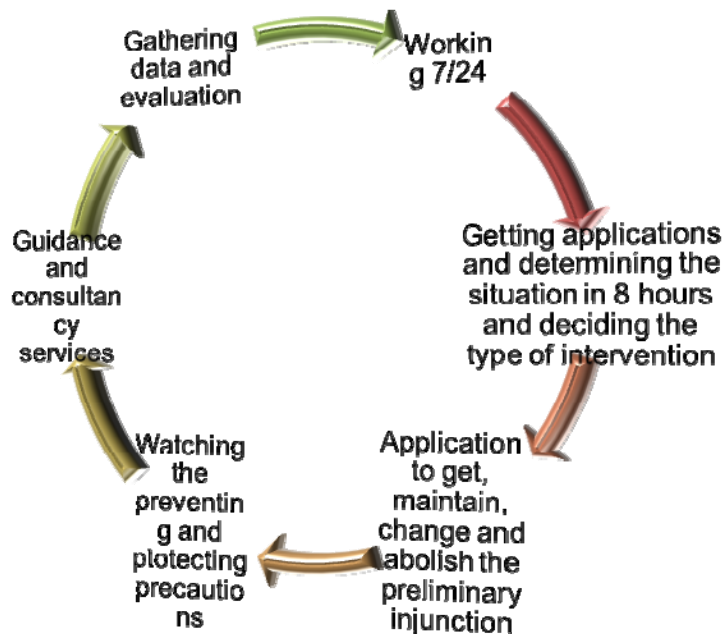
2016. With the legislation these centers which had functioned as data gathering bank started to be structured again to offer the services predicted by the law. First of all, the ministry has started to employ psychologists, social workers, sociologists and some other social service professionals, and headed towards infrastructure work to open centers in the cities.

When the practice legislations is examined, it is seen that these centers have taken over all responsibilities of the process both as an implementer and a controller in terms of preventing domestic violence and violence against women. Yet there has been uncertainty related to institutional structures and inter-institutional coordination constituted to fight violence against women as a necessity of the law numbered 6284 and Istanbul agreement, and an nonworking/could not be worked process has been at issue recently. At present there is still uncertainty about who will manage the process of preventing violence against women and how it works in a model protecting women's individual and human rights for women, SONIMs are just defined as a coordination institution and controller in this process. But whether this controlling process will be worked effectively is not clear. In addition, how security forces being primarily responsible in the scope of the law numbered 6284, juridical services, health institutions will implement the law and fill in its blanks is still a mystery. Again present structure and legal process is being evolved towards a situation which victimizes the woman and makes her a target for the violence implementer more than preventing and empowering the battered woman (Sallan Gül 2013b).

SONIMs have emerged as the centers targeting to collect all the units under one roof that is they aim to make the process easier because the long processes in units such as police department, health institutions and psychological support make women more vulnerable. With the centers in question it is desired to abolish the situation in which they talk about the things they experienced again and again and their being victimized in this way and to make them live this process in a more coordinated system. Collecting data in a pool is quite significant because when this pool is examined, regions, cities, towns even the neighborhoods where violence is common can be defined easily. This makes drawing risk maps in fighting violence against women easier. Starting point can be defined easily when risk areas are known. SONIMs are predicted not only the centers functioning after violence but also active centers before violence (Altıparmak 2015). Making consciousness and empowerment organizations such as advertisements, trainings, and public spots to attract attention to the violence against women is quite important.

The reality that the battered women will be admitted to Women Shelters operated and financed in municipalities and women NGOs with SONIMs' approval, which are constituted in the body of The Ministry of Family and Social Politics, has brought serious concerns to municipalities and women NGOs. How these newly functioned institutions cooperate with municipalities and women NGOs and how they work without intervening the responsibility areas of each other but in coordination, and a model that makes women NGOs happy too is not certain as well. We know the admission is only made on SONIMs in the cities where SONIMs present. Making SONIMs the only unit to get women to direct women shelters make women's access to women shelters difficult and results in nonfunctioning of women protection centers disregarding the national and international agreements demanding to increase women protection/consulting centers (Sulu Gülten 2013).

Figure no. 1. SONiMs working model



SONiMs which are suggested as an alternative to constitutional and institutional arrangements followed to prevent domestic violence and violence against women for years and aimed to function in “one door” principle suggesting supply services to prevent and watch violence against women have been emerged as a new and different institutional model. SONiMs which will supply and coordinate protective services with one door principle have been considered as an alternative to women shelters to prevent and watch violence against women and they are predicted to become nationwide common. To determine the pilot cities, the criteria of population density of the cities, presence of women guesthouses and first admission units, common domestic violence, and sufficient technical basis of the police have been taken into account. SONiMs aim to generate a data bank gathering data related to preliminary injunction, to coordinate the accommodation, temporary economic aid, health and juridical services supplied to the violence victims, and to prepare and apply programs to eradicate violence.

But as of 2016 the process has not become common. Even implement circular was published on the Official Journal three years later on 17th march, 2016. The fact that the staff to work in these intuitions will be contracted employees on subcontractors in parallel with the conditions determined by the Ministry of family and Social Politics in March, 2016 is also worrying in terms of operating and maintaining of these institutions. The matter that these institutions undertaking the functions that were carried by Family Consultancy Services has not been clarified yet because they were opened without defining technical infrastructure, standards of the staff and services legally. A process which does not function/ cannot be functioned and ambiguity in terms of institutional structures in fighting violence against women as necessities of Istanbul Agreement and law number 6284 and inter-institutional coordination is in question. In the first six months of 2012, 75% of women demanding guard and being

under guard, and 37.5% of the ones who are both under guard and living in shelters were killed while preliminary injunction was going on.

Similarly 189 women in 2013, 129 women in the first six months of 2014 were killed. Turkey's ranking 68 which is quite low out of 148 in 2012 Humanitarian Development Report (2013) requires the developed politics and implementation processes related to women and family in our country to be questioned. Again, how security headquarters that are primarily responsible within the scope of the law number 6284, jurisdiction, and health institutions enforce the law and fill in the judicial blanks are the unknown parts of the equation. In addition, present structure and legal process is evolving into the situation making the women become victims and a target board against the ones who commit violence let alone protecting and empowering them.

7. Conclusion

In Turkey efforts to fight violence against women have become an issue of which responsibility is undertaken by the government providing support and cooperation of all related participants. Also there is an agreement on the fact that women's shelters provide a temporary refuge for battered women and their children away from an immediate threat of violence. Besides, these places are safe and provide food and lodging for battered women and their children in their desperate times. However, women's shelters do not have adequate capacity to meet the demand and do not serve the victims of violence properly. So, it could be argued that women's shelters neither prepare battered women properly for life after shelter which includes establishing safe and sustainable lives with their children, nor help them get rehabilitated (Sallan Gül and Gül 2011: p. 334).

Moreover there are serious difficulties on the ground of government in fighting combating violence against women and significant legal amendments have been done and institutional bodies have been constituted in Turkey. In addition, fighting violence and related programs are affected negatively because of government's efforts to transfer this issue to local governments and NGOs, not allocating funds for the issue while making the budget and lack of resources. But a systematic politic approach in fighting violence against women is out of question because of the family focused, patriarchal, conservative welfare state politics. Gendered approaches in juridical system, long and tiring bureaucratic stages creating new kinds of victimization for women of due process, lack of awareness and information of security headquarters and lack of various support mechanisms decrease the level of success in the process of fighting violence against women.

Some researches on domestic violence and woman's shelters show that the state institutions involved in combating violence against women try to protect family rather than women. The laws and policies designed to support women and combat domestic violence contradict the prevailing mentality within society and state institutions, which support the integrity of the family. The priority attached to the family may prevent, from time to time, the development of women's rights or status within society. That is, it is not women's problems or the violence against women that are prioritized, but the integrity of the family (Sallan Gül 2011 and 2013a; Toktaş and Diner 2015).

It should not be forgotten that present structure and legal process is evolving into the situation making the women become victims and a target board against the ones who commit violence let alone protecting and empowering them. So it is necessary for battered or abused women to have the desire to face the traumas of the past violence in

order for them to overcome the traumas and to search for solutions. Also the financial and organizational support provided for the shelters run by the Turkish State should also be provided for family centers or women's shelters run by the women's organizations and municipalities. Besides, public-private and civic partnerships in this area should be encouraged and supported (Sallan Gül 2011; Sallan Gül and Gül 2011; Sallan Gül and Alican 2011). In conclusions efforts should be spent to increase self confidence among women, to develop ability of expressing themselves, to make them aware of existence of a life without violence and their basic human rights, to make them have control on their lives and to develop an ability to be able to make their own decisions.

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Practical aspects of direct democracy in Romania after 1989: Challenges for theory and research

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Abstract

The continuous relevance of direct democracy for various fields of scientific research (political sciences, sociology, legal studies) is closely connected with the dynamics of democratic processes taking place in the world and with the sensitivity of the existing democratic solutions constantly jeopardized by social, economic, or political conflicts. Vast literature on the subject indicates that scholars try to meet the social demand by continuing to analyze the problems of direct democracy in the contemporary world. Of special interest to scholars were the following fields of research: (a) the influence of institutions of direct democracy on socio-political life; (b) challenges to direct democracy associated with globalization; (c) the use of new communication technologies in the sphere of direct democracy. In the case of Romania few theoretical approaches were made in order to explain the peculiarities of direct democracy in comparison with the classical models which exist in the Western Academic literature. The paper will seek fill the existing gap and try to verify the following research hypotheses: (a) The use of instruments of direct democracy in the process of exercising power is an indicator of the political awareness of the Romanian society; (b) The process of accession of Romania to the European Union had an impact on the development of direct democracy in this country (on the formal-legal and practical aspects of direct democracy). The main methods of analysis used in the paper are the secondary analysis of social documents and the institutional-legal method applied on legal acts, historical recordings of the forms of direct democracy (people's assembly, referendum, citizens' initiative, and popular referendum-popular veto) that were used in Romania after 1989.

Keywords: *Direct democracy; Romania; Referendum; Parliamentary system; Democratic vote; semi-presidential system; Electoral turnout.*

1. Introduction

Direct democracy is the term used to describe particular forms of vote within any democratic system (Maduz 2010). The term direct democracy is commonly used to refer to three distinct types of vote or instruments (Maduz 2010):

- Referendum, which consists of a vote of the electorate required by the legal framework or requested by the Executive or Legislative on an issue of public policy such as a constitutional amendment or a proposed law;

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- Citizens' initiative, which allows a certain number of citizens to initiate a vote of the electorate on a proposal outlined by those citizens to, for example, amend the constitution, or adopt, repeal, or amend an existing law; and
- Recall, which allows a specified number of citizens to demand a vote of the electorate on whether an elected holder of public office should be removed from that office before the end of his/her term of office.

The common characteristic of these instruments is that they all give citizens the right to be directly involved in the political decision making process (Maduz 2010). Direct democracy is therefore often seen as conflicting with representative democracy, in which voters elect representatives to make decisions on their behalf (Mény and Surel 2002, pp. 10-11). Alternatively, direct democracy can be viewed as a sometimes necessary means for the citizens to correct or limit the excesses of elected representatives and leaders, or by the government as a means of ensuring itself of a mandate to undertake what might otherwise be perceived as unpopular measures (Mény and Surel 2002, p. 14).

Proponents of direct democracy argue that it can help to reduce the "democratic deficit", in which voters are losing confidence and interest in traditional models of representative democracy. They claim that by putting power back in the hands of the people, people will take a greater interest and role in issues of governance, thereby increasing the legitimacy of the democratic systems (Maduz 2010).

In contrast, critics argue that it undermines and weakens representative government, and that placing power in the hands of the people can threaten the rights of minorities in society (Maduz 2010). It is also argued that many voters do not have sufficient understanding to make informed decisions about referendum issues, especially in the case of complex constitutional issues (Golder 2005: p.116). Voter education and campaign information are therefore significant issues in relation to direct democracy.

2. Theoretical framework

As Matsusaka stated (2005):

"Direct democracy is an umbrella term that covers a variety of political processes, all of which allow ordinary citizens to vote directly on laws rather than candidates for office".

The most prominent of these processes is the initiative, which allows citizens to place proposals on the ballot that become law if a majority of the electorate votes in favour (Matsusaka 2005: p.190). The referendum is a relative of the initiative that permits voters to reject proposals/laws made by their representatives but does not permit citizens to make their own proposals. The town meeting is another form of direct democracy (Matsusaka 2005: p.190).

In order to strengthen direct democracy many arguments had been proposed. Thus, Besley and Case (2003: p. 65) argue that there is a "widespread belief that agency problems lead to a government that is too large" under representative democracy and, as such, the use of direct-democracy institutions is a way to address this issue. By allowing people to vote directly on policy, direct democracy gives them a way to align policy with the preferences of the median voter (Matsusaka 2005: p. 200).

Other argument in favor of direct democracy is that under representative democracy, citizens have only one vote to cast for candidates who have responsibility for choosing a bundle of issues (Besley and Case 2003, p. 40). Direct democracy allows

the median voter's preferences to prevail along different dimensions (Besley and Case 2003; Matsusaka 2005).

A third argument in favor of direct democracy refers to the increase of turnout in such a vote. From a rational choice perspective, voter turnout should therefore be low. The expected costs of participating in democratic decisions are the higher the better informed citizens have to be in order to obtain reflected political decisions (Kirchgässner, Feld and Savioz 1999, Feld and Kirchgässner 2000).

In EU the issue of direct democracy was analysed in relation to the question of how voters decide in referendums. The majority of analyses focused on a single referendum or a single country (Svensson 1984; Siune et al.1994a; Widfeldt 2004; Garry et al.2005). At the same time, the comparative studies are mainly descriptive and normative (Setälä 1999; Qvortrup 2002; LeDuc 2003; Kaufmann and Waters 2004) and few analyses used an integrate approach (Butler and Ranney 1978, 1994; Gallagher and Uleri 1996).

In the case of Romania few theoretical approaches were made in order to explain the peculiarities of direct democracy in comparison with the classical ("canonical") models which exist in the Academic literature. The paper will seek fill the existing gap by focusing on the issues related to direct democracy in Romania after 1989.

3. The research hypothesis

The following research hypothesis will be verified in this paper:

(a) The use of instruments of direct democracy in the process of exercising power is an indicator of the political awareness of the Romanian society.

(b) The process of accession of Romania to the European Union had an impact on the development of direct democracy in this country (on the formal-legal and practical aspects of direct democracy).

4. Methodology

The main methods of analysis used in the paper were secondary analysis of social documents and the institutional-legal method applied on legal acts, historical recordings of the forms of direct democracy (people's assembly, referendum, citizens' initiative, and popular referendum-popular veto) that were used in Romania after 1989.

5. The general legal framework of direct democracy in Romania

The present political system in Romania may be described as a representative democracy, governed by the directly elected President and Parliament (semi-presidential system), according to the provisions of the new Constitution from 1991 (Nohlen and Stöver 2010, p. 1589).

The new Romanian Constitution was adopted by referendum, on December 8, 1991, when, in a turnout of 66%, 53% voted in favour of the new constitution (Nohlen and Stöver 2010, p. 1590).

Provisions of Constitution regarding subject-matters of referendums and popular initiative According to Article 72, paragraph 3, line (c), the organization and fulfilling of the referendum is regulated through organic law (Camera Deputatilor 1991). Article 73 on legislative initiative provides that (Camera Deputatilor 1991):

"Legislative initiative belongs to: the Government; every member of the Parliament; at least 250,000 citizens entitled to vote (coming from at least 1/4 of the counties, and at least 10,000 signatures per county or the city of Bucharest)."

Article 90 of the Romanian Constitution provides that (Camera Deputatilor 1991):
“The President of Romania, after consulting the Parliament, may ask the people to express its will, through referendum, in matters of national interest.”

But what may represent “problems of national interest” in this case? During the last years, several suggestions were given by the debates in the Romanian public sphere:

1. There existed fervent debates regarding the revision of the Constitution in what concerned the parliamentary immunity. According to the Romanian Constitution (Camera Deputatilor 1991):

“A deputy or a senator may not be arrested, searched or sent on trial, criminal or civil, without the agreement of the Chamber of Deputies, respectively of the Senate, after having been organized hearings on the matter”.

2. Another public debate regarded the possibility of revising the Constitution in the matter of the form of government. The debate somehow was not so strong in the last years but had dominated the public debate in the years following the events of December 1989 (Datculescu 1999). Between 1990 and 2006 few monarchist groups would liked to see (former) King Michael I back on the throne of Romania (Datculescu 1999) and a number of public personalities suggested that there should be held a referendum regarding this issue (Datculescu 1999).

In the year 2000 the Parliament adopted the Law 3/2000 on the organization and holding of referendum (Monitorul Oficial 2000). According to Article 95 of this Law (Monitorul Oficial 2000):

“The president may be suspended, in case of severe break of law, by the Parliament, through a decision taken by majority, after having asked the advice of the Constitutional Court. The suspension of the president has to be proposed by at least 1/3 of the number of deputies and senators. If the dismissal proposal is approved, in a maximum of 30 days there is organized a referendum for the dismissal of the President.”

In the same vein, the Law of local public administration (Monitorul Oficial 2001) provides some important regulations related to instruments of direct democracy in Romania (Monitorul Oficial 2001):

“Article 5 – The authorities of public administration, fulfilling the local autonomy in communes and cities are the local councils, functioning as deliberative authorities, and the mayors, functioning as executive authorities [...]”.

“Article 13 – The councils of communes and cities are constituted of councilors elected through universal, equal, direct secret and freely expressed vote, under the conditions of the law regarding the local elections.”

6. Direct democracy at the national level – Referendums in Romania

Referendums which are held at the national level can be initiated only by elected representatives of the citizens. Under the legal provisions in function in Romania it is not possible for an initiative for a national referendum to be initiated by citizens (Setälä and Schiller 2012).

Since 1989, six national referendums have been held until now: two about a constitutional referendum (1991 and 2003), two on presidential impeachments (2007 and 2012), one on reforming the Romanian voting system (2007) and one on parliamentary reform (2009).

We can differentiate, as such, between three levels of using the national referendum as instrument of direct democracy in Romania:

1. Constitutional;
2. Electoral and Parliamentary system;
3. Presidential tenure.

At the first level, the Constitutional one, the first Romanian referendum was held in Romania on 8 December 1991 on the topic of approving the new post-communist, democratic Constitution.

With a turnout of 67.3%, the Romanian democratic Constitution was approved by 79.1% of voters.

Table no. 1. Referendum on approval the Romanian Costitution
8 December 1991

	Choice	Votes%
For	8,464,624	79.1
Against	2,235,085	20.9
Invalid/blank votes	248,759	–
Total	10,948,468	100
Registered voters/turnout		67.3

Source: Nohlen and Stöver 2000: p. 1591.

Twelve years later, on 18 and 19 October 2003, a referendum on the revision of some articles of the Romanian Constitution from 1991 was held. With a turnout of 55.7% the proposed amendments to the Constitution were approved by 91.1% of voters.

Table no. 2. Referendum on the revision of Romanian Costitution
18 and 19 October 2003

	Choice	Votes %
For	8,915,022	91.1
Against	875,172	8.9
Valid votes	9,790,194	98.5
Invalid/blank votes	148,247	1.5
Total votes	9,938,441	100
Registered voters/turnout	17,842,103	55.7

Source: Dinita 2012.

Until now there was no other referendum related to amendments to the existing Constitution or the approval of a new one.

At the next level – that of the electoral and Parliamentary systems – in Romania the referendum as an instrument of direct democracy was used twice. Thus, in the same day with the first elections for the European Parliament (after Romania became on 1 January 2007 a full member of European Union) a referendum on changing the voting system to single-member voting was held in Romania (Asociatia ProDemocratie 2008). The referendum was called by President in function, Traian Băsescu, on 23 October 2007 when the Parliament of Romania failed to meet a deadline set by him to pass the changes of the voting system in Romania (Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008). Traian Basescu has motivated the desire to launch a referendum to consult the Romanian

citizens in the voting system proposed by him only in his opinion that provides the necessary reform of the political class in Romania (Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008).

The Romanian voters were asked to say “Yes” or “No” at the following question:

“Do you agree that, beginning with the next elections that will be held for the Romanian Parliament, all deputies and senators be elected in single-member constituencies, based on a majority vote in two rounds?”

In fact, the reform of the vote system would lead the elections of Senators and Deputies in a two-round electoral system (Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008) and would also reduce the number of members of the Parliament by around 20% (Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008).

Table no. 3. Romanian voting system referendum . 25 November 2007

	Choice	Votes %
Yes	3,947,212	81.36
No	784,640	16.17
Valid votes	4,731,852	97.53
Invalid or blank votes	119,618	2.46
Total votes	4,851,470	100
Turnout required		50
Registered voters and turnout	18,296,459	26.51

Source: Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008.

Due to the fact that the Law no. 3/2000 on organizing and holding the referendum states that, in order to validate the referendum results, turnout should be “at least half plus one of the persons registered on electoral lists” (Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008) the results of the referendum were declared as invalid by the Constitutional Court of Romania (Asociatia ProDemocratia 2008).

On 22 November 2009, in the same day with the first round on the Predisential elections, a referendum on modifying the size and structure of the Parliament from the current bicameral one with 137 senators and 334 deputies to a unicameral one with a maximum of 300 seats was held (Dinu 2009).

The electors were asked two questions on two separate ballots as follows:

1. “Do you agree to Romania’s adoption of a unicameral Parliament?”
2. “Do you agree to the reduction of the number of parliamentarians to a maximum of 300 persons?”

Table no. 4. Do you agree to Romania's adoption of a unicameral Parliament?
(Romanian parliamentary reform referendum, 2009)

	Choice	Votes %
Yes	6,740,213	77.78
No	1,925,209	22.22
Valid votes	8,665,422	92.97
Total votes	9,320,240	100.00
Registered voters and turnout	18,293,277	50.95

Source: Biroul Electoral Central 2009.

Table no. 5. Do you agree to the reduction of the number of parliamentarians to a maximum of 300 persons?

(Romanian parliamentary reform referendum, 2009)		
	Choice	Votes %
Yes	7,765,573	88.84
No	975,252	11.16
Valid votes	8,740,825	93.78
Total votes	9,320,240	100.00
Registered voters and turnout	18,293,277	50.95

Source: Biroul Electoral Central 2009.

To validate the referendum, as the Law 3/2000 stated, a turnout of 50% +1 of the number of voters was needed. The Romanian Central Electoral Commission validated the referendum stating that 50.16% (9,320,240 of the 18,293,277) of eligible voters have cast their votes (Biroul Electoral Central 2009).

Despite the fact that the referendum from 2009 on the parliamentary reform was validated immediately by the central authorities, no further action was taken after that moment to put into act the will of the people and the Parliament remains both bicameral and its number depass 300 members.

The two referendums on the impeachment of the president (2007 and 2012) marked the new use of this direct democracy's instruments in the recent history of Romanian democracy.

On 19 April 2007 the Romanian Parliament suspended president Traian Băsescu (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007) and a national referendum was to be held on this issue (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007) to decide by popular vote whether to dismiss the incumbent president (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007).

According to the law (article 5(2) of the Law 3/2000 on the organization and holding of referendum), an absolute majority of all Romanians with the right to vote is required for a positive result in a dismissal referendum (50% +1), which means that almost nine million people would have had to vote against Băsescu (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007). Otherwise he would regain full prerogatives. If the president Băsescu had been dismissed by the referendum, early presidential elections would have been called in 2007 (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007).

The question printed on the ballots was (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007):

"Do you agree with the removal of the President of Romania, Mr. Traian Băsescu, from office?"

It should be noticed that the question was modified to include the name of the president even though article 9 in the Law 3/2000 already established the content of the question without names of presidents (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007).

On 24 April, the Romanian Parliament voted to organize the referendum on 19 May 2007 and included an amendment of the opposition which stipulated that in case the constitutional court found the referendum invalid, parliament would decide on further procedures (Institutul "Ovidiu Sincăi" 2007).

The Romanian Parliament's decision started a debate on the referendum issue generated by the law not providing for the hypothesis that the referendum to dismiss the president would be considered formally not valid by the constitutional Law on account of low turnout.

According to paragraph (2) of article 5 in the Law 3/2000, a referendum is valid only if the majority of citizens registered in the electoral lists participate in the referendum, regardless of their votes or the validity of their votes once they have participated. This condition applies to all referendums and only if met, the referendum will be held as formally valid by the constitutional court. But neither the constitution nor the law on referenda give any solution to the invalidity issue as to what would happen afterwards with the legal effects of the suspension vote or the re-instatement of the president with full prerogatives (Institutul “Ovidiu Sincai” 2007).

Table no.6. Do you agree with the dismissal of the President of Romania, Mr. Traian Băsescu?

(Romanian referendum on the impeachment of the president 2007)		
	Choice	Votes %
Yes	2,013,099	24.94%
No	6,059,315	75.06%
Valid votes	8,072,414	99.23%
Total votes	8,135,272	100.00%
Registered voters and turnout		44.45%

Source: Institutul “Ovidiu Sincai” 2007.

Due to the fact that turnout was not as stated in the law (50% +1 of the number of voters, that is, around nine million voters recorded at the polls) (Institutul “Ovidiu Sincai” 2007) the Romanian Central Electoral Commission invalidated the referendum, its results having no legal force and the president remains in office (Institutul “Ovidiu Sincai” 2007).

Five years later, in 2012, a new national referendum on the impeachment of the president Traian Basescu was held (Romanian Academic Society 2012). The referendum was required after Parliament voted in favour of impeaching the incumbent president on 6 July 2012, and had to take place within a month after that (Romanian Academic Society 2012). On the day before the vote in Parliament, the government changed the Law 3/2000 to enable an impeachment referendum to be valid if a majority of voters voted in favour (Romanian Academic Society 2012).

Following criticism of this tactics from the European Union (Romanian Academic Society 2012) which accused the Parliament of “undermining the rule of law” (Romanian Academic Society 2012) the leaders of the main opposition parties (Victor Ponta and Crin Antonescu) the ruling by the Constitutional Court to require a turnout of 50% plus one to render the result of the referendum valid (Romanian Academic Society 2012).

The opinion polls made in July 2012 showed a majority of Romanians favoring the impeachment of the President (Romanian Academic Society 2012), but they also estimated a low turnout - around 46% (Romanian Academic Society 2012).

On 29 July 2015 the voters were asked the question:

“Do you agree with the dismissal of the President of Romania, Mr. Traian Băsescu?”

Once again, as in the case of the referendum from 2007, the question was modified to include the name of the president even though the Law 3/2000 stated that the

question should not make any reference to a specific person (Romanian Academic Society 2012)

The exit polls made on 29 July 2012 showed that more than 80 % of the voters voted for the impeachment of the president, but the turnout was under the 50% required by the Law 3/2000 – in fact, it was of 46.24% (Romanian Academic Society 2012).

Table no. 7. Do you agree with the dismissal of the President of Romania, Mr. Traian Băsescu?

(Romanian referendum on the impeachment of the president 2012)		
	Choice	Votes %
Yes	7,403,836	88.70
No	943,375	11.30
Total	8,459,053	100
Registered voters/turnout	18,292,464	46.24

Source: Romanian Academic Society 2012.

The turnout was estimated to have been around 51.6% in rural areas and 41.8% in cities, with Bucharest at 40.0% (Romanian Academic Society 2012). The highest turnout was reported in Muntenia with a turnout of over 50% and some counties having over 60%, including Olt, 74.7%; Mehedinți, 70.5%; Teleorman, 70.2%; Giurgiu, 60.7%; and Vâlcea, 60.4%. Eight polling stations in Olt County had a turnout of over 100%, the highest being 126% (Romanian Academic Society 2012). In other parts of Romania the turnout was below 50%, with the lowest level in Transylvania. The counties with the lowest turnout were Harghita, 11.6%; Covasna, 20.6%; Satu Mare, 28.2%; Mureș, 34.0%; and Arad, 35.0% (Romanian Academic Society 2012).

The Constitutional Court has the final verdict in the case of the validity of the referendum. Final results from the Central Electoral Bureau were published on 1 August 2012. On 2 August 2012, the Court announced that a verdict for the validity of the referendum will be pronounced after 12 September 2012 (Romanian Academic Society 2012). Up to that date, all the authorities have to clear up the electoral lists, in order to calculate correctly the voter turnout. Finally, the verdict will be presented in a joint session of Parliament. Meanwhile, the Constitutional Court rescheduled the verdict for 31 August 2012 (Romanian Academic Society 2012). A second rescheduling placed the verdict on 21 August 2012 (Romanian Academic Society 2012). The Constitutional Court of Romania subsequently declared the referendum invalid, reinstating Băsescu as president of Romania, which succeeded on 28 August 2012 (Romanian Academic Society 2012).

The Romanian constitutional court declared the referendum invalid in September 2012 (Romanian Academic Society 2012) by a vote of 6–3 due to the fact that turnout did not reach 50%+1, as requested by the Law 3/200 and, as the direct result the president remained in office until the presidential elections from November 2014.

7. Conclusions

No research hypothesis stated at the beginning of the article was validated by our analysis. In other words, we can not affirm that, on the one hand, the use of instruments of direct democracy in the process of exercising power is an indicator of the political awareness of the Romanian society. On the other hand, as the chronology of direct

democracy's instruments had proved, the process of accession of Romania to the European Union did not have any impact on the development of direct democracy in this country.

At the same time our analysis showed some peculiarities of the use of referendum as an instrument of direct democracy in Romania. The most important is direct related to the results of the Romanian presidential impeachment referendums (2007 and 2012). Due to the great popular debate surrounding the results of those referendums in Romania it is possible to ask if the tensions between parliament, government and president favour or not the use of presidential impeachment as a method of dealing with political conflicts. A possible answer is that although the Romanian semi-presidential system is predisposed to conflicts between the president, parliament and government especially when the head of state has to carry out his/her mandate while having to deal with a hostile parliamentary majority, we can not point to a strict causal relationship between the tendencies of the semi-presidential form of government and the practice of presidential suspension (Dimulescu 2010, p. 129). From here, a possible way to offer a robust answer at this question is to make a more comparative analysis at the European level of the ways in which impeachment referendums were put at work in semi-presidential political systems.

One question which has not been addressed yet is: What are the relations between the national and local levels of exercising direct democracy in Romania?

We intend to approach this issue through a mixed approach (local vs. national) to direct democracy in order to explain the peculiarities of the local and national referendums in Romania.

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Society changes Accountancy

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Abstract

Enterprises are economic organizations that meet the needs of society with material goods and services. Their existence justifies the need for accounting as a tool of management to create information for the assets and the financial results of the company. Based on the traditional understanding of the close relationship and dependence between accounting and business environment on the one hand and the relationship between society and the environment on the other, the present report explores the relationship society - accounting. Its aim is to prove that society forms the accounting through environment. To achieve this, links are derived in the report and dependencies between society and accounting; certain factors by which society affects accounting; and analysis of the impact of key factors - business environment, legislation, and socio-cultural environment and their impact on accounting are presented. The historical approach used tracks how socio-economic relations gradually build accounting as a flexible system that retains its stability under the influence of socio-economic relations.

Keywords: *Accounting; Accounting history; Legislation; Social and business environment, Society.*

"The only sure thing is change"
Heraclitus

1. Introduction

Everything changes - nature, man, society, science. Change is the impetus for development. It is cause and effect of evolution. The interest therein is always great. You can not always explain how things change but you always can and must understand why they change and how this change affects them. There is no scientific knowledge, skill and technique, which has retained its original form and content from its inception. The history of accounting is an example of how knowledge, a process constantly change under the influence of external factors. This paper aims to explore how society¹ affects accounting.

2. Theoretical framework

Accounting is a unique combination of economic knowledge of the processes and phenomena with the needs of management. By implementing the specific toolbox of

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¹Society in this report is seen as an example of external influence.

methods and techniques it creates information about the enterprises that assists managers in making decisions. It is a process of identifying, recording, measuring, classifying, verifying, summarizing, interpreting, reporting and analyzing financial information for recourses /assets/, liabilities, owners' equity, cash flows, activities and financial results of the enterprise. Accounting is not closed within itself. Along with information and control features that are inherent in it, it has a service function. The service function is a secondary function. It derives from the information function. Accounting creates information about the financial position and financial results of the enterprise, but this information is intended to serve the needs of all those who are interested therein - managers, owners, lenders, investors, tax authorities and so on. So, the main task of accounting is to provide the financial information necessary for the enterprise. This task requires constant contact with the environment for its implementation.

3. The research thesis

The relationship between accounting and environment is built on the basis of the *environment - needs – requirements* dependence. Any change in the environment:

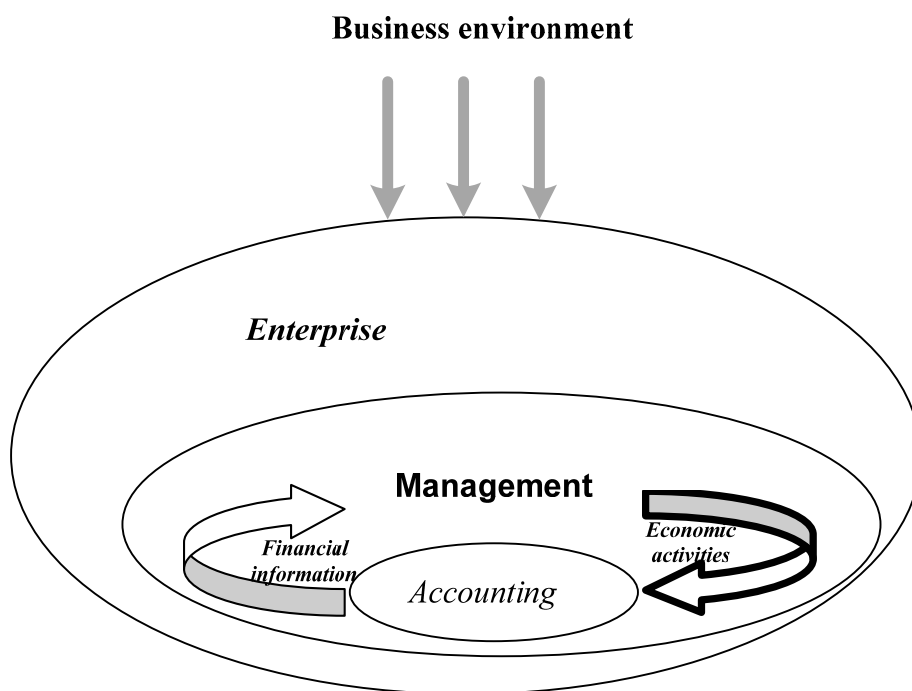
- changes the information needs of the state and change of the assets, liabilities and equity of the enterprise, the financial results, the cash flow, the requirements for the contents of this information change along with them;
- has an impact on the enterprise's activity, changing the assets and liabilities, and the assets, liabilities and equity are the main object of accounting and any changes there to shall be registered, evaluated and disclosed by accounting.

