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"STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES"

Local Public Sector Reforms: An International Comparaison (LocRef IS 1207)

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BENCHMARKING IN ROMANIAN AND ITALIAN LOCAL GOVERNMENTS: A TOOL FOR SCORING OR LEARNING?

BENCHMARKING LA NIVELUL COLECTIVITĂŢILOR LOCALE DIN ROMÂNIA ŞI ITALIA: INSTRUMENT DE MĂSURARE SAU DE ÎNVĂŢARE?

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Abstract
Nowadays benchmarking is one of the most popular managerial instruments for organizational performance improvement, both in the private sector as well as in the public one. The present paper reveals which is the rationale for whom public entities have largely adopted this particular tool, traditionally used by private companies and highlights the consequences of uncritically translating it from a private to a public logic.
The papers is aimed at comparing the benchmarking approaches in Romanian and Italian Local Governments (LGs), eventually detecting whether they are more prone to use it as a scoring or evaluative managerial tool.

***Keywords*:** benchmarking, local collectivities, instruments for measuring and evaluating management

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Rezumat
În prezent benchmarking-ul reprezintă unul dintre cele mai populare instrumente manageriale pentru îmbunătățirea performanțelor organizaționale, atât în sectorul public, cât și în cel privat. Articolul evidențiază care sunt rațiunile pentru care entitățile publice au adoptat pe scară largă acest instrument, specific sectorului privat și evidențiază consecințele translatării necritice ale acestuia, dintr-o logică specifică sferei private, într-o logică caracteristică sferei publice.
Lucrarea își propune să compare abordarea benchmarking-ului la nivelul colectivităților locale din România și Italia și să indice în ce măsură acestea sunt mai înclinate să îl folosească ca instrument de măsurare, respectiv instrument de evaluare managerială.

Cuvinte cheie: benchmarking, colectivitități locale, instrumente de măsurare și evaluare managerială

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1. INTRODUCTION

The implementation of NPM-like reforms during the last decades has led public sectors all over the world to import the business philosophy in terms of values, concepts and techniques (Hood, 1991). Faced by financial constraints and fiscal stress, the main objective to which those changes pointed to has been the quest for improved levels of efficiency in managing public entities and resources. Such waves of renewal have had an overwhelming impact in the public sectors, thus involving every aspect of its sphere, from the accounting systems to the organizational structures. As a matter of fact, changes in each dimension reinforced each other, being parts of a wider design of reformation, whose combination has been seen as indispensable for the beneficial change to occur (Anessi Pessina and Caccia, 2000).

Slimmer and more decentralized structures aimed at making local public managers more autonomous and responsible for their results. In the light of the increased management responsibilities, fascinated and pressed from the business models, local public administrations (LPAs) imported managerial models and tools typically proper of the private sector.

In such a context, the benchmarking has been proposed among the kinds of performance measurement tools, these latter argued to be able to offer "solutions" to the public expenditure concern, to improve services delivered to citizens-users, to measure public organizations on the basis of an input–output (outcome) model (Johnsen, 2005).

The adoption of NPM-like measures- such as the benchmarking translation in the public sector has inspired a profusion of comparative studies (Lüder, 1994; Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004), which evidenced peculiar contingency elements to make the difference in shaping the paths and paces of reforms in different countries.

However, there is still few research papers in the literature regarding to the benchmarking implementation in the public sector to the local level.

The purpose of this study is the one to investigate the benchmarking approaches in Romanian and Italian local governments, in order to assess the influence of country-specific institutions in conceiving and shaping a certain kind of benchmarking system. To this aim, we wish to highlight connections between the institutional characteristics of the involved countries and their approaches to the benchmarking as a management tool in local governments. In particular, the comparative effort between these two countries, traditionally belonging to two different administrative styles, may provide the basis

for detecting those elements of the different styles that favored the development of a certain kind of benchmarking approach, with reference to its role as a learning or evaluating managerial tool.

In line with previous studies (Bowerman et al., 2002), we maintain that a thorough understanding of the benchmarking nature in the public sector is fundamental for assessing whether and how such a managerial tool may be fruitful for public entities in achieving the hoped successful changes.

2. THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

Contemporaneously to their diffusion all over the world, public sector changes of the last decades have been widely addressed by the literature, analyzing the related issues from different perspectives (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006). Nevertheless, most of the contributions on organizational changes are not specifically concerned with the public sectors ones (Kickert, 2010).

In a well-known literature review on organizational change by Pettigrew et al. (2001), the authors emphasized a number of interconnected issues concerning the existent research, which claimed for further investigation. Among the others (e.g., examination of multiple contexts, investigation of international and cross-cultural comparisons), they highlighted the space for studies linking the performance of organizations with the change processes, as well as the need to account for variables such as the context, time, and history.

More than ten years later, Kuipers et al. (2014), when critically reviewing the literature on public sector change management, not only restated the lack of studies analyzing the outcome of change processes in the public sector (see also Vann, 2004), but they also built a framework for research on these change processes that accounts for historical and contextual factors. Such a framework is composed by five factors deemed relevant for studying public sector changes, namely the context, content, process, outcomes, and leadership.

This study wishes to contribute and being framed in the context section, i.e., "the background of the empirical data or [as] a framework for the conceptual elaboration of change management in the public sector" (ibidem, p. 6). Particularly, the contextual element we want to acknowledge in this study is the institutional background of the LGs under investigation, with this meaning their organizational and administrative culture, historical background and legal structural features (Pina et al., 2009)

The powerful contribution of comparative studies on this topic has been to evidence the role of peculiar contingency elements in shaping the paths and paces of reforms in different countries, eventually leading to classify countries according to their traditional administrative styles (Dunleavy and Hood,

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1994; Kickert, 1997; Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2000; Torres, 2004). As for the EU countries, four administrative styles have been identified:

a) Anglo-saxon countries (UK is the only European one): they have shown to be more prone in adopting business-like managerial approaches in the public sector, emphasizing principles such as efficiency, effectiveness and value for the money.

b) Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden plus the Netherlands): even if concerned on efficiency and effectiveness issues, the very aim under their reforms is the citizens' satisfaction

c) Continental and Southern Europe countries: traditionally characterized by hierarchical and bureaucratic public administration structures, in which recent reforms have been implemented in a much more integrated manner.

d) Central and Eastern Europe: countries of this group are the ones previously belonging to the communist block, engaged in a comprehensive reformation of their public sector since the dismissal of the block.

The countries on which we focus, Romania and Italy, respectively belong to the third and fourth groups classified above. They both are two examples of unitary states, while presenting differences in the level of centralization and.

The Italian case is an interesting one, with regard to the centralization and fiscal autonomy features, which are currently questioned by recent reformations in the country. Indeed, even if characterized by a considerable degree of decentralization, recent reorganizational programs aimed at reducing the tiers of government (Legge Delrio). When turning to fiscal autonomy, it must be said that, despite fiscal federalism programs have been designed (Law n. 42/2009), the central Government still has a prominent role in collecting taxes, generally leaving a very limited budgetary autonomy to local governments. Finally, as for the administrative culture, Italy is traditionally identifiable as a rule of law country.

Framing the administrative styles of the two studied countries serves the purpose of identifying the "starting point", the initial conditions which are deemed to influence and shape the paths and paces of public sector reforms (Kuhlmann and Wolmann, 2014), and consequentially, the approaches through which managerial tools such as the benchmarking one may be welcomed by LGs.

3. TRANSLATING THE BENCHMARKING IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

In the waves of renewals that characterized the last decades of public sector life, the quest for more efficient management has been a leading objective. To this aim, the business environment, traditionally based on the value for money principle, represented a main source of inspiration. In such a context, the benchmarking has been considered a notably valuable efficiency tool, which, translated from the private sector, could have brought recognizable benefits to the public one as well.

When considering benchmarking conceptualization in this latter, we can observe that, at least from a normative perspective, the idea behind its implementation would be faithful to the private world interpretation. For instance, Cowper and Samuels (2005, p.1), framing the benchmarking in the public sector, defined is "as an efficiency tool [is] based on the principle of measuring the performance of one organization against a standard, whether absolute or relative to other organizations".

In a similar vein to the business world, the predicted efficiency gains can be reached by following a specific process (Kenneth and Bruder, 1994; Parena et al., 2002). It generally starts by considering those organizations' key areas needing improvements, to then identify other excellence organizations in those areas. Studying the performance of the benchmarked organization provides elements for comparisons with the benchmarking organization itself, which can be in this latter imported. Anyway, in order to make this process effective, it is fundamental to monitor the benchmarking results also after its implementation.

Having this in mind, some consequential considerations arise. First, it shall follow that examples of best practices may derive from very diverse types of organizations, even if having a different mission or operating in other sectors. The implication for local public administrations would be that they could benchmark organizations operating in the private sector as well. Believing that the benchmarking can be fruitful only when made with regard to strictly comparable organizations, may lead LPAs to exclude most of the private sector counterparts, on the grounds of the fundamental mission divergence. At the contrary, it may be suggestable when seeking for efficiency improvements.

Furthermore, in order for the benchmarking to deliver the expected beneficial changes, its usage shall not be conceived as a mere comparison with best practices, eventually leading to certain kinds of scoring (ibidem). Rather, LPAs should be able to critically identify areas of improvements and to implement examples of best practices, without neglecting to contextualize them in their own organization.

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Nevertheless, just as many other ingredients of the NPM receipt, the benchmarking tool has been sometimes mimetically imported from the business world, reproduced in different countries, without achieving its potential benefits for the public sector (Siverbo and Johansson, 2006). In particular, what emerged from the international experience is that the benchmarking has often been implemented as a mere scoring system, rather than as a learning opportunity (Kuhlmann and Bogumil, 2015). As a matter of fact, Tillema (2010) maintains that, according to the informational needs, the benchmarking one may represent a managerial tool connected to different functionalities, more or less likely to imply performance improvements, sometimes turning to dysfunctional rather than improving changes.

This leads us to argue that something is missing in the (not immediate) link between the benchmarking adoption by LPAs and its related benefits. At the same time, the lack of a deeper understanding of the benchmarking approaches in the public sector prevents from assessing whether and how the benchmarking private experience could be fruitfully translated into the public sector, ultimately leading to the expected performance improvements.

In this respect, the institutional context, as defined above, is expected to play a fundamental role in understanding the ways in which managerial tools for LGs are conceived, welcomed and implemented. In other words/to sum up, the extent to which the benchmarking can represent a managerial tool offering potential solutions to LGs to improve their performance –mainly in terms of efficiency and effectiveness- depends on the way LGs themselves approach it. As long as it works as a scoring system, dysfunctional rather than beneficial changes are likely to occur. At the contrary, when it is conceived as a learning opportunity, then this private idea may work for perf improvement. The prevailing information needs – as expressed by the institutional context- would make the difference in opting for the former or the latter approach.

4. METHODOLOGY

In order to assess the benchmarking approaches of Romanian and Italian LGs, as connected to their institutional background, we plan to empirically gather data by means of a survey. Precisely, the instrument for our data collection is a questionnaire, to send to a large number of municipalities in both countries. For a matter of comparison, considering the average size of Romanian and Italian municipalities, we include in our sample those ones with a number of inhabitants higher than 1,000.

The identified respondents might be the municipal managerial bodies. As for Italy, these are the Secretaries General, who are in charge in a middle position between the political and executive bodies of the municipalities, being appointed by the Mayor and exercising managerial functions.

The questionnaire we are going to build for the inquiry aims at addressing following core features of benchmarking implementation in LGs (Tilema, 2010; Kuhlmann and Bogumil, 2015):

- Reasons for adoption: for a matter of internal consistency, to the extent the benchmarking has been claimed as a managerial tool able to increase efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector, we want to detect whether these drivers are acknowledged when translated into the local governments under investigation. Moreover, it is interesting to understand the motivations in the remaining cases, in which it is not adopted, acknowledging the possibility of technical and cost problems (Siverbo, 2014), as well as the perception that the expected benefit may not surpass the costs;
- Object of the benchmarking: Cowper and Samuels (2005) describe benchmarking as an efficiency tool having three main aspects. First, standard benchmarking, according to which organizations relates to a set standard of performance that it could expected to achieve. Second, results benchmarking, by which one can use the performance of a number of organizations as a means of comparisons. Finally, in the process benchmarking, the focus is on the process through which other organizations produce a particular output, thus attempting to capture the reasons behind variations in the performance. Our research points at investigating the presence of whichever of these aspects used as objects of the benchmarking activity;
- External vs. internal adoption: the circumstances in which the benchmarking is externally required or internally adopted must be discerned as well. Such a differentiation is often linked to the opposition between, respectively, top-down and bottom-up adoption (Goddard & Mannion, 2004).
- Voluntary vs. compulsory adoption: it represents a further specification of the external vs. internal dichotomy (Jäkel, 2013);
- Sanctions-rewards system: following from the previous, an external/top-down/compulsory benchmarking system may provide for a sanctions-rewards system, in connection to the benchmarking results;
- Information disclosure: regardless the compulsiveness or voluntariness in the adoption of the benchmarking, LGs may or may not disclose benchmarking-related information to external stakeholders.

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The literature underlying reasoning for investigating these variables relies in the hypothesis that the benchmarking as a real evaluative managerial tool is more likely to be developed when internally and voluntarily adopted, eventually in the absence of a sanctions-rewards system, even in its less formal version of information disclosure.

CONCLUSION

Seeking for improved efficiency and effectiveness, public entities all over the world have undergone more or less extensive processes of reform in the last decades. The business world, traditionally featured by those driving principles, has represented a main source for inspiration. Among the others, the benchmarking is on the menu of renewals, as a managerial tool for performance improvements.

When translated from the private sector, unfortunately, it did not always led to the expected beneficial changes, often turning to be used as a scoring tool, without any learning potential.

It is probably time to make a step back and understand the features of benchmarking in the public sector. This can be even more achieved in a comparative perspective, thanks to which the institutional contexts provide causality with the conceiving and implementation of renewals.

To this aim, this paper wishes to compare the benchmarking approaches in Romanian and Italian LGs, eventually detecting whether they are more prone to use it as a scoring or evaluative managerial tool. The institutional context, as defined by countries' administrative style, provides insights into the contextual factors affecting organizational changes.

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DEVELOPMENT OF HEAT PUBLIC SERVICE SUPPLY - STRATEGIC OBJECTIVE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

DEZVOLTAREA SERVICIULUI PUBLIC DE ALIMENTARE CU ENERGIE TERMICĂ – OBIECTIV STRATEGIC AL AUTORITĂŢILOR PUBLICE LOCALE

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Abstract
The overall objective of the development strategy of the municipalities heating activities, it consists in satisfying the needs of thermal energy (hot water and heating) both presently and in medium and long term, at a price as low is possible, suitable for a modern market economy and a civilized standard of living, in terms of quality, continuity and security of consumers respecting sustainable development principles.
Taking into account the importance of thermal energy for residents and for economic units, the development of heating activity is done under the supervision of local authority through the development and implementation of the strategy..

***Keywords*:** public service, thermal energy, local public authority, strategy.

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Rezumat
Obiectivul general al strategiei de dezvoltare a activitatii de termoficare la nivelul municipiilor, il constituie satisfacerea necesarului de energie termica (apa calda de consum si încalzire) atât în prezent, cât si pe termen mediu si lung, la un pret cât mai scazut, adecvat unei economii moderne de piata si la un standard de viata civilizat, în conditii de calitate, continuitate si siguranta în alimentarea consumatorilor, cu respectarea principiilor dezvoltarii durabile.
Având în vedere importanta energiei termice pentru locuitori precum si pentru unitatile economice, dezvoltarea activitatii de termoficare se realizeaza sub supravegherea autoritatii publice locale, prin elaborarea si transpunerea în practica a strategiei.

Cuvinte cheie: serviciu public, energie termica, autoritate publica locala, strategie

1. INTRODUCTION

Considering the importance of thermal energy for citizens, as well as for economic units, development of district heating activities is performed under local authority supervision by developing strategies in the field and by putting them into practice.

Heating activity development strategy will track the achieving of main objectives of the new EU energy - environment policy, objectives assumed even for Romania.

The overall objective of heating activity development strategy of any municipality consists of satisfying the thermal energy needs (hot water and heating) both now and in the future, at a price as low as possible, to contribute ensure a decent standard of living according to the requirements of a modern market economy, in terms of quality, continuity and consumer supply safety, respecting the principles of sustainable development.

Considering the national context increasingly globalized, heating policy must be performed in the changes and developments at local, national and European level.

2. PUBLIC SERVICE

Community service by public utilities is regulated by Law no. 51/2006 (the law of economic services of general interest, services "that provide essential needs satisfaction of utility and general public interest of social caracter of local communities" (General Council of Bucharest, 2014) and Law no. 325/2006, that is a public service law.

Like any community service of public utilities, public service is based on principles such as: local autonomy, decentralization of public services, responsibility and legality. It is also governed by sustainable development and correlation requirements with resources, takes into account natural and man-made environmental protection and conservation, ensuring public health and efficient management of public or private property assets of the administrative-territorial units. It is also based on participation and consultation of the population on free access to information on public services.

Regarding the organization of public service, prevails the general interest of local communities. This service is organized and managed according to the degree of development and size of the localities.

Regarding the general policy of the state in the public utilities field, the government approves and updates the national strategy in the field and also supports the local public authorities in order to develop and improve public utilities services.

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The public service is achieved through specific technical-urban infrastructure belonging to public or private domain of administrative-territorial units, which form together the centralized supply heat system of localities - SACET (General Council of Bucharest, 2014).

There are two ways of organizing the public service management, as follows:

- direct management, whereby the provision, administration, operation and exploitation of heat supply centralized system is the responsibility of local public authorities, through the public services of local and county interest, with or without legal personality;
- delegated management, whereby the provision, concession and operating right and obligation are assigned by the local public administration authorities to several operators. They are: commercial companies with full social capital of administrative-territorial units, commercial companies formed after the reorganization of autonomous administrations of local or county interest, whose social capital is owned entirely by the administrative-territorial units, and commercial companies with private or mixed capital.

Regardless of the organization, providing of public service is based on licenses issued by the National Authority for Energy Regulation (ANRE) and the National Regulatory Authority for Public Utilities Community Services (ANRSC).

- A.N.R.E. grants licenses and approve prices for the activity of thermal energy production in cogeneration;
- A.N.R.S.C. grants licenses and advise prices/rates for the activities of generation, transportation, distribution and supply of thermal energy (except the thermal energy produced in cogeneration).

Each administrative-territorial unit in which the public service is organized supports of its local budget the difference between thermal energy local price (consisting of production price and transport services, distribution and supply of thermal energy price which is approved by the local public administration authorities) and local price of population (which is the price for thermal energy supplied to the population through SACET).

3. URBAN COGENERATION

Cogeneration is the process of simultaneous production of thermal and electric energy and/or mechanical energy.

Through high efficiency cogeneration, primary energy savings are achieved which are superior than the values obtained separately for electric and thermal energy.

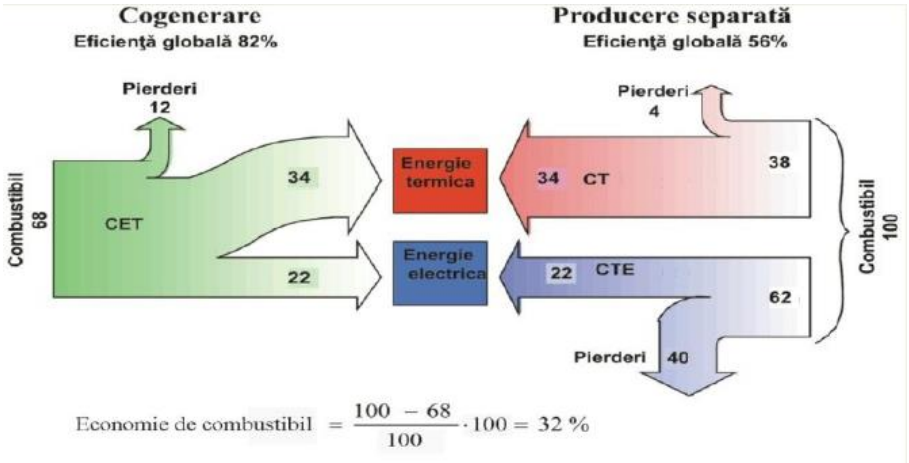


FIGURE 1 - SAVINGS OBTAINED BY COGENERATION COMPARED TO SEPARATE PRODUCTION
Source: Vasile, 2014

In 2014, on 31 July, were registering 1.350.581 apartments connected to SACET, from which approximately 1.000.000 apartments on cogeneration. The number of localities in our country, with centralized heating systems and their annual evolution are presented in the next figure.

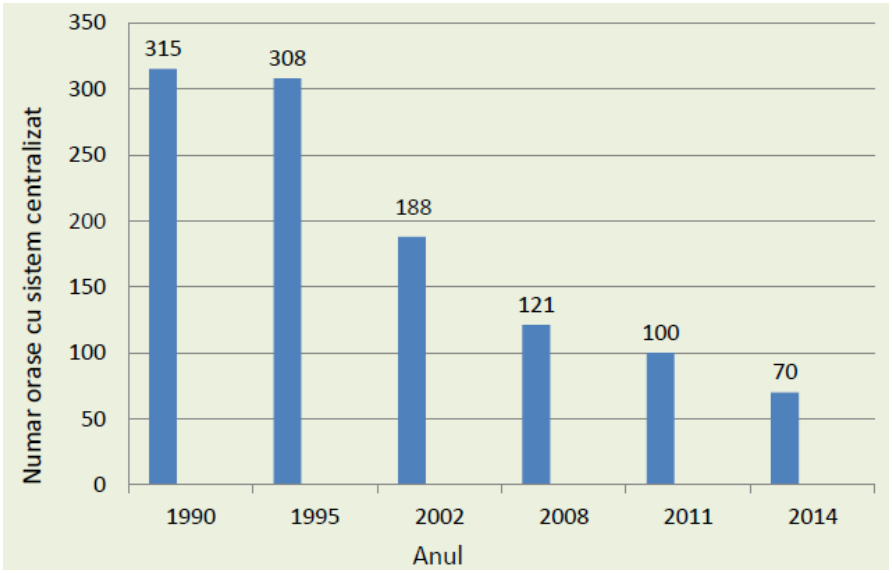


FIGURE 2 – ANNUAL EVOLUTION OF THE NUMBER OF ROMANIAN CITIES WITH CENTRAL HEATING SYSTEM
Source: Vasile, 2014

Also in the below figure it can see the evolution of average of Gcal tariff paid by the population during 1997-2014. During this period it can be noted an increase more than 10 times of the tariff. The increase is different from the increase of the population incomes.

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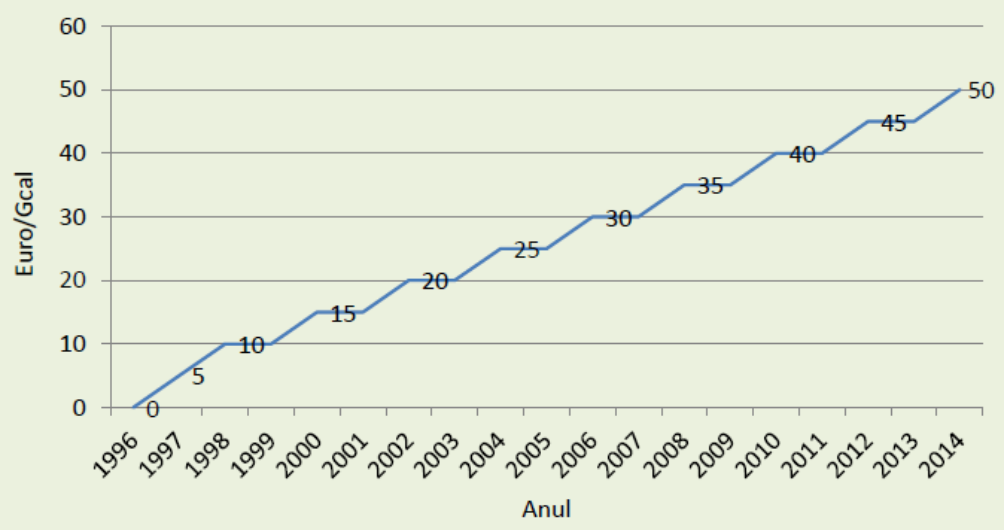


FIGURE 3 – THE EVOLUTION OF GCAL TARIFF PAID BY THE POPULATION
Source: Vasile, 2014

The economical solution of a cogeneration plant is that to be managed by local authorities, based on local energy planning. This implies that the cogeneration plants was able to establish their selling prices so that can keep heat consumers and also to be able to regain the disconnected consumers (Bacau City Hall, 2014).

The causes of inefficiency and abolition of centralized heating systems were:

- Thermal power plants and those of block, due to the closure of industrial sites and the reduction of urban consumption, have become oversize in relation to consumption;
- Technical performance of systems decreased in time due to technical wear, remaining at the technological level of the 60s and 70s;
- Thermal plants transfer from RENEL to local authorities, transfer which is carried out between 1997-2004, showed inefficient systems, considering that the economics analysis has not achieved more globally, but individually;
- After the 2006 pricing policy did not allow more full coverage of heat energy costs through grants. By destroying the national reference price, there were adopted local reference prices, unbearable for some localities.

For insufficiency of funds for refurbishment, replacement and repair are responsible the following causes:

- Cashings from the population were below the billed;
- Subsidies were insufficient;

- Only after 2004, when the systems were already collapsing, government intervened through investment programs for revamping, but they were poor;
- Centralized heating owners - local authorities - have not had resources for investments in the rehabilitation and modernization of these systems;
- The plants were transferred to local authorities with unhonored financial obligations;
- Due to lack of rehabilitation, plants efficiency reaches below 60%, compared to 75% according to the prior art, and losses rose to levels of 40% compared to 18% which is the recommended level. If we take into account heat loss through the walls of those still rehabilitated buildings, losses rose to levels of 50% compared to only 25% which is the recommended level, is obtained an image of arrearage and uncompetitive centralized heating systems in relation to the real needs of consumers;

On the other hand, insufficient funds leds to the cancellation of low efficiency systems and decapitalisation of acceptable efficiency systems. Also, widespread negative publicity of centralized heat supply systems determined customers to choose the disconnection solution. Another argument of massive disconnection in favor of the apartment plants, it was the lack of metering at branching and individual, and delays in carrying out due to lack of funds.

Of the 96 heating centralized systems that were in use in 2011, only 15 were shortlisted for access to European funds (POS environment, Priority Axis 3), and of these only 7 actually benefited from funds, namely: Timisoara, Iasi, Bacau, Oradea, Botosani, Focsani, Ramnicu-Valcea (Govora).

4. DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY OF HEATING ACTIVITY IN VARIOUS MUNICIPALITIES

Bucharest

One of the major guidelines of the National Strategy for accelerating the development of community services of public utilities approved by HG no. 246/2006 is "the management of electric heating plants reorganization by passing wholly-owned administrative units" (CGBM, 2014).

Public service of thermal energy supply to the users in Bucharest, currently on responsibility of municipality, does not include the production of heat in cogeneration.

SACET Bucharest, although technically and functionally unified, does not belong entirely to Bucharest municipality, is therefore exploited, mainly, by:

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- RADET Bucharest - transport and distribution networks operator and also of other public assets of Bucharest which offers public service
- ELCEN - operator of five thermal energy plants, that although have an important role in the production of electricity in the national energy system, provide over 90% of the production of thermal energy required of users of the public service under the responsibility of the Bucharest municipality.

These two entities is in the portfolio of two separate administrative authorities namely CBMB and the Ministry of Economy. Between this authorities, does not exist coherent decision-making, therefore exist malfunctions of the entire SACET, with negative consequences for the population.

This is one of the reasons that Bucharest municipality can not control the price of thermal energy production, which represents an essential component of the energy price billed by RADET to public service users and can not determine a strategy for increasing energetic efficiency of all chain technology.

At the end of 2013, RADET Bucharest registered a total debt against ELCEN over 3.000.000 thousand lei.

Thus, considering:

- current public service organization at Bucharest and the fact the assets that compose SACET Bucuresti belong to different entities (Bucharest municipality and ELCEN);
- the existence of financial problems between RADET Bucharest and ELCEN and the need to solve them;
- legal obligation to reorganization of the autonomous administrations;
- european directives that impose mandatory to increase energy efficiency, an objective that can only be reached by achieving integrated SACET in terms of their ownership and operation, the only way to solve these problems is to implement "retained solution", according to art. 4, letter b1 of the Memorandum "Bucharest Municipality through Bucharest Municipality General Council (CGMB) will proceed, through its decision, to the administrative reorganization of RADET in commercial society having Bucharest municipality as sole shareholder, according to O.U.G. no.30/1997 on the reorganization of autonomous administrations and will conclude with the resulted company, after the reorganization of RADET, a public service management contract".

RADET reorganization represents both a legal obligation and the first stage of the Bucharest Strategy on Public Service approved by Decision of CGBM no. 108/2013.

OUG no. 30/1997 provides that the obligation of the central or local public administration authorities under whose authority are organized and function autonomous administration that, within 90 days, of the going into effect the law of approving it (OUG no. 30/1997 it was approved by Law no. 2017/1997 which goes into effect on 18.12.1997) to finalize the reorganization of programs of the autonomous administrations.

Bucharest SACET requires substantial investments to improve the quality of public service and to respect environmental standards. Despite the many benefits of SACET, it lose competitiveness against its main competitor, namely individual gas heating.

In this case, Bucharest municipality will have to identify multiple sources of financing investment, including:

- accessing grants from the European Union;
- obtaining attractive loans from international financial institutions;
- private funds accessed in competition regim.

Bacău

For Bacau municipality, the main centralized supply source for urban and industrial consumers is the electric power plant Bacau and it belongs to SC CET Bacau. It was designed in order to combined production of electric and thermal energy required by technological consumers of Bacau municipality and Bacau industrial platform, and to supply heat for the majority of urban and tertiary consumers of the city.

Demand of thermal energy in Bacau municipality in the period 2013-2033 consists of the urban consumers and the tertiary consumer fed directly from the hot water network.

New heating strategy of Bacau municipality, is based on the following objectives:

- Energy network expansion by attracting new consumers;
- Develop a heating regulation adapted to local needs;
- Increasing energy efficiency;
- Increasing security in providing the fuel necessary through the use of biomass (PM Bacau, 2014).

The aim of the strategy is to establish, locally, policies and general guidelines on organization, function and regulation of public service supply of thermal energy centralized produced and identifying ways, means and modalities of implementation of investment programs and their possible funding sources.

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Piteşti

The current centralized thermal energy supply system of Pitesti municipality (SACET) is characterized by obsolete equipment with low yields and high losses in transportation and distribution networks. The generalized phenomenon of disconnection, currently reaching a total of 24.010 apartments connected to the centralized system of 56.600 apartments initially connected to SACET, influenced the less of SACET efficiency.

Conjectural analysis of the current situation of SACET highlights some weaknesses, opportunities and risks that lead to the conclusion that implementation of this strategy can provide SACET efficiency.

The overall objective of heating development strategy in Pitesti municipality is the satisfaction of thermal energy needs (hot water and heating) both in present and in medium and long term, at a price as low is possible, suitable of a modern market economy and a civilized standard of living in terms of quality, continuity and reliability in consumer supply, respecting the principles of sustainable development.

Taking into account the importance of thermal energy for residents of Pitesti municipality, as well as economic units, the development of heat activity is performed under local authority supervision, through the development and implementation of the strategy.

The present strategy will be updated depending on technological development, changes in strategies established in the European Union and developments in the local market of thermal energy and national energy market.

The strategy ensures maintenance of electrical and thermal energy prices linked to the consumers affordability of Pitesti municipality through the rational use of primary energy sources and by ensuring the functioning of the energy market.

Heating policy in Pitesti municipality is correlated with the European Community directives in the field. The strategy follows the main objectives of the new energy-environment policy of European Union, objectives undertaken also in Romania. They are: energy security, sustainable development and competitiveness (Local Council of Pitesti, 2015).

Oradea

The target of Oradea municipality is the increasing of thermal energy supply service quality at supportable tariffs for the population, and increasing the energy efficiency and sustainable development of this system too.