The relationship between environment and accounting is direct. It has two manifestations – it once influences the requirements for the quality and content of the accounting information; and then it reflects the requirements of accounting as activity. It should be borne in mind that management makes some demands on the quality of accounting as activity and other requirements to the quality of accounting information as a product of accounting (Dimitrov 1988: pp. 87 – 95). Of course, they influence each other but have different character.

4. Relationship between business environment and accounting

Environment, when it comes to accounting and its impact thereon, is usually identified with the business environment. The traditional approach that describes existing relationships and dependencies is based on the understanding that enterprises operate in a continually changing business environment and the managers are required to implement adequate and timely action. As a result of decisions, the assets of an enterprise are changed and accounting is required to reflect these changes in a timely manner, quickly and operationally whereby the information that it creates must be timely, accurate, complete, correct, etc. Or, the business environment through management affects accounting (See. Figure 1)

Fig. no. 1. Relationship between business environment and accounting



The traditional approach is logically justified and presents the economic substance of the relationship between management and accounting. It is characterized by highlighting the impact of economic factors on the development of the enterprise, hence on accounting. Outside the narrow economic context, the enterprise is an organization² that has a goal to satisfy the needs of society with material goods and services. In this sense, enterprises (businesses) bear the influence of society.

Society is a group of people united by the same national or cultural identity, geographical territory, language, interests and etc., often taken as a whole – an economic, social, political, cultural or other body. It is not “a just a position of individuals and social groups” (Filipov 2003: p. 63) and expresses a set of relationships between people forming a common functional system. Society creates the environment in which it exists. It is through the environment that society affects organizations (enterprises).

The operation of enterprises is limited by the action of external and internal factors.

External factors are any restrictions and conditions that affect the enterprise. On one of them can be influenced by the management of the enterprise by means of its actions. These include customers, suppliers, markets, competitors and others. On the other part of it is difficult, if not impossible. These are economic conditions (e.g. market situation, consumer purchasing power); technological development (science);

²The organization generally is a formal group of people who strive for common goals. One of the most common forms of organization are economic organizations – enterprise, federation, association, union, etc.

political and legal conditions (e.g. legislation, government policies, fiscal policy); social and cultural conditions (traditions, customs, habits established); demographic conditions (distribution of population, fertility, mortality, migration).

Internal factors are those circumstances that exist within the enterprise and have an immediate impact on its financial position and financial performance. For example, availability of resources (material, financial, labor); organization and management; technical and technological security and more.

Undoubtedly there is a commitment between society and economic organizations (enterprises), and by the factors characterizing the environment of enterprises, society affects it. Given the link between society and the organization (enterprise) and taking into account:

a) the close relationship between enterprise and management, which explains the enterprise as a structure with clearly defined rules and procedures, aimed (financial) targets and expressed hierarchical levels, management is inherent to the enterprise; and

b) the place, role and importance of accounting for management,

then these logical relationships are grounds to assert that a correlation exists between society and accounting and it is a linear type. Hence, society influences accounting through the enterprise environment. Definite proof can be found in the history of accounting.

Accounting arises intuitively to meet public needs. With the emergence of the first civilizations, the first primitive form of accounting appeared, too – elementary recordkeeping. Elementary keeping of accounting records consisted in entries in the form of notches (lines) on stones, slabs, wooden peel. The emergence of writing replaced them at first with signs and symbols, and later with letters and numbers. The technique of accounting recordkeeping improves with changing socio-economic conditions. The division of labor encourages the exchange of goods, and this changes the role of ancient accounting, too: by registering the facts of everyday life to provide information on performed exchange and production surplus. The seizure of new territories as a result of wars increased wealth and elementary recordkeeping received new “duties” to describe the wealth. So inventory accounting records replaced elementary records. The emergence of money developed trade and credit. With these the reporting objects increased with the addition of recording transactions, the amounts due from and to owner and their nature (trade and other receivables and payables). The records become individual. For the first time the information was systematized as the property was classified by kind, people started to use complex mathematical calculations and write records on papyrus.

The circumstances and business environment (trade, banking development, monetary circulation), the state structure and the level of intellectual development of man in antiquity create conditions in Ancient Greece:

- Finally the natural economy was replaced by market economy. Although natural-value accounting records was still used and money had means of exchange (goods), bit by bit they changed its purpose and began to be used first as a means of calculations and later as a value measure of inventory (assets);

- A new technique of reporting - linear recordings emerged, and as a consequence appear a new type of chronological register of current recording was used - ephemeris (journal). So originated a new accounting system single-entry book-keeping.

- Book-keeping got specialized – for example, *trapezit*³ (bankers) led two kinds of accounting registers: in one of them they recorded transactions in chronological order, in the other they led transaction log of each receivables from client with details like sum of loan, maturity, guarantee, payroll, etc.; State accounting records was public, under enhanced financial control and it was implemented under specified rules; book-keeping in individual farm like public recording was orientated to income-and-cost recording with elements of inventory records;

- The use of the abacus was used as an auxiliary tool for calculations.

In Ancient Rome:

- Advanced single-entry book-keeping system replaced the simple form of bookkeeping. A new system of book-keeping was introduced through the use of three ledger accounts:

- for daily entries - a commemorative book (wastebok), wherein was kept notes or commentaries for activities and transactions (*Adversaria*),

- for keeping systematic records monthly – general ledger (*Codex rationum*), property ledger (*Breviarium* or *Rationarium*), a income and expenditure journal (*Codex accepti et expensi*); and

- for chronological entries - calendar (*calendarii*) as they were of one type for state, municipalities, companies, bankers.

- Under the influence of Roman law, the rule "nothing with words" emerged in accounting meaning that any action and operation must be certified in writing by paper (document);

- Key accounting terms brought into use: account, revenue, expense, balance, keep accounts, spreading accounts etc.

At the end of XIII century, the historical conditions in Italy (imposition of capitalist relations, the influence of the church, the Crusades, the great migration of peoples from Asia to Europe, the impact of Arab culture, etc.) created prerequisites for the emergence of a new accounting technique - double entries (double-entry book-keeping system). There are four main factors causing the change: private property, capital, trade and credit (Litteton 1927: pp 144 - 145). By themselves they are insufficient if money, writing and arithmetic did not exist. Renaissance turned double-entry accounting into an “art of keeping commercial books”. The work of Luca Pacioli “*Summary of arithmetic, geometry, proportions and proportionality*”⁴ (1494) gives practical guidance on the application of the technique of double entry system in treatise on book-keeping “Details of Calculation and Recording”. The simplicity with which the technology is described, the economic circumstances, business requirements and perceived advantages of the application of the double entry have caused its spreading in

³ The term “*trapezit*” originates from the Greek word “*trapeza*”, which meant a small table or a special board on which a *trapezit* made his financial transactions. Later on Balkans these man was called shroff. These term still is used.

⁴ Latin: *Summa de arithmetica, geometria, proportioni et proportionalita*. The *Summa* was one the first books published on the Gutenberg press and the first printed work with description of the double-entry bookkeeping system. It is a phenomenal work that took place in history. It made Pacioli a celebrity and insured him a place in history, as “The Father of Accounting”. He did not invent double-entry book-keeping; instead, he superbly described a method used by Venetian merchants during XIV century. His system included most of today's accounting routines such as the use of memorandums, journals and ledgers.

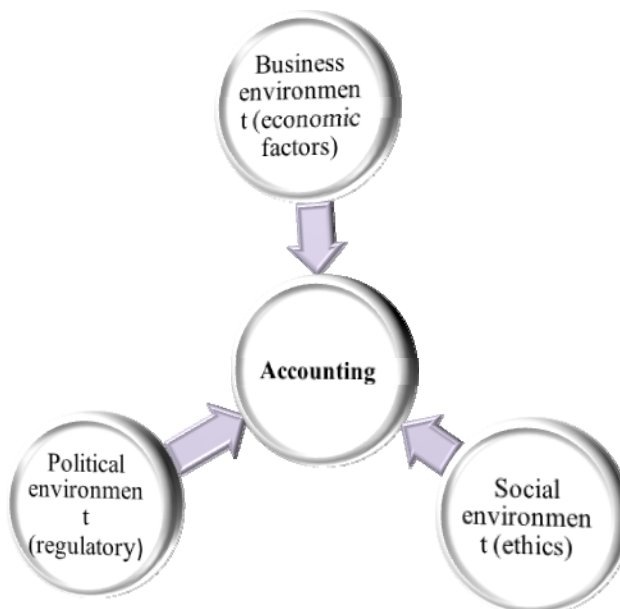
Europe. Industrialization shifted attention away from merchants double entry book-keeping to manufacturing accounting. Calculations and depreciations started to be made. The first joint-stock companies appeared and the need for periodic reporting was recognized, which satisfies the information needs of owners (shareholders) of the results of the actions of managers. Gradually accounting received its modern look. Technological revolution and the first calculating machines greatly facilitated the keeping of accounts and reduced errors in carrying amounts into the accounting records and performing arithmetic operations etc.

The historical background and development of accounting displayed in logical order the evolution of economic relations and their impact on people. The history of accounting is evidence of the close relationship of accounting with the surrounding environment. The explanation of this dependence reveals the reasons for the evolution of accounting techniques and accounting science. Each stage of human development, environment and society influence the accounting in a unique way and every step is a step forward in its development.

5. Key factors

The given examples unequivocally justify the relationships and dependencies between accounting and environment. Having traced the development of accounting it is established that its nature is influenced mainly by three factors characterizing the environment (Fig. 2):

Fig. no. 2. Influence of key factors of environment on accounting



- economic factors;
- legislation (regulatory); and
- ethics.

Economic factors characterize the business environment in which enterprises operate. The connections and relationships they give rise to reveal in the most accurate way the traditional approach (see. Fig. no. 1). They define information needs and requirements of management. They cause the change of:

- the requirements for accounting information, for example, if prior to the global economic and financial crisis of 2008 - 2009 the quality characteristics of the useful information were understandability, relevance, faithful representation and comparability, as a consequence now, for the information in financial statements to be useful, it must be verifiable, too. Verifiability means that different knowledgeable and independent observers could reach consensus, although not necessarily complete agreement, that a particular depiction is a faithful representation through direct observation or checking the inputs to a model, formula or other technique and recalculating the outputs using the same methodology (International Financial Reporting Standards 2016); and
- meaningful nature of accounting information: For example, enterprises in carrying out their activity face multiple risks that lead to changes in the financial condition and financial results. With increasing the insecurity and uncertainty of the future, managers, investors, lenders need information about the risks to which the enterprise is exposed. The result is that in financial statements, policy on risk management is already disclosed.

The political environment has an impact on accounting primarily through legislation. In Europe, regulation defines the general framework of accounting. It defines basic concepts, principles, rules and methods for financial reporting and presentation of financial statements. Any change in accounting legislation changes the applicable accounting basis for financial reporting; requirements for ongoing financial reporting and accounting systems, accounting records and accounting information; and the contents of financial statements, the requirements for their preparation and disclosure. For example, in order to:

- reduce the administrative burden and obligations to provide financial information for micro, small and medium enterprises;
- encourage cross-border investment; and
- improve comparability of financial statements and reports within the EU and increase public confidence in them, Directive 2013/34 / EU of the European Parliament and of the Council as of 26 June 2013 was adopted on the annual financial statements, consolidated financial statements and related reports of certain types of undertakings (Official Journal 2013). It imposed new accounting requirements and rules for the annual and consolidated financial statements. Changes had to be transposed into national legislation (such as laws, regulations or administrative provisions) of all Member States from 01.01.2016. In Bulgaria, Directive 2013/34 / EU brought into force the third Accountancy Act in the recent history of the country. In order to transpose the accounting directive, it introduced new requirements for:
 - categorization of enterprises and enterprise groups: micro, small, medium and large enterprises and small, medium and large groups while respecting the three indicators -book value of assets, net incomes and average number of personnel during the reporting period;

- preparation and presentation of non-financial statement and report on payments to governments;
- restrictions were strengthened as well as penalties for non-publication of financial statements.

The social environment affects accounting by morality⁵ and ethical principles⁶. It forms professional ethical attitudes and behavior, which is based on the principles (Code of Ethics for Professional Accountants (Revised January 2015)):

- Integrity - to be straightforward and honest in all professional and business Relationships;
- Objectivity - to not allow bias, conflict of interest or undue influence of others to override professional or business judgments;
- Professional Competence and Due Care - to maintain professional knowledge and skill at the level required to ensure that a client or employer receives competent professional services based on current developments in practice, legislation and techniques and act diligently and in accordance with applicable technical and professional standards;
- Confidentiality - to respect the confidentiality of information acquired as a result of professional and business relationships and, therefore, not disclose any such information to third parties without proper and specific authority, unless there is a legal or professional right or duty to disclose, nor use the information for the personal advantage of the professional accountant or third parties;
- Professional Behavior - to comply with relevant laws and regulations and avoid any action that discredits the profession.

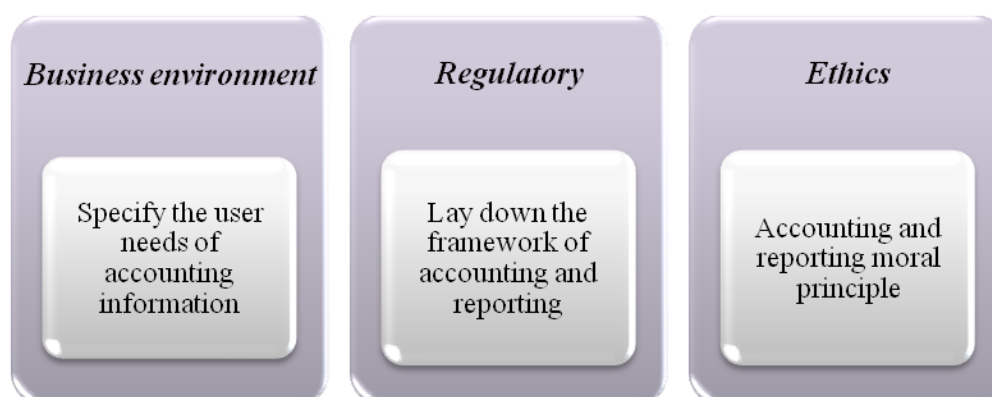
By examining the influence of the three key factors of the environment on accounting it is established that:

- a) the impact is more noticeable on accounting information and has a mediating influence on accounting;
 - b) business environment and legislation directly affect the accounting information and accounting, while ethics affect persons who produce accounting information, accounting officers, and they, with their actions and attitudes ensure appropriateness and legality, accuracy and objectivity of financial reporting;
 - c) dependence exists between internal factors: economic conditions and limitations are almost always reflected in the legislation;
 - d) as a consequence of the impact of the major, key factors in accounting:
 - the needs of accounting information of consumers are specified;
 - the accounting framework of accounting is regulated;
 - ethical principles of accounting and disclosure of financial statements are defined
- (Fig. 3)

⁵Morality are rules of conduct that indicate the relationship to other individuals

⁶Ethical principles are historically established criteria for ethical conduct established on the basis of religious norms, personal experience, mentality.

Fig. no. 3. Consequences of the impact of key factors of environment on accounting

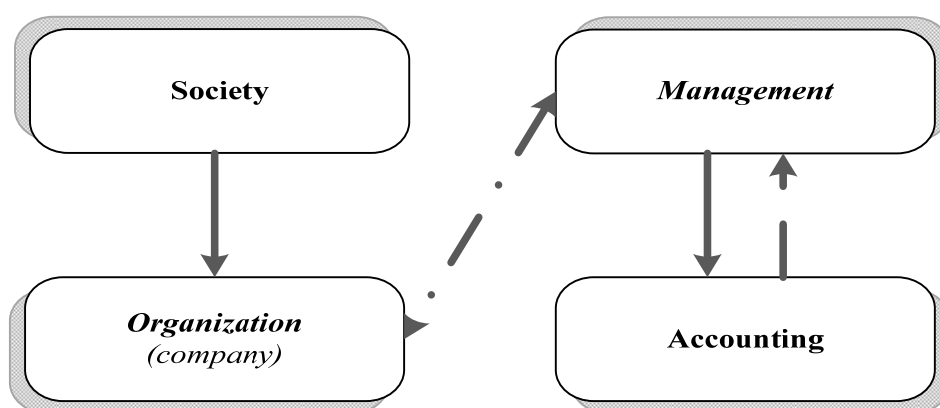


6. Summary

Following conclusions can be drawn from the above:

First, "society – accounting" relationship objectively exists and it is derived from these two dependencies "society - organization (company)" and "management - accounting" (Fig. 4)

Fig. no. 4. Logical dependencies in displaying the "society - accounting" relationship



Second, the applied historical approach proves the sustainability of "society – accounting" relationship and its adaptability to changing socio-economic conditions.

Third, society has an impact on accounting by surrounding environment.

Fourth, there are three key factors shaping the image of accounting: economic conditions (business environment), political environment and socio-cultural environment.

In **conclusion**, it can be summarized that accounting is an open and flexible system of knowledge and practical skills that constantly adapts to the needs of its surroundings while maintaining its stability and without losing its identity.

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Family education - Guidelines and actual practice

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Abstract:

Family education is an essential means of achieving formal education and shows its main characteristics: it is done systematically through life experiences lived concretely, directly; it manifests diffusely in the individuals and groups manifests diffuse conduct of individuals and groups, Impregnates the personality with its specific default, integral and continuous influence. In the contemporary approaches of the phenomenon of education, we often discuss about the erosion of the family functions and especially about the social function and, consequently, about the limits on family education, where education is attributed mainly to school. The family as a social institution in Romania is faced with socio-economic challenges that led to the emergence of social phenomena with direct impact on child education in the family: increased rate of divorce, increase of the mono-parental families, increase of consensual couples, increase of domestic violence, increasing the number of socio-economically disadvantaged families, increasing the number of parents who go abroad to work etc. Knowing the trends of education as a whole and achieving genuine reform in this area, with beneficial consequences for society as a whole, can not be achieved without addressing education family to meet these new challenges without correlating changes occurred therein and the effects it causes, with all processes in the society, with changes in education.

Keywords: *family; education; actual practice; child; strategies of families.*

1. The actual political priorities of the society regarding the family education

It implicitly aims for education in family and school: the approach education as a main force of changing technology, economy, administration and promotion of values in society; equal access to higher education; high quality education and training knowledge society; transforming education in Romania's modernization resource base; consideration of the investment in human capital as the most profitable in the long term; reducing poverty and social exclusion; improved living standards etc. The quality of education in the family marks the early development of the individual personality, the chances of school success and subsequent affirmation.

Theoretical Foundation of the family education research are: the history of life of families in Romania has both continuity and discontinuity - by connecting generational - and the change tends to be gradual rather than dramatic; although there are different family patterns and changes from one society to another, however, the family institution remains stable.

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Most researchers admit that with the evolution of society, parents-children relations are increasingly defined by an emotional dimension and interest of the parents for children's education increases. Within the educational function of the family – we can detect certain dimensions: instructional-formative; psychosocial; social-integrative; cultural-formative.

Education is understood either as an individual training - according to existing social norms and values - serving integration and social order, whether development - psycho-individual - according to individual potential, its inclinations and aspirations - help stimulate creativity and social change.

2. Educational strategies of families

Pedagogues, psychologists and specialists in social intervention uses the term “family education”, but sociologists prefer to talk about “educational strategies families” to emphasize regularity, systemic, coherent, directed the action which has the appearance of an approach rationally conscious (in which actors pursue a goal, choose the appropriate means, assess the results). At the common knowledge level, the idea of “strategy” creates the illusion that the individual is a subject in relation to institutional constraints.

The concept of “educational strategies families” (Hatos 2006: p. 60) allows disclosure aims, contents (values, attitudes), methods of educational processes which players were family members (parents and children) given that family education is developed as a “pedagogy default” (Sanciulescu 1997: 89) and not as “explicit teaching”(Petrescu 2014: p. 67) . Sociologists consider the pluralism of “the family models” (Baran-Pescaru 2004: p. 91) and “educational models” (Stanciulescu 1996: p. 104) real models. There is no unique, ideal “model” (Ciupercă 2000: p. 48) (but not all “models” have the same value).

Elements of the theoretical research of family education were: the real subject of the educational process is education itself (child, youth); because the Self construction (psycho-social development of the child) implies a correlative dynamic processes of socialization - individualization and identification - differentiation, intergenerational transmission of values and norms, and selective breeding is accomplished cultural and social life is intertwined with the change.

Both partners - educator and educated - are active (are agents of action, both in terms of teaching and in the sociological sense, although parents and children are not always aware of the consequences education of their actions, can highlight educational strategies thereof - that appear as the product of negotiations between parents and children.

Family influence is exercised within a network for education agency (family, school, peer group, media etc.); Family educational strategies are the product of interactions and negotiations between the family and other social agents; regardless of what they want agents educational policies which tend to impose a single model of personality, is “prevent” pluralism models that the educational practices they produce and the risk of slipping toward totalitarianism if not open to liberalism educational (for negotiation purposes and means educational action).

The various theories and hypotheses about the family and education, differentiated by several criteria. They constitute methodological principles of research on family education. There is no socio-pedagogical research or even surveys to reveal the current trends clearly outlined on family education in Romania.

The main axis of the education family has one pole morality (understood as a liability to each other, but also as an area of “minor rules” (Mihăilescu 1991: p. 67) (of meeting face to face), and the opposite culture / teaching (provided training) and civilization (on nutrition, posture, politeness etc.).

Recent research has led to refute the main thesis circulated in common knowledge and scientific: powerful family thesis, main/unique responsible of failures in child development; helpless family thesis, whose powers would be transferred to state institutions.

The Study of the family diversity rises its value if: we are more sensitive to the intersection of various dimensions of diversity (social, economic, cultural) and use a complex, interdisciplinary methodology; expand the definition (s) so as to cover family present realities and put greater emphasis on family procedural exploring attitudes, meanings and the meanings that actors family gives them their decisions and actions; combine research data with reflexivity, with a more global interpretation studied fragment of reality, accepting pluralism beyond the comprehension of certain data that are still partial.

In the context of social change, felt in family life (changes in the structures, functions, roles and statuses family socio-) scientific research education in the family can help transform mentalities parental and family, parental conscience formation and thus to expedite the improvement of education informal (family) and formal (in school) - from the perspective of lifelong learning, linkages between educational levels and forms of education.

Documentary analysis of family education studies took into account: the degree of coherence between social and educational projects and everyday practices cannot be revealed by observations or opinions, but through in-depth analyzes that require human and material investment, time and wisdom to ask/operate such analyzes.

Regarding dominant practices of education, coherence, cohesion, distribution of role, took into account: the distribution of roles between parents in terms of gender, features of a mainly traditional family; control authority and the decision belong, in general, to mother; worsening socio-cultural conditions lead to overloading mother with tasks in the child's education; the child participates in taking all these decisions; at the preadolescent age, the child is a psychosocial agent of his own development; parents tend to punish the child especially in relation to educational success; communication between parents and children on topics related to their everyday life (schoolwork, activities with friends), but also on topics of great interest to this stage age (child's future, friendship, love, sexuality) is largely deficient.

3. Socio-educational risk factors in the current Romanian family

The main risk factors are considered: financial and economic precariousness; family conflicts propensity generated by poverty, promiscuity morality rate deviant behaviors among parents and preadolescents, especially in rural areas; not only the child creates problems in the family, but the strained relations between members of the family group; the weakening of parental control; problems with the child in school work plan, but also in that of deviant behavior; deviant parental behaviors. In this case we are dealing with dysfunctional families, strongly characterized by severe conflicts (which can go up to physical violence). In impoverished environments with low education level, the socio-cultural disadvantaged, such behaviors are rather normal in the community mentality (Pescaru 2014: p. 78).

Family-roles is an educational instance, relationships, accountability and impact in "network" company, specific to the Romanian educational influence. There is a fairly weak intergenerational transmission capacity values and cultural patterns. The actual family "plays" its role of education in a vast and often "obscure", "underground" network and alternative models of influences, including "children who can and must << choose>> and where the family model is not always a << preferred>> example" (Vrășmaș 2002: p. 123).

Possession of the social cultural capital of the parents is not enough. Culture (or cultures) juvenile promotes a gregarious spirit, collectivist-oriented folding of the rules and conventions (of course, a rule other than those covered by parents). There is a gap in communication between parents and children. Parents think that the group of friends is the main factor of negative influence on the child.

The efforts the child does for the academic success and social aspirations are influenced by the parents. There are subjects need to be supported through specific programs tailored to overcome conflicts.

4. Advice on parenting and parenthood

Public policy measures in this area are:

- Public debate of the role of parents and the role of teachers, boundaries and limits family education in school education, the need for partnership in setting common goals of the school and the family relations of cooperation in mobilizing the necessary resources to improve education
- Sensitization of parents, teachers, professionals (psychologists, sociologists, educators), policy makers need to improve the education of family and school education, including through collaboration between family, school and other educational institutions;
- Media coverage and valuing stronger parenting (including those on informal and non-formal - projects, parent education programs broadcasting etc.);
- Strengthening the legal and the institutional system;
- Boosting local authorities and non-governmental organizations for the establishment of "networks" socio-educational of "poles" (Zamfir and Vlăsceanu: p. 189).

Family enhancing expertise in education is achieved by:

- Conducting research and surveys transverse and longitudinal with quantitative and qualitative research methods to determine the socio-educational needs and resources real specific social groups and families;
- Developing strategies and programs for socio-educational adequacy purposes and educational social support / social assistance to the real needs of the family
- Social control and participatory evaluation (with multidisciplinary teams of specialists, policy makers and administrators, beneficiaries - parents);
- Human resource development programs for family education and parent education through the training and attracting volunteers;
- Extending best practices and positive experiences with parental education programs conducted to present date.

5. Conclusion

Developing educational policies on education in the family as a priority: curriculum policy - education pro family (parenthood education) of the students of final grades of compulsory education; management policies and evaluation of educational institutions - criteria, standards, indicators on education of students, school-family partnership and cooperation; political training (initial and ongoing) of the teachers, focusing on issues / themes of family sociology and ethics education educator; partnership policies aimed at specifying the framework partnership agreement between the school and family, as indirect beneficiaries through co-participation of parents and students, as direct beneficiaries, decisions regarding school life of children.

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Minimum Wage Analysis in OECD Countries in the Neoliberal Era(1980-2014)

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Abstract

The analysis of minimum wage in the process of reproduction of labor is essential in terms of political economy. Neoliberal period of capitalism (1980-2014); in the heterodox literature, is considered to be the years of all-out attack of the capital against the labor. This study aims to test whether this argument is valid or not. In this context; the minimum wage necessary for laborers and their families to accommodate their life expenses during the Neoliberal era is investigated through data analysis. The relationship between GDP and the minimum wage during 1980-2014 are examined for the countries in OECD data set. The data are analyzed using the indexation method of relationship between two variables. The findings obtained in this study are as follows: The increase in the minimum wage indices in all countries covered by the study is less than the increase in the GDP indices. The average GDP index of ten countries increased by 2.1 fold in this period while the minimum wage index increased by only 1.1-fold creating a 1-fold difference. Thus, in the neo-liberal period, the workers who had to live on minimum wage could not fully benefit from the economic growth in their countries. The countries where the most difference between the two variables are Luxemburg with (-2.3) fold, USA with (-1.7) fold, Canada and the Netherlands with (-1.2) fold. Greece has the least difference with (-0.4-fold). Moreover, the average annual GDP growth in the ten countries in the relevant period was 2.2%, while the minimum wage increase was only 0.4. The result of this study shows that the real minimum wage in some OECD countries fell behind the increase in real GDP in Neoliberal era. The reasons behind this decline in labor income in the context of minimum wage at this period are the subject of a separate study.

Keywords: *political economy; minimum wage in some OECD Countries; the minimum wage index; GDP index; the relationship between minimum wage and GDP in some OECD countries.*

1. Introduction

The minimum wage is defined as “The minimum amount of remuneration that an employer is required to pay wage earners for the work performed during a given period, which cannot be reduced by collective agreement or an individual contract” (International Labour Organization [ILO] 2016).

In the countries where the legal minimum wage is applied, if the law is working healthily, workers cannot be employed under the minimum wage neither in the private

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sector nor at the public institutions. The minimum wage is applied by the state to protect the workers whom are mostly low-educated, working at the unqualified jobs and deprived from the power of collective bargaining from the employers who want to make them work with very low wage (even working for peanuts). Thus reproduction of the labor will be guaranteed. The history of working class' struggle is full of eight- hour workday, union, strike, collective bargaining rights and the fight of a wage for humanly living in the first countries where industrial capitalism developed. After these struggles, these rights are obtained for some periods even with some delays. The acceptance of minimum wage is also in this period.

The minimum wage firstly went into effect in 1894 in New Zealand, in 1896 in Australia and in 1909 in the United Kingdom. In the USA it was applied for only women and children workers on state basis in the beginning of 1900s, however was cancelled by the US Supreme Court in 1923. In 1938 it went into effect by President Roosevelt to be applied on federal basis (Neumark and Wascher 2008) and (Marinakos 2008).

In nine OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries the minimum wage was defined after 1990 and now is applied in 26 countries. However, the legal minimum wage has not applied in nine countries yet. In twenty-seven countries, the minimum wage is lower than the half of the median wage and is above it only in eleven countries. After the six years of global financial crisis (2007-2013), the ration of minimum wage within the median wage has even decreased more in eight countries (OECD 2015: pp. 1-2).

2. The Rise of Neoliberalism

In the bipolar world that is formed after the Second World War, a capital accumulating regime called “Golden Age of Capitalism” or “Welfare State Era” ruled the central capitalist countries until the mid-1970s. While the 1950-73 period of this era is subject of a different study, the accumulation regime’s most striking characteristics can be summed up as follows: Industrial investment increased the average growth rate of the countries in parallel to the increased profitability in the industrial sector. The increase in employment level caused low levels of unemployment ratio, the rise of working class in quantity, and an increase in the number of union organizations and in wages depending on the class power (Marglin 1991: pp.1-38) and (Glyn et al. 1991: pp.39-125).

The crisis called stagflation in economics literature which happened through the mid-1970s in central capitalist countries ended the “Golden Age”. As the rate of inflation was increasing in both central and periphery countries, unemployment and stagnation occurred simultaneously (Isenberg 2000). A “new era” has begun in the 1980’s, which is called in different ways by different social scientists. Heterodox social scientists defined this era as “Globalization of Capitalism” (Amin 1997: pp.31-43), (Harvey 2005), “Neoliberalism” (Kotz 2008), (Dumenil and Levy 2011: p. 35) and “Financialization” (Phillips 1993), (Epstein 2005: pp.3-16), (Foster 2007), (Orhangazi 2008: pp.49-61) and (Krippner 2011: pp. 27-57).

The Neo-Liberal Period firstly started with the wide and overall attack of the capital to the working class in the USA and England, and then this process spread to the other OECD countries. In this context, the prohibition of strikes or postponement, disreputation of the unions and worker leaders, unfunctionalization of the unions and the majority of the union leaders' being silent about these developments resulted in

disappearance of the trust of the workers for the unions and the decrease in the membership to the unions (Western 1995). In most of the OECD countries, de-unionization succeeded in the Neo-liberal era. At the end of this process, the working class lost most of its economic, social and political gains when their collective bargaining power was weakened. One of them was to decrease the share of the wages in the total income (Machin 1997).

In this study, it is aimed that the analysis of the relation between minimum wage level and GDP in some OECD countries in Neo-liberal era.

3. Data and Methodology

The data are analyzed using the indexation method of relationship between two variables. GDP index data are obtained from OECD Database, measured in constant 2010 US dollars, with base year 1980 (OECD 2016a).

The real minimum wage index data are extracted from OECD Database, measured in constant 2014 US dollars, with base year 1980 (OECD 2016b).

The evolution of both indices throughout the period 1980-2014 is shown in Figure 1. The analysis is performed for a sample set of ten countries listed in Table 1 for the time period 1980-2014.

The minimum wage index and GDP index are computed and the fold-wise increase at the end of the period with respect to the beginning is estimated in Figure 2 and the increases in these two variables are compared in Table 1.

The cumulative difference between minimum wage and GDP indices is calculated over the period between 1980 and 2014 and the results are depicted in Figure 3.

The average annual changes in GDP growth rate and minimum wage are calculated and shown in Figure 4.

4. Findings

In Figure 1; Minimum Wage Index (MWI), GDP Index (GDPI) and Difference in 10 OECD Countries between 1980 and 2014 are shown. The findings are similar to those in Table 1.

The data in Figure 2 are given in tabular form in Table 1 with the addition of difference between the real GDP and real minimum wage fold-wise increase. The largest difference is observed in Luxemburg and USA with 2.3-fold and 1.7-fold, respectively, in absolute sense. Japan is the country where the difference is minimum with 0.3-fold followed by Greece and France with 0.4-fold.