Curently, in Oradea municipality, thermal energy production is achieved with a low overall efficiency (approx. 56%) and losses in transportation and distribution system are high. As a result, municipal objectives include increasing the efficiency of production, transportation and distribution of thermal energy through increasing the share of geothermal sources.

Heat supply strategy of Oradea municipality was realised in 2007 and had as objective the increase of energy efficiency, reducing the environmental pollution and achieving of a supporting price of thermal energy for the population (Local Council of Oradea, 2009).

The centralized thermal energy supply system for Oradea municipality has the largest share, fueling with thermal energy approx. 70% of Oradea municipality population. The system comprises a source of cogeneration with large combustion plants powered by lignite and natural gas and a transportation and distribution system. The centralized thermal energy supply system having geothermal resources and natural gas as thermal source, cover approx. 5% of total consumption of municipality, and the individual supply system having apartment centrals, covers the remaining 25%.

Local public authorities provide subsidies for the population with incomes lower than the national average income for supporting the costs of thermal energy supplied.

CONCLUSIONS

The overall objective of the development strategy of any municipality heating activity consist of satisfying the thermal energy need (hot water and heating) both present and in medium and long term, at a price as low as possible, to contribute to a decent standard of living according to the requirements of a modern market economy, in terms of quality, continuity and reliability for consumers, respecting the principles of sustainable development.

The conclusion is that centralized thermal energy system (SACET) is far more advantageous compared to individual heating solution, especially in urban areas, in cities with large number of people. Giving up to this system (SACET) would void that at least 30% of the Romanian population in urban areas, not be able to warm up, advantageously.

SACET is an European model of ensuring the public service of heating, which is expanding at European Union level, while in Romania was reduced three times in the last 20 years. To become efficient in our country, this system requires urgent and substantial investment for refurbishment and modernization.

Other conclusions are:

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- on producer-consumer relationship, there is a deficiency of Romanian thermal energy system of over 40% compared to the best available techniques. This deficit is given by:
  - oversizing heating plants in relation to the current heat consumption;
  - limited technological performance of existing power plants, according to the requirements of high efficiently cogeneration;
  - significant heat losses in the transportation and distribution system of heat and hot water heating, which can be reduced only through significant investments;
  - additional consumption in Romanian homes with over 25% compared to normal, due to high heat losses in homes;
- through preservation and development of SACET is possible to achieve the targets set by Romania as an EU member country regarding energy efficiency, to use of renewable resources and sustainable development too. Thus, the development of SACET is therefore a strategic option for Romania, achieved at the level of each municipality, taking into account that owners are centralized heating local authorities;
- to develop this energy system are needed effective strategies, which generate a stable regulatory framework to encourage public and private investments in the field;
- there is a malfunction in the regulatory framework because there are two regulators authorities in the field (ANRE and ANRSC), which dissipate responsibilities between ministries;
- it is necessary to create public-private partnerships and developing projects for different areas inhabited localities, considering the lack of experience of local authorities in this field;
- heating system operators are undercapitalized companies due to pricing policy practiced until now. They were from the beginning in financial difficulty because at the detachment of CONEL, the companies were encumbered by debts which have not recovered from incomes;
- public services (heating, electricity, water-sewerage, urban transportation, natural-gas distribution) are provided by independent operators. This fact generates malfunctions and extra costs for each type of public service;
- granting subsidies system was not designed for low-income consumers;
- the use of renewable resources is discouraged for urban cogeneration projects;

- future subsidizing of natural gas consumption in independent sources will tend to eliminate heat systems based on cogeneration with results to the use of local renewable energy resources;
- Romanian urban waste management strategy provides only the capitalizing of landfills, but not the construction of them.

Taking into account the importance of thermal energy for citizens and for economic units too, developing heating activity is performed under local authority supervision, through the development and implementation of the strategy.

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AGENDA DE POLITICI PUBLICE ŞI GUVERNANŢA RECEPTIVĂ

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Rezumat
Această cercetare aduce în prim plan două concepte: guvernanța receptivă și agenda de politici publice Cele două concepte sunt abordate din perspectiva convergenței dintre prioritățile cetățenilor și activitatea guvernului și parlamentului,, urmărindu-se găsirea acelor dovezi care să releve condiționarea reciprocă dintre cele două concepte.
Argumentele acestei cercetări sunt oferite de necesitatea, tot mai pregnantă, a unei viziuni pentru viitor , concept lipsit de rigoare academică și, tocmai de aceea dificil de definit , dar care accentuează, pe de-o parte necesitatea configurării unei intenții strategice clare și, pe de-altă parte, rolul important asumat prin politicilor publice de a satisface așteptările cetățenilor.
În termenii acestei cercetări, agenda de politici publice este locul comun spre care converg agenda publică, agenda guvernamentală și cea parlamentară și reprezintă o garanție pentru cetățeni că vor primi răspunsuri substanțiale și coerente la cerințele lor. Cu alte cuvinte, convergența agendelor este o expresie a unei guvernări receptive.

Cuvinte cheie:guvernare receptivă, agenda de politici publice, capabilități dinamice, convergența agendelor

PUBLIC POLICY AGENDA AND RESPONSIVENESS GOVERNANCE

Abstract
This research highlights the two concepts: responsiveness government and policy agenda- as a result of convergence between citizens' priorities and governmental and parliamentary activity, and tries to find evidence to prove a relationship of mutual conditioning between the two concepts.
The reason for this research is justified by the need for "vision of the future", a concept devoid of academic rigor and, therefore, difficult to define, but which emphasizes, on the one hand, the force of a clear strategic intent and, on the other hand, the irreplaceable role in achieving this vision of public policy to meet the legitimate expectations of citizens .
We see responsiveness as part of democratic signal detection system that alerts policymakers to the anxieties and wishes of the public.
A policy agenda represents a common place of convergence between citizens' priorities and governmental and parliamentary activity, is a guarantee that the citizens will receive appropriate and opportune responses of their demands. In other words the convergence agendas involves the existence of responsiveness government.

***Keywords*:** responsiveness government, policy agenda, dynamic capabilities, convergence of agendas.

JEL CODES:D78, I28, I31

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1. THE CONCEPT OF RESPONSIVENESS GOVERNMENT

This research highlights the two concepts: responsiveness government and policy agenda-as a result of convergence between citizens' priorities and governmental and parliamentary activities, and tries to find evidence to prove a relationship of mutual conditioning between these two concepts.

The reason for this research is justified by the need for "vision of the future", a concept devoid of academic rigor and, therefore, difficult to define, but which emphasizes, on the one hand, the force of a clear strategic intent and, on the other hand, the irreplaceable role in achieving this vision of public policy to meet the legitimate expectations of citizens.

In the current context, turbulent and discontinuous, governments are forced to abandon the old paradigm for the adoption of strategic approaches that are able to offer them the opportunity to anticipate and respond to challenges. To win the next challenge, the government must prepare to respond to citizen's needs and expectations[1]. A real visionary and responsiveness government "must work today for tomorrow".

From this perspective, the policymakers must enable themselves to "decrypt future" by interpreting the signals coming from the environment.

A key characteristic of democracy is the continuing responsiveness of the government to the preferences of its citizens, as political equals (Dahl., 1972, p. 1).

We see responsiveness as part of democratic signal detection system that alerts policymakers to the anxieties and wishes of the public.

So, responsiveness is the key to the proper functioning of any democracy and an important value itself.

A good functioning of the democracy must take into account as a primary value not only representation, but also the means of solving the problems.

[1] Expectations are often simply defined as individual's beliefs regarding desiredoutcomes. Yet the literature suggests that the definition of expectations, and more so the concept of expectations fulfillment is far from easy to define (Thompson and Sunol, 1995; Stanizzszewska, 1999).Thompson and Sunol (1995) cite four types of expectations:

- Ideal: similar to aspirations, desires or preferred outcomes;
- Predicted – realistic, practical or anticipated outcomes that result from personal experiences, reported experiences of others and sources of knowledge such as the media;
- Normative – expectations that are based on what should or ought to happen;
- Unformed – the situation that occurs when individuals are unable or unwilling for various reasons to articulate their expectations, which may either be because they do not have expectations, have difficulty expressing their expectations or do not wish to reveal their expectations due to fear, anxiety or conforming to social norms.

This involves information processing, communication, and the way through which the public's preferences are created and influenced by the governmental strategies and through collective dynamics along with establishing the policy agenda as a result of convergence agendas.

.In public services, "responsiveness" is a controversial concept. Democracy would seem to require administrators who are responsive to the popular will, at least through legislatures and elected chief executives if not directly to the people (Vigoda, 2000, p.166).

Yet administrators and scholars alike tend to treat responsiveness both, in the best case as a necessary evil that appears to compromise professional effectiveness, and the worst case as an indication of political expediency if not outright corruption.

Rourke' s recent assessment is illustrative: The growing demand for responsiveness in government policy-making puts the survival of a professional outlook characterized by independence of judgment and indifference to political pressures at increasing risks. American bureaucracy corridors (Rourke, 1992, p. 545).

From the systemic studies perspective, responsiveness can be defined as an outcome that can be achieved when institutions and institutional relationships are designed in such way that they are cognizant and can respond appropriately to the universally legitimate expectations of individuals.

The fundamental concern is the quality of life improvement in a society, including within that broad concept the quality of citizen-state relations.

The achievement of responsiveness in this sense is likely to re-establish the public's trust not only in the particular public policy concerned but also more broadly in the state and system of governance. According to I. Ansoff and E.J. McDonnell's (1990, p.342) perspectives, responsiveness refers to a kind of government behavior; for example, whether the organization anticipates or reacts to challenges from environment.

In these coordinate, the responsiveness approach is not only a technical measurement and implementation issue - it is also a political problem where changes are connected to government activity and, in the end, to society activity.

Responsiveness is a generic concept that applies to the relationship between a public service and the citizenry, and to the relationship between the state and civil society.

2. PUBLIC AGENDA

By "Public agenda" we refer to the set of policy issues that the public relates to (Jones and Baumgartner, 2005, p.250). Cobb and Elder[2] suggested that public agenda consists of all issues that are commonly perceived by members of the political community as meriting public attention and as involving matters within the legitimate jurisdiction of existing governmental authority (Cobb and Elder, 1972, p.85). And, so the public agenda represents a set of problems to which the public participates.

For our purpose, a public policy problem can be defined as a condition or situation that produces needs or dissatisfactions of the society for which relief or redress (from government) is sought (Anderson, 2003).

For example, conditions like polluted air, altered food, over populated prisons and cities produce situations that might create potential problems for citizens, taking into consideration that their dissatisfaction and discomfort are raising. The degree of dissatisfaction or discomfort (that also involves governmental intervention) is measured by citizens through a standard or a criterion; if these two rate a situation as being inevitable, or one for which they are directly responsible for, no governmental action will be taken, because that situation does not represent a citizen's will, so it does not find itself on the public agenda.Objective conditions are seldom so compelling or unambiguous that they determine the policy agenda. Hence, knowing how a problem has been defined is essential to understanding the process of the policy agenda emergence. A policy idea that fails to meet the feasibility criterion is unlikely to be considered as a serious contender on the public agenda.Because the public opinion has the tendency to become vague and confused when it comes to technical problems or complex solutions, we have to mention that the public agenda does not include the public policy solutions that are granted either by the political elites or by certain public segments. We also emphasize that situations do not become problems unless they are perceived as such, expressed and brought to the attention of the authorities; this kind of action is frequently used by officials and politicians that find themselves in search of problems to be solved.

More than that, a situation becomes a problem on the public agenda if it identifies itself with an area of state intervention, for which a governmental solution is possible. Regarding this, Aron Wildavsky said that authorities will rather ignore a problem if it is not multiplied by its solution. Hurricanes and earthquakes cannot be considered problems due to the fact they are unpredictable, but the damage that they cause

[2]The twoauthorsrefertothe systemic/ informal agenda, but intermsof thiswork, systemic/informalagenda and public agenda may be considered interchangeable.

does indeed represent a public policy problem and there have been created many programs that seek to reduce the damaging effects of these natural phenomena (Wildavschy, 1975, pp.134-140).

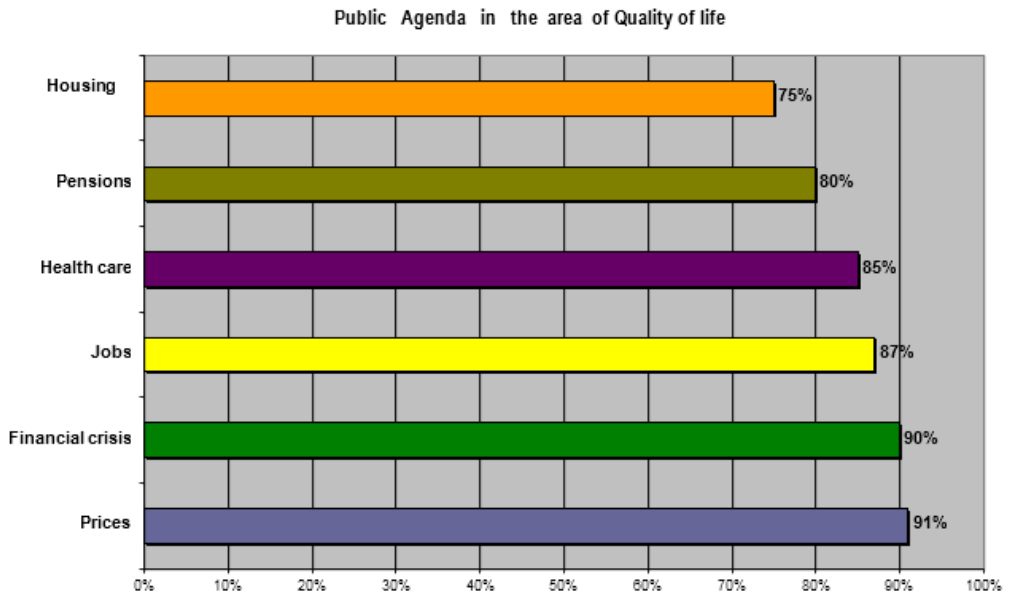
What are those characteristics that tell a public problem from a private one? Generally, the public problems are thought to be the ones that affect the lives of a substantially large number of people, while their consequences are also felt by people who aren't directly involved in those issues.Suppose a citizen is dissatisfied by the amount that was taxed under a certain fiscal law. As long as that citizen acts in his own behalf, trying to find derogation from the fiscal institutions in his favor, then, we are talking about a personal problem. But if that citizen, along with other people directly or indirectly affected by the same problem, try to modify the legislation, than the personal problem turns into a public matter.

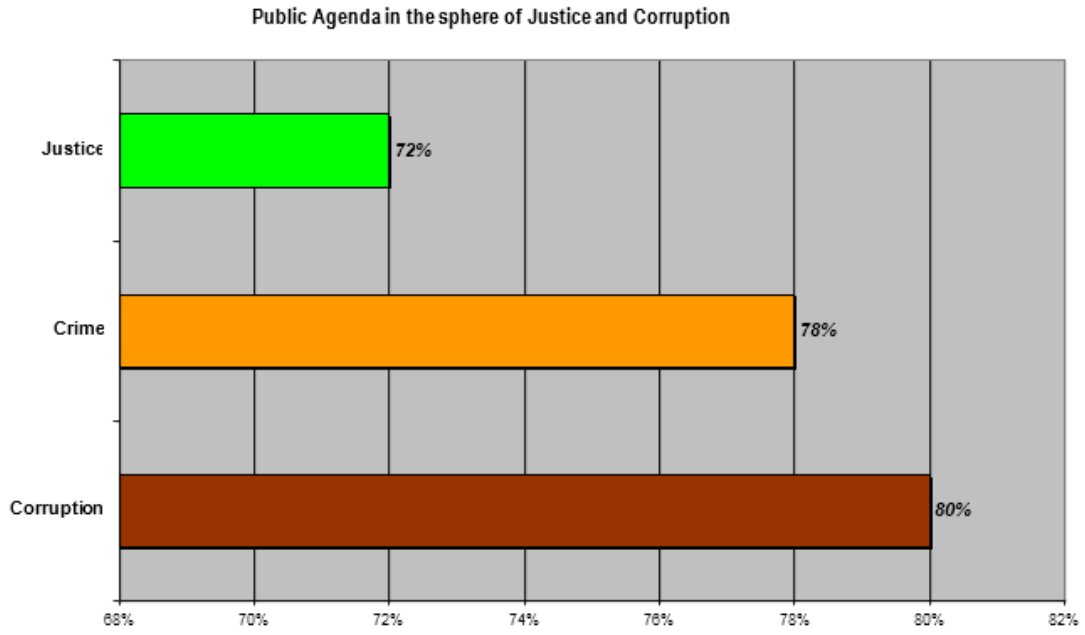
The fact that a situation or a condition is perceived as a problem doesn't mean that it depends only on its objective dimension but also, to a large degree, on how people relate to that situation. If a person has a certain social standard, it's not a real problem for him to find a job, as he is not threatened by the increasing unemployment rate, he might even consider this as a necessary step in lowering inflation. But for a worker, unemployment is a threat and he will negatively react to it. A person's perception is influenced by its own experiences, values and situations that involve him/her. There isn't a single or valid way of defining the problem, even though many people have opinions and preferences when it comes to a certain situation.There are frequent cases when various ways of describing a problem converge, to get the public's vote. We decide if a certain situation can or cannot be considered a public problem if we take a look at the terms that was used to define that problem and accept the proposed definition. More than that, the terms that were used to define it and the causes that generate it determine the emergence of certain solutions that are considered to be adequate. The research conducted in October-November 2009 was, it primarily, aimed at identifying the perceptions and opinions of the Romanian citizens regarding the main directions of government activity in 2010. When asked the question: "In which areas has the government taken the most measures in, according to you own expectations?'' you can see the answers in the chart below.