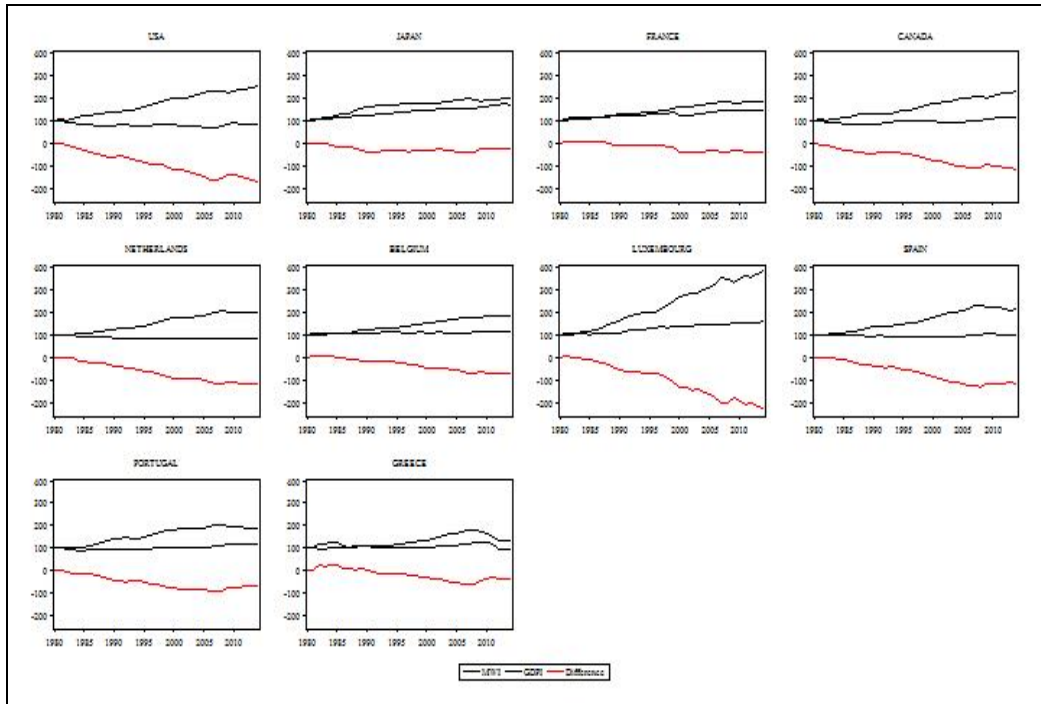
Figure 2 shows the fold-wise increase in real minimum wage and real GDP from 1980 to 2014 in descending order. The largest increase in real minimum wage is observed in Japan and Luxemburg among the sample of 10 countries with 1.7-fold and 1.6-fold, respectively whereas the smallest USA and Netherlands are the countries with smallest minimum wage increase with 0.8-fold. However, Luxemburg's real GDP increase of 3.8-fold leads with a considerable margin during the period in question and Greece appears to be the least growing country in terms of GDP with an increase of 1.3-fold.

Table no. 1: Fold-wise increase in Real Minimum Wage and Real GDP and their difference in descending order from 1980 to 2014.

	Real GDP (1)	Real Minimum Wage (2)	Difference (2-1)
Luxembourg	3,8	1,6	-2,3
USA	2,5	0,8	-1,7
Canada	2,3	1,1	-1,2
Netherlands	2,0	0,8	-1,2
Spain	2,1	1,0	-1,1
Average	2,1	1,2	-1,0
Belgium	1,8	1,1	-0,7
Portugal	1,9	1,2	-0,7
France	1,8	1,5	-0,4
Greece	1,3	1,0	-0,4
Japan	2,0	1,7	-0,3

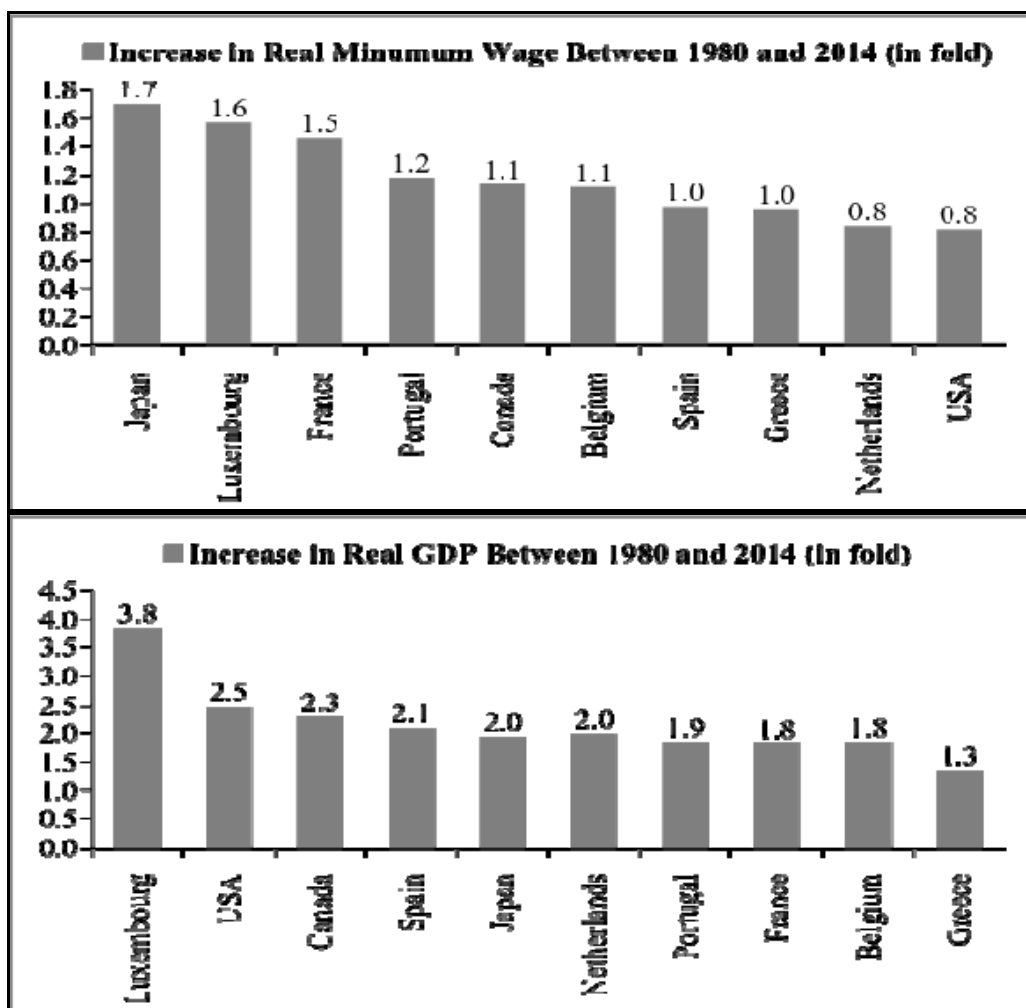
Source: The table has been produced using OECD Database.

Figure no. 1: Minimum Wage Index (MWI), GDP Index (GDPI) and Difference in 10 OECD Countries (1980-2014)



Source: The chart has been produced using OECD Database

Figure no. 2: Fold-wise increase in Real Minimum Wage and Real GDP from 1980 to 2014 in descending order



Source: The charts have been produced using OECD Database.

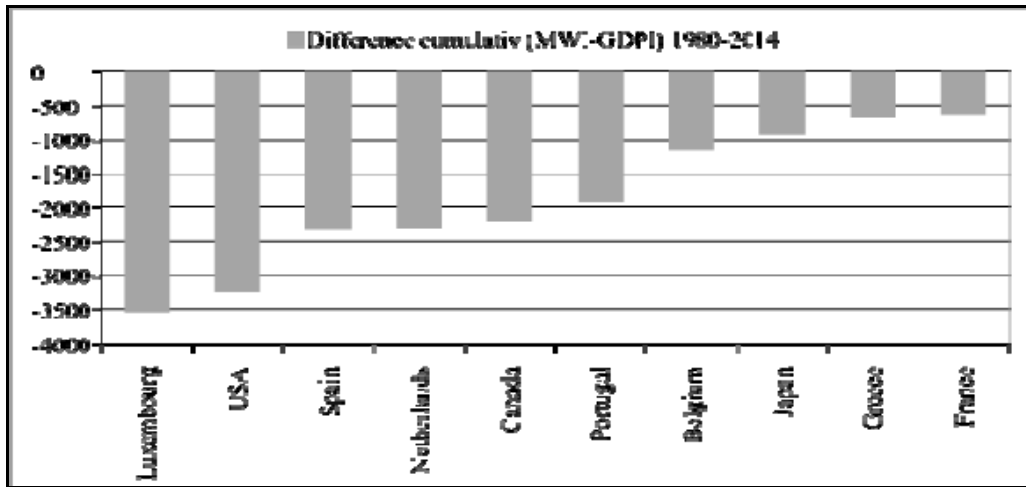
According to Figure 3, Luxembourg and USA are at the top of the list in terms of maximum cumulative difference. This finding supports that of Table 1, however, the order is different when it comes to the remaining 8 countries.

Lastly, Figure 4 shows the average growth rate and average rate of change of real minimum wage for the sample set of countries between 1980 and 2014. According to this, Luxembourg, USA and Canada exhibit the highest growth rate with 4.1%, 2.7% and 2.5%, respectively. The highest minimum wage rate, on the other hand, is observed in Japan with 1.6%, Luxembourg with 1.3% and France with 1.1%. The countries where the minimum wage rate is negative are USA with -0.5%, Netherlands with -0.5% and Spain with -0.1% while Greece experienced no change in terms of average minimum wage.

5. Conclusion

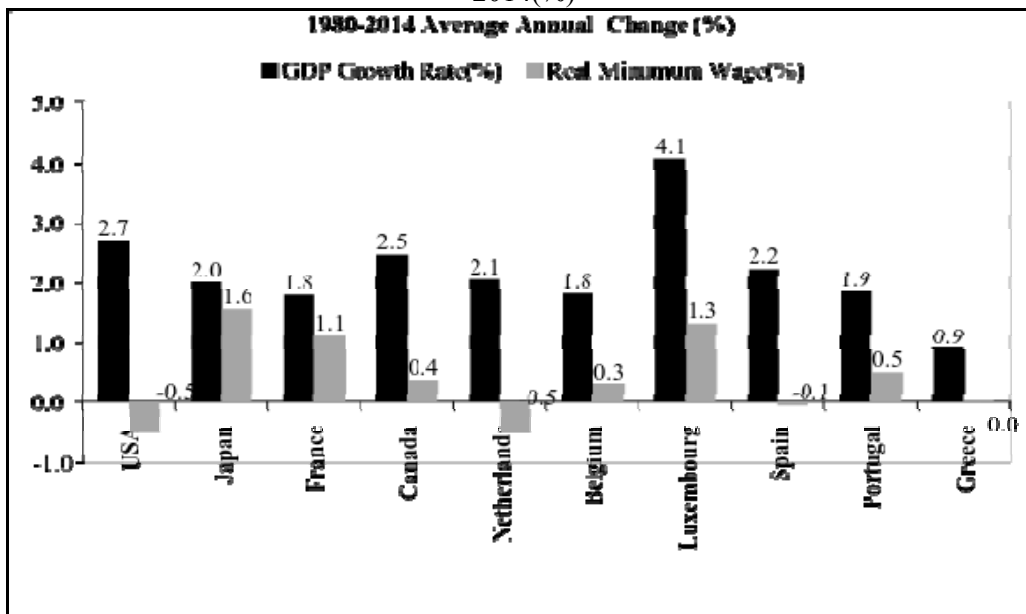
In the Neoliberal era spanning the years 1980-2014, the findings extracted from the OECD Database for the ten countries support the following argument by heterodox social scientists: “The capital attacks the working class in a full scale”. This argument is validated especially in the USA where the Neoliberal applications are pioneered and imposed on central and lateral capitalist countries and the financialization reached to new heights.

Figure no. 3: The cumulative difference between the minimum wage index and GDP index



Source: The chart has been produced using OECD Database.

Figure no. 4: The average annual growth rate and minimum wage between 1980-2014(%)



Source: The chart has been produced using OECD Database.

In this Neo-liberal era when de-unionization is increased, collective bargaining power of the workers is decreased, the relative weight of blue-colored industrial workers having the ability of collective movement is decreased and laborers working in the precariat ways and acting individually in service sector is increased; the worker rights are weakened gradually and the share that labor takes from the total income is decreasing (Schnabel 2013). The outcomes derived from this study are being found as supportive to this argument in the context of minimum wage.

The situation of immigrant workers who work even under the minimum wage illegally and increase in number is a subject of another study. In the last years, as a result of the workers' weakened power of collective bargaining, the share of people working with minimum wage in employment has gradually increased because of the decrease in the number of workers in public institutions with privatizations, the increase in the people working in subcontractors, increase in small businesses correspondingly to the change in production process. Thus the minimum wage policy is concerned by more people and families. The level of minimum wage is especially more important for the low-educated and disadvantaged groups working at unqualified jobs. The contribution of the increase in minimum wage should not be ignored in the poverty fighting programs that the governments should create. In this context, while increasing the minimum wage in countries, closing the gap between the growth rate of previous years and the increase in minimum wage should be taken into consideration, and the increase in the growth rate should be reflected to the minimum wage in real terms with the indexing method to avoid this gap in the future.

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The bases of scientific knowledge: history, sociology, philosophy

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Abstract

In the following pages we will discuss the issue of the necessary interdisciplinary research in the study of the past, research that combines history with both sociology and philosophy. We will support the fact that, although sociologists and philosophers cannot work without the support of historical studies, however, they claim the right to interfere in their affairs with a critical point of view and proposals for necessary collaboration.

Keywords: *history, sociology, philosophy, scientific research, interdisciplinary.*

1. Introduction

In the following pages we will discuss the issue of the necessary interdisciplinary research in the study of the past, research that combines history with both sociology and philosophy. We will support the fact that, although sociologists and philosophers cannot work without the support of historical studies, however, they claim the right to interfere in their affairs with a critical point of view and proposals for necessary collaboration. Our proposal comes against the grain with an ancient faith of European intellectuals of the nineteenth century, according to whom, on the one hand, history should be separated from sociology through the subject and methodology of its own, and on the other hand, through its quality as a science, along with sociology it must be fractured from philosophy. Accusing the absurdity of this belief, we challenge the legitimacy of both the division of social sciences in "historical" and "contemporary" and the reality of their separation from philosophy. Let's take them one by one.

2. The relationship between history and sociology

First, we cannot not notice that both history and sociology in their role as social sciences pursue the studying of human society, a constant reality which taken as a subject does not differ from itself by the fact that yesterday was one way, and today in another. The reason is simple: in social life there is not a hiatus between past and present. Noticing this fact is not going to reflect upon the relationship between history and sociology. If "there is a caesura between past and present, and the society does not change neither the nature nor the laws, at the crossroads today, crossing point between what was and what will be", and if "both researchers of the past and ones of the present aim at knowing the laws and developing the human society" (Stahl 1969: p. 5), then history and sociology cannot be separated on the basis of the nature of their subject.

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Developing a joint research on the laws of human life, history and sociology differ, however, one from another: while the history aims at a methodical reconstruction of the past events using specialized techniques (excavations, interpretive documents), the sociology instead is interested in studying the general social relations between human community members, whether they are ongoing, they have occurred in the past or are expected to take place in the future. The difference between them is, as we infer, primarily a methodological one: the first uses techniques to reconstruct the past deeds, while the other one the ones of investigating the present ones. However, this methodological expertise of history and sociology should not make us forget the basic idea from which we have started, that of joint research of human social life that both disciplines must take. This is more important as the necessity of joint research of social life sciences will allow the two not only to use the results of the other, but also to lend their research methods and techniques between each other. "Thus, for example, the problem of interpreting written documents is common to both historians and sociologists. Historians have developed a technique of interpreting documents, from which sociologists have every incentive to learn. However, social scientists have made and developed their own technique of interpreting documents, which historians also have to make account of. Moreover, when a closer welding between history and sociology is so necessary: any research of the present obliges them to reconstitute the past, as many historians consider necessary working the history "backward", linking the thread of history to its final end, which is the present, point of safe fall because it can be analyzed without gaps"(Stahl 1969: p. 6).

Knowing the general laws and universal phenomena, regardless of their geographical, biological, psychological and historical conditionings, is not a specific feature of sociology or history, but one common to all sciences in general, be they social sciences or natural sciences. Indeed, to the extent that all science seek to determine the general and universal laws which determine and regulate the relations between phenomena specific to their subject of expertise, they cannot limit themselves only to the study of present realities, ignoring, for example, the past or future ones. If they do so, these sciences not only would reduce the scope for the investigation of their specific goals in a sphere restricted phenomena, checking their assumptions and reasons for the conclusions only based on them, but they would ignore in these conditions the important aspect of life in general, the one from which the process of knowledge itself, evolution and its historicity, must begin.

For these reasons is the task of every science to study not only the contemporary phenomena which fall within its object, but also those of its past or future. This task would be more difficult, if they were not able to complete it with the help of history, through which each will reconstruct past phenomena of its own study object and thus will reunite the specific area of research. History as the science of the reconstruction of the past is, indeed, essential to any scientific approach, whether we speak of physics, mathematics, astronomy, sociology, economics, legal sciences, etc. Required by any scientific approach, we will talk about history as about a science with general character.

But not only history is a general science. Besides this, with the same capacity, is sociology. Dealing with social relations between members of human populations, sociology seeks to examine the fundamentals of events undertaken by people in their capacity as social beings, whether such activities are spiritual, economic, legal, political or administrative, etc. To really study these social activities, we need not only the disciplines of psychology, economics, juridical and political sciences or the other

private social sciences, but first sociology, scientific discipline of general use, with whose help we can decipher the undeniable social basis of all processes and activities in a society.

For these reasons sociology has for the social sciences the same role that history has for science in general: that of science with general character, necessary for theoretical approaches of social sciences in particular. Both history and sociology have in common that they are two disciplinary approaches with general scientific character of overall ranking and theoretical systematization of knowledge about both the content of past life and its social character.

3. The relationship between history, sociology and philosophy

These two scientific approaches made especially through the faculty of intellect would however be impossible to take place if they would not maintain an organic and functional connection with philosophy, a non-disciplinary approach composed of the activity of knowledge of life in generally, carried out by man through self-consciousness, faculty by which he acquires those data and contents about the reality that compose afterwards the subject of theoretical and conceptual organizations operated by general or particular sciences. The connection between these sciences on the one hand, and philosophy on the other hand, is both a structural and functional one but also a content related one. It is known that human life has a profound social character. This social character, though necessary, it is not enough for the human existence: human life is more than a social life. Reduced within the limits of its social, human life would not differ at all from that of the animal. Indeed, the human does not differ from the animal by the fact that it is a social being, but by that is a being endowed with consciousness. Having the mental faculty of self-consciousness through which he acquires, stores and uses the increasingly unrestrained knowledge about the world in which he lives, humans develop through it a new level of existence, one that although bases itself on the natural, is irreducible to it: culture. Indeed, as a result of long historical processes through which humans knew and acted on nature, culture is the specific environment of human life, through which they make the transition from genetic adaptation to the natural environment, to a more flexible and effective way of adapting, to cultural adaptation.

We refer ourselves to culture as a living environment where natural bases of human life, including its social behavior come to be modified and undergo to a process emphasized by transformation and evolution, characterized on the one hand by a formidable regression of their patterns and natural instincts, and on the other hand, in compensation by replacing them with universal cultural principles, themselves capable of evolution and transformation. How in these circumstances culture becomes the determining factor of social life, and thereby of all manifestations (spiritual, economic, legal, political, administrative, etc.) that occur within it, it is also how it will impose itself as an independent reality, possessing a structure and specific functionality that humans cannot escape without paying degeneration. That is why we must emphasize that human social relations (be they economic, political, legal etc.) cannot be studied, in our opinion, only by starting with their cultural determinant, which penetrates, transforms and gives them respect. Sociology as a science of social relations, loses in this situation its basic character. After previously, as any other science, it does not operate efficiently unless it was supported by history, now it is seen again in a position to ask for help: as it is not permitted to investigate the culture of resorting in a naturalist

way to social determinants (social relations are necessary to the emergence of culture, but not enough for it), it is doomed to explain human social phenomena through the use of their cultural determinant. From now on sociology will not be able to study human society, unless it is in relation to culture. Its socio-human units will be treated as socio-cultural ones.

Its independent, unitary and overall nature, the origin in the mental faculty of self-awareness as well as the knowledge processes mediated by this faculty make culture an incomprehensible reality both to theoretical approaches of natural sciences and to those of private social sciences. Cutting off from the body of cultural organism as proper object of study only specific categories of phenomena, social sciences (whether general history, sociology or private economy, legal sciences, political science etc.) must be supported by philosophy in order to penetrate into the cultural universe. Proper activity of knowledge, carried out by the faculty of self-consciousness, philosophy proves to be the only gnosiological approach with interdisciplinary character of investigating frameworks (geographical, biological, psychological, historical) and events (spiritual, economic, legal, political), socio-cultural units as a whole, frameworks and events that in particular are subject to various social sciences. Philosophy is therefore both the activity of knowledge through which sciences feed with content their conceptual, theoretical and disciplinary frameworks, but also an activity of knowledge with interdisciplinary features, which study the culture as a stand-alone environment of existence specific to humans.

We said that historians seek methodical reconstitution using specialized techniques (excavations, interpretive documents) for the events of the past. Because these events unfold and succeed as a chain reaction in time, historians are forced to try to tell them in logical sequence (Stahl 1980: p. 9). In this way history becomes a socio-cultural process. However, "framing events in historical processes involves the use of theories and hypotheses about the nature of social laws" (Stahl 1980: p.10) and cultural ones, laws used by sociology and philosophy. The usefulness of sociology and philosophy in historical studies is needed especially when historians seek to pass their research from the "fast time" of events (Braudel 1994: p. 30) and the simple narration of them to "slow time" and the analysis of their socio-cultural structures that are hiding behind them. Seeking to reconstruct socio-cultural units of the past, an action that requires recourse to the structural analysis of these units, historians are obliged to have not only the theoretical skills of sociology as a general social science or those practical ones of philosophy as an activity of self-knowledge, but also all the expertise of particular sciences required by the study of frames and manifestations of these old socio-cultural units. We have to recognize that such a technical requirement is not only overwhelming for a historical, but it is also downright impossible for any other human.

However, these findings do not prevent us from recognizing the possibility of a scientific historical research. We have acknowledged that particular sciences are obliged to introduce in the calculation of their own research not only present and future phenomena in their field of study, but also their past. This forces us to recognize that every science has a historical side of it. It is a side that we see to be the most important for historical studies. From this links, in fact, the very possibility of the latter's scientific side. Acquiring it only within specific scientific disciplines, historical studies turn into an indispensable annex of them. Thus, social history is a necessary complement of sociology, economic history one of the economy, history of mentalities supplements psychology, political history in a supplement of political sciences. Annex

of particular sciences, history truly becomes impossible outside them. Otherwise, developed separately from particular sciences, history as history, becomes a non sense and transforms into, as we often hear today, “the most beautiful story”.

Historical studies do not need to mature only in theoretical and conceptual frameworks of particular sciences. Equally they need to be combined and integrated to interdisciplinary philosophy. This interdisciplinary collaboration is all the more needed since the methodologies and techniques entering the specific of each particular science can be properly handled just by their specialists.

Although for a long time, historians have thought that they themselves can properly respond to such specialty problems, entrusting that they can be solved by using common sense, evidence, or by what is self-evident and normal, it should be the moment when the appeal to particular sciences and philosophy becomes mandatory every time history works refer themselves to social and cultural laws.

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Social and demographic characteristics of persons with disabilities in the Republic of Bulgaria

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Abstract

In the paper the socio-demographic characteristics of persons with disabilities in Bulgaria are presented. The trends of change of the indicators are analysed: type and degree of disability, age, gender, educational and qualification level, economic activity, regional distribution, marital status. Based on these characteristics the profile of persons with disabilities in different regions of the country can be defined and also the specifics of their needs in order to implement an adequate, effective and sustainable health and social policy in accordance with the modern concepts for long-term care. The analysis outlines a clear upward trend in the number of people with disabilities and the level of permanently reduced work capacity among the people at the age of 16 and older; an increase of the severity of the disabilities and the risk of invalidation with age advance; a higher number of women with disabilities per 1000 people compared with men; an increase in the number of people with disabilities living in cities, but higher levels of invalidation among the rural population; education inequality on the ground of the indication "disability", being a prerequisite for a lower educational and qualification level; a low level of economic activity. This socio-demographic structure poses a number of challenges to the social and health systems for receiving care adequate to the needs and providing a good quality of life to the persons with permanently reduced work capacity. The organization and the capacity of services provided must correspond to the needs of the persons with disabilities; guarantee the receiving of care necessary to preserve their autonomy and dignity; enable access to high quality services to all, regardless of their age, gender, residence and financial status.

Keyword: *persons with disabilities; socio-demographic characteristics; Bulgaria.*

1. Introduction

Planning and implementing successful policies for social integration of persons with disabilities in Bulgaria requires detailed information not only about their number, but also good knowledge of the internal structure of the group and the trends of change indicators such as: type and degree of disability, age, gender, education and qualification level, economic activity, regional distribution, marital status, etc. Based on these characteristics the profile of persons with disabilities in different regions of the country can be delineated more clearly as well as the specifics of their needs in order an adequate, effective and sustainable health and social policy to be implemented in compliance with the modern concepts for long-term care.

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2. Number of persons with disabilities in Bulgaria

The country currently lacks a unified information database of the number of persons with disabilities, as such variations are due to terminology differences in the concepts used ("disability", "person with disability", "incapability", etc.) and also of the information source. (Ivkov 2013: p. 23)

Key sources of information are the comprehensive national studies. According to the National Statistical Institute (NSI) since the last census of the population as of 1.02.2011, 474 267 persons have recognized permanently reduced working capacity or some degree of disability. (National Statistical Institute 2011) The Agency for Social Assistance has reported an increase in the number of supported persons with disabilities from 495 981 in 2012 to 524 504 in 2015. (Agency for Social Assistance 2014) and (Agency for Social Assistance 2016) According to the National Social Security Institute the number of persons with a disability pension exceeds 650 000, and the analysis of the Agency for People with Disabilities indicates 715 000 persons. (National Social Security Institute 2016) and (Agency for People with Disabilities 2013)

The data from a recent national survey show that compared to the censuses of 1992 and 2001 within two decades, the absolute number of people with disabilities aged 16 and over has increased more than 2 times. (*Table 1.*) In 2011, the children with disabilities were 9 039 (*Table 2.*), and in 2001 - 2 204, i.e. the increase is nearly 4 times. The reasons for this large increase in the number of persons with disabilities can be sought both in the methodology used in the census and the precision of its execution and in the methodology and procedures in carrying out the medical examination of the permanently reduced working capacity (Kalchev 2011, p. 90).

Table no. 1. Number and Percent of persons with disabilities by gender
(Age: 16+, 1992-2011)

Year	Total	Male		Female	
		Number	%	Number	%
1992	233 709	119 467	51,1%	114 242	48,9%
2001	222 346	109 938	49,4%	112 408	50,6%
2011	465 228	206 520	44,4%	258 708	55,6%

Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 214-219.

3. Degree of disability

According to NSI in 2011 among the persons with permanently reduced working capacity at the age of 16 and over, with the largest proportion were the people with a degree of disability from 71 to 90% - 184 556 (39,7%). The individuals with the highest degree of permanently reduced working capacity (over 90%) were 131 298 (28,2%) and with a degree of disability from 50 to 70 percent were 110 528 (23,8%). The lowest proportion was that of persons with reduced working capacity to 50% - 38 846 or 8,3%. (*Table 2.*)

Table no. 2. Number and Percent of persons with disabilities by age and degree of disability (2011)

People with disabilities/ Degree of disability	Number	%
Age \leq 16 years	9 039	100%
Degree of disability \leq 50%	1964	21,7%
50% - 90%	4040	44,7%
\geq 90%	3035	33,6%
Age - 16+ years	465 228	100%
Degree of disability \leq 50%	38 846	8,3%
50% - 70%	110 528	23,8%
71% - 90%	184 556	39,7%
\geq 90%	131 298	28,2%

Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 214-219.

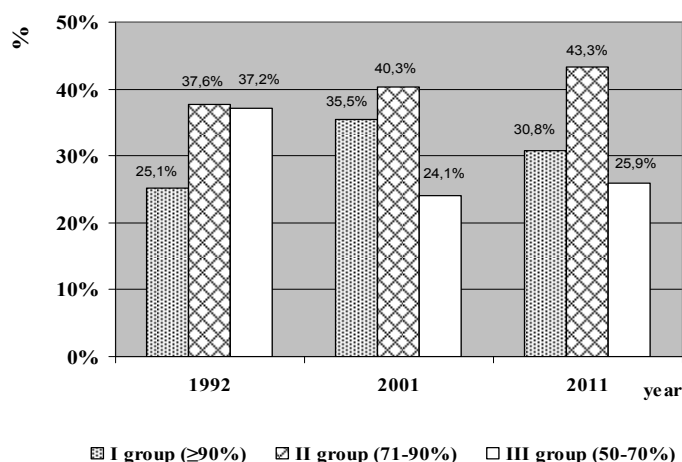
The distribution of children with disabilities by degree of disability shows that in 2011 the highest proportion of children with a degree of disability from 50 to 90% was 4 040 or 44,7% of the children with disabilities. For 3 035 children or for 33,6% the presence of a degree of disability over 90% is indicated (*Table 2*).

In the 1992 census 58 761 persons or 25,14% indicated that they had the highest degree of disability recognized (Group I), 87 954 or 37,63% are Group II and 86 994 or 37,22% - with Group III of disability (when comparing the last three censuses of the population the data from for the number of persons with disabilities with over 50% permanently reduced working capacity is used, as for 2011 the relative proportions were re-estimated for these three groups).

In 2001, the total number of persons with disabilities with the highest degree of permanently reduced working capacity (over 90% or Group I) were 80 153 persons or 35,7%. Significantly larger was the number of persons with reduced working capacity between 71-90% (Group II) - 90 025 or 40,1%, and with the lowest degree of reduced working capacity (50-70% or Group III) were 54 372 or 24,2%, while among the persons aged under 16, 52,4 percent (1 154) were with disability from Group I, 15,3% or 337 children were Group II, and 32,3% (713) were from Group III.

The data show that for a period of 20 years there has been a change in the structure of persons with disabilities with regard to the medical established permanently reduced working capacity. The absolute and the relative proportions of the people in the groups with higher degree of disability have increased. The increase in persons over 16 years with the highest degree of disability from 25,1% in 1992 to 30,8% in 2011; and for those with a disability between 71-90%, respectively from 37,6% to 43,3%. Meanwhile, the number and the proportion of the persons registered in group three - from 37,2% to 25,9% (*Figure 1*).

Figure no. 1. Percent of persons with disabilities by degree of disability
(Age: 16+, 1992-2011)



Source: National Statistical Institute 1992 and National Statistical Institute 2001 and National Statistical Institute 2011.

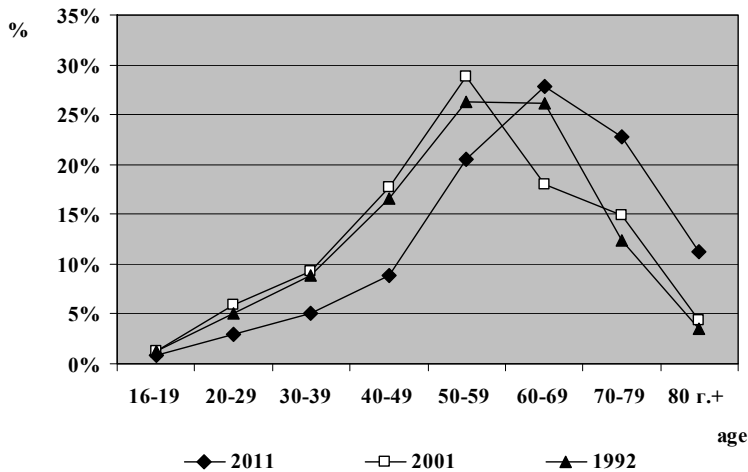
4. Socio-demographic characteristics of persons with disabilities

4.1. Age-gender structure and place of residence (urban/rural)

Data from the census in 2011 show that in the age structure of persons with disabilities those aged 60-69 represent the greatest proportion (27,8%), followed by those aged 70-79 (22,8%). In 2001, the persons with disabilities aged 50-59 (28,8%) dominated and in 1992 - those aged 50-59 (26,3%) and 60-69 (26,1%). (Figure 2.) The demographic ageing of the population of the Republic of Bulgaria, the increased average life expectancy and the accumulation of chronic pathology increasing with ageing affected the higher age of the persons with disabilities in 2011 compared to previous censuses. Just over 60% of the persons with disabilities in 2011 were over the age of 60, compared to 37% in 2001 and 42% in 1992. Moreover, during the invalidization process of the population, the proportion of persons who have received expert medical decision for declaration of permanently reduced working capacity has significantly increased as in certain periods this increase has been particularly significant (in 2001 the certified individuals aged over 16 were 79 789, in 2002 - 101 353 in 2004 - 133 251 and in 2005 - 115 178).

The figures from the last census show that among the persons with permanently reduced working capacity, aged 16 years and over, the females were 258 708 (55,6%) and the males - 206 520 (44,4%). Similar was the gender ratio in 2001 - 50,6% to 49,4% (females:males), while in 1992 the percentage of males was by 2,2% higher than that of females. For the period 1992-2011, the data show a clear upward trend in the proportion of females with disabilities (Table 1).

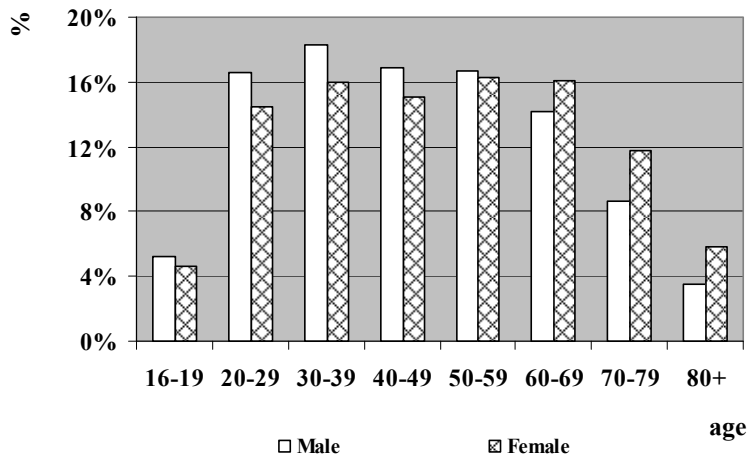
Figure no. 2. Percent of persons with disabilities by age group
(Age: 16+, 1992-2011)



Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 214-216.