The16 themes proposed by the questionnaire are grouped into three main groups of the topics:

- Quality of life - issues relating to employment, housing, prices, pensions, financial crisis, and healthcare;
- Functioning of the public institutions – functioning of central and local institutions and education;
- Corruption and justice – crime, justice and corruption.

The following charts illustrate the acceptability rate of the Romanian public when it comes to the public agenda.





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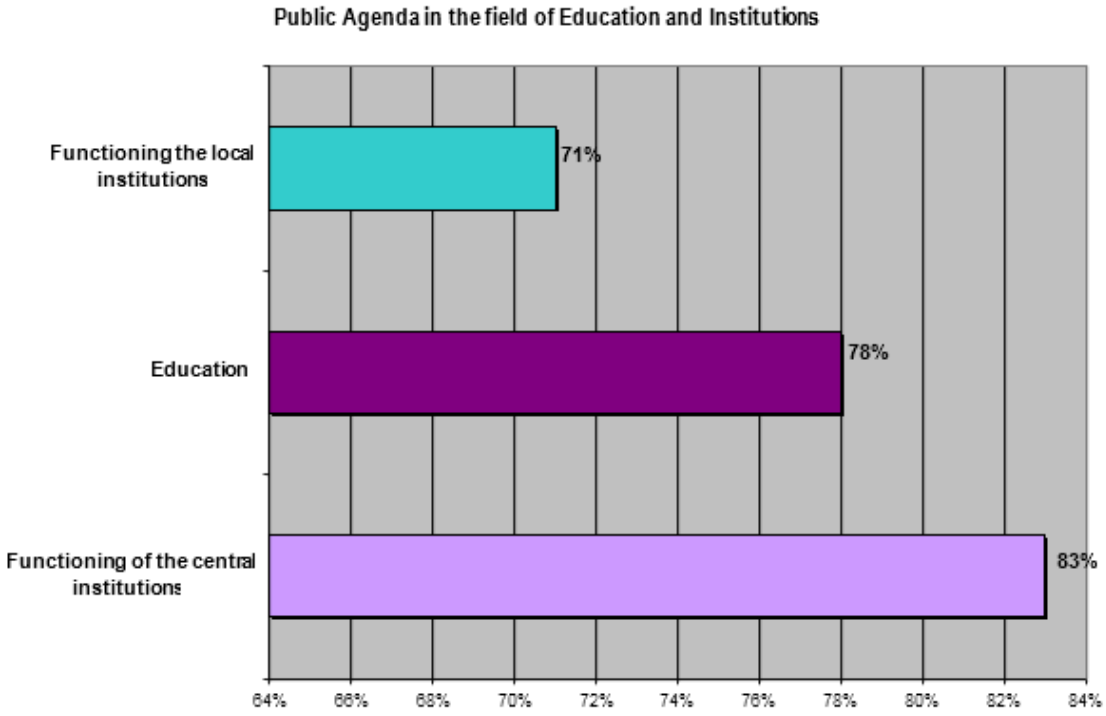


FIGURE1.PUBLIBLIC AGENDA IN VAROIUS FIELDS

Suorce: National Council for Combating Discrimination, 2010.

Way of interviewing: face to face interviews at the respondents house, or by telephone, using the same questionnaire. The questions remained the same despite the interviewing manner.

Representative volume: 1154 people, + 18 years old.

Representative type: probabilistic group, stratified, multi-staged one. Dual frame of representation: houses with telephones connected to the main market telephone operator (representative in 761 houses) and the adult population of Romania (400 representative houses selected through the random method). Both representations have been projected according to the territorial distribution of the Romanian adult population. The assignment of the representative sample was proportional to the group size.

Stratification criteria: 8 historical regions and the urbanism degree (8 different types of regions).

Units of selection: In the representative case of the face to face interviews, the primary units of selection were the regions. The selection of the houses in this case was made through the random method, and people were selected through the "last birthday" method. In the case of the representation sample for the telephone interview, the primary unit of selection was the house itself, and people were also selected through the "last birthday" method.

Moderation: In order to fix the unequal selection probabilities and adjust the different types of non-answers, the final representative segment was moderated through the RAKING method and the moderation variables were: region, urbanism degree, sex, age, race, occupation, level of education and having a telephone subscription. The moderation algorithm used as references official statistic data especially from the last demographic survey.

Representativeness: the final moderated segment is representative for the adult population of Romania, with a ±2.9 % error percentage, with a 95% trust level. Besides segmentation errors, the way questions were asked and the practical difficulties when writing down field data or telephone data can also cause other errors that might alter the results of the survey.

The Date of the collected information: October 2009

According to main the results of this research the public agenda is defined by issues related to living standards, corruption and the functioning of institutions,

When analyzing the previous survey and also comparing it to similar surveys in past periods, we can notice a quite slow dynamic of the public agenda when it comes to Romania (there is a powerful domination of the problems that refer to the increasing of incomes and employment rate; on the other hand, the problems that were generated by the important global challenges - such as terrorism, pollution, energy crisis, organized crime - are almost completely left aside).

And this happens in spite of the fact that also in the situation in which various problems continue to stay in the public's attention, the way in which they are defined changes along with the variation of the values and conditions that generated them. More than that, when mentality evolves as a result of the changes and transformations that took place at a societal level, situations that were considered to be normal at a given time can turn into a problem. For example, domestic violence, which has been considered throughout ages a personal problem, is now treated as a felony.

There are many explanations to this; starting with the fact that their only preoccupation is the struggle for day to day living and not taking into consideration the civic responsibility. The same explanations can be used when talking about the lack of interest when mentioning the important global challenges (human rights, energy, terrorism, security, delinquency) among the priorities of the public or governmental agenda.

3. THE GOVERNMENTAL AGENDA

Shifting problems from the public agenda to the governmental one is the result of a political process that also determines the adequate solutions. Is the fact that people with disabilities should have the right to

proper means of transportation an issue regarding the public transport field or an issue that is rather connected to human rights? Special means of transportation for the disabled people is a solution to the transportation issue. The human rights perspective involves equal rights for the transportation of the disabled people and also the existence of proper devices that can allow disabled people to equally use the public means of transportation.

The ideal solution would be for us to consider the connection between the public agenda and the governmental one. But we must say that, if we use the results of the previous survey as a temporal method of the governmental agenda, the process of establishing a connection between the two types of agendas is altered by the existence of possible threats caused by the irregular types of questions, by the number of respondents etc. (Jones and Baumgartner, 2005, p.226).

Causality is an important aspect of a public policy problem. A situation can turn into a problem but what are the causes that generate the situation? Many problems – delinquency, poverty, inflation and pollution – have multiple causes. Inflation is characterized by a generalized growth of prices, measured by the index of commodity prices and it represents a political public problem with multiple roots: an under-production of goods and services, excessive demand of goods and services, a surplus of currency, the result of a psychological inflation (people expecting prices to rise) etc.

In order to solve a problem, we should pay attention to the causes, not only to the manifestations (symptoms) but, in many situations, it's not easy to identify or detect the main causes. Identifying the roots of a problem and negotiating a compromise regarding them is not an easy task for the policy makers because defining the problem turns into a problem itself.

The difficulty of the governmental agenda setting is also determined by the fact that the nature and purpose of many public political problems are hard to express because of their dispersed or ''invisible'' nature. And because determining the size of the problem is often inadequate, those who elaborate public politics don't always correctly evaluate the given situation and it becomes impossible for them to offer adequate solutions or even undertake governmental actions in order to solve the problem. Next to these inaccuracies we can also mention the inadequate understanding of the causes of the phenomena.

Another aspect connected to the governmental agenda refers to its capacity of being easy to control/manipulate, as some of the problems involve a higher level of behavioral changes than others. McKelvey (1976) and Schofield (1976) showed that in absence of a majority–rule, equilibrium implies that virtually any policy outcome is possible. Hence, those who control the agenda can engage in all sorts of manipulations. A monopoly agenda setter can achieve almost any outcome they wish, providing the

appropriate order of paired options considered by the voting group operating under majority rules (Schofield, 1976).

Limited resources naturally determine a space limitation as well as the governmental agenda. In the context of scarce resources, many other forces, other than the public opinion, appear and try to get their own space on the agenda, because it necessary defines the priorities within the agenda. It's not enough for a proposal to be included in the agenda but also to occupy a high position on the agenda.

From our point of view, we cannot discus in terms of responsiveness government without taking into account the congruence between public and government agendas.

More than that, responsiveness can lack even if such a correspondence does exist, due to the blocking of public policy actions, either by the political system (its level of complexity can generate various blockings) or by the leaders whose opinions are different from the public's.

We must raise questions of political interdependence among the nations and make some remarks on how these interdependences affect the substance and procedures of national policy making, including the agenda setting. For example, in the Romanian case, European integration has brought up on the governmental agenda many substantial issues other than those already contained by the public agenda. How must the government react? Which are the government's alternatives? In our opinion, a responsiveness government must act so to produce a favorable society climate, followed by a later stage when the European requests become real issues on the public agenda. In fact, the demand for more transparency in public decision making, the search for new forms of accountability, and the growing reliance on persuasion rather than traditional forms of governmental coercion can be shown to be related, at least in part, to economic growth and political interdependence (World Bank, 1997). In other words, in the absence of that convergence between agendas we can not speak about responsiveness and much less about democratic policies that are able to satisfy the demands of the citizens.

4. THE PARLIAMENTARY AGENDA

The activity referring to the parliamentary debates is one of the main components of the public politics process.

According to an idealized legislative committee system model developed by Weingast and Marshall (1988) (quote by Majone, 2008, pp. 230-231), each congressional committee has jurisdiction over a specific subset of policy issues.

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Within their jurisdiction, the committees posse the monopoly authority to bring the alternatives to the status quo up for a vote before the legislature; the committee proposal must command a majority of votes against the status quo to become a public policy.

The agenda power held by committee members implies that the success of the legislative initiative is influenced / supported by the members of the relevant committees. Without these members, the bill will not reach the floor for to be vote plenary. . Thus committee veto power means that from the set of policies that command a majority against the status quo, only those that make the committee better off are possible. The authority to veto the proposals of others is a powerful tool used by committees to influence policy in their jurisdiction. Institutionalizing control over the congressional agenda – over the design and selection of proposals that arise for a vote – provides durability and enforceability of bargains in a legislative setting (Majone, 2008).

For the Romanian case we can briefly present a research conducted in 2010 concerning the activity of the Romanian Parliament.3 First at all, the study captures the quantitative dimension of the Parliament activities. In the first legislative session of 2010 (February 1 to June 30) were submitted 322 regulatory projects and legislative initiatives at the Chamber of Deputies and another 422 at the Senate.

The relation between the percentage values of the projects submitted by the members of Parliament and the Government are presented below.

At the chamber of Deputies, 63% of the projects were submitted by MP's and 37% of projects by The Government; At the Senate, 82% of the legislative initiatives were submitted by the PM's and only 18% by the Government. The situation is reversed when we evaluate the relation between adopted and rejected projects. The percentage values are presented below.

[3]Romania's Constitution states that Parliament is the supreme representative of the Romanian people and the sole legislative authority of the country. It consists of the Chamber of Deputies and Senate. The current Romanian Parliament consists of 137 senators and 334 deputies who are elected for a term of four years. For this term, the mandate of parliament began on December 15, 2008, with valid elections and sworn, and will end on 14 December 2012. The mandate of such representative, in exercising its deputies and senators are serving the people. The Constitution also states (Article 69, paragraph 2) that any imperative mandate is null. The two Houses of Parliament shall meet in two ordinary sessions per year (February to June, September to December) but can also meet in extraordinary session. During a legislative session, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate can pass laws, resolutions and motions, the majority presence. The Chamber of Deputies and Senate operate the ParliamentPalace in Bucharest and known as the People's House, lawmakers also operates in the territory (district / college) in the parliamentary offices established for citizens

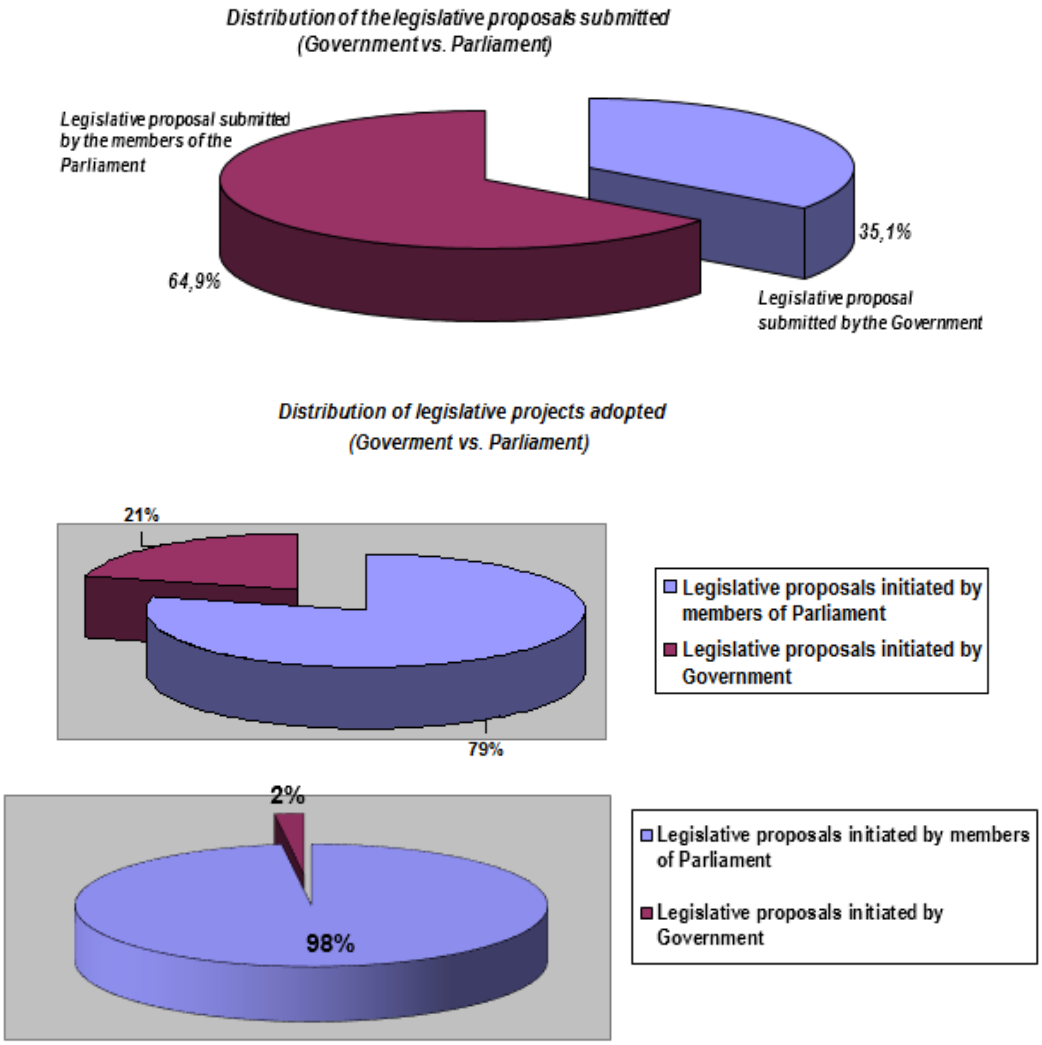


FIGURE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF THE LEGISLATIVE PROPOSALS

Source: Public Policy Institute, Monitoring Report, 2011

The research conducted by The Public Policy Institute on priorities of legislative process has brought to attention the existence of a net difference between the agendas of both Chambers of Parliament. We report these results bellow.