The data from 2011 show that in the younger age groups the proportion of males with disabilities dominated while in the high age groups - that of females. The relative proportions of people with disabilities of both sexes has been equalized between those aged 50-59, then a significant increase among females than among males has been found between those aged 70-79 (*Figure 3.*) A similar trend has also been observed in the 2001 census data - the proportion of males was higher in the youngest age groups - 16-19 and 20-29 and between 40-49, while the percentage among both sexes was very similar between 30-39 years - about 17%.

Figure no. 3. Percent of people with disabilities by age group and gender (2011)



Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 214-216.

In 2011, 332 595 persons with disabilities (71,5%) lived in urban areas and 132 633 or 28,5% in rural areas. In the two previous censuses of 2001 and 1992 the absolute

and relative proportion of people with disabilities in urban areas was also higher (respectively 64,4% and 62,4%). The distribution of persons with disabilities by residence follows the general distribution of the population by this indicator. For 2011 the population structure by residence urban: rural was 72,7 : 27,3%, for 2001 it was 69,4 : 30,6% , and for 1992 - 66 : 34%. For a 20 year period there has been a steady trend for a higher proportion of urban residents - persons with disabilities and an increase has been observed - in 1992 1,7 times more persons with disabilities lived in urban areas compared to rural areas, in 2001 - 1,8 times, and in 2011 - 2,5 times more. (National Statistical Institute 2001) and (Krasteva et. al. 2012: p. 152) (*Table 3.*)

Table no. 3. Persons with disabilities by gender and place of residence
(Age: 16+, 1992-2011)

Year	Urban residence			Rural residence		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1992	145 813	70 969	74 844	87 896	48 498	39 398
2001	143 290	67 723	75 567	79 056	42 215	36 841
2011	332 595	143 738	188 857	132 633	62 782	69 851

Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 214-216.

Among the children - in 2011 the boys were 5 203 or 57,6% , and the girls 3 836 (42,4%); 6 607 (73,1%) of the children lived in urban areas and - 2432 or 26,9% in rural areas. In 2001 the boys were 1 221 or 55,4% , and the girls 983 or 44,6%. In urban areas there lived 68,1% or 1 500 children.

Along with the absolute and relative proportions of people with disabilities in collating and analyzing the results on the distribution of people with disabilities by various socio-demographic characteristics the intensity coefficients can also be calculated. They represent the number of persons with disabilities per 1 000 persons of the population (demographic group). They are used to outline more clearly the trends in the progression of disability over time and a methodological comparability of data is provided.

The intensive magnitude, characterizing the level of disability in the country is the number of persons with disabilities per 1 000 persons of the population aged 16 and over. In 2011 it was 67,4‰, i.e. 1,9 times higher than in 1992 (*Table 4.*). In 1992 and 2001, this level was slightly higher among males (respectively by 3,5 and 1,7‰), and in 2011 the increase among females compared to males was significantly higher - 10,7‰.

Differences have also been noted with regard to "residence". For the persons aged 16 and over, living in rural areas, the values of this coefficient are higher: in 1992 - by 6‰, in 2001 - by 6,6‰, and in 2011 - by 4,1‰.

In the joint examination of "gender" and "residence" it has been found that in 2011 the level of permanently reduced working capacity among females living in urban areas was by 12,8‰ higher than that among males whilst in previous censuses these values were very close. This ratio has increased by 5,5‰ among females living in rural areas than males, whilst in 1992 and 2001 it was higher among males (by 9,4 and 12,2‰ respectively).

Table no. 4. Persons with disabilities by gender and place of residence
(Per 1000 persons of the population, Age: 16+, 1992-2011)

Year	Total	Male	Female	Urban residence	Male	Female	Rural residence	%o	
								Male	Female
1992	34,6	36,4	32,9	32,6	32,8	32,4	38,6	43,4	34,0
2001	33,7	34,5	32,8	31,6	31,2	31,9	38,2	41,7	34,9
2011	67,4	61,9	72,6	66,3	59,6	72,4	70,4	67,6	73,1

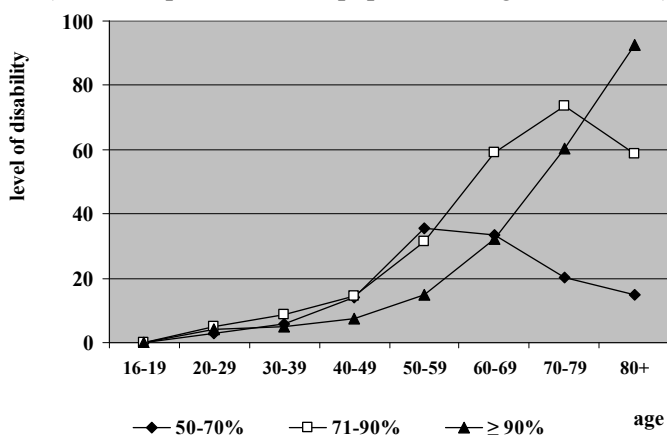
Source: National statistical institute 1992 and National Statistical Institute 2001 and National Statistical Institute 2011.

Data from the censuses show that with the age increase, the structure of people with disabilities also changes depending on the degree of disability. In 2011 the proportions of the persons from the three groups (50-70%, 71-90% and over 90% degree of disability) up to the age of 40 were similar: 16-19 years - less than 1%, 20-29 years - about 3% and 30-39 years - between 4 and 5,5%. With the largest proportion (33,6%) were the persons with permanently reduced working capacity of 50-70% aged 50-59, followed by those aged 60-69 (29%). Among the people with a degree of disability 71-90 % the highest proportion has been found in the age groups 60-69 years and 70-79 years - respectively 30,6% and 25,8%. In the highest degree of permanently reduced working dominated the proportion of those aged 70-79 (29,8%), with high values established between those aged 60-69 and over 80 (respectively 23,6% and 21,1%).

These data highlight the logical trend for increasing the relative proportions of the people with a high degree of permanently reduced working capacity as a result of the deterioration of the health status with ageing, the increase of the risk of occupational diseases and injuries which are the cause of permanently reduced working capacity.

In determining the levels of disability by degree of disability in the different age groups, similar dynamics to the age of 40 has been established. Among those with 50-70% degree of disability the highest level of permanently reduced working capacity has been found between 50-59 years (35,7‰), as this level is higher than that of the persons of the same age in the other two groups. Among the persons with 71-90% degree of disability this coefficient is highest for those aged 70-79 (73,5‰), and in the group with the highest degree of disability it increases sharply after 59 years and reaches its maximum for the persons aged 80 years and over (92,6‰). For the most elderly people with the greatest degree of disability this coefficient is 1,5 times higher in comparison with the persons of the same age with 50-70% disability and 6,2 times higher than those with 71-90% disability. (Figure 4.). The data show that along with the higher proportion of persons with disabilities among the most elderly an the aggravation of the degree of disability has also been observed which poses a number of challenges in terms of the care for this group and its social inclusion in society (Yorgova and Pulova 2012: pp. 109-110) and (Yorgova 2015: pp. 91-97).

Figure no. 4. Persons with disabilities by age group and degree of disability
(Per 1000 persons of the population, Age: 16+, 2011)



Source: National Statistical Institute 2011.

In the joint examination of "gender" and "degree of disability" it has been found that in the three censuses (1992, 2001 and 2011) the number of persons with disabilities per 1 000 people of the population aged over 16 years with a degree of disability 71-90%, respectively 13,03‰, 13,58‰ and 29,18‰ was the highest. In all the three considered groups by degree of disability in 1992 and 2001, this coefficient was higher among males compared to females. The greatest difference between the genders has been found in the data for 1992 among males with the highest degree of disability - nearly 2‰, and in 2001 among males with a degree of disability 50-70%. In 2011, the number of persons with disabilities per 1 000 people was higher among females than males - by 2 to 4,11‰, the differences were greatest among those with 71-90% permanently reduced working capacity (*Table 5*).

Table no. 5. Persons with disabilities by gender and degree of disability
(Per 1000 persons of the population, Age: 16+, 1992-2011)

Degree of disability	‰								
	1992			2001			2011		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
I group (≥ 90%)	8,70	9,70	7,75	11,96	12,24	11,70	17,47	16,45	18,43
II group (71-90%)	13,03	13,20	12,86	13,58	13,64	13,52	29,18	26,02	32,13
III group (50-70%)	12,88	13,51	12,29	8,12	8,65	7,60	20,76	19,40	22,02

Source: National Statistical Institute 1992 and National Statistical Institute 2001 and National Statistical Institute 2011.

In examining the number of people by residence with varying degree of disability per 1 000 people of the population aged over 16, higher values of this coefficient have been observed among the rural population in the three censuses (*Table 4*, *Table 6*). The slightest differences in the degree of disability rate between rural and urban population

are in the highest degree of disability rate - between 0,3‰ and 0,77‰, and the biggest differences are among those with 50-70% permanently reduced working capacity (3,02‰ in 1992, 3,16‰ in 2001 and 2,3‰ in 2011).

Table no. 6. Persons with disabilities by place of residence and degree of disability
(Per 1000 persons of the population, Age: 16+, 1992-2011)

Degree of disability	1992		2001		2011		‰
	Urban residence	Rural residence	Urban residence	Rural residence	Urban residence	Rural residence	
I group ($\geq 90\%$)	8,44	9,21	11,84	12,21	20,68	20,98	
II group (71-90%)	12,27	14,51	12,60	15,73	28,78	30,24	
III group (50-70%)	11,87	14,89	7,13	10,29	16,84	19,14	

Source: National statistical institute 1992 and National statistical institute 2001 and National statistical institute 2011.

4.2. Educational structure

In 2011 the educational structure of the persons with disabilities aged 16 and over did not differ significantly from that of the general population of the same age. (Kalchev 2011: p. 100) With the largest relative proportion were the persons with permanently reduced working capacity with secondary education (grades 1-12) - 44,1%, followed by those with basic education (grades 1-8) - 29,5%. The respective proportions of the total population were: 47,3% and 23,7%. Similar were the relative proportions of those with primary (grades 1-4) and those with incomplete primary education – 6,1 percent and 1,4 percent for those with permanently reduced working capacity and 5,3%, and 1,2% for the general population. The persons with disabilities with tertiary education were by 5% fewer in comparison with the general population and the proportion of those who had never attended school was 2,3 times higher. (Krasteva et. al. 2012: p. 222).

The data from the 1992 and 2001 censuses indicate that the educational structure of the persons with disabilities with basic education - respectively 43,1% and 39% represent the greatest share, followed by those with secondary (24,9% and 31,9%) and primary education (25,4% and 14,1%). With tertiary education were 6,6% in 1992 and 8% in 2001. The number of illiterate persons with disabilities in 2001 was 15 488, or nearly 7% (Ivkov 2011: p. 345) and (Ivkov 2013: p. 37).

In the 2011 census slight differences in the educational structure of males and females with disabilities aged 16 and over have been found. The proportion of males with secondary education was slightly higher compared to females for the country and in urban areas, with the differences increasing among the rural population and reaching 7,33%. In urban areas and rural areas the proportion of females who had completed only primary education was almost 2 times higher. (Table 7.) A similar trend has also been found in the 2001 census - the proportion (16%) of females with primary education was higher than that of males (12%). In the 2001 census slight differences by gender have been found among the persons with tertiary and basic education. Males

with tertiary education represented 5,3% and females - 4,1%; and respectively with basic education - 41% and 37% (National Statistical Institute 2001).

Table no. 7. Persons with disabilities by level of education, gender and place of residence (Age: 16+, 2011)

Education	Total		Urban residence		Rural residence	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Tertiary education	15,71%	16,59%	20,37%	20,88%	5,04%	5,00%
Secondary general education (I-XII grade)	45,87%	42,59%	50,14%	47,71%	36,08%	28,75%
Basic education (I-VIII grade)	29,86%	29,27%	23,86%	23,83%	43,58%	44,00%
Primary education (I-IV grade)	4,41%	7,47%	2,86%	4,99%	7,98%	14,18%
Primary education (incomplete)	1,33%	1,44%	0,86%	1,00%	2,40%	2,64%
Never attended school	2,83%	2,63%	1,91%	1,59%	4,92%	5,43%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 222-223.

In the joint examination of "gender" and " residence" significant differences have been found in the educational structure of the persons with permanently reduced working capacity. Males and females with disabilities living in urban areas had a higher educational level - nearly half of the urban population had completed secondary education compared to 1/3 of the rural population, the proportion of male and female graduates living in urban areas was 4 times higher. Among the rural population the proportion of those who had completed primary or basic education and who had never attended school was higher, as the results were slightly more disadvantageous for females. Nearly 3 times more females with disabilities living in rural areas, compared to females in urban areas, had lower than primary education or had not attended school and among males from rural areas compared to those in urban areas – 2.7 times more. (*Table 7*).

The degree of disability also affects the education completed by the persons with permanent disability. With increasing degree of disability (from 50-70% to over 90%) the relative proportion of those with secondary education decreased by nearly 10 percent, while the proportion of those with primary education increased. Among the persons with the highest degree of disability, the proportion of those who had never attended school was 3,6 times higher than among those with 50-70% permanently reduced working capacity. (*Table 8*.) On the other hand, in comparison with the persons without disability, "males and females with permanently reduced working capacity are 2 to 3 times less likely to complete tertiary education and nearly 2 times more likely to complete their education with a lower degree" (Ivkov 2011: p. 345).

Table no. 8. Persons with disabilities by level of education and degree of disability (Age: 16+, 2011)

Education	Degree of disability		
	I group (≥ 90%)	II group (71-90%)	III group (50-70%)
Educational and scientific degree "Doctor"	0,63%	0,46%	0,33%
Tertiary education	15,48%	16,29%	15,07%
Secondary general education (I-XII grade)	38,63%	44,29%	48,45%
Basic education (I-VIII grade)	31,04%	29,88%	28,14%
Primary education (I-IV grade)	7,54%	5,66%	5,33%
Primary education (incomplete)	1,52%	1,40%	1,25%
Never attended school	5,15%	2,01%	1,42%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: p. 222 and Kalchev 2011: p. 104.

The data presented from the last three censuses and the results from other studies have ascertained positive changes in the educational level among the persons with disabilities for a 20 year period. The possible reasons could be sought in the improved access to secondary and tertiary education for this group of people and the adopted in the country anti-discrimination legislation. Nevertheless, inequalities exist not only among the people with and without disabilities, but also in the group of persons with permanently reduced working capacity, since the educational level is affected by socio-biological (type, degree and visibility of disability), demographic (gender, age and residence), psychological, socio-cultural and other factors. (Ivkov 2013: pp. 38-39)

4.3. Economic activity

The data from the last census show that in the age group 16-64, economically active were 67 549 persons with disabilities and economically inactive - 393 451 persons aged 16 and over. 85,5% of the economically active persons between 16-64 lived in urban areas and 65,5% of the economically inactive (*Table 9.*). The data from the 2001 census show that of all the persons with disabilities 127 096 or 56,6% were of working age. Nearly 61% of them lived in urban areas, as males were 74 885 (59%). Of the persons with disabilities aged 16 and over economically active were 22 719, 13 986 persons (6,3%) were employed and 8 733 were unemployed (3,9%). Economically inactive were 199 627 persons with disabilities or 89,8%. (Ivkov 2013: pp. 38-39)

In the last census significant differences have been found in the participation in the labor market of the persons with and without disabilities. In determining the rate of economic activity (the ratio of the number of economically active persons with/without disabilities to all persons with/without disabilities) it has been found that among the persons without disabilities aged 16-64, it was 69,3% (72,2% for males and 66,3% for females), and for the persons with disabilities it was 2,6 times lower - 27,1% (respectively 27,5% for males and 26,7% for females).

Among the persons with disabilities aged 16-64, major differences have been found in the economic activity rates by "sex" and "residence" - in the urban areas this indicator was 32,7% (33,3% for males and 32,2% for females), while in rural areas it

was 2,4 times lower - 13,4% (14,2% for males and 14,4% for females). (Table 9., Figure 5.)

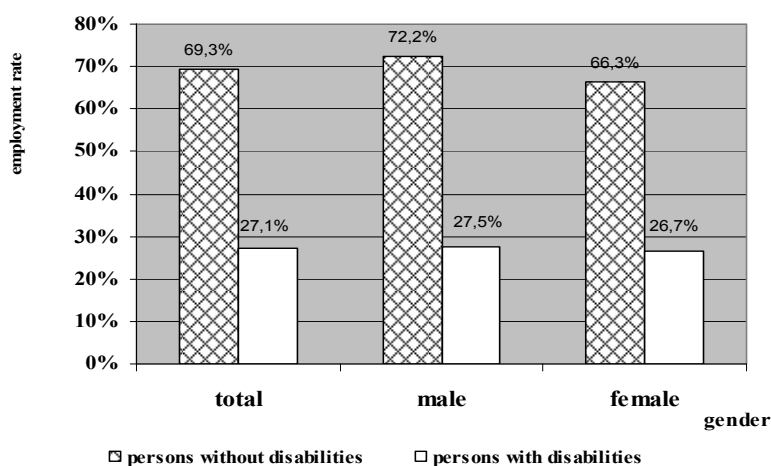
Table no. 9. Persons with disabilities by economic activity, gender and place of residence (Age: 16+, 2011)

Economic activity	Total			Urban residence			Rural residence		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Economically active:	67 549	33 548	34 001	57 735	28 207	29 528	9 814	5 341	4 473
-employed	56 150	27 193	28 957	48 262	22 982	25 280	7 888	4 211	3 677
-unemployed	11 399	6 355	5 044	9 473	5 225	4 248	1 926	1 130	796
Economically inactive	182 008	88 624	93 384	118 680	56 456	62 224	63 328	32 168	31 160
Total	249 557	122 172	127 385	176 415	84 663	91 752	73 142	37 509	35 633

Source: Dimitrova et. al. 2012: pp. 83-85.

Of the total number of economically active persons with disabilities 56 150 were employed, of which 48,4% or 27 193 were males and 51,6% or 28 957 were females. Of the economically active persons with disabilities aged 16-64, the unemployed were 16,9% (11 399 persons), of which 55,8% or 6 355 were males and 44,2% or 5 044 were females (Table 9).

Figure no. 5. Employment rate by disability status (Age: 16+, 2011)



Source: Dimitrova et. al. 2012: pp. 83-85 and National Statistical Institute 2011.

The employment rate (the ratio of the number of employees with/without disabilities to all persons with/without disabilities) among the persons with disabilities was 22,5%, while this figure for the persons without disabilities was nearly 2,6 times higher (59,1%). Differences have been found in the employment rates by "gender" for

the people with and without disabilities. For the people without disabilities, this indicator is higher for males (60,7%) than for females (57,6%), while among those with permanently reduced working capacity there are no significant differences between the two sexes: the employment rate for females in the country was 22,7% and for males - 22,3%. (Dimitrova et. al. 2012: pp. 83-85) and (National Statistical Institute 2011).

Significant differences have been observed in comparing the employment rates for the persons with disabilities aged 16-64 by "sex" and "residence". They were higher among the persons with permanently reduced working capacity in urban areas compared to those in rural areas: 2,4 times among males living in urban areas compared to those in rural areas and 2,7 times for females with disabilities in urban areas (Dimitrova et. al. 2012: pp. 83-85).

In the 2011 census by the respondents' answers regarding their employment status, the employed persons among the persons with disabilities aged 16 and over predominated, followed by the self-employed and the employers. With the increase of the degree of disability, the proportion of the employees decreased by 11%, while the proportions of the employers (6%), the self-employed (3%) and the persons who had never worked (nearly 2%) increased (*Table 10*).

Table no. 10. Persons with disabilities by employment status and degree of disability (Age: 16+, 2011)

Employment status	Total	Degree of disability		
		Group I (≥ 90%)	Group II (71-90%)	Group III (50-70%)
Employer	4 069	620	1 733	1 716
Self-employed	4 434	515	1 887	2 032
In employment	48 440	3 831	19 580	25 029
Non-paid family worker	226	29	88	109
Member of a manufacturing or agricultural enterprise	149	23	62	64
Farmer	348	36	136	176
Never worked	1 227	182	548	497
N/A	367 489	126 062	160 522	80 905
Total	426 382	131 298	184 556	110 528

Source: Kalchev 2011: p. 104.

As of 1.02.2011 economically inactive were 84,6% of the persons with disabilities aged 16 and over. Of these, 377 222 were pensioners (95,9%), 3 361 (0,9%) were students, 5 840 (1,5%) were occupied in domestic and family activities only, and 7 028 persons with disabilities (1,8%) were in the group of other inactive persons (National Statistical Institute 2011).

In 2011, in the workforce survey an additional module "Employment of People with Disabilities" was included. This workforce survey was a sample covering the persons aged 15 and over, living in private households. It was orientated at assessing the main features of the labour market, such as employment, unemployment, inactivity, occupations, economic activities, working hours and others as well as socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, age, residence (urban/rural), education and other. The results from this survey were used to evaluate: the number of people with health problems and difficulty in performing their daily activities (visual, hearing,

mobility impairments, etc.); the number of people who have occupational limitations caused by health problems/difficulties in performing their daily activities; the need or use of special assistance by people with health problems/difficulty in performing their daily activities; occupational limitations for other reasons (family obligations, lack of training/experience, lack of transport, etc.). (National Statistical Institute 2012)

The data from this survey suggest that the persons in the age range 15-64 years with at least one permanent health problem or disease were 878 300, of which males were 394 800 and females - 483 500. Logically, with age increase, the number of people with at least one permanent health problem or disease increased from 22 700 for the age group 15-24 years to 429 900 for the age group 55-64 years. Across the various age intervals the proportion of females ranged from 47,6 to 57,5%, and of males - from 42,5 to 52,4%. After the age of 25, the proportion of females with at least one permanent health problem or disease was higher in all age groups, with the greatest differences between the genders found between those aged 55-64 (42,5% for males and 57,5% for females).

368 600 of the respondents were employed, of which 173 500 males and 195 100 females. Males were mainly occupied in agriculture, forestry, fishery and the industry, and females were occupied in the service sector. The unemployed were 58 900 males and females, and the persons who were out of the workforce were 450 800 with females being by 15,8% more than males. (National Statistical Institute 2012).

4.4. Distribution by districts

In 2011, the proportion of persons with disabilities aged 16 and over varied widely by districts - from 5,0% to 20,2%. For 16 districts it was lower than the national average - 10,4%. The lowest proportions were found in the districts of Burgas (5,0%) , Blagoevgrad (6,2%), Haskovo (6,6%), Targovishte (6,8%) and Kardzhali (7,3%). With the highest proportion of persons with disabilities aged 16 and over were the following districts: Silistra (20,2%), Gabrovo (16,0%), Vratsa (14,1%) and Pleven (13,9%). (Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 278-281)

The average proportion of the children with disabilities in the country was 1,58%. In 17 districts of the country the proportion of children with disabilities was below average, as the lowest was in the districts: Pazardzhik (1,08%), Blagoevgrad (1,14%), Plovdiv (1,16%), Kyustendil (1,18%) and Montana (1,20%). The highest proportion was in the districts: Veliko Tarnovo (2,37%), Pleven (2,33%), Vratsa (2,16%) and Stara Zagora (2,03%) (Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 278-281).

In determining the number of persons with disabilities per 1 000 people it has been found that in all three national censuses (1992, 2001 and 2011) the highest level of persons with permanently reduced working capacity was in the districts of Gabrovo and Pernik, and the highest increase in 2011 compared to 1992 was in the districts of Silistra (4,3 times), Vratsa and Pleven (3 times). (National Statistical Institute 2011) and (Krasteva et. al. 201: pp. 214-216) and (Ivkov 2013: p. 27).

4.5. Persons with disabilities in households, marital status

The data from the last census in 2011 show that the majority of persons with disabilities - 465 875 or 98,2% lived in private households, and 8 392 - in collective.

The persons with disabilities lived in 12,4% (i.e. 371 232) of all private households in the country. The highest proportion (87,8%) of households had only one person with a disability; two persons with disabilities lived in 11,7%, and three or more persons lived in 0,6% of households. 77 629 of the persons with disabilities lived in one-member households and 22 643 in two-member (consisting of two persons with disabilities). The three-member households where all the persons were with disabilities were 894. In collective households lived 41,1% of the persons with disabilities, 45,4% of them had the highest degree of permanent disability. Among the persons over the age of 16 with a degree of disability over 90%, 46,9% lived in collective households in rural areas, while among those under 16, 66% lived in rural areas. (National Statistical Institute 2011) and (Balakova et. al. 2012a: pp. 135-137,186, 218-219) and (Balakova et. al. 2012b: pp. 132-133).

Table no. 11. Persons with disabilities by marital status and degree of disability (Age: 16+, 2011)

Marital status	Total		Degree of disability					
	Number	%	≥ 90%		71-90%		50-70%	
			Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Never married	60 128	14,1%	19 568	14,9%	25 988	14,1%	14 572	13,2%
Married	230 443	54,1%	62 868	47,9%	99 711	54,0%	67 864	61,4%
Widowed	99 825	23,4%	39 721	30,3%	43 188	23,4%	16 916	15,3%
Divorced	35 986	8,4%	9 141	6,9%	15 669	8,5%	11 176	10,1%
Total	426 382	100%	131 298	100%	184 556	100%	110 528	100%

Source: National Statistical Institute 2011 and Kalchev 2011: p. 104.

The findings from the last national census show that 54,1% of the persons with disabilities were formally married, while 14,1% had never been married. The divorcees were 8,4% and the widowed - 23,4%. (*Table 11.*) The proportion of married men was 1,4 times higher than that of women, and 1,26% more males than females lived in civil partnership. (*Table 12.*) Such indicators were also observed in 2001, when 55% of all the persons with disabilities had a legal marriage, as the proportion of males was also higher than that of females (respectively 60% and 50%). The divorcees were about 8% and the widowed - 15%. The higher proportion of widowed in 2011 could be explained with the age increase of the persons with disabilities for a 10-year period.

The presented structure of the marital status among the persons with disabilities in 2011 differed from the legal marital status of the general population, with the unmarried persons being by over 20% more (39,7%), the married and the widowed - by 10% less (respectively 44,3% and 10,2%), whilst 5,8% were divorced. The increase in the proportion of the unmarried persons is due mostly to the fact that a growing number of partners live without an officially registered marriage. The reduced proportion of married persons among the general population could be explained with same reason (Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 24-25, 27)

The results of the 2011 census show that with the increase of the degree of disability the proportion of married persons has decreased (by 13,5%) - from 61,4% among those with permanently reduced working capacity 50-70% to 47,9% among

those with the highest degree of disability; the proportion of the divorced has decreased by 3,2%, and the proportion of the widowed has increased by 15% - respectively from 15,3% to 30,3%. Among all persons with disabilities, the group of the unmarried had similar proportions - 13,2% among those with permanently reduced working capacity 50-70%, 14,1% - with 71-90% and 14,9% - with over 90% degree of disability.

In comparing the actual marital status of the persons with disabilities aged over 16 by "gender" and "residence" the findings from the 2011 census show that males in both urban and rural areas got married or lived in civil partnership more often than females, as the proportion of males in urban areas was higher. (*Table 12.*) The data show that 1,5 times more males in urban areas and 1,2 times more males in rural areas were formally married compared to females; the proportion of males in urban areas was by 1,38% higher than that of females in urban areas who lived in civil partnership, and the proportion of males in rural areas was only by 0,92% higher than that of females.

Table no. 12. Persons with disabilities by actual marital status, gender and place of residence (Age: 16+, 2011)

Actual marital status	Total		Urban residence		Rural residence	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Not married/Not in civil partnership	32,36%	51,20%	31,04%	52,85%	35,39%	46,74%
Married	63,48%	45,90%	64,82%	44,38%	60,42%	49,99%
In civil partnership	4,16%	2,90%	4,14%	2,76%	4,19%	3,27%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Krasteva et. al. 2012: pp. 220-221.

Similar to the legal, the actual marital status among persons with disabilities differed from that of the general population. 50,8% of the general population were married, and 577 821 persons lived in civil partnership, i.e. 2,6 times more compared to those with permanently reduced working capacity. The proportion of married males (52,4%) among the general population was also higher than that of females (49,3%), but was lower by more than 10% than that of males with disabilities. The males living in civil partnership in the general population were also more than the females (respective relative proportions were 9,5% and 8,8%).

5. Conclusions

The analysis and the researches of other authors outline a clear upward trend in the number of persons with disabilities and the level of permanently reduced working capacity among people aged 16 and over; the increase of the severity of disabilities and the risk of permanent disability with age advancement; a higher number of females with disabilities per 1 000 people compared to males; the increase of the number of persons with disabilities living in urban areas, but a higher level of disability among the rural population; inequality in education on the basis of "disability", which is a prerequisite for a lower educational and qualification level; low level of economic activity.

This socio-demographic structure poses a number of challenges to the social and health systems for receiving care adequate to the needs and providing better quality of life for the people with permanently reduced working capacity. The organization and the capacity of the services provided should correspond to the needs of the people with disabilities; to ensure the receiving of the care necessary to preserve their autonomy and dignity; to enable access to high quality services for all, regardless of their age, gender, residence and financial situation.

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The Fourth Person

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Abstract

The present paper deals with the problem of cultural origin of the consciousness and its potential evolutionary path. The human culture could be seen as an integrated whole of very different explanations of the world, i.e. philosophical, scientific, religious, artistic etc. Despite the apparent idiosyncrasy of different cultural dimensions and lack of any coherent developmental trend, the human culture still covers a perceptible evolutionary vein. The evolution of how humans had make sense of their world is expressed in the evolution of philosophical, scientific and artistic paradigms. The evolutionary path of human culture is highlighted in relation with the human consciousness progress. In particular, the history of Philosophy had proved to be co-generic with mankind general mentality progress and an attentive scrutiny of Philosophy reveals a core thread among the various divergent perspectives, a main course which led to the raise of the self-reflexive stance. This course starts from the individual awareness and consciousness of egocentric first person perspective, through second and third person perspectives of consciousness in and for itself, up to the reflexive and self-reflexive consciousness of the fourth person perspective. The last state of conscious is considered not just to be very likely to emerge in near future, but as a mandatory precondition for the sustainability and survival of the humanity in presents times of hasten technological changing, in the down of Artificial Intelligence materialization and the epoch of unprecedented political and social global upheavals.

Keywords: *self-reflexivity; consciousness; self-consciousnes, meta-philosophy, Fourth Person, meta-cognition.*

1. The Limits of the Technology of Personality

It is almost a truism that the modern Science is at the base of the tremendous technological development of Humanity and the prime factors of constructing all wonders of the modern civilization. Contemporary Science is rooted in Cartesian rationality and expressed in engineering technology. But for the fate of human being, technology proves to be both an incentive to progress and a latent factor to regress, given that humans could be left far behind their creation. This impeding phenomenon could be enacted due to the monopolization of human being understanding capacity by the technological thinking (episteme) to the prejudice of wisdom, because of the prevalence of efficient thinking over the comprehensive thinking. The *Techne* has become the standard for intelligence development. Intelligence was submitted to unique activity of efficiently exploitation of the environment. Like a super-natural skill technological intelligence is the “ability to adapt effectively to the environment, either

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by making a change in oneself or by changing the environment or finding a new one (...) intelligence is not a single mental process, but rather a combination of many mental processes directed toward effective adaptation to the environment.” (*Encyclopedia Britannica*, 2006) And because “the term denotes that combination of abilities required for survival and advancement within a particular culture,” (Anastasi 1992: p. 613) the cognitive development is double confined by the requirements of environment, mainly orienting the mental activity toward satisfaction of basic needs, and subsequently by the limitations of a particular cultural logic. But individual intelligence as rational calculus alone is only a technology, and hence unable to provide collective solution for living. This truth is very obvious revealed by the very well-know “prison dilemma” (Axelrod 2009) or the „tragedy of the commons dilemma” (Hardin, 1968) which suggest that major problems of Mankind could have no technical solution, but requires some fundamental extension in morality. Any actual perspective of understanding particular to the three persons is unable to support cooperation and evolution of human race further: the first is limited to individualistic narrow perspective, the second is too inter-subjective determined and the third person perspective is too formal. The first person is egocentric unable to incorporate the “I-Other” relationship, and has an essential self-destructive pragmatic. The second perspective is subjective narrowed being limited to similar and closest “Others”. The third person perspective is secluded from felt relation with the “Other” and it searches toward a formal objective solution from outside and hence, is restricted to technical resolutions. It is an anti-subjective objectivity incapable to integrate the complexity of a appropriate solution for Mankind. All of three are unable to provide an answer for the problem of sustainability and wellbeing of human communities.

In these circumstances, the elucidation of the role and place of personal, cultural or scientific perspective over the world is essential for the future of the entire human race. We, as cognitive evolved beings, have only a mediate access to reality. The reality is not as such, but as how we could conceive it. We have no direct access to Reality and therefore Reality is what we *think* it is. The dominance of third person objectivity has imposed the rule of Theory over Reality. The map has become Reality, the only cognitive “legitimate” territory. While the most advanced thinking developed by human culture is the scientific theoretical one, we became our theories about reality. But this third person perspective is simply not enough for assuring the consistency and living binder for human community’s stability in the conditions of communication and information technologies, artificial intelligence evolution, atomization and virtualization of social reality.