At the Chambers of Deputies, the Justice represents the main area of initiative (25% of the legislative initiatives have been made in these field), and the last position, with the fewest initiatives submitted, is IT and equal opportunities.

At the Senate, the main regulatory areas of legislative initiatives submitted were agriculture /forestry and the last position is represented by fields such as human rights and equal opportunities.

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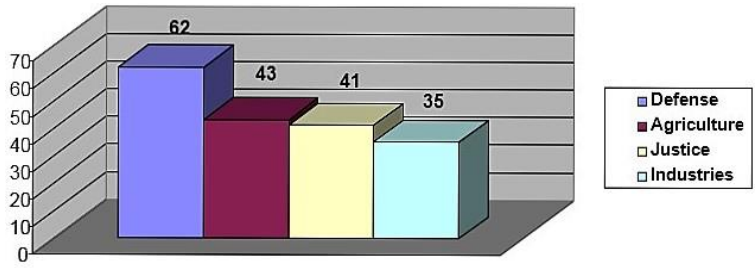


FIGURE 3. PRIORITIES OF THE SENATE AGENDA

Source: The Public Policy Institute, Monitoring Report, 2011

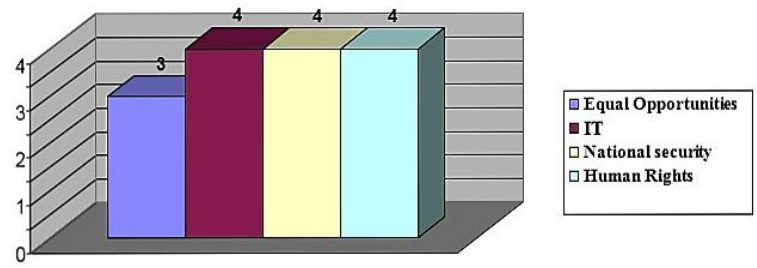


FIGURE 4.LAST POSITIONS IN THE HIERARCHY OF THE PRIORITIES ON THE SENATE AGENDA

Source: The Public Policy Institute, Monitoring Report, 2011

The study has revealed that there are now over 200 bills that are on the Parliament `s vote queue for over a year.

The celerity of the legislative process is a very importantindicatorfor the efficiency andeffectiveness of the Parliamentary work.According to ourConstitution, any legislative proposalinitiatedbythe deputies,senators or the Governmentshall undergolegislationinParliamentwithin 90days afterregistration, or 120 days for codesandlawsof astonishing naturalcomplexity.According to regulations inforce,thetwoChambers ofParliamentcandecideon theproposalsand/orrecordedbills.

In the absence of plen debates of a large number of projects, these have been adopted through the tacit adoption procedure. The distribution of these bills, both for the Deputy Chamber and the Senate are:

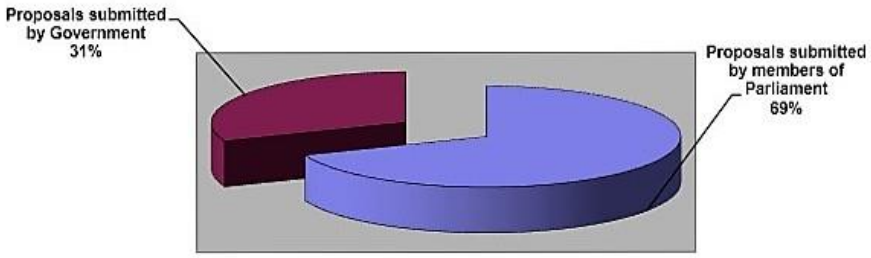


FIGURE 5. DISTRIBUTION OF LEGISLATIVE PROPOSAL ADOPTED BY TACIT PROCEDURE (PARLIAMENT VS. GOVERNMENT)

Source: The Public Policy Institute, Monitoring Report, 2011

The fact that the most of the tacit adopted legislative proposals have been submitted by the Parliament members that can lead us to conclude that, after the deposition of the initiatives, the MP's are less motivated in the supporting their own initiatives.

Analyzing, in turn, the dimensions of parliamentary activity, we can draw some general conclusions regarding the defined issues in the monitored session.

The draft legislation submitted by members of Parliament continues the unsuccessful legislative inflation phenomenon - in other words, some lawmakers initiate legislative proposals or co-sign in order to claim it as activity; there was no real and consistent concerns about the purpose of the legislative process regarding this initiatives.

MP's belonging to the governing political parties should be consistent in cooperation with fellow parties in the executive to avoid situations when their legislative proposals are in conflict with the agreed political principles.

In terms of priorities, the less important areas for the current Parliament – as they appear depending on the purpose of regulation initiatives submitted - are equal opportunities and human rights.

5. THE CONVERGENCE AGENDAS AND THE RESPONSIVENESS GOVERNMENT

Congruence between the public and governmental agendas is an unavoidable precondition without which responsiveness cannot occur. Public agenda is measured by the answer to a question about "the most important problems" the nation is facing. The measures from the parliamentary agenda are based on hearings activity. By analyzing the activity of the Permanent Commission of the Chamber of Deputies may be noted that there is a significant difference between the number of hearings and the degree of access to information on the outcome of the discussion in Commissions. Thus, there is no available information for 31 from a total of 65 hearings of the Human Right Commission. The Public Administration Commission also has not enough available documents (only for 4 of the 25 hearings of this session). Other similar examples are the Economic Policy Committee and the Commission to investigate abuses, corruption and complaints. For the February-June 2010 parliamentary session, there is no available information for 20 hearings of these Commissions.

Unfortunately, at the Senate, information from the hearings of Permanent Commissions is not available. The presence of information, available only for 4 Permanent Commission –Foreign Policy Commission, Public Administration Commission Environment Commission, Commission for Labor, Family and Social

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Protection and the Commission for Privatization and Administration of the State assets - is rather an exception.

The presented research clearly reveals that parliamentary activity shows, at least for the analyzed period, the nature of dysfunctions that compromise policy agenda, both in terms of its correspondence with the priorities of the other two agendas and in terms of haste in which they are debated in Parliament

According Jones and Baumgartner (2005), hearing activity is "the front end" component of the public policy process. Meaning that it responds more easily to changing information flow than accomplish the later policymaking process stages.

As a consequence, it is reasonable to expect a realistic response to the concerns of the citizens in the hearings activity, noting that this response should be offered in the same year If hearings are scheduled a year after an increase in public attention to a topic , our approach, will not count it(Jones and Baumgartner, 2005, p.255).

With this consideration, we appreciate that the concept of responsiveness government is viable only if the policy agenda is a result of the convergence, in real time (approx. 1 year), of the three agendas of others: public, governmental and parliamentary. Adopted standard for assessing the quality convergence of agendas is quite strict; the parliament must take into consideration the priorities of the public agenda in real time, but not later that one year.

Furthermore, between the two concepts is a mutual conditioning. In this sense, the existence of a policy agenda, defined such by the result of convergence between the three agendas, provides a strong support for responsiveness government to work.

In addition, achieving the policy agenda in this way represents a guarantee for democracy; issues raised by different interest groups, must be, first, put on the public agenda and only than put on the governmental and parliamentary agendas.

A special case is represented by the international organizations and public issues that these organizations try to directly promote on the governmental or parliamentary agenda. While solving other problems than the society requires it seems to be a threat to democracy and the political analysts believe that the future capabilities of states to act will depend on their ability to auto-connect to the international context (Beck, 2004, p.46).

From our point of view and in terms of previous statements, it is necessary that the states should be concerned on development of the dynamic capabilities. Dynamic capabilities refer to the particular

capacity of the government possess to shape, reshape, configure, and reconfigure assets to be able to respond to a frequently changing environment[4].

As with previous considerations results that the concept of responsiveness government is defined by dynamic capabilities that give the government the necessary support to anticipate both the requirements of the international organizations as well as the global challenges. In other words, the prerequisites are for, at least, the reduction of what Dahl (2002, p.136) called the dark side of democracy[5]. In conclusion, the responsiveness approach is a political problem where changes are connected to government and society activity. But this connection is not possible without the convergence between agendas and without compliance with the standard required for assessing the quality of convergence

CONCLUSIONS

This research reveals that the importance attributed to responsiveness government and policy agenda defined as a commune place of convergence citizen's priorities and governmental and parliamentary activity is justified, primarily, by their involving in defining a space where public policies work. Throughout this study we tried to configure the dimension of the agenda's convergence and to reveal that congruence agenda is a vehicle that leads to responsiveness. Consequently, the two concepts are inextricably linked and reinforce each other and at the same time they make public policy work.

Secondly, put these two concepts into practice is likely to contribute to increase citizen's trust in the representative national institutions: government and parliament. Responsiveness is a generic concept that applies to the relationship between a public service and the citizenry and to the relationship between the state and civil society.

The fundamental concern is the improvement of the quality of life in society, included within that broad concept of quality of citizen-state relations. The achievement of responsiveness in this sense is likely to re-establish the public's trust not only in the particularly concerned public services but also more broadly in the system and state of governance.

[4] This definition is an extension in the governmental sphere of corporate dynamic capabilities definition formulated by J.D.Teece in *Dynamic Capabilities and Strategic Management*, Oxford University Press 2009, p.89.
[5] In the current international context, the governments act in accordance with the charges of supranational structure on which the citizens have no control.

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It is already a known fact that in the last decade's citizen's trust in these institutions is in a dramatic decline. This deep lack of trust shown by citizens is an expression of their refusal to accept public policies formulated behind closed doors, a practice where decisions are made without consulting the public.

From the perspective of focusing on Romania case, the study brought to attention the existence of major and dramatic discrepancies between the preferences of citizens and governmental parliamentary agendas. Hence, the premises of building a policy agenda as a result of convergent agendas are being undermined; responsiveness government is also compromise. Moreover, the public space where public policy works can not be defined. In such circumstance, it was expected that, including, Romanian citizen's trust in government and parliament to register a negative grow.

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ROMANIA'S LOCAL POLICE. CURRENT ISSUES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

POLIŢIA LOCALĂ DIN ROMÂNIA. PROBLEME ACTUALE ŞI DIRECŢII DE ACŢIUNE

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Abstract
The paper's objective is a survey on current academic and policy debates on local police, current issues of local police in Romania, and the implications of the various national initiatives on its development during the economic transition and financial crisis (budgetary constraints).
The methodology used in this paper comprise studies of published materials (articles, strategies, raports, policies, research studies, laws), which provide theoretical and practical research on local police in Romania and its development. The themes discussed ranged from: the definition of a public service, to local police in different countries, current issues for Romania's local police, a brief analysis on local police, different steps and measures that should be taken for improving its activity and quality. The value of this study is that it fills a gap in the literature regarding various information on Romanian local police.

***Keywords*:** local police, public service, management, decentralization

JEL CODES: L8, L89

Rezumat
Obiectivul lucrării este un studiu privind actualele dezbateri academice și politice cu privire la poliția locală, problemele curente ale poliției locale din România, precum și implicațiile diferitelor inițiative naționale privind dezvoltarea sa în perioada de tranziție economică și criza financiară (constrângerile bugetare).
Metodologia utilizată în această lucrare pune accent pe studierea materialelor publicate (articole, strategii, politici, rapoarte, studii de cercetare, legi), care asigură o cercetare teoretică și practică cu privire la poliția locală din România și dezvoltarea acesteia. Temele discutate au variat de la: definiția unui serviciu public, la poliția locală în diferite țări, probleme actuale pentru poliția locală din România, o analiză succintă a poliției locale, diferite etape și măsuri care ar trebui urmate pentru îmbunătățirea activității și a calității acesteia. Valoarea acestui studiu este că poate contribui la umplerea unui gol în literatura de specialitate cu privire la diverse informații despre poliția locală din România.

Cuvinte cheie: poliția locală, serviciu public, management, descentralizare

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

It is important to examine the history of Romanian police in order to understand its progress over time. Alterations to the purpose, duties, and structure of Romanian police institutions have allowed this profession to evolve into a more effective entity that meets the European Union requirements.

The novelty of the Romania's local police (Bulea, 2013) and that it has on its back other two institutions (from historically point of view) - the Public Guardians and Community Police - reveals the need to improve the system, to ensure public order and local alignment with the new requirements of the millennium. The manner in which this service implements the specific plan, which is an ultimate goal, perfect attempt to prevent and combat antisocial actions requires a very complex phenomenon, perfectly in time based on previous experience and taking into account the evolution of society, inevitable, which brings with it new requirements, needs and challenges.

Services are useful activities designed to meet social needs, their result is intangible, cannot be stored and they are the main stimulous element of economic competition (Plumb et al., 2003, pp. 52-54).

At European level The Metropolitan Police Service (MPS, nd) is one of the most popular local police service in the world and serves the population of London. The public service has over 32,500 employees (approximately 14,200 people representing administrative staff, 230 employees - traffic controllers, 4,300 employees - Support Community Police Officers). Also, The Metropolitan Police Service is supported by approximately 3,600 volunteers, mainly from the Metropolitan Constabulary.

We can observe that UK's local police main values are to put the public interest first, to act with integrity and fairness as a team (West Midlands Police, nd).

Sweden (Jones and Wiseman, 2006) has established a long-term commitment based on an open, compassionate and supportive society. These issues have defined the perspective on Community Police, and have determined the structure and its management. The Swedish legislation was heavily influenced by European legislation in the field of crime prevention. In 1972 at the national level was created the National Council for Crime Prevention (represented also locally by approximately 232 entities), which aims to formulate solutions to the problems across the country and communicate them to local police. It also provides information to politicians, media and citizens about prevention of crime at local level.

In France, the Community Police has an over 30 years history. Starting with 2002 the Proximity Police was created. It connects the police with municipalities and directs residents to participate at their own security and to volunteer with community policies. This is a very important aspect as the local community participation is reduced, causing a lack of envolvement in society.

According to Kutnjak Ivkovic (2008, p. 407) police agencies are not isolated entities, they are integral parts of the society at large. That's why, other social factors could also be related to the way citizens perceive the police. For example, when society tolerates misconduct of government employees and fails to control it, police officers are more likely to be corrupt, milk calls for service, plant evidence, and use excessive force. When insufficient resources are channeled from the state or city budget into the police budget, the numbers of police officers will be too low, the quality of applicants will suffer, hiring processes will be inadequate, training will be shortened, internal control will be sketchy, salaries will be low, and equipment will be obsolete. Such shortcomings are very likely to have adverse consequences on the public service with, and support for, the police (Doherty and Horne 2002).

Whereas the theory differentiates between diffuse and specific support for the police, as a rule, the police literature routinely addressed either the issue of diffuse support or the issue of specific support. Broadly speaking, the confidence-related questions addressed in the literature range on a continuum from the very general ones, such as the level of confidence in the police or the evaluations of the job the police were doing (e.g., Correia et al., 1996; Reiss, 1967; Walker et al., 1972), to the fairly specific ones. The latter ranged from the ones about providing safety in the area (Brillon et al., 1984; Cao et al., 1996); maintaining order, protecting property, and protecting against crime (Cao et al., 1996); and respecting citizens' rights (Brillon et al., 1984), to the responsiveness, promptness in answering emergency calls (Brillon et al., 1984; Cao et al., 1996), courtesy and equality in treatment (Reisig and Correia, 1997), general demeanor of police officers (Webb and Marshall, 1995), availability of information and leisure programs for young people, and quality of various programs (see, e.g., Brillon et al., 1984; Reisig and Correia, 1997; Reisig and Parks, 2000). As a general rule, it seems that studies tended to rely more on some form of specific support for the police than on the diffuse one. Heterogeneity of the questions asked across the studies and the inclusion of both specific and diffuse questions in some of the studies make it very cumbersome and complicated to follow the dichotomy of specific support and diffuse support in the sections of the articles that discusses the impact of various correlates of public support for the police.

Most of the studies (Kutnjak Ivkovic, 2008, p. 410) that examine the police public support, particularly the projects that provide an in-depth exploration of various factors related to public opinion, have been conducted in the United States. The researchers have primarily explored the impact of the respondents' demographic characteristics, their experience with the police, and the neighborhood effects. Compared with the other factors, the effects of police-related variables (other than the contact with the police) and society-wide factors have been studied relatively rarely.

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2. ROMANIA'S LOCAL POLICE. CURRENT ISSUES

When the Law of Local Police (no 155, 1 January 2011) was approved, the Community Police in Romania became history, and was replaced by the Local Police. The new institution formed has additional powers after it took a number of departments from the City Hall.

Romania's local police duties are to protect the fundamental rights and freedom of individuals, private and public property, prevention and detection of crime, in the areas of the public order and security of goods, driving on public roads, construction discipline and advertising panels, environment protection, entrepreneurship, accounting of, and other areas established by law (Law no. 155/12.07.2010 local police, Chapter. I, art. 1).

Thus, since 2011, the local police is the institution that shall ensure compliance with legal regulations on discipline construction, environmental protection, advertising and commerce.

The new functions listed above, will be managed by three newly created services within the Local Police: Construction Discipline and Street Advertising Service, Environment Protection Service and Commercial Inspection Service.

Construction Discipline and Street Advertising Service

When it comes to discipline in constructions and street advertising, some of the tasks that local police will have to meet are: carrying out checks to identify work done without planning permission or termination, as appropriate, including temporary constructions, carrying out checks to identify persons who do not comply with permit repair works of the roadway and pedestrian, participates in the demolition / dismantling / construction undertaken without authorization on public or private unit / administrative-territorial subdivision or the spaces under management authorities of local government or other institutions / local public services by providing perimeter protection and freedom of action of the staff involved in these specific operations; notes, where applicable, according to duties established by law, violations of discipline in the permitting execution construction works and submit the minutes of establishing contraventions, to sanction, to the head of the specialist coordinate the planning and, where appropriate, to the county council president, mayor of the administrative- territorial or municipal sector Bucharest in whose jurisdiction the offense was committed or the person authorized by them, legal compliance checks on display advertising, campaign posters and other forms of display / advertising, including those relating to the company 's location at the place of business .

Environment protection Service

Inspectors from the Environment Protection Service have the following duties: enforcing legal provisions on conditions for lifting, transporting and storage of household and industrial waste, notifies to competent public authorities and institutions breaches of legal rules on the level of pollution, including noise; identifies goods abandoned on public or private unit / administrative-territorial subdivision or areas under the administration of local authorities or other institutions / local public services and applies the legal procedures for lifting them; check water sources sanitation, the banks, their beds or basins, check to ensure sanitation streets, access roads, green areas, gutters, removing snow and ice from roads, pest control, sanitation checks for contracts concluded by natural or legal persons under the law, check lifting waste sanitation operators in accordance with established schedules, verify and correct, according to competencies of local authorities, referrals citizens of non-compliance with environmental laws and water sources, as well as the management of settlements .

Commercial Inspection Service

Commercial Inspection Service has the following duties: legal compliance work for the conduct of street trade and commercial activities in accordance to the conditions set by the local government; verify the legality of the product marketing activities carried out by operators, individuals and businesses authorized and private producers in food markets and fairs, and legal provisions by administrators of agricultural markets; checks and place of, business permits, approvals, documents of origin of goods, metrological ballot for scales, opinions (notice) and other documents as determined by law or administrative action of central and local public administratio; verify legal compliance on the placement of advertising materials and marketing places for tobacco products and alcoholic beverages; cooperates and advises governments on disease surveillance, environmental and consumer protection in the exercise of duties specific to their activity; verify that the obligations of operators on the display of the prices of products sold and services and notify authorities if identifies irregularities, verify and correct, under the law, the complaints received in relation to the acts and deeds of trade conducted in public places in violation of law.

Legal Framework: local police operate under the Law - frame no. 215/2001 on local government and Law no. 155/2010 of local police.

Institutional framework: the local police operates as a functional department under mayor as a specialized unit, being directly subordinate to the deputy.

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In October 2013 a N.F.L.P. (National Federation of Local Police in Romania) delegation composed of the President and Vice President attended the General Assembly of the Association of Municipalities of Romania (AMR). The meeting was attended by former mayors AMR members as guests: Mayor of Bucharest, President of the Union of County Councils, Senior Vice President of the Association of Municipalities. The meeting was honored by the Prime Minister and the Deputy Prime Minister.

On the agenda was also included the item "Status of proposals on improving the normative regulations of the local government." At this point AMR President said that during the last talks in Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration (MRDPA) he received a clear message about the fact that decentralization will take place soon in most of the ministries, less in Ministry of Internal Affairs (MAI), thereby transferring additional powers and duties to local government authorities that currently are managed by central agencies. In conclusion, in the first stage of this process of decentralization of public order and road traffic faliled because it was not prepared enough. AMR has also submitted to the Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration a set of "Proposals to amend certain rules and regulations implementing the local governance " where at 15 and 17 points on the list were included NFLP proposals, namely: amending and supplementing O.G. no. 26/1994 and Law no.155/2010 so that local police personnel to receive food allowance, allowance for permanent assignment and classification in abnormal working conditions, special or other working conditions in accordance with regulations provided for police officers and civil servants with special status of public order.

The Prime Minister said in his interventions that the transfer of powers to local authorities will be accompanied by financial resources from the Government.

Mr. Deputy Prime Minister Liviu Dragnea said that a number of laws will change, including: the Law 215/2001 on Local Government, Civil Servants Law no.188/1999 Law and the Prefecture Law no.340/2004, under efficient local government. It will also be developed a Metropolitan Area Law for community fundraising and rural development perspective.

Mr. Gheorghe Falca, Arad Mayor, mentioned that the road traffic control and public order service competences should be transferred to the local police. It was agreed that monthly meetings should be held between representatives of AMR and Government on decentralization, including the point where they will discuss these proposals for legislative changes.

In discussions between representatives of NFLP and AMR, Federation agreed to provide technical support to local police on the light of the discussions that will take place on the subject.

At national level the National Federation of Local Police in Romania was established in late 2007 as a legal entity of private law, civil society component, independent, non-governmental, nonprofit.

The original name was National Federation of Community Police, and it was established in Drobeta Turnu Severin and consisted of 11 members. Subsequently Federation headquarters was moved to Brasov, and the number of members increased to 24.

Currently (2013) the headquarters of the Romanian National Federation of Local Police is located in Brasov. Its president is Mr. Găzdac C. Florian, General Manager of Local Police from Satu Mare.

The Romanian National Federation of Local Police was formed to organize a single structure of professional representation, supporting and defending the common interests of its members at national, regional and local level and internationally, in relations with public authorities central and local state institutions, employers, trade unions and non-governmental organizations or any other legal entity, in order to promote the image and to lift the local police prestige.

The Romanian National Federation of Local Police is actively campaigning to improve the legislative framework aimed at the interests of the local police institution, in accordance with national and international laws.

In order to achive the purposes for which it was established, the Federation developed strategies, statistics, studies, draft legislation, codes of conduct, protocols and other tools to regulate or support relationships between those involved so that they better align with the standards and European realities in the field.

According to Law no. 155/2010, local police has a number of responsibilities in the following areas:

- public order and security of goods: maintain the public order in established places, near schools, health units, providing security for goods and objectives owned or administrated by local authorities, etc.
- road traffic control: safe road traffic from the territorial jurisdiction; notes offenses and applies penalties for violation of laws on stopping, illegal parking of vehicles, etc.
- construction discipline and street advertising: carry out checks to identify unauthorised construction works, verify legal compliance on displaing advertisements, campaign posters and other forms of displaing;
- environmental protection: enforcing legal provisions on conditions for lifting, transport and storage of waste, notify the competent authorities on breaches of law related to pollution, etc.

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- commercial activity: legal compliance work for the conduct of street trade and commercial activities, verifing of market activity legality, etc;
- people registry (recording): people received voting cards at the age of 18; cooperate with other authorities to verify personal data, etc.

Human Resources: according to rules set by the European Union, in each administrative unit must be an agent of the local police for every 1000 inhabitants.

Particularly important is the provision in Law no. 155/2010 of the duty of local police officers with responsibility for the public order and road traffic to undergo initial training program organized in an educational institution within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, after the appointment in function.

This can be analyzed from two different points of view: the provision requires a thorough training of civil servants, higher than they had as community police, but would be more effective if they were made before the appointment and would complete an assessment of the skills acquired by the students, with the opportunity to select the staff at that time.

Regarding the interference between different institutions with police powers, having common territorial jurisdiction, appear for the first time, express mention in the law governing that regulates the establishment, organization and functioning of local police. Thus, it works with the National Police and Constabulary "under direct supervision" of their own.

It reveals a much closer cooperation between these authorities, both by the fact that the local police will attend trainings in the institutions of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, will be jointly coordinated during activities by national police and constabulary, will have access to databases data of national police, under the law, in addition, are working together to implement fine-points for one year from the establishment of local police and local police officials specializing in traffic management, exercises its powers with Romanian traffic police structures (during the same period of time).

Under Article 14 of Law 155/2010, local police staff is made up of public servants that ocupies specific public officials in local police, civil servants holding general public officials and contractual staff. The first two categories of personnel are subject to the Civil Servants Regulations Act. Regarding the regulation of employment of contract staff, this is done according to the Labour Code and the staff contracted with responsibility for security of goods and goals of local interest will be considered and the conditions laid down by Law. 333/2003 on the protection of objectives, goods, values and people protection, as amended and supplemented.

Local police staff consists of:

a) public servants holding specific public officials of local police;

b) civil servants holding general functions/ positions of society;

c) contractual staff.

Method of financing. According to Law no. 155/2010, where the local police department is organized as a specialized function, the work is fully financed from the local budget (Law nr.155/12.07.2010 local police, chapters VIII, art. 39).

3. LOCAL POLICE SERVICE ANALYSIS

- **Strengths**

1. Local police offers a diversified service as the resources involved are specialized in different fields (safety and public order, road traffic, environmental protection, etc.);
2. Effective intervention is provided and is suitable in different areas due to constant staff training, providing them real-time adaptation to changes in legislation. Also, physical training allows employees their intervention in emergency situations;
3. Increased funding of assets (infrastructure) between 2009 - 2011, provides a framework for future development of services;
4. Close cooperation between local police, traffic police, constabulary and Inspectorate for Emergency Situations (IES) lead to higher service quality.

- **Weaknesses**

1. Overcharging activity generated by to many powers attributed to local police employees so that their yield may decrease;
2. Reducing the quality of work as a result of reducing the budget between 2009 - 2011;
3. Lack of correlation between the current needs with those on the medium and long term and with financial allocations, that are declining in recent years;
4. Infrastructure available to local police is not well developed - in the opinion of the employees (personal communication) there are not spaces for specialized training, response equipment must be improved, etc;

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5. Lack of indicators to measure the response time, the favorable settlement, to reveal the opinions and suggestions of the citizens, to be updated in real time, because in many cases communication with citizens is achieved through a register;
6. Lack of indicators for monitoring the effectiveness of human resources that can be useful for providing salaries and promotions to employees correlated to their results;
7. Insufficient financial funds due to changes in the structure of City Hall priority public services from one year to another and reallocation of those funds to other areas.

- **Opportunities**

1. Opportunity to benefit from expertise, best practices and knowledge of local police working with NFLP;
2. Possibility of accessing European funds for various projects;
3. International cooperation, partnerships with other organizations, to exchange experiences and gain new knowledge, transfer of know-how;
4. Implementation of an integrated quality management;
5. Implementation of new technologies in the field of weapons equipped for efficient intervention actions and better case handling;
6. Adoption of new methods of intervention, more effective, practiced in other countries that would achieve the standards set out in this field at international level;
7. Development of information technologies to streamline activities, monitoring, possibility of introducing performance indicators.

- **Threats**

1. The legal framework within which local authorities have been forced to reduce its budget by 25% as a result of the financial crisis;
2. Institutional framework - being subordinated to the mayor, it is possible to give less importance to this service, focusing his attention on other areas;
3. Budgetary constraints generated by the fact that the main financial source for this service is the local budget, which must satisfy the financial resources need for a larger number of activities in many cities;

4. High degree of bureaucracy;
5. Impending oil crisis could affect the availability of fuel that this service needs to fulfill its tasks.

4. DISCUSSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In order to improve the quality of local police public services, we think that a number of changes (improvements) could be done. These would serve to increase the quality like promptness, speed of intervention, efficiency, training.

Regarding the average age of employees, we believe that they can integrate a policy of phasing in the organization of young employees. They can bring a "fresh perspective" on service, they can come up with new ways of working with new approaches to community problems. Also, by getting closer to young people in the city, you can create a link that will facilitate communication with youth groups, so that local authorities be able to realise different activities better, for example: the protection of citizens trying to combat racing (encountered in the city), or youth groups that consumes substances prohibited by law.

Also, younger workers have a different learning ability, adaptability to change and enhance the civil service permanent correlation with the changing needs of the community they serve.

Another recommendation should take into consideration human resources degree of motivation. Local police employees are weak and very weak motivated because material and non-material benefits are reduced, so there is no incentive to increase efficiency and to motivate them to become more involved in their work.

The possibility of promotion is another way to motivate employees, their incentive to permanently overcome their limits in order to have access to higher stages in terms of hierarchy. Promoting employee stimulate lifelong learning need, their willingness to carry on as best to meet the standards set by the superiors. According to the employees of local police, the opportunities for promotion are restricted, limited. Thus, to encourage the development of skills, knowledge, employers can choose to promote those who show good results in the work. In this way professional development should be stimulated and could increase the quality of local police activities.

In the absence of funds for salaries the local authorities may choos to introduce non-material benefits in the local police services, correlated with physical and mental request of employees. Among the non-material benefits, you can choose to create a pleasant environment, a mechanism for merits / good results recognition of the organization, but also locally, for example in the local newspapers printed and

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distributed to citizens, facilitate access to information on local police profile from other countries (working methods, intervention, information of interest) with access to the Internet and specialized websites etc..

Facilities available to the public service for the current activity is a weak point, requiring matching needs with resources. The funds allocated for the purchase of material goods should take into account the growing demands, the need to make effective investment that will generate long-term positive effects. This service requires intervention vehicles, increasing its share of fuel allocated to allow staff intervention required in all cases, better facilities for training space that have specialized equipment, space for business use of arms, to practice skill.

Employees feel the need for training activities. For continuous improvement of performance, one element is the permanent training of employees through profesional training activities to update knowledge and to adapt them to the current working environment. Local police service can make international exchanges, which may result in sharing knowledge, working methods and efficiency of the public service.

It can also be performed a series of training courses both at the local police level and at the central level (Ministry of Internal Affairs), aimed at both updating of knowledge on law framework, theoretical information and practical knowledge on new intervention methods, information about specific weapons, training methods, etc.

Another relevant problem in the local police on motivating employees, encouraging them, is the system of performance indicators that could be placed in the service.

During the discussions with several employees form the local police we found out that such a system would be useful, considering that this idea would be beneficial. Among the proposals we can mention: promotion based on merit, bonus wages based on results (for example, "to be paid by results", "to differentiate salary").

Takeing this into consideration, a number of dependable performance indicators can be created (developed) in order to facilitate evaluation of the employees quality work and of quality services offered to citizens by this service. But nowadays, it would be difficult to implement such a system because is based mainly on the database that records requests, complaints from citizens. This register is one of the weaknesses of the local police service. This registry is currently done mainly on paper.

We believe that in this public service is appropriate to have a computer system used to implement electronic record into its operations.

This system, based on a specialized software is designed to continuously monitor the activities developed, its efficiency through real-time view of historical data (for example, if there are other requests in the past

for the same person-employee, what was its' nature?, etc.). It also facilitates electronic record setting performance indicators for both the service itself and the activities developed by employees (degree of public satisfaction, response time for complaints, referrals, employee efficiency, the average number of complaints handled by each employee, etc).