The global problems brought by technological progress as environmental destruction, loosen social bonds and diminished comprehensive understanding are lethal for the future of Mankind. The ecological green “blind gambit” described by Luciano Floridi (Floridi 2014: p. 213), is a particular case of the general gambit with technology which has only a suicidal “lose, lose” closing stage. The general principle of technological gambit is following: we are counting on the fact that technological progress will benefit more significantly and quickly than it is harming now. But we can’t solve the problems brought by technology using technology, because we can’t solve problems by using the same kind of thinking we used when we created them.¹

¹ Saying wrongly attributed to Albert Einstein. His original say was “a new type of thinking is essential if mankind is to survive and move toward higher levels.” “Atomic Education Urged by

The troubles brought by the nowadays technology's by-products and perverse incentives are so considerable that "the most important and urgent problems of the technology of today are no longer the satisfactions of the primary needs or of archetypal wishes, but the reparation of the evils and damages by the technology of yesterday" (Gabor 1970: p. 9) The vital collective problems are best solved on an upper level and not at the same level where they appear, because we have to transcend them and look at them with a different and more comprehensive overview. Therefore the same technological consciousness which create technological problems could not solve them, unless it enhances and evolves. At this moment, the perspective of human consciousness is at the level of a tripartite compound. It is concurrently "I am me, others and knowledge".

Most of the time, "I am me" of the first person perspective, as it is expressed in the Cartesian gnoseological Individualism. I live immediate and at a peak level, focusing the entire energy and attention on what is happening to me and in my proximity in this very moment. The faraway and strange events and persons are transformed accordingly with my current perspective regardless if it is suitable fitted or not. We employ psychological processes of "assimilation" and "accommodation" described by Jean Piaget (Piaget 1951) or psycho-sociological processes of "anchoring" and "objectification" depicted by Serge Moscovici and made the surrounding socio-cultural world in our own image. Strange ideas, events and behaviors are reduced to ordinary categories and images and are placed in a familiar context (Moscovici 1984: p. 29). Everything is made familiar and experienced directly sensorial and instantaneously emotional.

The "I am Other(s)" of the second person perspective is manifesting in the Social Altruism nurtured by the social origin of human cognition where the consciousness is the internalized of the conduct reflected in the eyes of the another. It is the perspective of personal effort to meet the perspective of the Other, to understand emphatically the he/she point of view. The second person perspective taking is an inter-subjective distinct epistemic perspective involving a different kind of knowledge of understanding other minds. It is acquired in differently from the knowledge of the first and third perspective even though it is strong inter-related with the subjective first-person and objective third-person perspective. It is more a process-driven mechanism of knowledge than a theory-driven one. The second-person perspective also enable us to understand other mental state generating (embodying) them in ourselves. It forms the binding structure for social consistency. In the concrete interactions, the action and perception are very tight blended and we could experience other's mental state and have an immediate access to their embodied intentionality. (Gangopadhyay and Schilbach 2011)

Last, but not least, the "I am my knowledge" of the third person perspective is the scientific impersonal objectification comprehension built-in me by socialization. It is a detached perspective free from causal influences of the proximal others' behavior and events. None of these perspectives, the experiential first, relational second and conceptual third are possible in the absence of the others, but all of them are concurrent. For example, the third person perspective of objective knowledge is possible only

Einstein", *New York Times* (May 25) 1946, p. 13, where is quoted an extras from a telegram a "Plea for \$200,000 to promote new type of essential thinking", signed by the Emergency Committee of Atomic Scientists with Albert Einstein as Chairman and the Federation of American Scientists addressed to several hundred prominent Americans on 24 May 1946.

through the first person perspective of subjective cognition which “as an experience is something personal and private that cannot be transferred, and that which one believes to be transferable, objective knowledge, must always be created by the listener: the listener understands, and *objective knowledge* appears transferred, only if he is prepared to understand.” (Maturana and Varela 1980: p. 5) The replication and reproduction in the understanding of the first persons is condition *sine qua non* for the perpetuation and materialization in act of the theoretical third person perspective. Here lies the preeminence of the Spirit over Matter. Albeit the consciousness would emerged from material organization, the Matter gains value and meaning only through rational organization provided by Spirit.

Hence the huge advances in scientific knowledge are useless and yet they are likely to become dangerous, as long as the vast majority of people are not prepared to understand their meaning and consequences. The present course of human civilization is a blind walking toward a predictable engineered political and environmental collapse in the absence of educational active measure for changing cultural mass perspective. The academia and higher education, regardless specialization, should expand and rethink their curricula in order to incorporate the training and personal development courses toward the next level of understanding, which could be the fourth person perspective. The prerequisite step is that intelligentsia should understand this mission as its primary duty, and make efforts to adopt such elevated perspective. But in this case the respectable cultural tradition of academia proves unfavorable. The scientific progress was based, until now, on specialized thinking and specialization of activities, no matter what kind this was, technical, social or humanistic, and this fact was narrowing the perspective of the possible leading researchers. If in the beginning the specialization of bodily functions and parts, of social roles and cognitive tasks was the key for human species progress and evolution, at the present level of individual, social and cultural progress the advances of specialization are overshadowed by the specter of collective high-order system complexity disturbances and its self-destruction. While the specialization is mandatory for the development of knowledge, understanding and prolific applications and outcomes in any field, it also represents a constant source for destabilizing any complex system formed by many heterogeneous areas. If we go one step deeper into the phenomenon which made possible the mankind evolution, i.e. human mind perspective over world, we understand that the specialized perspective of consciousness is at the base of any perceived or constructed reality for human being. Such view is good only in the primitive natural and social settings, where the relations of human being with environment and each other are simple and predictable. The major procedure of adaptation is the adjustment of conduct to natural and social laws. But at the present high level of civilization, where the humanity could alter the drastically the environment and collective life, is required an improved perspective for assuring the equilibrium of life on Earth. Hence, the necessity of a new perspective able to integrate the advantages of all others, as it is the perspective of the fourth person.

However there are a many problems of conceiving, accepting and adopting such perspective. How could be imagined such weird concept of fourth person perspective, when the fundamental grammatical principles of language instantiates only three persons? If “the limits of my language mean the limits of my world” (Wittgenstein 1922: proposition 5.6), a fourth person perspective would be inconceivable. From present logic-grammatical perspective the fourth person perspective looks meaningless. But as the history of geometry proved this could be only a matter of evolution. The

unconceivable fourth-dimensions space was accepted when the theorists found no contradictions in constructing non-Euclidean geometries. Afterwards, even these geometries with more than four dimensions were still not intuitive and visually representable, they proved instead useful and even essential for understanding and explaining the fundamental structure of the Universe both at subatomic and cosmologic level. The Reality is not necessary as we can see it, not as we commonly conceive it or how we could express it in daily language. The World at large and at its elemental level is beyond the limits of the sensitive abilities of us, midst-level creatures.

2. The Fourth Person State of Consciousness

The fourth person perspective is the next level of thinking and understanding the world from a broader and inclusive perspective. It represents the fusion of the tripartite structure of modern consciousness into single tri-unitary life-world perspective. Because it is an advance mode of thinking and understanding, this concept could trouble many. So it should be approach gradually. In the first place, it can be understood as “a third person perspective on the mechanisms of the first person perspective.” (Walter 2004: p. 285) That is it incorporates the demonstrated findings of scientific knowledge within ones thinking and self-understanding and consequently avoiding a lot of psychological biases and wrong conceptions. As individual cognitive/comprehensive process it means to see oneself through the eyes of someone else, that is that one (or that one has become). From the rational mechanisms involved in such thinking “the fourth-person perspective is rooted in late-formal and post-formal operational thinking referred by Wilber as *vision logic*. In this post-formal operational thinking you do not simply explore hypotheses and form conclusions from one perspective, but from as many perspectives as possible.” (Ingersoll 2010: p. 49) In other words, from the fourth person perspective the reasoning follows a non-linear deductive path and operates simultaneously with multiple hypothesis and viewpoints and is not limited to one rationale. At the same time, from ontological standpoint, “taking the fourth person perspective is the capacity to step into the context that a person or situation is surrounded by and seeking the effects of that context on the people and situations they are influence by” (Fitch and O’Fallon 2013: p. 117). This perspective is more comprehensive dealing simultaneously with subject, object and context(s), its present state, its history and prospective future.

In terms of humanist transpersonal psychology self-reflexivity is equated with the capacity to adopt the perspective of the fourth person: “one in which he can actually observe himself observing himself interacting with the world in the past and present and even in the future with his possible selves. (...) Here one is a participating observer, and one’s inner process becomes more interesting and important than the behavioral outcome.” (Hartman and Zimberoff 2008: p. 46) It is interesting that such ability to scrutinize your own self observing itself can’t be achieved unless there is an autonomous reality of ideas, of objective state of consciousness, within the positioning and participant observation takes place. The achievement of such ability is the living proof of the autonomy and manifestation of informational dimension of the Universe. “The very nature of fourth person reflects the other points of view. As in the first person, you are focusing your energy and attention. You’re quieting your mind. And you’re opening up to experiencing directly other ways of perceiving as well as the sensory details that go with those other ways. As in the second-person point of view, you are stretching to meet other people at their view of the world. And as in the third

person, you are detaching from the causal mechanism around you (such as others' behavior and various events) that might otherwise strongly influence your behavior and perceptions." (Nardi 2001: p. 93)

A very insightful depiction of such level of consciousness could be found in the ancient fundamental concept from Hindu Ontology of Consciousness, Turiya. Alike Turiya, the fourth person state of consciousness forms the fundamental milieu that both underlies and transcends the three common states of consciousness: first, second and third apperceptions of the world. Continuing our analogy, we can assimilate the specificities of individual awareness involved in the three personal perspectives with the three Hindu states of consciousness: waking consciousness, dreaming, and dreamless sleep. We could associate each of these states with a perspective. The first person corresponds to the wake consciousness, outwardly cognitive. I am aware and focused of what is happened around me. It is the fully subjective awareness of the world. The second person perspective is corresponding to dreaming consciousness, since the person knows through the disembodied dream state, emphatically as inwardly cognitive. The second perspective borrows such dreaminess feature and represents the striving to understand the metaphysical truth that every person is a world's dream embodied in a person. "In every man a world is in attempt, / The Old Demiurgos in vain is striving; / In any mind the world is wondering / Again: where it comes from and where it goes the flower / Of obscure desires planted in the immensity? / So human crop is frozen in its way, / One man is petrify as a slave, another king / and covering his pity life with senses / And showing its misery face to the Sun / The face - for to them all an equal knowledge being given" (Eminescu 1973: pp. 69-70).

The third person perspective is de-subjectified as it is the awareness in dreamless state of consciousness. It manifests an objective embodiment of knowledge, without any subjective shade, different faces of the universal objective truth. The objective third person perspective is more a neutral and impuissant observer of its mental activity. But this perspective touches its limits soon, when it falls into the postulate of objectivity. "The scientific attitude implies what I call the postulate of objectivity – that is to say, the fundamental postulate that there is no plan, that there is no intention in the universe." (Monod quoted in Hess 1971). This perspective has to be liberated from its self-imposed restrictions toward recognizing the essence of objectivity as the product of shared knowledge and integrating the subjectivness in its perspective. Otherwise its falsehood becomes obvious and the objectivity reveals simply as an over-enhanced subjective that subjugates the object, over-asserting itself. In the light of tremendous evolution of human culture and technology the great philosophical problem of the relationship between the realm of knowledge and the realm of values, is moved in new settings. Until now, "Knowledge is what is; values are what ought to be" (*Ibidem*), but from now on values can creates what it is, and hence, knowledge. Therefore for the fourth person enhanced cognitive perspective, the knowledge should become (in addition) what ought to be.

Coming back to the Turiya's "the fourth" state of consciousness as is depicted in the Mandukya Upanishad, the fourth person level of consciousness state doesn't exist from the beginning as an immutable ontological reality separated from the individual minds, but it is formed through evolution of thinking. It partially replicates at individual level an universal field of general knowledge. Also, contrasting to Turiya depiction, the fourth person perspective will correspond to an inverted state of transcendence. The fourth person perspective comprise positive notes: it is inwardly cognitive and

outwardly cognitive, both-wise cognitive, a cognition-mass, cognitive, non-cognitive etc. (see Mandukya Upanishad Verse VII, in Hume 1921: p. 392). It is a positive mixed state, which combines all previous three perspectives.

Such image is more able to convey the fourth person perspective meaning. It transcends all relational manifestation: causal, subtle and gross. The idea of fourth person perspective is also related with other similar perspectives already envisaged, studied and developed in Ego Development Theories or Integral, Humanistic, and Developmental Psychology, under different names: as stages of Ego development, higher states of Self development and so on. For example, the description of post-conventional Ego states evolution provides a close depiction of fourth person perspective development. In their way to this level of understanding people progressively: 1. experience themselves differently at different times or contexts; 2. realize they are placed into the context of particular societies and within totality of their lifetime and are able to “own” whatever is part of themselves despite they notice different aspects of themselves at different times; 3. they become aware of a paradigm of consciousness that incorporate an ever-larger realm of experience and thought; and finally they experience a global or universal vision where the quotidian tension between the separateness and belongingness feelings is annihilated. (Cook-Greuter 1989). This evolution of perspective over world incentive to the highest upshot of self-reflexive view of oneself as part of ongoing humanity, embedded in the very process of self-creation. From this viewpoint the fourth person perspective could be seen as the expression of a (much) higher state of human consciousness.

3. From Awareness to Self-Reflexive Consciousness

The consciousness is not plain awareness, but there are different levels of consciousness' experience. These levels of consciousness are directly related with the primitive mechanisms of reflexive thinking: reference and self-reference, self-reflection, reflexivity and self-reflexivity from which the core processes of Awareness, Consciousness, Self-Consciousness and Reflexive Self-Consciousness arises. The self-reflexivity auto-poietic state is preceded by progressive state of situated knowledge. First is the reflective state where I am aware about my own identity and I and reality being conceived opposed (Cartesianism). In the reflexivity state I am aware that Reality is how I conceive it (Criticism). In the state of self-reflexivity I am part of the reality known by me. The latter state of knowledge is the level of auto-poietic consciousness where I am making myself through the very act of knowledge.

Signs of raising comprehension of human consciousness at collective level could be noticed in all over the cultural realms from the new forms of Religion, Arts and Literature to the Philosophy and Sciences. While in Religion, Philosophy, Literature or Arts this paradigm is explicit, in Sciences it manifest itself in a covered, but not less powerful, form (see Popoveniuc 2014). In Physics, for example, reflexivity is related with the objective role played by the subjective consciousness in the Wave function collapse. We have to be aware that this formalism in no way involves a consciousness of an individual observer (Nauenberg 2011), but a generic (fourth person?) consciousness. In Biology the auto-poiesis self-sustained fundamental character of living systems (Maturana and Varela 1980) is the eco-systemic expression of a self-reflexive relation (the observer is a living system and any understanding of cognition as a biological phenomenon must account for the observer and his role in it). Throughout the entire historical evolution of Psychology the dialectical process of self-reflexive

understanding action is manifesting in the alternative supremacy of cognitive and behavioral view on Subject, expression of general self-understanding swinging (Buss 1978), while in Sociology it overtly manifests itself in the “Reflexive turn” as in the case of Critical Theory and Standpoint Theory. The Modern Philosophy started with the methodical doubt with Self-Referential character of the Cartesian Meditations, advanced through the Self-Reflectivity of transcendental perspective of Kantian Critics and the Reflexivity of the Hegelian absolute dialectics and ended in the pure Self-Reflectivity of the Husserlian phenomenological consciousness.

If the specific course is easily recognizable as the never-ending falsification of wrong convictions and the Technology has its own identifiable direction: the increasing optimization of tools for achieving rationally established goals, the Philosophy is frequently suspected to be just a bunch of phantasmagorical mental constructs, a chaotic succession of random systems of thought. As we can see, it implies a more ordered and meaningful advance of general understanding. The entire history of Philosophy was co-generic with mankind general mentality progress and an attentive scrutiny of Philosophy reveals this core thread among the various divergent perspectives, a main course which led to the rise of the self-reflexive stance.

4. The Fourth Person Level of Morality

As we can see, this cognitive evolution toward a fourth person self-reflexivity seems to be more obvious at the level of collective consciousness of cultural system than at individual level, where it is estimated optimistically to cover up to 10% but having much lesser amount. Nonetheless it seems to be the next adaptive step in evolution of human species, as long as previous and present regulatory mechanism, the moral, is made obsolete by the fast technological progress and accompanying social, political and environmental profound changes. In present circumstances of technological power and political formal obsolete institutions, the general annihilation is almost a certainty because man is *not* a moral being. This is only a false laudatory self-image, an invention of ethicists for keeping and legitimizing their jobs. Man is *able of moral* conduct and thinking, is a being *with moral*, a being *moral determined* also, but *not a moral being*. Moral is an evolutionary cultural construct arose from necessity of preventing the potential self-destructive consequences of human intelligence over-development. Moral development is consonant with cognitive development, but not only with the level of intelligence. It also requires robust affective balance, healthy volitional development and superior cultural sensibility as well. Unfortunately, the human’s cognitive development is far behind the socio-technological progress. The characteristics of natural moral springs from its evolutionary history which is characterized by: aggression, reliability to kin and in-group members and hostility toward out-group members, bias towards the near future, and a very limited predisposition to co-operation which results in a prone toward free riding. Consequently, the resulting common sense moralities are characterized by strong prohibitions limited against harming in-group members and few requirements for beneficence or aiding (resumed usually only for a close group of relative and friends), a causal (direct consequences of secluded individual acts) sense of responsibility with a short sided perspective in space (in-group members) and time (near future), which place greater weight on the actions that affecting us or others and with little or no consideration given to the foreseeable consequences of omissions to do something (taking very serious and responsible all aspects of our daily job for example) (Persson

and Săvulescu 2012). People tends almost exclusively to consider themselves responsible for what they do, but not for what they doesn't. Our moral is negative, a moral of avoiding prejudices and not one of making good deeds, one based more on fear of prejudice than on hope in better. This explains how was possible that a Chinese toddler to be ruthlessly run over twice while nearly 20 passers-by have ignored her (Foster 2011). This also explains why only the two drivers that were caught later were convicted for what they did, but none of the 18 person was condemned for what they didn't! The Law is in the image and likeness of moral customs.

In addition, our moral reasoning is flawed from the beginning. I explain and understand myself and my conduct *from inside out* and judge my behavior starting from my rationale and intentions. Meanwhile I explain and understand the conduct of others *from outside in* and I judge their intentions starting from their behavior. This is an unbalanced relationship with the other and as consequence a very poor base for any moral thinking. And I am not even aware about this and consider myself entitle to make any moral judgments. A fourth person insight is the only perspective that can equilibrate the collective social thinking.

Technological evolution surpasses moral evolution, and, as I already said, problems brought by technology can't be solved by technological progress. A cognitive advancement is required. The moral constrains are decreasing at the same time as the level of understanding is increasing. But this should be understood as a progress in comprehension and not in simple rationality. On the contrary, a fully rational world, driven by efficient ordering would not be compatible with human beings. Humanity witnessed the consequence of constructing a rational social order under the auspices of both totalitarian ideology of right or left. You would think that after such dreadful collective experiences, the mankind learned its lesson and easily can imagine what could happened if we would put our desires and ideals in the hand of artificial intelligence progress. For instance, let's define the theoretical aim of Mankind evolution as the minimization the human suffering, opposed to maximizing happiness, as Poppers' negative utilitarianism promote as fundament for social action rationality. In a flexible and narrow logical interpretation of an evolved artificial intelligence, the measure which should be done for attaining this aim would be contrary to its intended meaning. "Given the way humans are, however, we'll always find a way to suffer even in paradise; so the optimal decision for the AI system is to terminate the human race as soon as possible – no humans, no suffering." (Russell and Norvig 2010: p. 1037) Artificial intelligence is not socialized, so it is likely to take literally our ideals and desires with lethal consequences.

5. The Future Person

For the fourth person perspective the overused, but nebulous expression "to be in touch with your inner self" acquire a concrete form. The self-reflexive perspective integrates the self in the world and nurtures the awareness of reality as one with myself. The evolutions toward such perspective in daily life it is the cultural prerequisite for the evolution of society toward "post-market era", "post-capitalist society" or "new world order". The solely social and institutional development as it is imposed by the seemingly autonomous technological evolution is not suffice for the constitution of such new order, as long as the human mind can't adapt itself to such reality. What we call reality is a mingle construct from the material, social and semiotics constraints and the phenomenological understanding assigned by cultural perspective. Therefore, in

order to be consistent and sustainable, the new order of human reality should be compatible and commonly evolving with human perspective over world.

We could enlist all the characteristics envisaged for the future superior “post-” whatever and see that each of them requires such mindfully individual perspective. There is not possible a re-spiritualization of society without spiritual driven individuals; the ecological peace between the need of consuming resources and the necessity of ecosystem preservation, should transcend the inescapable dilemma of tragedy of the commons trivial for the nowadays individualistic perspective; the scientism and materialism will decline and religion will catch up with the science, only if the mentality of “scientific priests” and “positivist theologians” will evolved toward a comprehensive fourth person perspective. The transcendence and self-transcendent should become an emerging paradigm for the common man. The modern institutions could not surpass bureaucratic formalism which inevitable compromise in time their intended goals, unless they are supported and enacted by open-minded and mindful servants who orient them toward a real responsiveness of global stewardship. This is also true for the relationship between professional and personal life. The modern schizoid stance should be transcendent toward a meaningful relation with ones work that makes the tension to goes away within a comprehensive and meaningful understanding of the individual role in the world. This mental and institutional co-evolution could be made real only by an elevated fourth person perspective; otherwise it is at risk to remain another full-fashioned contemporary utopia. Without progress in (charity) mentality technological progress has all the changes to merely provide us with “more efficient means for going backwards”. (Huxley 1937: p. 9) The hastening education for fourth person perspective thinking could be better than to wait the natural solution growth. From the fourth person perspective *I cannot*: increase or to be unconcerned about ecological disaster because this would mean to destroy my own living environment by myself; disregard or hurt others, to keep uncaring when they need me because this would mean to abandon myself; or be kept by any absolute, religious, politic or cultural ideology. And I can’t do these, not because they are *not moral*, but because this is *how I think*. The moral thinking it was just the intermediate stage of the evolution of (collective) human thought on Earth. In order to understand this one should enhance his perspective at least to a broad and prospective philosophical vision.

If we consider the human culture as an integrated whole of very different explanations of the world, i.e. philosophical, scientific, religious, artistic, the human consciousness gain a detectable evolutionary path. From individual awareness and consciousness, through second and third person perspectives of consciousness in and for itself, up to the reflexive and self-reflexive consciousness of the fourth person perspective, the evolution of how humans have make sense of their world is expressed in the evolution of philosophical, scientific and artistic paradigms. At this moment, this tremendous cognitive progress reveals a desolate state of affairs. “The greatest achievement of humanity is not its works of art, science, or technology, but the recognition of its own dysfunction.” (Tolle 2005: p. 14) The progress beyond this first negative level of collective awareness level, could be outdo only if the self-reflexive perspective of Fourth Person begin to be systematically educated. It is necessary to nurture from infancy the propensity toward broad philosophical understanding of the worlds, the drive for advanced scientific open-minded objectivity, and cultivation of the need for self-transcendence as illuminated religious conceptions and fondness for

elevated aesthetics experiences. This is, in a phrase, the stance and drive of and for the Fourth Person consciousness state.

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Teaching civic education through social media

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Abstract

In the past decade the way students interact with the world has changed greatly and social media became the most important channel of communication and information. In this sense the education system is obliged to follow the tendency and use the social networks as a tool to enhance learning, engage students, and extend the learning environment using the platforms. In this objective, the paper presents the opportunities for integration of the social media as an educational tool for raising the efficiency of the instruction of citizenship theory and civil skills. It resumes several aspects of the potential of using social networking for educational purposes in the instruction in the cultural and educational field "Social sciences and civic education". The report presents on one hand the possible usage of the divers tools offered by social media as a channel of teaching civil values and stimulating civil engagement of the young people by structuring their use of study time, pointing to new resources to help them learn and retain knowledge. On the other the report covers the opportunities for integrating social media into the classroom by offering an innovating approach to the presented knowledge and skills in order to help students learn more effectively.

Keywords: *civic education; social media; ICT; technology uses in education; educational activities; participatory skills; civic participation; motivation.*

1. Introduction

After the outburst of the social media usage the general communication pattern of young people change. This opened the possibilities for a great number of new uses of the technologies in the education especially in the field of social sciences. By introducing new forms of engagement (Wells 2015) the social media propose to the educators new fields to be explored in order to increase the participation of the students including those who wouldn't normally speak up, to enlarge the scope of the classroom reach and to multiply the study time by more interactive home activities building more effectively the civic skills needed by the youngsters.

2. Methodology

This paper reviews the educational activities for teaching Civic Education enabled by social technologies. The main method used for the presented study is analysis of literature. A number of researchers are examined (Loader, Vromen, Xenos, Owen, Soule, Nairne, Chalif, House, Davidson, Hemmi, Bayne, Land etc.) to explore the opportunities for integrating social media in the Civil Education.

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The findings from the analysis of literature conducted are presented in three main aspects. The first part focuses on the possibilities to teaching civic education theory through social media with the methods of tracking a concept, connection of the topics presented to real-world scenarios and people, digital storytelling and participatory mapping. The second part presents how specific participatory skills, attitudes and behavior can be developed through social media usage taking the examples of teamwork, skills for civic participation, intercultural competencies and skills for self-mobilization and collective action. The third, and last part, discusses how the use of social media in the civil education can contribute to building motivation for civic and political participation

3. Teaching civic education theory through social media

Using types of social media such as Twitter can permit to raise the awareness of the students and their ability to work with the civil education theory and terms. Activities such as tracking a concept through tweets when students read about it in the professional literature (Wagner 2011:p.52) permit to deepen their knowledge in the field and enlarge through online collaboration the scope of the notions studied. More over such activities permit the students to present the theoretical aspects and visions they find useful and engaging. The exchange of sources of information can be promoted in the frames of all social networks as this is one of the basic aims of these communication channels. These exchanges can be provoked by the educator through concrete research tasks or questions for analysis of different perspectives. Such exercises add up also to the development of research and critical thinking skills in the students as they require to filter and prioritize shares. Tracking a concept from the civic education theory through the social media deepens the general perception of each term by the students as such a process brings the attention to the variety of definitions and opinions introduced as well as to the evolution of the terms in time.

To further raise the awareness of the students and bring to front the practical aspects the civic education theory, the educator can stimulate the study of the connection of the topics presented to real-world scenarios and people. Such a research of active examples is possible through the social media because of the general access to information they provide and the personal opinions and stories shared. In this logic the social media permits the students on one hand to connect to the studied living experts by following and interacting with them through their public profiles in the social media. Following experts in the studied field permits a deepening of the knowledge received and enlarging the scope of the studied theory through reading expert online discussions permitting the students to identify existing trends in the issues. The popularization of specialized research social media such as Researchgate.net and academia.edu makes such an access to professionals in the civic education field even easier. The social media allow people to overcome the institutional and national boundaries in their collaboration (Gruzd and Goertzen 2013) and provide the general public including the students access to scientific discussions. Furthermore in the same logic as tracking a concept, through the social media the students can track the evolution of a social theory trend by analyzing large amounts of data, evaluating opinion credibility and thus practicing critical thinking, exploring cultural influences in the discussions. Such an exercise would considerably raise their personal theoretical preparation on certain issues studied and requiring a report of their findings to be shared with the other students in class or again through the social media would increase the amount of

information transferred in the frames of the civic education in school. On the other hand the social media can provide the students access to primary source documents including photographs, video and audio, documents and other which can add up to the theory studied or confront it as a base for a further discussion of the main streams in social education. The social media is a great source for firsthand information on social aspects that was written or created during the time under study in the past years. Moreover it gathers the opinions of billions of people on the same problems and events providing a diversity of sources a base for a critical review and summary. Of course the great challenge of defining evidence of credibility to the information emerges but it actually adds up to the civic education as it requires student to develop and use their skill of analysis and critical thinking. In such a way the use of social media in teaching civic education contributes to developing the information literacy of the students, essential for their personal empowerment and for their successful entrance in the active work market through increased competitiveness. Information literacy covers the skills of the students to identify, locate, evaluate and use information as well as define their own engagement (Jacobs 2008; Ward 2006).

The technical specifics of the social media permit the educators to stimulate peer-to-peer civic education as an addition to the theory preparation in class. To do so they can stimulate the usage of the innovative method of digital storytelling. Digital storytelling involves students in telling a specific experience through a communication mean preferred like audio, video, photos written text or a compilation of those. Digital storytelling has seven specific elements which are the existence of a point of view of the author, a key question to be answered within the story, presentation of the personal emotions of people involved in the story, the narrator's voice introducing the context, music or other sounds to support the storyline, prioritization of the elements included to avoid overloading the viewer and a rhythm of the story (Robin 2008). In the objective of teaching civic skills and theory the educator can on one hand stimulate students to share their personal experiences in the field of civil participation or their encounters with social problems their community faces. These stories are charged with emotions and thus leave an impression in other students too provoking both emotional reaction and concrete action. Students can also work on the digitally telling instructional stories about theoretical aspect of the field such as for example the mechanisms for civil participation available for the citizens or young people in particular, the work of the institutions, specific administrative procedures, the electoral process and many others. Such theoretic materials enrich the content of civic education by bringing interactivity to the notions concerned and a youth touch in the presentation technics increasing the interest of the youngsters in the matter. Using the social media in the context digital story telling part of the civic education has several advantages. Firstly, as previously stated the social media provide easy access to a diverse pool of people from all around the world who can be actively involved by the students through different communication technics. This provides a larger choice of focuses of the stories keeping the preparation cost and time effective for the students. Secondly, the social media make this method accessible to all students by limiting the required equipment to a computer or a smart phone and an Internet connection, an equipment that even if not possessed by the students can be accessed free of charge in the educational institutions. Social media like Google+ and YouTube permit free online audio and video recording of discussions of people and so can be used to provide the raw material of the presentation. Thirdly, using the social media for digital storytelling overcomes the need

of specific software for reworking the basic material to build the final product as networks like YouTube provide online instruments for retouching, cutting, merging and reordering of graphic material. Using these tools requires a low level of digital skills and so makes such an exercise suitable for all. Last but not least using the social media permits the stories created to be shared both with the peers from the class or school and the released to the general public. Such possibility and the response to the work from the online community is a base for the development of participatory skills and behavior in the students.

In difference to just present current issues such as the current state and existing problems in a community or build a regular discussion on the topic, through the social media the educator can present such theory with the active participation of the students themselves. Such introduction to contemporary problems through the social media could be based on several methods with the potential to extend those methods and introduce new ones when working with children and young people (Groundwater-Smith, Dockett and Bottrell 2014). The educator can on one hand introduce the research method of the participatory mapping stimulating the students to work in groups to stimulate members of the local communities to share their knowledge and perception of their own environment around a specific problematic issue or an important social aspect. Though participatory mapping is primary considered as a free-ranging visual methods in an interview to study qualitative research questions (Emmel 2008) in the context of social media integration in the civic education the term should be regarding as a broader method going beyond the classic perception of an interview. The social media permits the participants interviewed to directly point their observations on a common graphic map simultaneously, indifferent to their current geographical disposition and without intervening in the opinion of others. In this sense the social media permits the students to do deepen and large scale studies of problematic issues in a time saving manner. The creation of a real cartographical community map around an activity, aspect, problems or else, permits the students to gain a perspective of the real-life aspects of the behaviors and attitudes, introduced as theory in the frames of the civil education in schools and thus should be actively considered by the education in teaching civic participation theory.

4. Developing participatory skills, attitudes and behavior through social media usage

One of the main uses of the social media emerging from their nature is for the developing of participatory skills in the students, such as skills to work in a small group, publicly express opinion, communicate in the formal public sphere and take part and plan civil actions for social change. They also promote participatory attitudes and behavior by providing greater access to information, more opportunities to engage in public speech, and thus, an enhanced ability to undertake collective action (Shirky 2011).

Teamwork skills are one of the basics in the context of participation. Actively working in small groups on the issues studied, students acquire more information and retain it longer compared to other instructional tools used (Davis 1993: p.147). In this sense a need rises of constant involvement of the students in the process of education in order to raise its effectiveness as well as the need to stimulate such a role through the collaborative work. To provoke such an active participation in the class is not always possible due to the time required however it is completely realistic to consider using

social media as a way for students to work on different parts of their project outside of class. Building online work groups is easy through social media such as Facebook and Google+ and provides the opportunity to use the means of communication already adopted by the majority of youngsters for the benefit of their education. Creating group discussions permits the instructor to form study groups for class projects, follow student's participation, provide guidance, and monitor progress (Wagner 2011: p.52) and the students to collect effectively resources, write collaboratively, and present the results of their work. Such real time collaboration through social media on one hand makes the study work more interactive and thus more attractive for the young people. On the other hand it makes it more effective and time saving as it avoids the need of a physical meeting of the participants and prevents duplication of work.

As Rheingold defined, the social media "help students communicate in their public voices about issues they care about" (Rheingold 2008: p.97) providing a free large tribune to practice civic participation through opinion sharing and at the same time supporting the discovery of supporters for their ideas and propositions. More over the technical specifics of the social media give easy access to a diverse pool of tools for verbal and visual self-expression thus attracting all people to share. These tools include but are not limited to blogs, wikis, podcasts and video, comments, petitioning, initiating communication by leaving a message, responding to others' blog postings, co-writing wiki entries to enrich the contents on a selected topic (Hemmi, Bayne, and Land 2009). Yochai Benkler argued that with the active introduction and use of the social media, a fundamental redefinition of the role of the citizens is happening and that they "are no longer constrained to occupy the role of mere readers, viewers, and listeners. They can be, instead, participants in a conversation" (Benkler 2006: p.272). In difference to real life participation through opinion sharing, posting on the social media is a guarantee for the visibility of the personal position as its presence is mainly defined by the author of the opinion. In this sense, the social media proposes the opportunity to effortlessly multiply the effect of the vision expressed through reposting the same opinion in the terms of different discussion no matter the time frames of those. Introducing the usage of hashtags and developing skills for their usage while teaching civil skills is one option for developing skills in the students for participation by consultation in the decision making process on all levels. Although decision makers are under no obligation to take into account people's views this is an important civil skill students to master in order to be more active citizens. Furthermore with the emerging social technologies, a new method of studying the public opinion is introduced – the social listening, a real-time monitoring on the discussion in the social media, both positive and negative. In the field of politics social listening is already actively used especially by political parties and candidates in order to define what issues are potential voters troubled by in order to build their strategies (Harvey 2013).

The social media also provide opportunity for the students to easily perceive different interpretations of a social problem and the proposed potential solutions stimulating a confrontation of opinions, different backgrounds and an endless wave of influences on the thinking of the young people. The constant need for negotiating the differences within the online communities pushes the development of the personal participatory skills of all participants. The diversity of the users in the social media and their freedom to express makes these media self-regulating. In this sense the social media are effective civic learning environments as they encourage students to encounter people with different ideas and beliefs (Kahne et. al. 2012). The social media supports

the so needed to be developed in elementary and secondary education intercultural competencies and fundamental values of the democratic society base for an acceptance and openness to the diversity (Kaleynska and Delinesheva 2009).

The social media is one of the most popular and easy to use contemporary tools for self-mobilization and collective action as a participatory behavior. Since their introduction the way people are able to organize changed completely as they function as an initial core of strongly tied individuals which mobilize around the formed clusters other weakly linked individuals building in such a way a mass movement (Lopes 2014). The diversification of the sources of knowledge, the costs effectiveness and the increased speed of information exchange – the most important advantages of the social media like Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, blogs serving as a global communication system have changed the traditional way of organizing social movements (Shirky 2011). Stimulating such use by the students in the context of organizing small school or community initiatives, provides them the skills needed for future self-initiated mobilization and collective action for opting for social changes or expression of opinion in the process of decision making on all levels. The term collaboratively socializing was introduced to define the process of working collaboratively in an online social environment with the aim of working towards particular outcomes or producing deliverables, in both online and offline modes (Lockyer and Patterson 2008). Such an integration in the civic education can stimulate a positive attitude in the young people towards the effectiveness of such participation in the social life.

5. Building motivation for civic and political participation

The variety of social ideas and practices shared through the social media becoming viral and attracting the attention of a large number of users, in many case serves as a stimulus for personal involvement in such initiatives and in community actions. Though such a motivation for civic participation is primary based on egoistic need for social approval, through "likes", it easily can be transformed into a more long-term commitment to civic participation emerging from the personal satisfaction of seeing the real social change of such initiatives. Moreover being part of viral causes growing constantly stimulates the belief of the user that he/she can influence the change in the social reality, create the feeling that their power is endless and indisputable, and thus the motivation to participate in civic activities augments.

In 2011 based on their analysis of the data from the study on Civic Education and Political Engagement Study which was designed to examine the influence of civic education on the development of political orientations and citizenship skills, Owen, Soule, Nairne, Chalif, House and Davidson concluded "there is great potential for civic educators to teach effectively in a manner that will carry over into political participation in the social media arena." (Owen et al. 2011: p.20). The increased by the social media access to various news feeds and constant real time update from several sources fosters the knowledge, discussion and interest in politics and public affairs basics of stimulating the civic engagement and participation. (Mossberger, Tolbert and Anderson 2014)

6. Conclusion

The social media as the most preferred communication channel of the young people should be considered as the modern tool for the implication of collaborative and experiential strategies in the field of teaching civic education. Their technical specifics turn them into a time and cost efficient user-friendly instrument for raising the awareness of the students on the issues studied, as well as for development of concrete civic skills such as critical thinking within the encounter of the diversity of the views published, teamwork and participatory skills and last but not least for building motivation for civic and political participation in the students.

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The impact of elderly loneliness on satisfaction with life

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Abstract

The problem was older and entered the Romanian public agenda, both in terms of developing the legal framework in line with European legislation and in terms of public policy in social and concrete actions of social reform. Providing a quality life of a successful old age should represent the main objectives of social policies for elderly. The small number of research conducted in our country on needs and social services for the elderly, along with personal inclination and sensitivity towards this population underlying the option to study aspects of satisfaction with life of older people. The complexity of the research topic led to the use of multiple research methods. The individual interview was used, whose structured interview guide was based on some scales commonly used in psychology and the social sciences established theories. Were used also a series of psychological tests. The fundamental conclusion of the study is that loneliness, both as physical state, as well as mood, subjective perception influence on the state of satisfaction with life. It is considered that in this period of life - the third age - which inevitably come all, loneliness can be considered an adaptive strategy because she forbid the elders of this aggression and preserves memories of the past, but on the other hand, nothing is more real than that hardest remains loneliness elderly.

Keywords: *quality of life; satisfaction with life; subjective perception; subjective well-being; loneliness, elderly.*

1. Introduction

Current humanities generally emphasizes that human life is dominated by the need to update, so the assertion of personality , needs more than a simple balance with the environment. Satisfactions occur as a result of human development effort beyond the permanent attempts to overcome petty frustrations that can occur everywhere (Veenhoven 1996: p. 6).

Ruut Veenhoven, appointed the first professor of "happiness studies" in the world, defines happiness as "the extent to which the individual is judged favorably overall quality of his life". The author defines the "plastic" life satisfaction, considering it "perceived gap between aspirations and achievements , ranging from perception to the fulfillment and deprivation". This means that, in assessing the level of satisfaction of the individual to the aspects of life, the decisive role is played by critical analysis he makes his own existence, taking into account the objectives and achievements. Expresses satisfaction evaluation result made continuously subject on their living conditions, the degree to which they are to expectations (Veenhoven 2000: pp.1-39).

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The term commonly used in psychosocial sciences to indicate the subjective evaluations, rewarding feelings is the subjective well-being. Andrews and Withey (1976: pp. 210-212) believes that subjective well-being is the extent to which satisfaction characterize human existence and the extent to which people avoid misery, desolation and distress, which are potential in the lives of individuals.

Subjective well-being refers to the subjective manner in which people experience their life and includes three dimensions: the first is cognitive, including an evaluation (life satisfaction), the second refers to positive emotions (happiness), and the latter to negative state, depression, anxiety and more recently alienation. Subjective well-being is structured so that these elements form a global factor of interrelated variables (Diener 1997: pp. 2-3).

There are approaches that extend the concept of subjective well-being to overlap with the subjective quality of life, perceived quality of life (Diener 1994: pp.103-157; Diener 1995: pp. 509-510).

Specialized research showed that well-being subjective consists of two components: (a) general judgments about the satisfaction in life and (b) the balance of affective or the extent to which the level of positive effect outweighs the negative effect in the individual's life (Bradburn 1999: pp.85-101; Costa and McCrae 1980: pp.56-59).

Adopt the concept of self-determination theory eudémonie or self-realization as a criterion for the existence of "wellness", but moreover, explicitly defines what is meant by self-realization and by what means can reach it. The theory argues that people have the basic fundamental psychological needs satisfaction that the state is essential for development, growth, integrity and well-being. When these needs are met, the body knows the state of vitality, internal congruence and psychological integration. Meeting these needs is seen as a target "natural" life, and have more needs for giving meaning and intentions underlying human activity. In addition, identifying the basic psychological needs are not only defines the minimum necessary for a person to be healthy, but also may prediction that environment could provide psychological capacity (Ryff 1991: pp. 286-289).

Self-determination theory argues that people in innate tendency to feed the ego has three basic psychological needs, namely the need for autonomy, competence need and the need to have relations with others. Autonomy implies that the person can decide voluntarily and that it is itself the agent performing the action, so as to be consistent and assuming complete this. The second fundamental need is the need for competence. Competence refers to a person's sense of efficacy that is in its environment, which stimulates curiosity, exploration and open to challenge. For those who feel the need relationships with others, the third fundamental need, implies a sense of belonging and a sense of feeling interconnected with people who are important to them selves. To feel the attention and sympathy of others confirms that individual represents something significant for others and that coconstitue as of concern on their part (Ryff 1991: pp.290-295).

These three fundamental needs are considered as specific nutrients essential in increasing the satisfaction of psychological nature, integrity and well-being. The theory suggests that if you meet any of these needs is compromised-in any field or at any stage of development-it will automatically record a decrease in well-being.

One of the most pressing needs for people in general, and for the elderly, in particular, is the urgent requirement of communication and interaction with others (Bowling 2005: 162). Human environment due to contact between people is an essential

source of individual well-being, psychological and moral equilibrium. Interpersonal relationships is an important area of life of each individual contributing in many fields , the dynamic quality of life (Bond and Corner 2004: pp. 86-89).

In the absence of interaction and communication with others around installs strong feelings of loneliness (Gibson 2000: pp. 201-202), with devastating effects on physical and mental health of the elderly (Mollenkopf and Walker 2007: p. 87). Loneliness can affect considers R. Bennett (1980: pp.117-118), the basic physiological processes of the body, affecting the feeling of well-being and life satisfaction.

Loneliness itself is not a problem, if not lead to isolation and lack of social relations , in which the person is deprived of the company and privacy crucial for a healthy and happy life. Studies show that individuals whose needs are not satisfied networking dissatisfied with life than those living with others, are more prone to depression and poor health status, have a low quality of life (Lauer 1995: p. 205).

Old age is seen as a state of social disengagement due to falls in elderly social value and utility. Attitudes toward older times in which we are extremely diverse, depending on personality traits, physical and psychological health and economic security level that you have, but always self perception and relationships with loved ones will be central landmarks of life satisfaction and self-esteem (Riemann and Kleespies 2007: pp.88-101).

2. Objective of the study

The general objective of this research is to highlight the effects produced by the loneliness of one's own life towards satisfaction of older persons, as well as on the various elements of the subjective quality of life of seniors.

3. The hypotheses of the study

1. Loneliness affects satisfaction with life.
2. The subjects who are living alone and have a higher level of depression.
3. The subjects who are living alone and have a higher level of anxiety.

4. Methods

4.1. Research Design

This study combined quantitative and qualitative methods. A personal interview was used, whose items were constructed based on existing information in the literature, but also from established theories of psychosocial sciences, with which it was built a global picture of appreciation of life as a whole.

Also, we used psychological tests, which were measured using state of loneliness felt the effects on subjective evaluation of aspects of life.

In addition to research design was used and the method of observation in order to capture and record detailed reactions and forms of behavior of subjects undergoing study.

4.2. Participants

The research was conducted in the city of Petrosani, Hunedoara County, Romania, in February- May 2014 and elderly subjects were aged 60-75 years, members of the Association of Pensioners for death grants and aid mutually- Nongovernmental Organization, which helps its members in the unfortunate event of death, giving them their family a sum of money needed to cover funeral costs. Two groups were under

investigation independent of subjects, each of 60 people, the first batch consisting of elderly living alone, and the second batch of integrated elderly in the family .

Table 1 presents the percentage distribution of the respondents' profile.

Table 1. Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Profile

Study Subjects	N	Male	Female
Subjects living alone 50%		60	50%
Subjects living with husband/wife 50%		60	50%

4.3. Instruments

The interview guide used to target mainly three aspects: knowledge of self, knowledge of other peers, social perception of the elderly.

To know oneself, it's use Bradburn Scale of Psychologic Well-Being. This instrument consists of two components: first, the second positive emotions, negative affects. Each of these components contains 5 items. Subjects respond with "yes" or "no" to each question, for receiving one point. The final score is achieved by overlapping score above the negative affects of positive emotions.

The knowledge of others to use Scala Acceptance others. The scale of acceptance of others is an instrument consisting of 20 statements about your feelings and attitudes toward other human beings. Assert evaluates each subject, on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1-fully true and 5-very rarely true. The total score is obtained by adding up the score for each item.

Studying the social perception of the elderly was based from H.S. Becker's labeling theory. Theory says that when the labels are attached people can be difficult for an individual to escape them; the individual may come to accept, internalize and believe them to be true.

The UCLA Loneliness Scale used for demonstration of solitude to what degree. It is most commonly used instrument containing 10 items, each item is rated on a Likert type scale from 1 to 4, where 1 - never and 4 - often. The final score is obtained by summing the points obtained for each of the 10 items.

Hamilton Anxiety Scale HAM- A is a psychological tool used to highlight the severity of the anxiety condition. The instrument contains 14 items, each of which is comprised of a group of symptoms, the first 7 items assessing mental anxiety manifestations and the following 7 items showing somatic manifestations of anxiety . The 14 items are evaluated by the subjects on a Likert -type scale from 1 to 4, where 1 means "not at all" and 4 "seriously", the total score is obtained by summing the points obtained from the 14 items .

Beck Depression Inventory is one of the tools most commonly used to measure the severity of depression. The instrument contains 21 groups of statements. The subject must choose one statement from each of these groups , corresponding to the state it is .

Each group contains 4 statements marked from 0 to 3, the total score is obtained by adding all points from the 21 groups of statements .

4.4. Procedures

For starters, the interview guide was applied, then the scales and psychological tests. The researcher created a relaxed atmosphere and friendly study, assuring the confidentiality and anonymity of the subjects of their responses. Results and final conclusions were obtained by interpreting quantitative and qualitative data.

4.5. Data analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 17.0 and applying that data processing methods, the following tests: T-test for independent samples-to test the difference between the averages of the measured variables on the same two batches consisting of different subjects; The chi-square test, to highlight the degree of association between two categorical variables; the Pearson linear correlation coefficient, to assess the association between two variables.

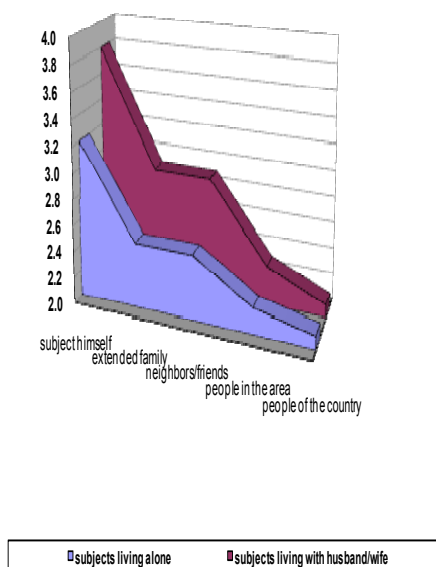
5. Results and discussions

The quality of human life is inextricably linked to the subjective processes. A number of researches in the field of quality of life, included in this paper "Demonstrate the synthesis of happiness" (Veenhoven 1994: pp. 101-116) have taken into account the influence of social comparison; the findings converge to the idea of a significant correlation between the perception of one's own State of satisfaction and perception of the satisfaction of others.

Taking this idea, I used the comparison as a model of social changes in the evaluation of satisfaction with life of senior citizens-subjects of our research. I wanted to highlight the variation between the perception of the individual satisfaction of its own towards life and its effects on the perception of life satisfaction of members of other social groups-the group of relatives, neighbors/friends, people in the area and people in the country. I also wanted to highlight the comparative results of the lot of the elderly themselves, and in the format of the elderly who live with a partner (a) life.

Average scores obtained in each of the five indicators were summarized in figure no. 1, that there is a regularity in assessing their state of satisfaction and contentment perception of others. Thus, if the perception of individual satisfaction is relatively high, as you evaluate areas increasingly remote from individual perceptual level of satisfaction with life decreases. Although there is a downward curve in the perception of quality of life in both samples idea before, there is a notable difference between the satisfaction subjects who living alone and those living with husband/wife.

Fig . no.1 . The perception of satisfaction with life subjects and members of other social groups (weighted average)



Source: Bălătescu 2000: p.7.

A sociological research carried out in 1999, by Bălătescu and published in the journal quality of life has singled out the same conclusion surprised and in our research, that individual perception is increasingly negative as the reference sphere is more distant from the topic, thereby confirming the existence of a rule in the perception of the satisfaction of members of other social groups. The author has called this the "regular curve downward comparison of life satisfaction".

In terms of size components spheres of life, satisfaction with life being actually the result of the assessment of these areas, capture elements of support, but also critical elements in the development of self-perceived quality of life by study subjects. Using procedure called SEDA (absolute data assessment scheme) - data interpretation process variables by reference to a scale with five values - we compared the results obtained highlight the two groups of subjects. Absolute data evaluation scheme was used for the first time by Zamfir, in 1980, and suggests a split 1-5 scale intervals with different meanings. Each interval is associated with a qualitative interpretation of values that fall within its limitations. Taking this interpretation and adapting it to the conducted research, we present a comparative picture between the two groups of subjects, shown in figure no.2 .

Fig. no. 2. Interpretation spheres quality of life using the SEDA

Variables	Serious situation	Normal situation			Very good situation
		Critical points	Attention, problems!	Good	
	1.00	3.00	3.50	3.75	4.00
					5.00

Personal life

health.....+1.16.....×2.60
 family income +1.14.....×2.74
 home.....+3.75.....×3.85
 family life.....+1.40.....×4.11
 relations with neighbors.....+3.82.....×3.91
 home security.....+3.56.....×3.68
 street safety.....+1.50...×1.70
 leisure.....+3.10...×3.21
 rights.....+2.14...×2.33
 achievements in life.....+3.70...×3.75

Social life

healthcare.....+3.10×3.11
 police and justice.....+2.60×2.78
 political life.....+1.98×2.05
 the leadership society...+1.96×1.98
 human relationships.....+2.64×2.84
 environmental.....+3.20×3.33

Satisfaction with life

satisfaction of everyday life +2.43.....×3.46

+ – data recorded in the group of subjects who are living alone

× - data recorded in the group of subjects who are living with husband / wife

Source: Zamfir 1980: p.85.

Aging requires an effort of self-adaptation and re-evaluation, the adoption of a new way of "seeing" and "think" life and self. One must look at the same time be given new perspectives, new horizons in which to build, to be able to maintain affective tone. Human environment due to contact between people is an essential source of individual well-being, psychological and moral equilibrium. The fact is that there is a specific pattern of aging with "success"; There are older people themselves, and yet apparently inactive satisfied with their lives, being more important than the quantity, but the quality of relationships.

In this period of life, some events are inherent, such as for example, widowhood. Loss partner is an event with a strong negative impact, which involves suffering, sadness, anxiety, depression, redefining identity and awareness of the finite nature of our own existence.

In our research subjects, state of loneliness imposed by death of spouse/wife turned into a state of loneliness, with unpleasant consequences psycho-emotional health, psychological wellbeing, the quality of life.

Table no. 2. Presentation obtained results with the test t for the state of loneliness felt

Study Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation	t	p
Subjects living alone p=0.00	60	23.72	28.48	26.10	6.386	25.077	
(p<0.05)							
Subjects living with husband/wife	60	17.54	20.66	19.10	4.172		

The data presented in table 2, obtained by applying the t test of significance, shows a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the two groups of subjects regarding the state of loneliness felt. According to data from the subjects who are living alone show a higher propensity to experience a moderate state of loneliness ($m = 26.10$), while in the group of subjects who are living with their partner (a) life is felt predominantly solitude low ($m = 19.10$).

"Well-being" subjective component consists of two general: first, assessments related to life satisfaction and secondly, emotional balance or measure the level of positive affect than negative affect level of the individual's life.

Table 3. Presentation obtained results with the test t for psychological well-being

Study Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation	t	p
Subjects living alone p=0.01	60	1.31	1.82	1.57	0.279	28.775	
(p<0.05)							
Subjects living with husband/wife	60	3.26	3.74	3.50	0.630		

According to the data presented in table 3, obtained by applying the t test of significance, shows a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the two groups of subjects in terms of psychological well being felt. The subjects who living alone shows a higher tendency toward negative emotions felt ($m = 1.57$), while in the group of subjects who are living with their partner (a) of life are felt predominantly positive affect ($m = 3.50$).

Structured data in table 4, obtained by applying the chi-square test of significance, shows a significant association ($p < 0.05$) between the state of loneliness experienced by study subjects and psychological wellbeing .

The results obtained by applying the two tests, structured in tables 3 and 4 support the first hypothesis of the study, that "loneliness affects satisfaction with life".

Table no. 4. The results obtained by applying the chi-square test between state of loneliness felt and psychological wellbeing

state of loneliness felt		psychological wellbeing		χ^2	p
		positive affect	negative affect		
low	frequency	6	1	-4.1	0.001 $p < 0.05$
	expected frequency	1.9	5.1		
	difference		4.1		
moderate	16.96				
	frequency	2	11		
	expected frequency	3.5	9.5		
severe	difference	-1.5	1.5		
	frequency	0	10		
	expected frequency	2.7	7.3		
	difference	-2.7	2.7		

Studying the social perception of the elderly involves determining the patterns of perception by different social groups possess in relation surprise elderly and social effects that induce these patterns of perception.

Table no. 5 . The way in which subjects are perceived by others (%)

Study Subjects		answers		
Subjects living alone	autonomous	78.0	dependent on	22.0
	useful	80.3	useless	19.7
	accepted	11.3	marginalized	88.7
Subjects living with husband/wife	autonomous	84.0	dependent on	16.0
	Useful	90.5	useless	9.5
	accepted	91.3	marginalized	8.7

If we analyze the data presented in table 5, we can say that subjects living with partner (a) demonstrate the integration of social life instead singles feel marginalized, which leads to the sad conclusion that loneliness as will and as fairly common phenomenon has become in today's society criterion of discrimination.

The data presented in table 6, obtained by applying the t test of significance, does not show a significant difference ($p>0.05$) between the two groups of subjects in terms of the score obtained by applying the scale acceptance of others. Therefore, according to the table of structured data, for both groups of subjects, life is a mixture of rejection and acceptance of others. Diligence in establishing links with others is counterbalanced by the desire to get closer to people, rather influenced feature rich life experience of subjects than loneliness or family group membership.

Table no. 6. Presentation obtained results with the test t for scale of acceptance of others

Study Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation	t	p
Subjects living alone	60	74.34		78.68		76.30	18.548
($p>0.05$)							38.830
Subjects living with husband/wife	60	76.63	81.14	78.96		19.719	

Depression, along with the anxiety have a relatively high frequency among the elderly. Depression is manifested by persistent sadness, feelings of discouragement, excessive worry, restlessness, insomnia, inability to concentrate. Anxiety involves motor tension, hyperactivity autonomous exaggerated fear and caution. These mental disorders are accompanied by the desire of self-isolation and loneliness and solitude along with the existence of chronic mental illness or other previous attempts may lead to suicide attempts.

The data presented in table 7, obtained by applying the t test of significance , shows that in the group of subjects living alone, there is a tendency toward moderate depression ($m=22.43$), while in the group of subjects living with husband / wife is manifested predominantly a slight change of mood.

Table no 7. Presentation obtained results with the test t for depression

Study Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation	t	p
Subjects living alone	60	19.58	25.29	22.43	7.641		
Subjects living with husband/wife	60	10.90	13.64	12.27	3.667	16.080 (p<0.05)	

Data obtained by applying the Pearson correlation coefficient, shown in table 8, show a positive correlation between the state of loneliness felt by subjects and depressed mood ($p=0.800$), meaning that if subjects felt more acutely state of loneliness, when changes occur more frequently dispositional states, an idea which supports the second hypothesis of the study, that "the subjects who living alone present a higher level of depression" .

Table no. 8 . Presenting data obtained by applying the Pearson correlation coefficient between the state of loneliness felt and depressed mood

	state of loneliness felt	depression
state of loneliness felt	Pearson Correlation .800** Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 .000 60
depression	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 .000 60

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

The data in table 9 obtained by applying the t test of significance, shows that in the group of subjects living alone, there is a tendency towards a moderate anxiety ($m=19.87$), while in the group of subjects living with husband/wife is manifested predominantly anxiety levels considered to be within normal limits.

Table no. 9. Presentation obtained results with the test t for anxiety

Study Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation	t	p
Subjects living alone	60	17.99		21.74		19.87	5.022
						21.668	
($p<0.05$) Subjects living with husband/wife	60	12.86	14.27	13.57	1.888		

The data obtained by applying the Pearson correlation coefficient, presented in table 10, highlight a positive correlation between the loneliness felt by subjects and the state of anxiety ($p = 0.791$), meaning that if the subjects felt more acutely the state of loneliness, then presents the most common manifestations of anxiety, the idea that supports the third hypothesis of the study, according to which: "the subjects who living alone present a higher level of anxiety".

Table no. 10 . Presenting data obtained by applying the Pearson correlation coefficient between the state of loneliness felt and anxiety mood

	state of loneliness felt	anxiety
state of loneliness felt	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.791**
	N	60
	Pearson Correlation	.791**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1
anxiety		.000
	N	60

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

All three hypotheses which gave rise to the scientific approach were confirmed, demonstrating the effects of psychological and social plan, the overt alone seniors' satisfaction from their lives.

According to Erick Erikson's theory -theory of psychosocial development-, the last period of life is a struggle with despair integrity. Integrity refers to the acceptance of its life cycle as something that must be accepted that makes individual ready to defend their lifestyles against all threats psycho-physical and socio-economic. Despair that may occur is a strong emotion and is mainly due to the fear of death. Although most people experience these two psychological states at different times of their lives, the person acquires a higher degree of integrity has a sense of well-being and sense of purpose in life even to death .

6. Conclusions and recommendations

All three hypotheses of the study were confirmed. There were significant differences between the two groups of subjects regarding self-perceived satisfaction on his own life. Therefore, the hypothesis "loneliness affects satisfaction with life" was confirmed.

The aging process entails a number of changes at the level of their own personalities, which changes associated with a state of solitude, leading to anxiety and depressive manifestations.

Based on data obtained through the application of Beck Depression Inventory were seen noticeable differences between the two groups of subjects with regard to the condition of depression felt. The second hypothesis of the study, "the subjects who living alone present a higher level of depression" was confirmed.

By applying the Hamilton Anxiety Scale, we obtained significant differences between the two groups of subjects on the anxiety felt. Also, the third hypothesis of the study, according to which "the subjects who living alone present a higher level of anxiety" was confirmed.

The problem of old age and aging is and will remain a generous field of study , and current demographic conditions, even a first order requirement. Knowledge of all facets of old age, the joys and benefits, but with pain and its vulnerabilities and knowledge of real needs, but also those experienced by older people is a fundamental requirement of quality of life policies. Also, knowledge of living conditions, lifestyle and concrete possibilities to satisfy vital needs is an essential requirement for society as a whole, as long as aging is a natural phase of life that no one can avoid .

Analysis of the phenomena of social life, human relations , then outline a possible understanding of what is happening, shares of knowledge that can be complemented by measures of social intervention. It takes a comprehensive perspective on the phenomena of Romanian society, aiming forms of activation of the elderly, integration of psycho-social support groups, actions to reduce discrimination, (auto) and exclusion (self) social marginalization, and the effects of loneliness, rightly considered a true "soul sickness" through an articulated system that involves both representatives and informal system, system of public and civil society, and elderly people .

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The role of civil society in fighting the exclusion of disadvantaged children in Romania

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Abstract

Social exclusion or marginalization has been defined as a complex process of pushing specific groups of people to the lower or outer edge of society, following the policy of exclusion. Although the past decade has brought significant developments in policy and practice for disadvantaged children and their families (by disadvantaged understanding children to be found in any kind of situation which can influence their normal growth and development) and there is a new focus upon access and inclusion, with increasing awareness of the need to see them as “normal”, many children continue to experience discrimination, poverty and social exclusion. In a developing country like Romania, the civil society has assumed a very significant role for the social development of marginalized children. The marginalized community look upon the civil society with expectation and hope, as state's development initiatives have failed to reach the bottom strata of the society. The civil society initiatives tend to acquire more and more importance for the social development, especially that of the marginalized communities. How much has the civil society achieved in the past decade, on this very sensitive ground of helping disadvantaged children? How far can it still go and how can it influence and support the state in taking appropriate measures and investing more in helping disadvantaged children fighting the very hard challenge of social exclusion?

Keywords: *social exclusion; marginalization; disadvantaged children; civil society; challenge.*

1. The concept of social exclusion

According to the British researchers Levitas et al. (in their report The Multi-dimensional Analysis of Social Exclusion), cited by Joanna Mack (Poverty and Social Exclusion in the United Kingdom research project 2016) the definition of social exclusion is: “Social exclusion is a complex and multi-dimensional process. It involves the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services, and the inability to participate in the normal relationships and activities, available to the majority of people in a society, whether in economic, social, cultural or political areas. It affects both the quality of life of individuals and the equity and cohesion of society as a whole”.

It is a complex process of isolation of individuals or groups with limited access to economical, political, educational and communication resources, up to their placement on a peripheral social position.

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Although the last decade has brought important changes in the policies and practices dedicated to the disadvantaged children and their families (by disadvantaged understanding children to be found in any situation which can affect their normal growth and development) and a particular weight is put on access and inclusion, together with a growing acknowledgement of the idea of considering them *normal*, many children continue to face discrimination, poverty and social exclusion.

2. The global context

At global level, the protection of children facing risk situations is a priority and for more than 60 years, plans, measures and actions have been implemented, with the aim of reducing economical and social disparities among children.

The UN Convention on the rights of the child is “the most rapidly and widely ratified human rights treaty in history. The convention changed the way children are viewed and treated – i.e., as human beings with a distinct set of rights instead of as passive objects of care and charity” (UNICEF, 2016).

Article 19 of the Convention states that: “1. States Parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child. 2. Such protective measures should, as appropriate, include effective procedures for the establishment of social programmes to provide necessary support for the child and for those who have the care of the child, as well as for other forms of prevention and for identification, reporting, referral, investigation, treatment and follow-up of instances of child maltreatment described heretofore, and, as appropriate, for judicial involvement”. (United Nations, 1989)

In 2013, UNICEF published the Innocenti Report Card 11 (UNICEF Office of Research, 2013), which measures the life condition of children from 29 of the most developed countries. The ranking has been made up from the perspective of five dimensions: material comfort, health and safety, education, behaviour and risks. The ranking places on the first places according to the care for children the Netherlands and other three North European Countries – Finland, Iceland and Norway. The study does not identify a strong connection between the level of GDP per capita and the general condition of the children. For instance, Slovenia is to be found above Canada, the Czech Republic is higher than Austria and so is Portugal compared to the United States of America. Moreover, the USA is on the 26th place in the UNICEF ranking, being followed only by Lithuania, Latvia and Romania, on the last place.

Fig. no. 1 Ranking of European countries according to the well-being of their children

The table below ranks 29 developed countries according to the overall well-being of their children. Each country's overall rank is based on its average ranking for the five dimensions of child well-being considered in this review.

		Overall well-being	Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Dimension 4	Dimension 5
		Average rank (all 5 dimensions)	Material well-being (rank)	Health and safety (rank)	Education (rank)	Behaviours and risk (rank)	Housing and environment (rank)
1	Netherland	2.4	1	5	1	1	4
2	Norway	4.6	3	7	6	4	3
3	Iceland	5	4	1	10	3	7
4	Finland	5.4	2	3	4	12	6
5	Sweden	6.2	5	2	11	5	8
6	Germany	9	11	12	3	6	13
7	Luxembourg	9.2	6	4	22	9	5
8	Switzerland	9.6	9	11	16	11	1
9	Belgium	11.2	13	13	2	14	14
10	Ireland	11.6	17	15	17	7	2
11	Denmark	11.8	12	23	7	2	15
12	Slovenia	12	8	6	5	21	20
13	France	12.8	10	10	15	13	16
14	Czech Republic	15.2	16	8	12	22	18
15	Portugal	15.6	21	14	18	8	17
16	United Kingdom	15.8	14	16	24	15	10
17	Canada	16.6	15	27	14	16	11
18	Austria	17	7	26	23	17	12
19	Spain	17.6	24	9	26	20	9
20	Hungary	18.4	18	20	8	24	22
21	Poland	18.8	22	18	9	19	26
22	Italy	19.2	23	17	25	10	21
23	Estonia	20.8	19	22	13	26	24
24	Slovakia	20.8	25	21	21	18	19
25	Greece	23.4	20	19	28	25	25
26	United States	24.8	26	25	27	23	23
27	Lithuania	25.2	27	24	19	29	27
28	Latvia	26.4	28	28	20	28	28
29	Romania	28.6	29	29	29	27	29

Lack of data on a number of indicators means that the following countries, although OECD and EU members, could not be included in the league table of child well-being: Australia, Bulgaria, Chile, Cyprus, Israel, Japan, Malta, Mexico, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and Turkey.

Source: UNICEF Innocenti Report Card 11, 2013: p. 4

”As a moral imperative, the need to promote the well-being of children is widely accepted. As a pragmatic imperative, it is equally deserving of priority; failure to protect and promote the well-being of children is associated with increased risk across a wide range of later-life outcomes. Those outcomes range from impaired cognitive development to lower levels of school achievement, from reduced skills and expectations to lower productivity and earnings, from higher rates of unemployment to increased dependence on welfare, from the prevalence of antisocial behavior to

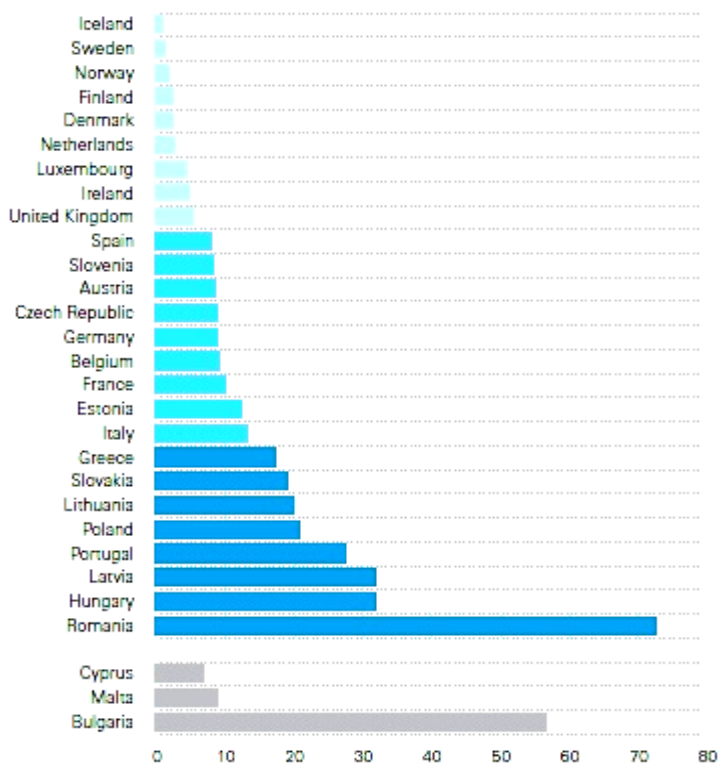
involvement in crime, from the greater likelihood of drug and alcohol abuse to higher levels of teenage births, and from increased health care costs to a higher incidence of mental illness. The case for national commitment to child well-being is therefore compelling both in principle and in practice” (UNICEF 2013).