In this way it would increase the efficiency of public service and its employees, which could lead to a long-term wage growth, it would enhance the public service image at local level, it could become a model of good practice for other institutions and public services at local level, etc.

To implement this system, European funds could be attracted by the Sectoral Operational Programme Increase of Economic Competitiveness (SOP IEC), Priority 3: Information and Communication Technology for the private and public sectors, Key Area of Intervention 3.1 - Support the use of information technology (Operation 2: Support for local authorities to achieve broadband networks and public access points to broadband Internet (PAPI) in areas of market failure (rural and small urban areas in terms of access).

CONCLUSIONS

Finally, we consider that a closer look at the essence of public service shows that the establishment of local police brings major benefits both locally and nationally, in the fight against generators of crime factors. Clear division, jointly evaluated and taken on responsibilities of defending public order and safety between related authorities to ensure that it makes and that will prove beneficial effects over time.

The year 2010 was one of the most significant in reorganization of the defense system of local police and, today, the local police institution is indeed a guarantor of social security by the contribution they make to its prosperity. It remains to be seen the direction it will follow once we will overcome the difficult national and international times we are living for several years now.

Our politicians have made positive forecasts, especially considering the fact that the evolution of the Community Police to the Local Police could be achieved in such adverse conditions.

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INVOLVEMENT OF NGOS IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

IMPLICAREA ONG-URILOR ÎN SOCIETATEA CONTEMPORANĂ

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Abstract
This paper examines the activities and roles of NGOs in order to determine their place in contemporary society. The first part of the paper outlines the criteria for definition and classification of NGOs. The second part of the paper provides an analysis of NGO evolution and development throughout history focusing on their influence and role in the world. In the end, the author concludes that NGOs represent a citizens' initiative in order to solve community problems and their involvement in society requires time and resources.

***Keywords*:** explosion of NGOs, civil society development, democratic consolidation, NGOs-agents of change, community problem solving

JEL CODES: L30, L31, L44

Rezumat
Această lucrare analizează activitățile și rolurile ONG-urilor în scopul determinării locului ocupat de acestea în societatea contemporană. Prima parte a lucrării prezintă criteriile de definire și clasificare a ONG-urilor. A doua parte a lucrării realizează o analiză a evoluției și dezvoltării ONG-urilor de-a lungul istoriei cu accent pe influența și rolul lor în lume. În final, autorul ajunge la concluzia că ONG-urile reprezintă o inițiativă a cetățenilor cu scopul de a rezolva problemele comunității, iar implicarea lor în societate necesită timp și resurse.

Cuvinte cheie: explozia ONG-urilor, dezvoltarea societăţii civile, consolidare democratică, ONG-urile – agenţi ai schimbării, rezolvarea problemelor comunităţii.

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1. OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this paper is a survey on the nongovernmental sector taking into account its increasingly important role over the past decades which makes it a distinctive sector within civil society.

To accomplish the purpose, the following objectives were established:

- Presentation of the definitions and classification of non-governmental organizations;
- Analysis of the non-governmental sector development;
- Description of the spectrum of NGO activities

The contribution of this paper consists in summarising definitions, classifications as well as developments in the field and in providing an analysis of the spectrum of NGO activities.

The data collection method used in this descriptive, qualitative and exploratory study was the document analysis method. In this regard, the paper is focused on the study of a range of publications relating to the NGO sector which provide both theoretical and practical insights of relevance to researchers.

2. DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

Currently, there are many nongovernmental organizations operating worldwide, with major differences from country to country as regards their structure and position in society. (Bagci, 2007). Therefore, it is difficult to formulate a precise and commonly accepted definition at global level.

According to some authors and literature studies, the definition of an NGO should be based on several criteria. In this regard, Dreesmann (1987) believes that any NGO should be autonomous and not dependent on the state and its funds. This does not mean that NGOs could not receive public funds. They could receive funds from public sources, but it is important that the state should not interfere in their activities. The author also specifies two other criteria: they should be not for profit organizations and two thirds of their funds should be obtained through voluntary contributions.

Other authors (Edwards and Hulme, 1992; Moore, 1993) consider that NGOs have four essential characteristics that distinguish them from other civil society organizations: voluntary, dependent, non-profit, self-serving.

The World Bank's Operational Directive on NGOs no 1470 defines NGOs as private organizations dedicated to promoting the interests of the poor, protecting the environment, providing basic social services, developing communities (Fischer, 2006).

According to Official Development Assistance (1990), NGOs are voluntary organizations serving community interests locally, nationally and internationally. Moore (1993) considers that these organizations are essential vehicles of democracy and key elements for the success of civil society. Frantz (1987) defines them as formal organizational structures that arise when people constitute themselves into a social unit and pursue an explicit objective. They formulate rules governing the relations between their members as well as their obligations. Korten (1991) argues that NGOs are the earliest form of human organization arising before the establishment of governments. Furthermore, Banks and Hulme (2012) believe that the failure of the state in certain fields between 1970 and 1980 fueled interest in NGOs as an alternative to development, focused on solving community problems and providing services. Lewis and Kanji (2009) state that these organizations have emerged due to philanthropic tradition and helpfulness.

An important issue in defining NGOs is that in many countries the concept of NGOs is considered synonymous with the concept of civil society (Frantz, 1987). However, the concept of civil society has a wider scope. There is no commonly accepted definition of the concept of civil society in communities or in academic debate. Civil society is the arena of collective voluntary actions grouped around interests, goals and shared values, an intermediate space between the state and family populated by organizations that are separate from the state and have autonomy (Buzec, 2007).

With respect to nongovernmental organizations classification, it is very difficult to distinguish between different types of NGOs because the boundaries between them are vague. Therefore, a single - standard typology of NGOs does not exist. Taking into account the definitions of different authors in literature, we cannot say that NGOs could be seen as one class of organization. (Hailu Senbeta, 2003). Probably the only way to analyse the organizations of this sector is the study of a small sample and massive repetition of the study on other small samples by taking into account their similar characteristics.

It is also important to mention that the same NGO may evolve to a great extent during its life, for example from a volunteer based organization to a professional staff organization successful in attracting additional funding from private donors and governments (Sooryamoorthy and Gangrade, 2001; Wood, 1997).

Additionally, non-governmental organizations vary depending on the following criteria: size and scope, structure, role, funding, origin, membership forms, motivations, values, religious orientation, their use of volunteers or professionals, and their relationships to governments and donors etc.

Therefore, in terms of size, they could be small or large; in terms of organizing they could be formal or informal, bureaucratic or flexible. Other difference regards the funding: some of them are externally funded receiving funds from donors, while others are based on locally mobilized resources. The literature makes also a distinction between “Northern NGO” and “Southern NGO”. The former concerns the

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organizations that originate in the industrialized countries, and the former refers to organizations that operate in underdeveloped areas (Lewis, 2009). Another distinction regards the membership forms of NGO. On the one hand there are community-based organizations or people's organizations, and on the other hand intermediary forms of NGO also called grassroots support organizations. As regards resources, some NGOs are rich while others struggle to survive from one year to another (Lewis and Kanji, 2009).

Some NGOs have permanent well-trained staff and low level of volunteering, while others have a high rate of volunteering or rely almost entirely on volunteers (USAID, 2009).

With respect to motivations and values, some NGOs are paternalistic, trying to respond quickly to people's problems (Brown and Kalegaonkar, 2002), while others promote a radical approach to problems and identify solutions having long term effects. However, it is sometimes possible that one single organization incorporate all these features (Lewis and Kanji, 2009).

Gauri and Fruttero (2003) highlight two accounts of NGO motivation: a so-called "opportunistic" one and a "benevolent" one. The former aims to maximize funding through grants and contracts. The latter is aimed at reducing poverty and improving living conditions for people with disabilities. Therefore, NGOs could be classified into benevolent and pragmatic. If they choose to perform in poor areas, they should pay attention because the risk of failure is very high, putting in danger the flow of funds from donors.

According to Clark (1991), most researchers have concluded that there are six categories of NGOs: relief and welfare agencies, technical innovation organizations, public service contractors, popular development organizations, grass-roots development organizations and advocacy groups and networks. Unfortunately, this classification does not allow differentiation of NGOs depending on functions, ownership and scale of operations.

In 1996, Salamon and Helmut developed the International Classification of Non-profit Organizations by taking into account the third sector organizations in different countries. By means of this classification they proposed a series of criteria that should be taken into account when categorizing NGOs from all levels. The system put forward by Salamon and Helmut identified 12 major activity groups by using economic activity as a key for selection: culture and recreation, education and research, health, social services, environment, development and housing, law, advocacy and politics, philanthropic intermediaries and voluntarism promotion, international, religion, business and professional associations, unions, not elsewhere classified.

According to Hailu Senbeta (2003), this classification has both advantages and disadvantages: provides a clear separation of organizations depending on their non-economic activities, but fails to make a clear difference between them depending on their goals.

Another significant classification is made by Union of International Associations which maintains a database on international civil society since 1948: international non-governmental organizations and inter-governmental organizations (Union of International Associations, 2012). This classification is certainly different from that made by Salamon and Helmut, focusing on the size instead of type (Hailu Senbeta, 2003).

Stromquist and Monkman (2000) consider that NGOs are a heterogeneous set of institutions that operate in different sectors and addresses different target groups. Therefore, they can be divided into the following categories depending on their field of activity: grass-roots operations involved in social actions; non-profit businesses run by professionals who provide jobs in order to integrate people with disabilities into the labour market; locally-based institutions using the resources of those involved in their activities; and international entities with large budgets built from grants and contracts from governments and various international organizations (Ginsburg, 1998).

Eade and Ernst (2001) show another classification system, namely International Standard Industrial Classification's. However, this classification excludes the vast majority of NGOs involved in various support activities: half NGOs receiving funds from governments as well as advocacy NGOs, whose number has increased dramatically in recent years due to the growing number of projects aimed at building and strengthening support organizations.

According to Willetts (2002), NGOs can be divided into two groups: operational and advocacy NGOs. The former attract resources through donations from various companies and foundations, grants, contracts from governments, volunteers' labour in order to support their projects and programs. This process requires a complex organization, as well as time and expertise to prepare the applications. Generally speaking, the latter have the same functions as the operational NGOs, aiming to raise funds, but at a smaller scale. They are more interested in organizing large events in order to attract favourable publicity rather than raise funds, as well as the mobilization of a small number of people in a short period of time in order to involve them in the organization's activities.

Another classification system is the General Industrial Classification of Economic Activities being used in the EU since 1970 in order to classify economic activities. This classification system is also flawed because it excludes organizations that receive money from governments as well as grass-root

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organizations which are subsumed under other community services (European Commission Eurostat, 2011; Hailu Senbeta, 2003).

One of the richest classification systems is considered the National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities developed by National Center for Charitable Statistics (n.d.) in collaboration with many non-profit organizations. The system classifies non-governmental organizations in two categories: „the product or field in which the entity is engaged and what they do in that field" (Hailu Senbeta, 2003).

Although they are different due to the variety of NGOs, all these classifications are important and can be used to facilitate, if necessary, meetings and consultations between the third sector organizations and academics, governments, industries, etc. for planning future work.

3. ESTABLISHMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE NGO SECTOR

Throughout history, two categories of actors have distinguished within the society: the state and civil society. Due to this model, the society was divided into two sectors: public and private sector. This differentiation has become outdated with the passage of time. In modern societies there is a new distinction: a profit-oriented sector and another one, not for profit, called the non-governmental sector or the third sector (Hințea and Marton, 2003; Păceșilă, 2014).

The first non-governmental organizations have emerged in the nineteenth century in industrialized countries, being involved in charitable or philanthropic activities. The first organization was the Anti-Slavery Society set up in 1839 followed by the Red Cross and Caritas (Young and Dhanda, 2013).

After World War II, Western European governments have recognized the importance of the NGO sector in ensuring democratic consolidation and expansion. Therefore, they began to create a uniform legal framework in order to reduce state influence on this sector and to bring more transparency on its organizations' activities.

The role of NGOs in society has grown tremendously in the past few decades due to their increasing involvement in population welfare activities. Over time, they began to operate in fields where governments had no mechanisms for handling problems. The importance of the work done by NGOs has been recognized both in developed countries and in developing ones. Subsequently, the welfare and philanthropy activities have been complemented by actions involving the transformation of existing structures, democratization and strengthening civil society. In other words, NGOs have become organizations working for structural change in the society (Bagci, 2007).

The decolonization of African societies in the 1960s led to a change in addressing the poverty issues: reduce the causes rather than the consequences of poverty. The armed conflicts that ravaged the countries during the 1970s and 1980s (Vietnam, Angola, Palestine) led the European NGOs to act as mediators in order to support informal diplomacy. In addition, in the mid-1980s, the World Bank found that NGOs were more efficient and less corrupt than typical government channels (Berthoud, 2001).

The history of NGO movements is marked by several stages. The first stage was the solidarity movement which led to important political changes in Poland in the 1980s. Another stage is represented by the impact of environmental activists on the Summit held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. The latest stage reference is represented by the anti-globalization and environmental organizations who have protested against the World Trade Organization (WTO) meeting in Seattle in 1999 (McGann & Johnstone, 2006).

NGO involvement in social, economic, political and environmental issues turned them into key actors of society which promote the change. They could be the solution to the collapse of traditional structures and the failure of governments in some fields. Moreover, in democratic societies citizens have the right to freedom of association. The exercise of this right leads to the emergence of political religious, artistic, sporting, commercial organizations, etc, which operate within society and mobilize resources in order to produce wealth and improve the quality of life (Korten, 1990; Bagci, 2007).

In the 1980s, the recognition of the essential role of civil society in the civic and political development of countries increases the importance of non-governmental sector. In this context, people consider that NGOs, the expression of citizens' freedom of association, contribute to bridging the opportunity gap between the advantaged and the disadvantaged people in the society. Furthermore, another authors (Bebbington and Farrigon, 1992; Bebbington and Thiele, 1993) considers that not only social activities contribute to the growing importance of NGOs, but also military activities, especially in developing countries.

According to Edwards and Hulme (1992, 1996) NGOs are considered an important channel for social welfare, poverty alleviation and development of civil society at the end of the Cold War in 1989. The explosion of NGOs is also related to reducing the role of the state in the economy. Taking into account their effectiveness in reducing poverty, the states increasingly support NGOs in providing services in sectors where government intervention is not enough. Moreover, many NGOs operate in fields which were previously the exclusive jurisdiction of the state, such as education and health (Gideon, 1996).

The increasing global influence of NGOs is an important phenomenon with implications on the development perspectives of poor people, on the future of these organizations and on the economy in which they operates (Bagci, 2007). However, while the governments of many developing countries are

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seeking ways to encourage the NGOs activities, others are suspicious about their role as agents of change. According to Williams (1990) the growth of NGOs is often a dilemma for the state, especially in the societies where voluntary associations have not played a formative role and the state has had a predominant role in all areas. Other governments insist on their political sovereign right to act as guards in relation to organizations operating in their territory and agencies from the outside world.

4. THE CURRENT SPECTRUM OF NGO ACTIVITIES AND ROLES

In the current societies NGOs became more of a necessity than a luxury. The 20th century history has demonstrated quite convincingly that the welfare state is unable to provide welfare, economic and civil society development. The shortcomings of the state and the disadvantages of the market system have spurred citizens around the world to create civil society organizations - NGOs - in order to solve society's problems. Currently, a wide range of non-governmental organizations could be found in democratic societies having social, political, cultural, civil, sportive, religious, business or recreational purpose. Taking into account the multitude of needs and the inability of governments to meet them due to globalization and economic constraints, the activities and the role of NGOs has expanded.

In the report elaborated by the Commonwealth Foundation (1994) NGOs activities are grouped into two categories:

Care and welfare	**Change and Development**
Service and delivery	Welfare organisations
Mobilizing resources	Development organisations
Research and innovation	Environmental organisations
Human resource development	Indigenous people's organisations
Public information	Women's organisations
	Youth organisations
	Human right organisations
	Environmental groups
	Income generating projects
	Job creation programmes
	Children organisations
	Disabilities organisations
	Workers organisations

NGO Activities in Modern World
Source: Commonwealth Foundation (1994).