3. Vulnerable children in Romania

3.1. Children facing monetary poverty

According to the UNICEF Innocenti Report Card 11, income (or monetary) poverty of children is in Romania higher than in any other European Country (33% against to 20% - the EU average) and approximately 72-78% of the Romanian children suffer from severe material deprivation, which is here significantly more intense than in any other European states. (The main used indicator measures the percentage of children who lack the necessary conditions and goods for a sufficient daily life: 3 meals a day, books and school supplies, regular physical activities and the necessary equipment, spending money, appropriate rest and work spaces, internet access, a computer, new clothes, etc.). In a ranking of the poorest 20 regions in Europe, made up by Eurostat, Romania is present with 6 regions (that is, almost all regions, excepting Bucharest-Ilfov), the 6th position being occupied by the South-West Oltenia Region, with a GDP per capita of 36% of the community average in 2008; one of five Romanians lived, in 2010, under the poorness threshold.

Fig. no. 2 Child deprivation rates in European countries
% of children lacking two or more specific items



Source: UNICEF Innocenti Report Card 11, 2013: p. 11

3.2. Children whose parents work abroad

But poverty is not the only problem which Romanian children are being exposed to. According to the central data presented by the General Directorate for Children's Protection, at the end of 2012, the evidences of the social care authorities showed a total registered number of 79.901 children whose parents left the country to seek work abroad. 41% of them were completely deprived of parental care: 22.993 had both parents abroad and 9.991 came from families in which the single caring parent was gone. Very concerning is also the number of children left home alone who ended up in the special protection system: 3.346 (of which, 827 in foster care centres and 500 in the care of maternal assistants).

3.3. Children with disabilities

At the end of the first trimester of 2016, the (Romanian) National Authority for Disabled Persons (ANPD) presented the number of 61.250 disabled children, namely "children who receive the double state allowance (non-institutionalized), to which we add children in public social protection institutions for handicapped persons". 53,7% of them are children who, according to the Romanian legislation, have received a severe handicap degree, 21% an accentuated, 24,01% a moderate and only 1,1 % a mild handicap degree. The national average rate of handicapped children according to districts is of 2,7% (ANPD 2016).

The national policies and strategies targeting disabled persons are based on a series of principles which envisage the protection, social integration and inclusion with the purpose of eliminating the barriers which may exist between them and other members of the community (Romanian Government 2005; Romanian Parliament 2006).

The UNICEF report concerning the situation of disabled children in Romania, issued in 2013 states that "the priority of the development and diversification of social services in order to support the families which care for children and young people with disabilities becomes evident faced to this reality and should be assumed as a strategic objective of the social policies, as a major obligation for the prevention of institutionalisation" (UNICEF 2013).

3.4. Children exploited for work

According to a report issued by UNICEF in 2006, it results that nearly a half of the working children in Romania belong to the category of exploited children. Thus, the number of children aged between 5 and 14 was of ca. 23.000. Between 2000 and 2005, the number of children working on the streets during daytime increased as the number of children living on the streets dropped. Probably 65-75% of the street's children work during daytime, but live with their families. Probably the total number of street's children in Romania was of ca. 1.500 in 2005. These children also risk to become victims of national and international traffic, most of them being exploited for sexual services and/or begging (especially in the case of disabled children) (UNICEF 2006).

3.5. Other vulnerable categories

To the categories above we must add that of children with severe chronic illnesses, for which there are, sadly, no national statistics yet, but who spend months to years in hospitals or sanatoriums and for which the means for comforting their psychological and emotional sufferance are, in the most cases, insufficient. Children's vulnerability is not only caused by the non-satisfaction or incomplete satisfaction of basic necessities,

like food and basic need products, but also from their unequal access to education, play, support and moral and emotional comfort.

4. The role of civil society Within the context presented above, in a developing country like Romania, the civil society has assumed a very important role for the social development of marginalized children.

At its turn, the marginalized community looks up to the civil society with hope, given that the State initiatives are often insufficient in order to reach the bottom social strata. The initiatives of civil society tend to receive a growing importance in the context of social development, especially with concern to the marginalized groups or communities.

“The civil society is a notion which describes associative forms of an apolitical type and which are not part of a fundamental state institution or of the business sector (...) and which intervene near decision factors and near the state institutions in order to influence them in the meaning of protecting the rights and interests of the groups of citizen that they represent” (Fundația pentru Dezvoltarea Societății Civile 2016).

Examples of institutions of the civil society: non-governmental organisations (NGOs); community organisations; philanthropic organisations; social and civic clubs; religious organisations; ecologist movements; the mass-media; etc.

At the end of the year 2014, in Romania there existed ca. 92.000 non-governmental organisations, nearly 40% more in comparison with the end of 2010, according to the data provided by the Romanian Ministry of Justice and included in the Atlas of Social Economy (2014), their number growing with ca. 10% each year. Still, the National NGO Register (Registrul National ONG) is not a very rigorous instrument for their centralisation and the social data analysis shows that only ca. 40% of the organisations were active at that point (Registrul National ONG 2016).

According to the data processed by IES-FDSC for the period 2000-2012, it results that, at the end of 2012, a number of 7857 (22.5%) non-governmental organisations activated in the social/charity field.

The main concern of non-governmental organisations active in the social field is to set the collective material and human resources in motion, in order to develop programs, projects, campaigns, etc to support the socially disadvantaged categories, to train the collective mental and attitude with the aim of preventing their exclusion and of convincing the government to adopt legislative measures, namely to invest more, on long term, in supporting these categories.

The NGOs active in Romania in the social field are very different according to several factors: their financial and action capacity, their number of members, the specific or diverse character of the developed activities, etc. We thus distinguish *family associations* (e.g. associations founded in order to support and promote a specific social case), associations which activate at the level of a local community and big foundations, mostly affiliated to multinational companies or media trusts or to the branches of several big international organisations; these approach social improvement initiatives at national level, disposing of a superior financial capital, not to mention the influence they have on the masses, which they mobilise and engage more efficiently in the mechanism of donations and sponsorships.

5. Examples of successful organisations and projects in Romania

5.1. Salvați Copiii România is a member of Save the Children International, the biggest independent organisation in the world which sustains children's' rights and protection, including 30 members and developing programmes in over 120 countries in the world. It is a non-governmental, public utility and non-profit organisation which, since 1990, actively militates for children's' well-being in Romania. In its 25 years of activity, Save the Children included in its programmes more than 1.150.000 children. Its 1.800 volunteers became involved in direct activities with children and the organisation's partners. At present, the organisation develops programmes in 39 localities, has branches in 12 districts and in Bucharest, more than 6.000 members and 1.800 volunteers, mostly young people.

The organisation's current programmes aim, among others, at: reducing school abandon and absenteeism among children from vulnerable social categories; reducing violence against children; promoting the safe use of internet by children; reducing infantile mortality.

The organisation also issued *The Manifesto for the Right to Education (Manifestul pentru Dreptul la Educație)*, in which it requests 6% of the national GDP for the education in Romania, free and universal access to education for all children, but also appropriate preparation for children (Salvati Copiii Romania 2016).

5.2. The Motivation Foundation in Romania was legally registered on the 15th of February 1995. It was created in the framework of a project of the International Red Cross Federation and of Motivation Charitable Trust in Great Britain.

The programmes of the Motivation Foundation include: the assessment and prescription of personalised wheelchairs, adapted to the needs of each user; training for the independent life of wheelchair users; facilitating the employment of disabled persons; IMPACT – familial type services for children with severe disabilities which are no longer institutionalised; adapted sport and advocacy for rights and services dedicated to the disabled persons in Romania.

Since 1995 to the present, the foundation's programmes have given hope for a fulfilled life and movement liberty to more than 14000 disabled children and adults in Romania (Fundatia Motivation 2016).

5.3. World Vision Romania is a non-governmental, non-profit organisation which acts as an ambassador of children's' rights, by means of promoting and granting their fundamental rights, supporting the children, together with their families and communities in contexts which require urgent development and help. Main activity fields: social (combating discrimination, social services); education and research (professional building, education).

Its main directions of action are: the improvement of the child protection system and of reform in social assistance (by means of lobby and advocacy); technical support for the authorities and social services in the field of child protection in Dolj county; strengthening the capacities of the community actors responsible for the prevention of risk situations; risk situations prevention services (abuse, neglect, traffic, exploitation, risk migration, separation from parents, school abandon etc) to which children and their families are being exposed to; monitoring the repatriation procedures of European minors (especially Romanian or Bulgarian) unaccompanied in the migration process (victims of children's traffic and exploitation), from the destination countries to the

origin; afterschool activities (literacy; scholar support); psychosocial and free-time activities based on movement, play and sport; training courses for socio-educative entertainers; targeted material support.

The foundation's most recent project, called *Bread also tomorrow (Pâine și mâine)*, is meant to ensure for 2500 children in poor villages in the counties Dolj, Valcea and Vaslui a warm meal and help for homework every day (World Vision Romania 2016).

5.4. Terre des Hommes Foundation is an impressive force among the organisations which support children's rights in Switzerland and the world.

In Romania, Terre des Hommes is active since 1992. Each year, thousands of children and their families benefit from support in the framework of the implemented projects, which are developed according to three major intervention fields: a) strengthening the child protection system, in order to avoid abuse, neglect and exploitation situations; b) the protection of children in traffic and migration situations; c) the social inclusion of the roma communities and other minorities.

The foundation has an expatriated delegate and 12 employees who build up the Romanian team, which includes specialists in child protection, psychologists, sociologists and organisational and financial management experts. The two offices in Bucharest and Craiova are currently developing eight projects, with an average annual budget of 1,5 million Euros (Terre des Hommes 2016).

5.5. MagiCAMP –a non-profit, governmentally nonaffiliated organisation- is a special free camp for children diagnosed with cancer, either they have defeated it or are still fighting against it, under a discreet surveillance of onco-pediatricians. In 2014, the camp opened its gates for 31 children, in 2015 for 82 and the target for 2016 is of 120 children included in the project. For each child and his family, cancer means a radical lifestyle change, a total redefinition of the challenges they have to face. The entire attention is focused on the sick child and his survival. Time spent in the family, joy and play are replaced by radiotherapy, chemotherapy, consultations, investigations, painful medical procedures. There are no more vacations, parties, celebrations, just hospitalisation.

MagiCAMP's motto, *Play hard*, brings out a different approach. For a week, everything is left aside and the child enjoys play, music, dance, climbing, magic shows, adventure, other numerous and unrestricted activities, well prepared and carefully developed and assisted by professional entertainers, specially trained volunteers and psychologists and by the curing doctors of the little patients. Specialists call these activities therapeutic fun (MagiCAMP 2016).

5.5. The Mereu Aproape Foundation is the biggest of the foundations in Romania affiliated to a media trust. It has a large budget (close to 18 million lei in 2015) and implements countless programmes and campaigns for supporting vulnerable children and a particular accent in its activities is set on supporting children in need. The foundation's financial report shows that, only in 2015, it invested more than 8 million lei in granting the right to health, almost 2 million lei in granting the right to education – especially in programmes dedicated to children in the rural communities and ca. 1 million lei in granting the right to a dignifying life (Mereu Aproape 2016).

According to the statement of the foundation's president, "we opened our souls and learned that giving is the most beautiful and pure gesture that man has been invested with. "Mereu Aproape" is more than a name, it is a state which defines us, it is an emotion that we give and receive each time that we help. By means of what we do, we show ourselves as people, first of all, so that we later become part of the other's joy" (Stoicescu 2016).

5.6. The Vasiliada Association (Asociatia Vasiliada) is an organisation with Christian and social, non-governmental, democratic, non-profit and non-political character, founded under the patronship of the Metropolitan Church of Craiova, having the Metropolitan Bishop of Oltenia, His Eminence Irineu, as a President of Honor.

The mission of the organisation is to provide social services for the persons, families, social groups and communities confronted with risk or exclusion situations, based on the love for the siblings. The organisation's target groups are: persons deprived of minimal living conditions (shelter, food, hygiene, medical assistance, family affection); homeless children and post-institutionalised children, children and young people infected with HIV or already having AIDS; roma communities with social risk; physically, mentally and/or socially disabled persons; abandoned persons or at risk of being abandoned or abandoning; elder people; physically or mentally abused persons; people resident in sheltering or detention institutions; poor families with many children and/or monoparental families etc.

In March 2016, at the National Gala of Excellence in Social Assistance, the Vasiliada Association was designated *Institution of the Year* in the field of social assistance in Romania, being selected from a total number of 70 participant social institutions in Romania.

One of its most appreciated campaigns, *Small Gestures Make Great People*, initiated in 2014, targets all the people who wish to support the education of children with good school results, coming from families in the rural environment, with scarce material resources. The objective of the campaign is to collect the necessary funds in order to offer these children social grants. A monthly individual donation of 50 Romanian lei will ensure a needy child school supplies, the daily brunch, shoes and clothes. The grants shall be offered to children who have good scores in school and who have either unemployed parents, or parents with low incomes, who are severely ill or raise more than two children.

Some representative figures for the association's activity are: 3000 direct beneficiaries, 18 shelters and social projects, 124 employees and volunteers and over 40 community partnerships (Asociatia Vasiliada 2016).

5.7. The Economical-Social Consultancy and Counselling Association A.C.C.E.S. Oltenia (Asociația de Consultanță și Consiliere Economico-Socială – A.C.C.E.S. Oltenia) is also an extremely active organisation at local and regional level, whose purpose is to promote social, economical and cultural-educational development of the Oltenia region (South-West of Romania). Some of the successful projects and campaigns of the organisation are: the charity ball *Together for our Children*, the *SOCIODAR* campaign, the *ACCESS to hope* campaign, the *Fairytale Heroes (Eroi de poveste)*, the campaigns *Together for our children* and *Family album*, the *Gala of the Volunteers* etc.

The two milestones in the activity of ACCES Oltenia in 2015, namely the *Fairytale Heroes* and *Fairytale Superheroes* projects had as a general common objective promoting the importance of social assistance in hospitals, among the members of the civil society and of the public local authorities, by means of creating and promoting a specialised volunteering project. The specific objectives aimed at raising the degree of responsibility and specialisation of young volunteers, who have been specialised in psychotherapy, play therapy and social assistance in hospitals; creating a special and necessary framework for the children hospitalized in the Paediatrics sections, by means of creating a play space within the hospital; improving family relations and knowledge about the children's psychological evolution, by organising parenting seminars for those family members who come in direct contact with the sanitary environment.

Although the envisaged number of volunteers was of 80 for each of the two projects, this has grown up to a total of almost 400 participant volunteers, as young people (especially teenagers) massively enrolled in the activities. Moreover, the volunteering activities still carry on at present, even after the projects' ending, as young people became attached to the idea and the desire to ease the sufferance of hospitalised children (ACCES Oltenia 2016).

6. Conclusion

The considerable impact of these projects on the local and regional communities has strengthened the culture of volunteering, a fundamental resource of civil society, has increased the level of support provided to disadvantaged children and has also strengthened the community's trust and hope in a better future, contributing to creating a positive common consciousness.

The degree of involvement of the civil society in supporting the vulnerable social categories is constantly increasing, which can only lead to a positive outcome on a long term. Of course, the more and more innovative and comprehensive programmes and initiatives of the non-governmental organisations can only succeed by increasing the people's level of acknowledgement of the need to participate. This can only be achieved by using transparent communication and awareness procedures and campaigns, given that Romanian people are very sensitive to subjects like corruption and misuse of funds, which nearly became usual facts over the past decades.

It is also very important for the representatives of the civil society to maintain a very tight connection with the public authorities and stakeholders and to get involved in the legislative and decision making process, at national and local level, as the key to addressing the most pressing social issues is not constantly trying to fill in the gaps – there where the state policy has failed to- but to totally eliminate those gaps, in order to restrict the areas of necessary interventions for the disadvantaged categories.

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European Union cohesion policy and its role on the future development of Romania

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Abstract

Starting with the quotation “no matter how beautiful is the strategy, it should occasionally to look at the results” (S.W.L.S. Churchill); through this article is elaborated an analysis regarding the influence of the European Union cohesion policy on Romania's development. The proposed research was performed taking into account the literature of existing economic theories and legal framework in force on cohesion policy, the result is being directed to the discovery of new hypotheses. Both in terms of theory and practical research methods, the authors lead to draw conclusions on the definition, role, goal, instruments and future trends of European Union cohesion policy, which can show off its influence the development of Romania. The starting point of the proposed analysis are the “differences between the economic development of the country compared with the other Member States of the European Union, focusing especially on those differences relating to prosperity, living standards and productivity”. In the European context of the previous financial period, 2007-2013, Romania faced problems with the public administration, contracting and project implementation. By overcoming these barriers is creating a base on prerequisites for a better economic development in the current financial period, 2014-2020, in compliance with the targets and future challenges of the cohesion policy of European Union. When it was launched the first line of funding for Romania, many implementers of projects funded from grants failed due to poor project management, lack of effective archiving and inefficient data search. The article is elaborated to analyses the disparities from the previous period of using the cohesion policy instruments in order to generate economic development for Romania. Moreover, the present research is correlating the achievements with the future trends for development aimed by cohesion policy and by the instruments that are used so as to promote “smart, sustainable, inclusive growth”.

Keyword: *cohesion policy funded projects; the absorption rate; financing sustainable economic growth; the EU Structural Funds.*

1. Introduction

In the current framework, the European Union cohesion policy represents the most important economic and strategic instrument meant to eliminate the economic, social and territorial disparities within the community. This aspect is sustained first because, in our opinion, the cohesion policy offers the state members the easiest way to obtain financing through cohesion and structural funds for investments which contribute to an

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economic growth and to their development in a harmonious and lasting manner. Thus, the objectives set by the cohesion policy can be met and also, an economic convergence can be realized, taking into consideration the fact that, in some authors' opinion, the cohesion policy represents "the community instrument that promotes economic convergence".

The article's research thesis consists in the analysis of the cohesion policy of the European Union and its role in Romania's future development. Thus the authors have divided the article into two chapters. In the first chapter they put forth an analysis of the way in which the cohesion policy of the European Union is implemented in Romania and in the second chapter they intended to research the role and the future tendencies of the cohesion policy regarding Romania's development.

The research proposed in this article is based on the extensive bibliography in the field and is represented by: books, scientific articles, written press, online press, websites of European and Romanian institutions in the field, legislation and has as objective underlining both theoretical and practical aspects considered by the authors to be relevant to the role of the cohesion policy of the European Union on the future development of Romania.

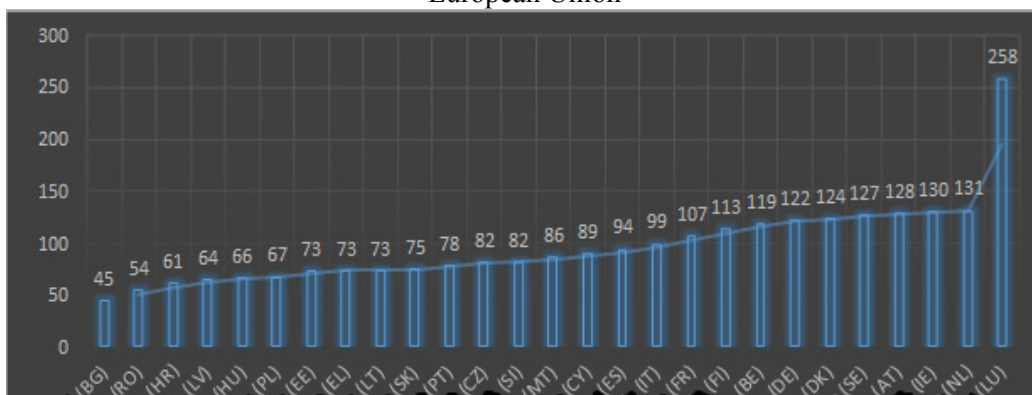
2. The implementation of the European Union cohesion policy in Romania

From a multidimensional perspective, we can notice that the concept of cohesion policy has three dimensions: *an economic dimension, a social and a territorial one*. *The economic dimension* refers to the process of *minimizing economic disparities*, of attaining an equal level of welfare within the community by regenerating declining industrial areas, by upgrading areas with economic potential like agriculture or tourism and by investments in research, rural development and the increase of SME competitiveness. Regarding the *social dimension of the cohesion policy*, one can say that it refers to the process of *attenuation of social disparities within the community*, by which social inclusion is promoted (including immigrants, regarding the situation in Europe nowadays), creating new jobs, decreasing unemployment, maintaining and promoting the cultural heritage, the development and the consolidation of culture, consolidation of the educational process etc. *The territorial dimension of the cohesion policy* means the process of *attenuating the territorial disparities* within the community, which is minimizing the difference in development of the geographical regions of the European Union, between cities and villages, central areas and provincial areas, and preventing the burst of new social, economic or territorial differences.

The analysis of disparities between the member states of the European Union and the regions within the states is achieved using many socio-economic indicators, and one of the most relevant, according to the literature, is the *gross domestic income (GDI) per capita*. It is important to underline that this indicator influences even the allocation of cohesion, structural and investment funds that the cohesion policy administrates, in order to attain its objectives and that through this indicator *the level of economic convergence of each state in the European Union* is monitored. The gross domestic product (GDP) represents the market value of goods and services for the final consumer, in all economic branches of a state during a year. GDI per capita is GDP divided to the number of inhabitants of that state. Another indicator that helps the analysis of the disparities between member states of the European Union, much more precise, according to this article's authors, is the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in SPC system. With this indicator the economic activity of a state can be

measured and it is used to analyze the recession, recovery or economic growth periods. This indicator is calculated in the inland coin and is then changed to the buying capacity parity (BCP), which takes into consideration the differences in prices among the member states of the European Union, thus allowing an exact comparison.

Diagram no. 1 - The level of GDP per capita in SPC system of the member states of the European Union



Source: Developed by the authors according to the data in EUROSTAT, 2015

According to the comparative analysis of the level of the indicator GDP per capita in SPC system recorded by the member states in 2015, the above diagram shows that the highest level of GDP per capita in SPC is in Luxemburg (258 SPC), followed by the Netherlands (131 SPC) and Ireland (130 SPC), and the lowest level is in Bulgaria (45 SPC). In Romania, the GDP per capita in SPC system is 54 SPC.

For the implementation of the cohesion policy in Romania in the 41 counties of the country, along with the capital Bucharest, eight areas of development have been set, based on structural and regional calculation and analysis:

Chart no. 1 - Development areas in Romania

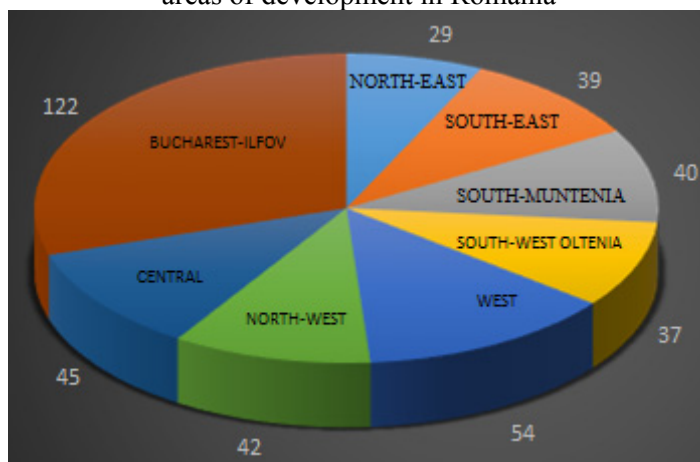
Development areas	Counties within the development area
North-East	Bacău, Botoșani, Iași, Neamț, Suceava, Vaslui
South-East	Brăila, Buzău, Constanța, Galați, Tulcea, Vrancea
South Muntenia	Argeș, Călărași, Dâmbovița, Giurgiu, Ialomița, Prahova, Teleorman
South-West Oltenia	Dolj, Gorj, Mehedinți, Olt, Vâlcea
West	Arad, Caraș-Severin, Hunedoara, Timiș
North- West	Bihor, Bistrița-Năsăud, Cluj, Maramureș, Satu-Mare, Sălaj
Center	Alba, Brașov, Covasna, Harghita, Mureș, Sibiu
Bucharest-Ilfov	Capital București, Ilfov

Source: elaborated by the authors according to the data in 315/2004 Law (updated) regarding regional development in Romania.

Each development area in Romania is established by associating several neighboring counties, without being an administrative territory or a legal entity, having only the purpose of implementing the cohesion policy at a territorial level. These areas of development have been set according to the territorial community classification system NUTS, being a level NUTS II (the number of inhabitants is up to 2.8 million inhabitants). The areas of development have been set by 315/2004 Law (updated) – regional development in Romania.

Analyzing the 8 areas of development in Romania according to the registered level, the socio-economic indicator GDP per capita in SPC system, in 2015 there were great differences between the area of development Bucharest- Ilfov, where the level of GDP per capita in SPC system was 122 SPC, comparing to the other development areas, where the level of GDP per capita in SPC system was between 29 SPC and 54 SPC, according to the diagram below:

Diagram no. 2. The analysis of “GDP per capita in SPC system” indicator for the eight areas of development in Romania



Source: elaborated by the authors according to the data in EUROSTAT, 2015.

After a comparative analysis of the eight areas of development in Romania the following data was concluded: the disparities among these areas are the result of historic and cultural traditions of each area combined with the new tendency of socio-economic development that took place in Romania as a result of reforms beginning with the year 1990.

Once the areas of development in Romania are set and analyzed, using the cohesion policy, begins the process of reallocation of a percentage of the community budget which is made of the contribution from each member state to Romania and to the other member states that need financial support. The budget is used to finance investments that have objectives like: the removal of economic disparities, socially or territorially in that area or country, respectively the increase of the standard of living of inhabitants, durable and harmonious economic development, economic growth, elimination of poverty, promotion of social inclusion, increase in SME competitiveness, etc. As a conclusion, we can say that the *cohesion policy of the European Union works on the principle of the member states' solidarity*.

The allocation of European funds within the cohesion policy is made through its instruments, that is the structural and cohesion funds that support in Romania financial programs with objectives set by regional strategies of development of the areas and by the national strategy of regional development. In Romania, the implementation of the cohesion policy is made according to the general priorities of development set by the national strategy of development along with the objectives set by the cohesion policy of the European Union.

The implementation of the development policy in Romania is made with the help of a system formed by the institutional circumstance, information system (the information flows and the procedures that contribute to setting and realizing the objectives of the cohesion policy), the communication subsystem, the functioning systems (regional development strategies at local and regional level , the national strategy of development, work plans, consensus, etc.) and other specific procedures of the management systems. The process of implementation of the cohesion policy in Romania entails the abidance *by long-term programming documents* (strategies, development plans, partnerships etc.) with the purpose of meeting the priorities set by the cohesion policy.

Within the institutional frame that coordinates the cohesion policy the most important institution in the European Union, the one that sets strategies and legislation is the *European Commission*. Regarding the regional development policy, the most important role is a part of the *European Commission* named *Directorate-General for Regional and Urban Policy* (DG REGIO) which has the purpose of elaborating and allocating public funds and implementing the development policy in order to consolidate the economic, social and territorial cohesion within the community. *The Directorate-General for Regional and Urban Policy (DG REGIO)* has an obligation to each and every one of the citizens of the European Union to efficiently and correctly manage the instruments of the cohesion policy, respectively five main funds to reach its objectives: the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), the European Social Fund (ESF), the Cohesion Fund (CF), the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD), European Maritime and Fisheries Fund (EMFF).

At a national level, the following structures have been formed: *Regional Development Council*, a non-legal entity, founded for each area of development, which has the purpose of elaborating and monitoring the activities for implementing regional development policies. *The Regional Development Agencies* represent legal entity, non-government, non-profit organizations, that function within the regional development domain. These agencies are founded for each region of development and hold an office in each county within the region, except in the county where the main offices are. *The Ministry of European Funds* has an executive role of coordinating and monitoring the management of structural and investment European funds. *The Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration (MRDPA)* has an important role for the regional policy of Romania, meaning that it has the role of elaborating, promoting, coordinating, managing, implementing and monitoring policies and strategies of regional development in Romania.

At a regional level the institutional frame for the implementation of the cohesion policy in Romania is represented by the Regional Development Council (RDC) which has a decision-making role for each region of development; it monitors the process of coordinating, elaborating and monitoring activities for the regional development policy, according to Law 351/2004- Regional development in Romania. *The Agency for*

Regional Development (ARD) has an executive role and it elaborates, implements and insures strategy management, plans and regional development programs, as well as fund management plans, according to Law 351/2004 regarding regional development in Romania. AFRI stands for the *Agency for Financing Rural Investment* and it was founded through Government Emergency Ordinance no. 41 in 4/18/2014, by reorganizing the Payment Agency for Rural Development and Fishery (PARDF) and has the role of technical implementation, payment and monitoring for the National Rural Development Program. AFRI has branches (intermediate bodies) in each county in the development areas. A very important role in the implementation of the cohesion policy is held by the *National Statistics Institute* which collects specific data from the areas of development in Romania, data which is vital to the substantiation and monitoring of the cohesion policy.

3. The role and future tendencies of the cohesion policy in the development of Romania

Through the *2014-2020 Partnership Agreement (Romania Partnership Agreement approved by the European Commission, 2016)* the following priorities were meant to be fulfilled: offering solutions for the severe social impediments and extinction of poverty, especially in rural areas and within the marginalized communities; the development of human capital by increasing the number of jobs and their degree of occupancy; promoting the competitiveness and local development, with the purpose of improving the regional attractiveness; the development of ICT sector, of the transport sector for the purpose of increasing the accessibility of regions in Romania and its attractiveness for the investors; the promotion of a durable and efficient use of the natural resources by promoting energetic efficiency; creating a low-emission economy; sustaining environmental protection and the adaptation to climate change; the consolidation of public administration by a systemic reform which sets the financial allocations for 2014-2020 that will be given to Romania by the European Union through the main instruments of cohesion policy: the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), the European Social Fund (ESF), the Cohesion Fund (CF), the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD), European Maritime and Fisheries Fund (EMFF). In order to reach the objectives mentioned above, it is clear that the role of the cohesion policy regarding Romania's development is a positive one and that the future tendencies of cohesion policy only reinforce that this policy will try to develop Romania's economy.

The question arises: Will the cohesion policy be able, through cohesion and structural funds assigned to Romania, to ensure the country's development? The answer, in the authors' opinion is the following: One mustn't believe that the cohesion policy of the European Union will ensure Romania's development, but consider that Romania will have to make all efforts to benefit from the opportunity of economic development that follows the allocation of funds by means of the cohesion policy. Thus, we consider that the cohesion policy will be able to help Romania's economic and social development in the future, but it does not ensure it, it is all up to the capacity of Romania to absorb in the future as many funds allocated through the cohesion policy as possible, thus being able to make investments that will lead to economic growth, durable development, increase in number of jobs, extinction of poverty, increase of private sector competitiveness etc.

The positive role on the Romanian economy can be noticed after a simple analysis of the definition of cohesion policy as being the “ensemble of measures that the central government authorities take in favor of the socio-economic development of disadvantaged regions”; this tells us that the cohesion policy has as a well-determined goal the economic development so that the economic convergence between states may be realized, meaning equal life conditions within the community.

Regarding the future tendencies of cohesion policy of the European Union for the development of Romania, we must mention that the cohesion policy aims at the future integration of Romania from a monetary view and, finally, a political inclusion. Taking into consideration the progress made by the European Union in the European inclusion process one can notice that lately, through the cohesion policy of the European Union, the economic and social development is met by the member states. Consequently, the economic and social development and attaining a superior life standard in Romania by means of the cohesion policy in Romania is only the state’s option.

During 2014-2020 we think that Romania should opt to increase the absorption of European funds allocated through the cohesion policy of the European Union so that it can use these funds to invest in policies as: extinction of poverty, promoting and consolidating social inclusion (inclusion of immigrants), strengthening of education and culture, of social assistance (house insurance, equality of chances, granting of citizen rights), revitalizing the economy, development of an intelligent economy, creating jobs, development of infrastructure, reindustrialization of underperforming industrial areas, revitalizing of agriculture, extinction of unemployment, environmental protection etc.

Funding framework 2007-2013	Funding framework 2014-2020
The resources from Value Added Tax (VAT) that are a uniform percentage applied to the income in VAT of each member state. The VAT resources were approximately 15% of total income.	A reform of the system including its own resources, meaning the elimination of the present resources based on the VAT and creating two new resources: - one based on a part of the collection of a financial transaction tax. (FTT) - the other one based on the income from national value added tax.

Traditional own resources (duty fee and dues for the sugar sector)- representing approximately 15% of total income; The resources from Gross National Income (GNI)- representing approximately 69% of total income; Other income and surplus, as well as financial contributions- representing approximately 1% of total income;
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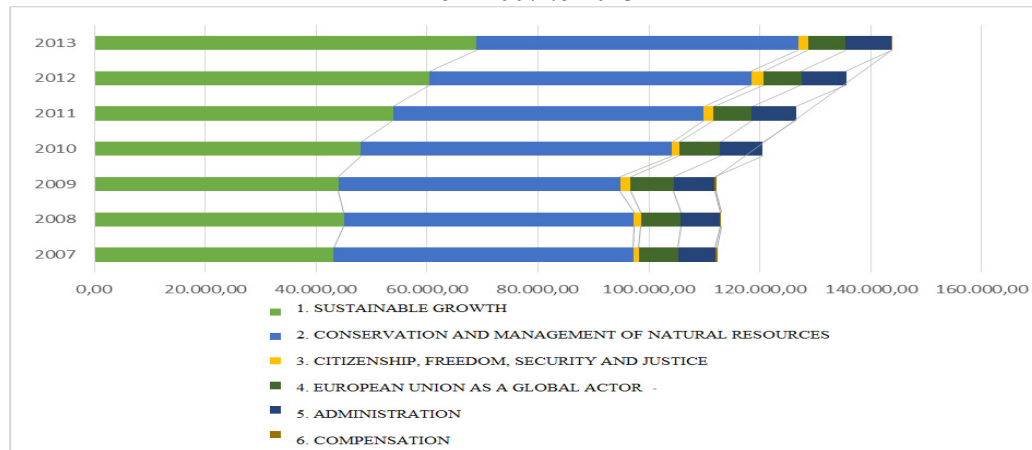
In order to contribute to the cohesion through economic, social and territorial development, as instruments of financial improvement within the European Union, their primary role is to reduce the differences among the member states and their regions.

This is the reason that, in the budgetary allocation of the European Union, from 2007 to 2013, approximately 348 billion Euro have been allocated, from which the main part in the amount of 278 billion Euro was meant for structural funds and other 70

billion Euro for the cohesion fund. These financial allocations for the period 2007-2013 represented 35% of the community budget and are second in the budgetary allocations.

The distribution of financial allocation for this period is presented in the diagram below, mentioning the main components of financial instruments in accordance to the objectives of the European Union.

Diagram no. 3. Financial distribution of the financial instruments at a European level from 2007 to 2013



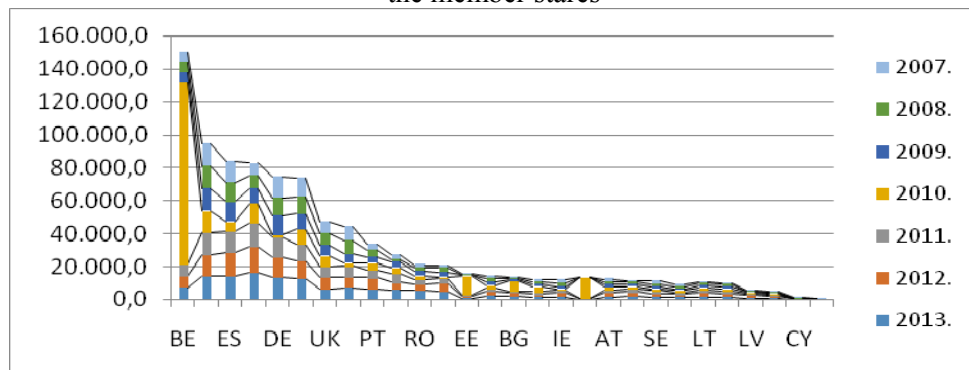
Source: elaborated by the author, according to the European Commission data – Budget DG, 28th of February 2016.

The financial allocation for each country is analyzed below and it reflects the absorption capacity of funds in each country.

The analysis shows that Romania has had difficulties regarding the expenditure of allocated funds from the EU budget, because of the lack of administrative capacity needed to manage and promote these funds. Even if these funds were reduced through time, they still continue to be used in Romania.

However, the situation has gradually improved, and the amount of EU funds that Romania uses has increased lately, reaching an eleventh place in fundraising and use of EU funds.

Diagram no. 4: Representation of the absorption of European Union funds in the member states



Source: elaborated by the author, according to the European Commission data- Budget DG, 28th of February 2016.

The next diagram represents the special situation that Romania holds regarding the presentation and approval of projects, signing of financing contracts and execution of payment to the beneficiaries and the refunded amounts by the European Commission, compared to the EU allocation during 2007-2013 (19.21 billion Euro).

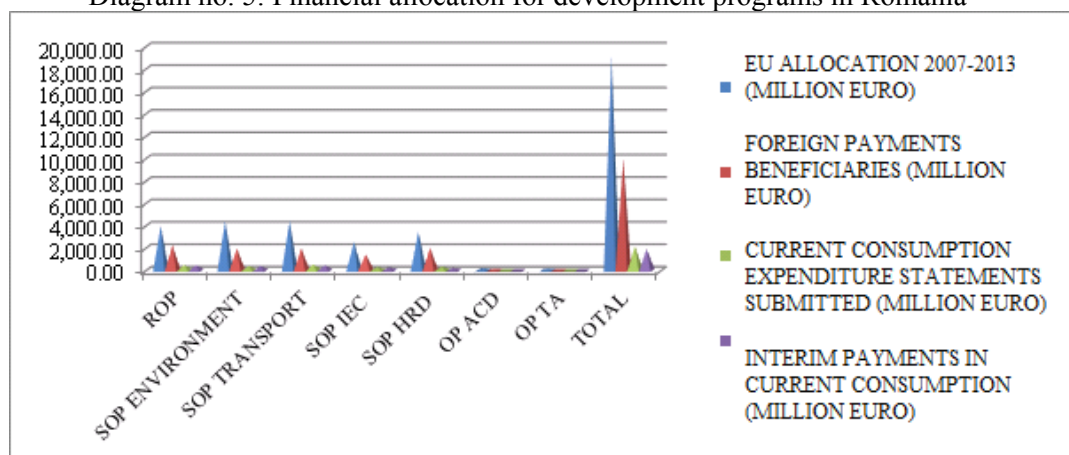
In order to contribute to the cohesion and the economic development of Romania for the seven operational programs dedicated to it, 45.070 projects have been submitted, in the total amount of approximately 76 billion Euro, from which 49,80 billion Euro is the EU contribution.

Of all the projects 18971 were approved, in the total amount of almost 38,2 billion Euro; of this amount, approximately 23,3 billion Euro represents the EU contribution, which is 121% of the 2007-2013 EU allocation.

Consequently, of all the approved projects, only 15.256 contracts or financing decisions were signed, with an eligible value of 25,70 billion Euro, of which 20,20 billion Euros represent EU funding. The EU contribution for the signed contracts compared to the period 2007-2013 is approximately 105%.

The total payment to the beneficiaries, including pre-financing and refunding, except for VAT refunding, was approximately 11,09 billion Euros. Of this total amount, the EU allocated approximately 63,48% of 2007-2013.

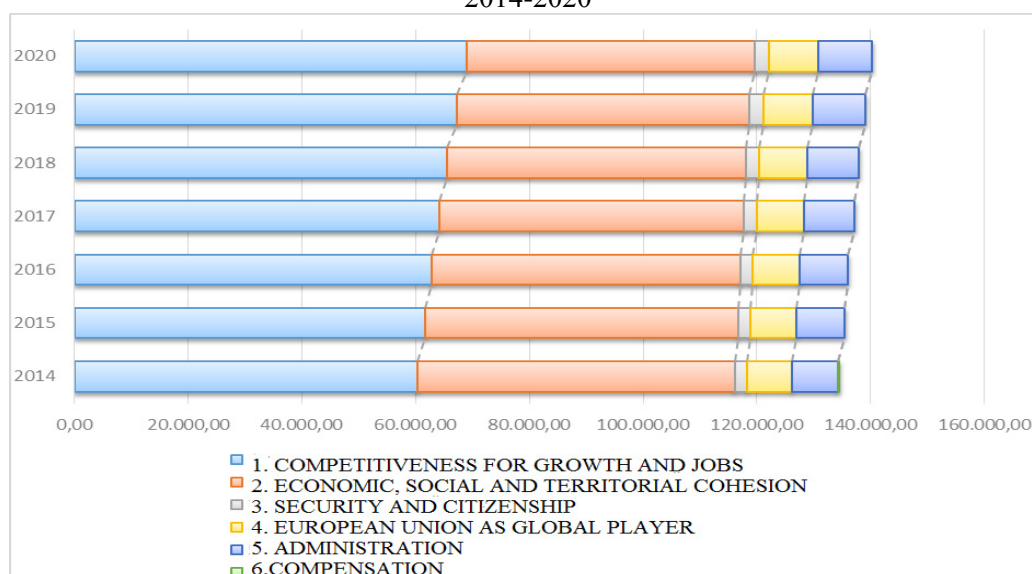
Diagram no. 5: Financial allocation for development programs in Romania



Source: elaborated by the author, according to European Funds Ministry data, on the 28th of February 2016.

Concluding, the absorption rate of the EU contribution at state level for Romania was determined by the reception from the European Commission, of the total amount of 10,73 billion Euros, representing 55,86% of the allocation 2007-2013. Of these funds, total value of 8,625 billion Euro of refunded intermediate payment, it represented 44,89% of the 2007-2013 allocation. The value of declared expenses presented to the European Commission is 9,961 billion Euros, which means 51,84% of the present absorption allocated by the EU.

Diagram no. 6: Annual allocation of EU funds for each component in financing period 2014-2020



Source: elaborated by the author, according to the European Commission data – Budget DG, on the 28th of February 2016.

This perspective shows that Romania has managed to gradually surpass the difficulties in attracting and efficiently using the European Union structural funds and that it presents the premises for an improvement in attracting funds during the financial period 2014-2020 and developing strategic partnerships. The diagram above shows the annual allocation of EU funds for each component and the perspective of Romania's capacity to attract more structural funds by capitalizing on past experience and strategic partnerships that can add value to the Implementation of future European funded projects with long term impact on the economy of Romania.

4. Conclusions

It was demonstrated that for the period 2007-2014 the efficiency of the cohesion policy of the European Union on the development of Romania was low. This aspect, as mentioned within the article, was not related to the European Union, but to Romania's choice and to the its capacity to use the opportunity offered by the cohesion policy of the European Union by means of European structural funds allocated for accessing these funds for development.

Considering the present situation, the European Union and of Romania regarding the immigrant crisis, the multiple terrorist attacks on Europe, the threatening position of some member states like Great Britain and Greece, within the community lately, we consider that the cohesion policy will become stronger and will offer support to all member states for overcoming these obstacles, including Romania. Also, the proposed European inclusion process will continue, respectively the monetary inclusion process and finally the political inclusion process to develop economically, socially and territorially a durable European Union of which Romania will be a part of.

The solution for the economic, social and territorial development of Romania that the cohesion policy of the European Union offers, is the accessing of as many European

funds as possible. To achieve that, Romania should try harder, considering the experience within programming period 2007-2020, to eliminate those obstacles that made the accessing of European funds difficult and to create a favorable administrative and legislative framework for a much easier access for potential applicants of the European funds allocated to Romania through the cohesion policy. It must be noted that only through the cohesion policy “during 2014-2020, the funds allocated to Romania are approximately 22,4 billion Euro, within the cohesion policy (EFRD, ESF, Cohesion Fund)” (European Commission, 2016) in our opinion if these funds were accessed and invested in sectors with increasing economic potential, they would most certainly add to the general development of Romania.

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Romanian education: challenges, issues, disputes

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Abstract

School dropout continues to be one of the major problems of the Romanian education system. While the EU wants to reduce the school dropout rate up to 10 % by 2010 in Romania grows from year to year, reaching 20 % this year. The main reasons for Elvie Roman school leavers are choosing the wrong educational chain grade repetition rate or family precarious financial situation. No currently not stand better: of high school graduates, 49% have no high school diploma and a fifth of the students enrolled in compulsory education have abandoned their studies. Worse is that more than 16% of schoolchildren of class IV are unable to understand a written text. The situation of the kindergartens is not better: over 20% of children do not go to kindergartens because fewer seats. In this situation, in terms of quality and efficiency of the educational system Romania ranks 47 of the 57 European countries where PISA test was applied. And although we stay short on education, officials boast superior quality of the educational system in Romania. The reason resides in the fact that the amounts invested in the system are increasingly higher.

Keywords: *Romanian education, challenges , issues, disputes, school dropout, educational system.*

1. Introduction

Acute social problems facing the Romanian society are: high unemployment, poverty, moonlighting, low living standards, problems in the health system and education, corruption in the judiciary and public administration, lowering birthrates, massive migration, especially the brain drain phenomena.

The subject of this study is education issues, obstacles and opportunities for them. I used the following methods: comparative analysis, case study method, statistical analysis of the main studies on the subject of literature. The paper addresses the issue in an original manner: Romanian educational system so challenged, discussed and controversial. Searching and finding opportunities and solutions is vital for saving Romanian education and decision makers regarding of education.

Rapid changes led to the formation of a complex problem of the contemporary world, which led humanity to an extreme alternative. Today, the issue of education is closely related to issues addressed in the contemporary world, the world that is characterized by multiple transformations through changes in all areas, determining advances in science and technology.

Since 1998, nearly a third of young people who leave compulsory schools, whose quality is anyway increasingly failing, failed or did not wish to continue their studies or

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were assigned by default in chains' school failure . Moreover, after 2000, associated with both seasonal migration of labor, inequality and increased opportunities, alarming dropout record annual levels of about 20 percent. The education system is in decline, in a state of crisis, cumulative by design: both inadequate funding for teachers' salaries and for maintaining and equipping schools; serious and profound inequalities and training opportunities between those who live in rural areas and those of the urban population; between the families equipped with capital and those without economic resources; poor capacity to compete in the labor market of many high school and university graduates is revealed.

Although education is usually considered a national priority, and press it sits on the front page of "citizen's agenda", no government has treated it as public service most important to the State; to the extent that general education is irreplaceable mission to train the children for citizenship. School is not a necessary evil, which we ought to avoid it skillfully, but the only way that young people can enjoy Romanian right to equal opportunities throughout the EU, regardless of their background.

2. Theoretical framework

In recent years, the Romanian society is going through a time of transformation on economic, political, social and cultural levels. In this transition which according to some has ended, in full process by others - relative accuracy means where we start and where we want to go. Thus, we leave behind a totalitarian regime based on economic, political and social exclusively centralized in which the citizen is serving the state. On the contrary, we want to move towards an open society based on individual autonomy and mutual respect, in which the state institutions must be in the service of citizens. Education is an essential dimension of the human being. It faces a number of challenges in the context of the newly created system such as:

- Under financing of education
- Dropout
- Insertion rate of graduates after graduation
- Globalization, virtualization and internationalization of education
- Tradition and / or modernity
- Competition = opportunities

Romania ranks 47 of the 57 European countries where PISA test was applied. And although we stay short on education, officials boast superior quality of the educational system in Romania.

3. The research hypothesis

Throughout the education has received around 3% of GDP, although the law says should we talk about 6%. Apparently they do not want to have an educated population and that in fact, by looking at these budgets as an expense rather than an investment designed with efficiency barometer "According to data from the National Statistics Institute (INS) in 2013 in the public education system came money equivalent to only 2.5% of GDP and, according to the budget law in 2014 education received 3.2% of GDP. 2015 education budget is equivalent to 3.7% of GDP. The largest investor in education in the world is Sweden, which grants public budgets to the institutions which represent 7% of its GDP, followed closely by Finland and Belgium. However, Romania is the first country in the top of the weakest investments in education, with annual budgets twice as small as those in Germany, Spain or Poland.

4. Methodology

The main methods of analysis used in the paper were secondary analysis of social documents and the institutional-legal method applied on legal acts, historical recordings of the forms of direct democracy that were used in Romania after 1989.

5. Problems of the Romanian education

School dropout continues to be one of the major problems of the Romanian education. While the EU wants to reduce the school dropout rate up to 10% by 2010 in Romania grows from year to year, reaching 20% this year. The main reasons, according to Elvie Roman, for school leavers who are choosing the wrong educational chain, grade repetition rate or family precarious financial situation. Worse are only Spain, Portugal and Malta, whose dropout rate exceeds 30%. In contrast, a qualitative education will praise Slovenia, Poland and the Czech Republic, whose percentage of early school is 5.5%.

In this framework are both kindergarten and school - faithful mirror of society - not exempt from this rule. So for example, in the education system before 1989 there were a number of rules from which it was recommended that nobody should deviate. On the other hand, education today tends toward the formation of people with a creative personality and harmoniously developed, able to actively integrate into the environment to cope with change increasingly accelerated and, moreover, give rise to the extent possible in desired direction.

Given that we accept that school and kindergarten must faithfully reflect what is happening on the social level, we recognize that they have entered a stage- Derrida sees as a feature of the entire society. Thus, traits such as rigor, rationality, determination or precision (defining traditionalism or modernity) oppose others like playful behavior, the existence of several alternative waiving limits, innovative styles, intercultural mobility etc.

Modern man has to live and work in the human community, to enjoy the treasure of knowledge is obliged to constantly learn, because human knowledge itself develops continuously and exponentially.

A. Toffler said: "Tomorrow's illiterate will not be the one who will not know to read and write, but that who will not learn to learn".

If education aims to "cultivate" human lifting effect of a higher level, this means that it can be converted to a desired format and, in short that it can be trainable. Man is teachable and tends to perfection. On this fundamental idea stands the edifice of pedagogy, the educated and gain new skills, we own life and vision, to form a character and a personality.

One of the studies on educational topics UNICEF in 2014 shows that:

- An extra year of school increases revenue by 8-9% reduces the risk of becoming unemployed by 8% and the occurrence of serious health problems 8.2%. Graduates of upper secondary education earn 25% - 31% more than those who have completed primary and secondary education. Gains derived by people who graduate college with nearly 67% exceed those of students who drop out of school after secondary education.

- Increase the proportion of college graduates from 13.6% to 19% by 2025 would increase GDP by about 3.6%. Even a slight increase in the number of graduates of secondary education (from 58% to 59.7% in 2025) would generate an increase of 0.52% of GDP.

- If they gradually increase spending on education to 6% of GDP, economic growth could reach a level of 2.7 to 2.95% in the period 2015-2025 instead of 2%, according to official figures. Romania's economy can receive an impetus and improving PISA test results (impact the quality of education on economic growth) (UNICEF 2014).

Table no. 1. Proposed strategic objectives and targets of Europe 2020

	2012	2017	2020	2025
Children outside the system,	6,3%	4%	2%	0%
Leaving school early*	17,5%	15%	11,3%	10%
Gypsies between 15 and 18 as a proportion included in the system	33%	50%	70%	80%
Superior education 25-64 ani)*	13,6%	14%	16%	19%
Quota of population in adult training	1,4%	5%	9%	15%
PISA results for math	445	465	485	500
PISA results reading***	438	465	485	500
Budget of Education IBP percentage*	4,1	4,8	5,4	6,0

Sources: Eurostat *, ** UNESCO Institute for Statistics; *** OECD / PISA in 2012; World Bank 2014 ****

Education should be primarily training and discipline of the man's spiritual ascent. Registration starts up with this work that the child is performing a task and a duty of the first order. Contemporary pedagogy has given more attention to the child's independent existence with nature and his own character. New research has endowed humanity with all the attributes, which caused a fundamental change in the theory and practice in pedagogy.

When you think about the concept of man, and necessarily at least one child (child). The features and dominant child, though so specific, appearing like a man; he plays and passes the first stage of life as a normal creature, but his secrets that must be carefully investigated. Childhood is a boon to humanity of exceptional quality and finesse. Giovanni Gentile states that "formative period" is lifelong and that it makes the beauty and joy of those who always feel children.

Inside this idea that liberates the child and it plays with himself, as a first characteristic of his nature and of the greater use of pedagogy there may be a continuing thirst to do something, to be active on their own, create the sense of his spirit. Only in this way can open properly and productively the road to solving the problem of the child in the act of learning and education. New school made a great leap worthy of being considered. Development of condition and human nature is pure freedom and unlimited exploration; it is a divine attribute. Man can only be a free subject to

discipline by a spiritual and moral ideal, which in the case of the child is of great subtlety. How things are running and whatever goal can be achieved is the craftsmanship that has the educator has as a personal attribute.

The education system is faced with a myriad of issues that impact the quality of teaching and subsequently the work done by graduates. At the moment, between civil societies, the private and public sector interface there exists dysfunctional breakaways, leading to an inadequate system in individual vocation and market needs. In society, there is a very low respect to trades. Inequity in education is the most important issue of management system, reflected in the difference in quality education between rural and urban in mismanaged the most important resource - the teacher, but also in Low inclusion of vulnerable groups – like the Gypsy children special needs, like being thought true moral standards overthrowing archaic rules. Increasing the impact on students' education will be done by supporting the integration of non-formal education system and opening school towards permanent dialogue with the world economy. Public-private partnerships and business involvement in educational activities are two viable ways of dialogue that could be envisaged. The achievement of a tailored solution, from the bottom up, in education will require, above all, increasing the institutional capacity of public bodies in this sector. Decentralization of management and financing, professional and personal development of teachers, but also parents and pupils involvement in education are some of the measures that will support this solution. Also effective management of the curriculum, ensuring a quality system in education or transparency and participation in decision-making stakeholders are equally important and useful. Lastly, evaluation and meta-evaluation system by external commissions, independent system should have an important role in building a better institutional capacity of educational structures. (România Jună 2016)

One of the big problems of the Romanian education system is the fact that graduates, after they have completed an educational process cannot use the knowledge gained for almost nothing. Instead, they make contact with the real economic environment, where it finds that they must do something completely different from what they learned in school. It is necessary that the Romanian education system has had a clear hierarchy of education levels drawn up. Thus, in primary and secondary education can be taught general knowledge of students, but at high school level should be specializations required by the labor market economic environment, as interdependence and connection between the labor market and the education system should have a dominant role in establish curriculum.

As a result, investments to the economic environment and business projects in Romania should be met expeditiously and better educational system because an investment is not just for half a year or a year. Such a decision is taken on the medium and long term and the need for specialists that investors should have engaged immediately dealt with specializations in education. (Soluții pentru sistemul educațional 2016). Another problem would be that all schools be managed by professional managers who receive counseling to become appropriate, in the decision making of an administrative nature, so decisions have an impact on the performance of educational institutions administered in this manner. If these measures are not implemented, fundamental problem of the entire Romanian educational system, born from the discrepancy between graduates and the needs of employers on the qualifications of the personnel will continue to be an obstacle standing in the way of economic and social development of Romania.

6. Conclusions

1. You need to prioritize preschool because it can have the greatest impact at reducing disparities and increasing the quality of education

2. The role of the educator will remain to guide, sometimes almost unnoticed, the aspiring child. As a teaching practice we can say that the initiative leaves the child without risking of deviations of that would alter the learning process; both intellectual achievements and conquer the joy of belonging to the child thirsty for knowledge and creation. By observing baby things or acts in development does not stop only at their record, but approaching them from each other and seeking their meanings and explanations single judge at his age. In this way, starting from a concrete material, the child advances naturally in other areas belonging thinking process.

3. Different programs designed to increase the level of school participation and quality of education should be examined more carefully in order to prioritize actions effective, efficient and sustainable.

4. Directly observed facts have great quality stimulate the mind of the child, carrying him where learning is not memorization, but the thought process which produces functional depth and assimilation of knowledge. By contact of his own effort directly with things and elimination of memorization and routine operational thinking or "smart learning" says an American educator. Some classics of pedagogy, primarily Rousseau, sought to avoid everything that is artificial in education, everything is interposed between the child and reality, between child and life.

5. Attracting more children to school and improving the education system with a focus on preschool and the compulsory should be a priority to reduce disparities and human capital development in Romania

6. Preparing for the future is based on a deep understanding of the modern world issues, the causes that generated it, to predict its developments and adapt them creatively. Contemporary society characterized by complexity, universality, global dilemmas, prioritized, generated in the sphere of culture, politics and the education are a number of imperatives, which are becoming increasingly more clear: save the environment, defense peace, promoting a new economic order.

7. Long-term strategic planning of EU funding in education should aim at reducing disparities and encouraging economic growth.

8. Strategy and the education budget must be consistent with a broader economic development plan to encourage private sector to create jobs and to recruit staff in a discriminatory manner.

9. Training and education should take into account the needs of the labor market.

10. Increased spending on education to 6% of GDP is essential for Romania

Education is very important in our lives. People learn how they live and how education definition says she is done pirintr a continuous chain of influences exerted . All life learn from parent education , formal education on teachers, non-formal education we form if we go to a cinema , a library , theater etc. Education is the most important thing because using them learn to socialize with people, we form a certain perspective, life. (Haferkamp and Smelser 1992: p. 23)

The importance of education can be seen by the fact that any government of any country as poor as he has a ministry or department of education which allocates a percentage of the budget. The education of children and youth is a delicate mission that efforts must participate with both school and family; in other words, education is

formed in a less formal environment such as the family, and then continues institutionalized, in school and church.

Today, the issue of education is approached closely with the contemporary world characterized by significant transformations, the changes in all areas. In this context, the school as the main educational agent has the role of young people armed with critical sense, with the ability to understand and meet the challenges of the society.

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Modern Age of great migrations: pragmatic solutions

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Abstract

The world would not be the same without Europe. From here, culture and much of modern society originated and spread to all corners of the world. Democracy was also born here. Fine arts grew from its bosom. But the last 50 years have seen an increasing migratory flow which threatens European stability. In the recent years what counted for economic migration has turned into a push of epic proportions as entire population segments from Asia and Africa are making their way towards Europe. Wars and bad politics have increased the phenomena. The current situation can clearly be compared with that of the Roman Empire facing entire population on its footsteps. Furthermore nativity is not helping, as native Europeans are being overrun by alien populations. Religious extremism and racial violence are but a few of the risks presented. Another threat, far more severe is the imminent extinction of European culture and traditions. Europe must take decisive and pragmatic action or it is going to fail. I have listed just a few of these solutions which are sure to create some issues when applied but judging from past events they are the only options available to modern Europe.

Keywords: *European; culture; migration; risk; security; nativity; protectionism; survival; Christian; solutions.*

1. About the Modern Age of great migration

History was written in Europe ... culture was created by Europe, most of the personalities that shaped the world were born in Europe. If we were to take Europe out of the equation, we would be left with nothing, no Latin alphabet, no Caesar, no Alexander, no mathematics, no philosophy. Thus, we can clearly conclude that the world owes a great deal of its achievements to Europeans, the same Europeans, who are now facing a precarious situation, they are facing cultural extinction.

And once again, their politics are behind it all. Following the end of the Second World War, the former colonial empires began to fall apart, under strong nationalist pressure, but also under the lobby factors of great corporations which sought a very profitable workforce originating from the former colonies. And as it is the reality of politics, materialism got the upper hand, and so decolonization began, a slow and bloody process.

Which all in all cost over 80.000 European lives as the oppressed became oppressors. All over Africa, European settlers have been subjected to the harshest of treatments in retribution for the years of dominion over their nations.

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As 1962 drew to a close, the last country had earned its so called freedom, in the form of Angola. But freedom it would not be, as the Europeans withdrew, but left behind brutal and power hungry warlords that oppressed the population even further.

A regime of exploitation and racial violence descended upon Africa and the East Indies. Millions lost their lives, some became de facto slaves, but most began to move.

At first, one by one, and then as a steady drip, wave after, wave of human misery started its journey to Europe, enticed by greedy corporations and promised a fresh start. They spoke the language of their former masters and so found it easy to communicate.

However most of these waves of immigrants were not integrated into European society and found it difficult to fit in, both social and cultural.

But the workers were not alone. On came their families, very numerous and wide ranging. It is estimated that each worker arriving between 1970 and 2000 brought along vast wave of immigrants, mostly kin, or friends (Eurostat 2000). At first, these enclaves did not present any kind of security risk as they were just clusters of misery and insalubrity. The power of law would rarely extend to these enclaves. And it is from this void of authority that the horrors of terrorism, extremism, drug dealing, organized crime and wide-spread murder arose. According to UK government sources, unlawful behavior has increased eightfold amongst immigrants in comparison to the same zones in the time before their arrival.

On many occasions violence would target native Europeans as they are unofficially banned from the immigrant neighborhoods. Let's take for example the case of Germany in the year 2008, when 98 percent. Of the violence perpetrated upon native Germans in the migrant neighborhoods was committed by migrants.

But European realities are very different than shown in official statistics as lobby group vie to cover up such disturbing evidence just to insure economic supremacy by exploiting cheap workforce from non European migrants.

Eastern European migrants have been unlawfully blamed for many of the crime committed in Western Europe, following 2000. However if jail statistics are correct, non – EU migrants are the main segment of population incarcerated in France and the UK, in balance with the total population percentage.

But Europe continued making mistakes even after opening up immigration borders in the 80's, and 90's. After 11.09.2001 Western Europe has gotten involved in conflicts that were never a European matter: Afghanistan, Iraq, Pakistan, Sudan, and Congo. Of course, it all took place in the name of democracy, but behind it all, stood the same economic reasons. In the wake of the armies that invaded the Arab countries and toppled regimes in N. Africa, came the "rebuilding" done by American and European companies. But as history records, America got the best, Europe was left with just a few contacts and, of course, the aftermath.

By destabilizing the region, the wars opened the way for religious fanatics, incited by local warlords, who in their drive for power used religious pretexts to incite terrorism against the European "invaders". As a matter of fact, following 2001, no terror act has taken place on US soil, while more than 35 bombings hit Europe. The Arab Spring, toppled secularist governments deemed "undesirable" by the US, and instead, left the region in social and religious strife, with many factions vying for power. This in turn gave rise to yet more violence and poverty.

And, as sociology clearly states poverty and war create migrations (Sandu 2005). Wave after wave of refugees began rolling northwards over the Mediterranean, displacing in turn, more and more segments. This is the Domino effect of "Theory of

migrations” (Calin 2015) at work. For example, in Syria, many of the “Syrian Rebels” are actually of Palestinian, Egyptian and Libyan descendants. Whether they are employed by western powers, is a question for history, yet one thing is clear, the immigration currently knocking on Europe’s southern flank are of mixed origins: along with the Syrians, there are also Pakistanis, Afghans, Egyptians, and Palestinians. Actually as an NGO from Croatia noted “Not even 20 % of the immigrants arriving at our border posts today were of Syrian descent, but most claimed to be refugees”.

Therefore it is clear that each wave being displaced worked up yet another and, the exposed border seems like a very inciting prospect to a lot of Asian immigrants. Furthermore, on the Italian border, Congolese and Sudanese immigrants are pouring in.

What is even more disturbing is the fact that most of these immigrants are male which hints two things:

a) This is but the tip of the iceberg as their families shall follow in their wake soon enough. The Migrant Network Theory clearly states that male migrants are the first to arrive upon a given territory, find housing and food and then bring about their families.

b) The second aspect is yet more disturbing: these initial waves hide a more sinister threat, the threat of terrorism and religious intolerance. Most are young and thus influenced by certain manipulations. But also according to Eurostat these migrants are also less prone to find or to seek work, for that matter, than middle aged migrants. They shall, therefore add to the possible perpetrators plaguing major European cities, as shown on the first of January in Cologne, where more than 100 women were assaulted by this population segment.

Therefore, it is imperative that sociology and society recognize the situation for what it really is: a turning point in western history. As history is known to repeat itself, we can clearly draw a parallel to another dramatic moment in history. And by sheer numbers and political status this moment can only be compared to the age of Great Migrations, when the Roman Empire had overextended itself to the entire known Europe, had also stirred up a lot of nomad populations but had failed to contain their expansion. Also another similarity becomes striking, the Roman Empire had amassed most of the wealth of the world within its coffers, but it had also attracted a lot of immigration from the poor parts like Germania, Arabia, and Asia. These immigrants, just like those of modern day, had damaged the Empire, had corrupted the Roman culture and had taken control of the army, only to defect to their brethren when war came*.

Another shocking similarity is the nativity rate for Europeans just like in the time of Rome has been surpassed by that of the invaders, thus allowing a shift in the demographic structure and the dissolution of Roman culture in many regions (France, Belgium, Holland, Germania Superior, N. Africa, Balkans). In all these regions the migrants engulfed the Latinized population, extinguishing their culture.

And now it happens today as native Europeans’ birthrate is at a minimum, whereas the ranks of the aliens it care reach an average of 5.7 children per family. A clear calculation, without taking account of the waves of immigrants yet to arrive, shows that by 2050, the working age population of the EU will be mainly non-European. But by including the estimated 7-9 million immigrants to come until 2020, the statistics become ever grimmer in that 2036 will see the shift in population statistics.

Furthermore, no one seems to notice the exponential increase in immigrant flows, as more and more populations are dislocated from Africa and Asia. These factors make

for a menace that exceeds terrorism or even economic poverty. These immigrants have a different system of values, of beliefs and a religion not like that the Europeans. As the last 50 years have shown, they would never give up and become integrated, but furthermore, they will try to impose their ideals upon Europe.

So, to draw a conclusion, Europe is facing a New Age of Great Migrations, and to a great extent, cultural extinction. If Europe does not sober up, then the Christian Europe, the Europe of the Renaissance, of the Antique classics, the cradle of democracy will cease to exist.

2. Pragmatic solutions

In order to survive, Europe has to implement a few very radical and pragmatic solutions:

- a) Ignore the lobby groups and cease the economic migration, thus ending the causes for mass migration
- b) Enforce strong border guard, increasing the sheer force deployed on the borders
- c) Eliminate the lawless enclaves of terrorism and exploitation from within its border certain revolts will insure , but at this time they are still numerically manageable
- d) Efficiently integrate the young immigrant generation already in Europe by offering them counseling
- e) Enforce banishment laws by repatriating all illegal immigrants
- f) All first generation immigrants, legal or illegal, condemned of any infractions must be forcibly repatriated
- g) Rejection of all non-essential asylum seekers
- h) Ending all military involvement and seeking peace resolutions for Africa and the Middle East
- i) Harsher laws for all racial and tenor crimes, in order to prevent frictions
- j) Active discouragement of the immigrants at the borders
- k) Europeanization of all existent immigrants by enforcing European laws and guest country language and customs in official dealings
- l) Harsh punishment an all immigrants perpetrating acts of terrorism or harassment against native Europeans
- m) Elimination of enclaves by populating of immigrant neighborhoods with Europeans and disbursement immigrants amongst European neighborhoods
- n) He war on tenor should target the influential factors behind common terrorists, as with their demise the entire tenor network would disperse
- o) The total annihilation of ISIS
- p) The revitalization of Christianity in Europe
- q) The return to traditional European values and culture
- r) The promotion of pro-natalist policies for all the population
- s) The increase of native European population nativity rate by offering attractive work packages that include financial incentives for new families
- t) The protection of women from discrimination and exploitation
- u) The protection and man media promotion of motherhood
- v) The caution of a network of intelligence officers that can preempt terrorism
- w) The protection of European markets against non-EU corporations
- x) The protectionism for native European labor force.

These are called the AZ solutions and insure the best chance of preserving European identity.

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