In the current societies NGOs fulfill a range of roles:

- Give citizens the opportunity to work together in order to promote social values and civic goals important to them. The NGOs are involved in various fields (Burlacu, 2011) such as health, education, rural and urban development, environment, population, social welfare, job creation, skills training, economic development, peace and human rights as well as the informal sector. (Commonwealth Foundation, 1994). In all these fields, NGOs have tried to explore new policies and practices for a better understanding and awareness of social, economic, environmental problems and other things. (Bagci, 2007)..
- Represent a unique and essential space between for profit and the government sector. The private enterprise produces private goods and services while the government is focusing on the provision of public goods and services. Most government expenditures are allocated for large projects such as dams, hospitals, schools, etc. In general, the governments do not conduct income-generating activities and rarely make investments that generate employment opportunities. Therefore, NGOs have turned into an alternative sector (Uphoff, 1995; Korten, 1990), the third sector. The non-profit and non-governmental sector contributes to the satisfaction of the community needs, ensuring a balance between the state and the free market. At the same time, NGOs can build partnerships between the three sectors that should rely on the unique strengths of each sector in order to contribute to the common good (Heintz, 2006).
- Enable social change by taking into account the challenges that public and private sectors do not focus. NGOs are able to take risks that are economically unacceptable for the private sector and politically unacceptable for the government (Drabek, 1987; Simmons, 1998). In fact, the level of organizational flexibility has a major influence on its ability to adapt and respond to changes (Moldoveanu and Dobrin, 2012) and to take risks.

  In modern societies around the world, many services currently considered that best practices have been designed, tested and improved by NGOs over many years. In addition, advocacy campaigns conducted by NGOs determine governments to adopt political reforms and improve the legislative framework for business environment (Baitenman, 1990). The NGO sector also allows establishing a healthy balance between the potential excesses of capitalism and the lack of adequate state resources (Heintz, 2006).
- Have an important role in ensuring compliance with the fundamental values: human rights, democracy and the rule of law. In the context of the failure of conventional development models and of the emphasis on the role of the individual in the development process, the NGO sector

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becomes an agent of democracy and development. (Bayat, 1996; Heintz, 2006). In recent decades, NGOs have taken a more active role in setting the agenda and in elaborating and implementing public policies (Porter and Brown, 2000). Civil society participation in the decision making process strengthens the democratic system because the key component of a democracy is public participation.

- Use existing resources more efficiently than public institutions and mobilize additional resources. The rapid growth in number of NGOs has not been accompanied by an increase in the quality of work performed, leading to many problems with regard to responsibility. The increase in NGO number and in their fields of application needs for sustainable financing mechanisms. The answer to the apparently limited resources could be the identification of new modalities for mobilizing resources or the development of new modalities for increasing them (Commonwealth Foundation, 1994).

According to Edwards şi Hulme (1995), NGOs have three roles in society:

- Preferred channel for delivering services
- Vehicles for democratization and essential components of civil society
- Effective vehicles for achieving economic and political objectives

Uphoff (1995) argues that there are two general categories of NGOs according to their role in society:

- NGOs involved in supporting development initiatives. They are the expression of the free will of social groups and try to build a collective society where every individual becomes a citizen.
- NGOs having some degree of institutionalization. They are the expression of social movements as well as of civil society's capacity to organize itself in different historical epochs.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The involvement of NGOs in contemporary societies were investigated in this paper by studying different researches in the field. This paper attempted a qualitative research in order to identify the definitions and classifications of non-governmental organizations, to analyze the establishment and development of the NGO sector and to describe the current spectrum of NGO activities and role.

The emergence of NGOs is not an accident, but a response to voluntary action of citizens in order to solve community problems. They should not be regarded only as organizations providing services or as vehicles of development and democratization. Their dynamics should be understood as a consequence of the

process of economic, social and political development. The explosion of NGOs should not be separated from the trends and changes that have occurred in different fields on local, national and global level.

In contemporary societies, the involvement of NGOs in different fields requires significant time commitment and substantial financial resources. In these circumstances, it is necessary that NGOs should focus on creating and nurturing relationships through building local, regional, national and international coalitions, creating partnerships with the for-profit and governmental sector as well as increasing dialogue and exchange of information with public institutions.

Another priority should be attracting human resources by organizing campaigns in order to raise public awareness on the role of NGOs in a democratic society and the importance of volunteering.

Although NGOs are everywhere and have access to different types of resources due to the complex mixture consisting of alliances and rivalries, businesses and charities, conservatives and radicals (Young and Dhanda, 2013), it is recommended that they focus on identifying new fundraising formulas and practices.

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VIOLENCE IN THE HEALTH SECTOR AND SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS IN ROMANIA

VIOLENŢA ÎN SECTORUL DE SĂNĂTATE ŞI ORGANIZAŢIILE SOCIALE DIN ROMÂNIA

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Abstract
In Romania violence in the health sector is a matter of great interest among researchers and a constant concern of authorities. In 2012, Law no. 212/13 November 2012 was released, in order to supplement Law no. 95/2006 on health reform. Thus, in this paper we propose a typology of violence occurring in health organizations in Romania and the focus on a certain number of considerations concerning the meaning of violence, conflict management, management methods to eliminate conflicts, recognition of merit etc.

***Keywords*:** violence, health sector, conflict management

JEL CODES: I18, I12, I13

Rezumat
În România violența din domeniul sanitar reprezintă o temă de un real interes atât în rândul cercetătorilor dar mai ales în rândul autorităților. În noiembrie 2012, a fost publicată Legea nr. 212 din 13 noiembrie 2012 pentru completarea Legii nr. 95/2006 privind reforma în domeniul sănătății. Studiul care stă la baza articolului îmbină metodele de cercetare clasice precum studiul bibliografic al literaturii de specialitate românești și internaționale, statisticile puse la dispoziție de instituțiile specialitate românești (de exemplu Institutul National de Statistica din Romania) observația sociologica, documentarea la fața locului si interviul cu personalul din organizații sociale din România cu metode moderne precum chestionarul electronic si analize de corpusuri documentare utilizând software-uri specializate. În prezenta lucrare propunem o tipologie a violenței întâlnită în organizațiile sanitare din România si aducem in atenție o serie de considerații personale privind sentimentul de violenta, gestiunea conflictelor, metode manageriale de eliminare a conflictelor, recunoașterea meritelor.

Cuvinte cheie: sectorul sanitar, violență, managementul conflictelor

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. National social welfare system Romania

According to Art. 1 Law no. 292/2011 - Act social assistance, National Social Assistance System Romania is the set of Institutions, measures and actions by means of which the State, represented by the Central authorities and local and civil society, intervenes to prevent, mitigate or eliminating temporary effects or permanent situations lead to poverty and social exclusion a person, a family, groups or communities.

The National System Social assistance is subsidiary or, where appropriate, supplementary social security systems and consists of:

- System aid benefits social and
- System services social.

Social assistance, by measures and specific actions aimed at build capacity individual, group or Collective to accommodate social, improve the quality of life and promote Cohesion principles and social inclusion.

- The welfare benefits and social services are governed by special laws such as: Law no. 515/2003, which was approved by with amendments the OUG no 68/2003.
- The OUG no. 86/2004, approved with amendments by Law no. 488/2004.

The National Social Assistance System Romania is based on values and general principles following (PR, 2011):

- *social solidarity* - that the whole community participate in support people requiring vulnerable assistance and protection measures social for overcome situations difficult to ensure social inclusion this population.
- *subsidiarity* - if the person or family cannot ensuring their social needs while the community involved Local and his associative structures and, additionally, the State;
- *universality* - all the world have the right social assistance, as provided by law;
- *respect human dignity* - for each person is guaranteed the free and full development personality, are respected individual status and Social and the right Privacy in and protection against all physical abuse, mental, intellectual, political or economic;

- *individual approach* - according to which measures welfare must be adapted the particular situation of life of each individual; this principle takes into account nature and cause of Emergencies which may affect individual skills, physical fitness and mental and the level of integration social of the individual; support to the individual situation difficulty also includes support measures addressed to Member from the family of the beneficiary;
- *partnership* - under which the authorities central and local government, public and private institutions, NGOs (nongovernmental organizations) recognized religious institutions by law, and community members establish common goals, work together to mobilize all resources to verify the conditions decent living and worthy for people Vulnerable;
- *the participation of beneficiaries* - beneficiaries participate in the formulation and the implementation of policies with an impact Direct them to the realization of individualized programs of social support and are actively involved in community life through forms Association directly or by activities volunteers performed to benefit people Vulnerable;
- *the transparency guaranteeing* - increasing responsibility for administration local and central public to citizens and promotes the participation active beneficiaries in the process of decision making;
- *non-discrimination* - the vulnerable receive measures and actions from social protection without restriction or preference race, nationality, ethnic origin, language, religion, social status, opinion, sex or orientation sex, age, political affiliation, disability, non-contagious chronic illness, HIV infection or belonging to a disadvantaged category;
- *effectiveness* - the use of public resources which takes into account the completion of art goals for each activity and obtaining the best result compared to the projected effect;
- *efficiency* - using Resource Public is based on respect for the -benefice best cost;
- concerning the right to self-determination, everyone has the right to make their own choices, regardless of social values, ensuring that not threatening the legitimate rights or interests other;
- *activation* - measures welfare intended as a final goal to encourage employment with the goal of integration / social reintegration and increasing the quality of human life, and to strengthen family unity;
- *the uniqueness of entitled to benefits social assistance* - that for same social risk situations or needs may be granted one benefit the same type;

- *proximity* - services are organized as close to the recipient, to facilitate access and maintenance of the person as much as possible in their own living environment;
- *complementarity and an approach integrated* - according to which, to ensure the full potential of social functioning of somebody as full member of the family, community and society, social services must relate to all the needs of beneficiaries and provided that integrated with a wide range of measures and services in economic, educational, health, cultural, etc.
- *competition and competitiveness* - service providers' public social and private, must preoccupy constantly to increase quality of services provided and receive equal treatment in the market social services;
- *equal opportunities* - the beneficiaries, without any discrimination, have equal access the possibilities of personal fulfilment and development, but also at steps and actions social protection;
- *privacy* - for privacy, beneficiaries are entitled confidentiality of personal data and relative information Privacy in and the difficulty in which they found;
- *fairness* - everyone that have Resource socioeconomic Similar, for the same types of needs, enjoy rights social equal;
- *focus* - benefits welfare and social services are for people the most vulnerable and are granted depending on their income and their assets;
- *The right to free choice of supplier* - that the beneficiary or his legal representative have the right free choice between providers accredited.

In the sense of laws social Romania, Words and expressions below have the following meanings (PR, 2011):

- *Social Inquiry* is a method of investigation based on various techniques collection and data processing in order to analyses the economic and social status individuals, families, groups or communities;
- *The social assistance* benefits are measures of financial redistribution / Hardware for persons or family who meet the conditions eligibility prescribed by law;
- *The standard cost* is annual expenditure minimum needed for provision of social services, calculated for a beneficiary / types of social services in accordance with standards minimum

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quality and / Or other established criteria by the law. The equivalent term used in legislation current is the minimum standard Cost;

- *The vulnerable group* - means the individuals or families at risk losing their ability to meet needs every day because of illness, disability, poverty, drugs or alcohol or other situations that lead to economic and social vulnerability;
- *Professional career* - is a qualified person, certified professional which provides care Personal or help to perform activities basic and instrumental everyday by the person who lost operational autonomy;
- *Caregiver* (informal) - is an unqualified person, family member, relative or any other person provides personal care or help to perform activities basic and instrumental everyday by the person who lost operational autonomy;
- *Customized help and the care plan* - is a detailed document by a multidisciplinary team with the participation Recipient / his legal representative, setting out the services the beneficiary;
- *Livelihoods tests* - potential beneficiaries of social services is the assessment procedure income and movable and immovable property belonging to the person or family to cover consumption requirements thereof;
- *Domestic violence* - refers to any physical or verbal action, committed intentionally by a Member of the family against another Member of the same family causing damage physical, psychological, sexual or equipment.

1.2. Social Service System in Romania

In Romania, social service system is coordinated by the Ministry of Labor, Family and Equal Opportunities. According Romanian legislation (OUG no. 68/2003 on social services) on social services system covering "the complex of measures and actions required to meet social needs the individual, family or group to prevent and overcome difficult situations, vulnerability and dependence, to preserve the autonomy and protection, to avoid marginalization and social exclusion, to promote inclusion social and to improve the quality of life".

In Romania, the national system rethink social services began in 2003 with the OUG no. 68/2003 on social services approved by Law no. 515/2004 and modified by the OUG no. 86/2004 and by Law no. 448/2004. The law aimed at regulating organization national system Social Services a unitary manner.

In developing the legal framework we had probably in mind the search for solutions the problems identified in the analysis of the existing situation at that time, namely:

1. Define the role of the State service development social. The general opinion at the time considered the role of State would encourage and organize Implementation and social services promote participation civil society in the creation and maintaining services social.
2. The need to create social services accessible all citizens through diversification Social Services to cover most categories identified beneficiaries, facilitating access to existing services and the development of effective social services and quality.

In addition, new regulations, social service providers became responsible for:

- promoting partnerships with NGOs, recognized religious institutions Romania and others representatives of the company civil;
- Development and management of social services, according to local needs and the organization and financial support support services social;
- Development, according to legal framework, agreements to provide services social (MMFPS, 2012).

Probably due of regulations made in 2003, five years later, in 2008, all suppliers social services only 8% were local authorities. This could be explained fragmentation responsibilities in this area, the lack of financial and human resources capacity implementation insufficient or lack of planning.

Over the past 10 years Romania has risen sharply number of private service providers social that have been implicated in local communities. Currently, 86% of all NGOs provide social services, either alone or in public-private partnership with local authorities, who hold the majority buildings (NWRDA, 2008).

In 2014, again regulations were published in the field of social services so that, as OG no. 18/2014 and pursuant to Article 35 of the Act no. 197/2012, all suppliers social services must submit applications Accreditation for the issuance of accreditation certificate as supplier social services and License operating from service granted until 31 December 2015, although accreditation decisions Prisoners apply until 2016.

1.3. How are defined the social services in the vision of the Romanian state?

According to Art. 27 Law no. 292/2011, Social services are defined as the activity or group of activities to meet social needs, and the special needs of the individual, family or group to overcome the situations

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are difficult to prevent and fight against the risk Exclusion social to promote social inclusion and improve quality of life.

Social services are of general interest and are organized in the form / structures different, depending on the specific the activity / corporate activities and particular needs of each category of beneficiaries. (NAPSI, 2015).

The classification of services social is done on the basis of following criteria (Romanian Parliament, 2011):

a) The purpose of the service;

b) The Categories recipients to whom they are addressed;

c) The assistance system, respectively, the system residential or non-residential;

d) The place the issuance;

e) The statute Legal Provider social services;

f) Allocation system.

a. Depending on their end, the social services can be classified as: assistance services and support to ensure the needs fundamentals of the individual, personal care services, recovery / rehabilitation, insertion / Reintegration social, etc.

b. According to categories of beneficiaries, social services can be classified into social services Children and / or families, for the disabled, the elderly, victims of domestic violence, homeless people, people with different addictions, such as alcohol, drugs, other toxic substances, internet, games, etc., persons victims of human trafficking, prisoners, persons sanctioned by an educational measure or non-custodial sentence under supervision from probation service, people with mental illness, people in isolated communities, long-term unemployed and social services Support for caregivers of beneficiaries.

c. According to the support system, social services are:

c1. Hosting services, or fixed period indeterminate: centers residential, social housing, homeless shelters etc.

c2. Services without accommodation: nursing home day centers and / or units home care, soup kitchens, mobile services providing food, social ambulance etc.

d. Depending on the place of supply, social services are insured:

d1. Residence the beneficiary;

d2. In centers care day;

d3. In the centers residential;

d4. Residence of the person providing the service;

d5. The community.

e. According to the legal plan provider, social services can be organized as public or private structures.

e1 public providers of social services.

- Specialized structures within / subordinated to local public authorities and executive authorities of the administrative-territorial units organized at town level city of Bucharest municipality and municipality sectors;
- The authorities of the central public administration and other institutions subordinated or coordinated by them that the law establishes responsibilities on providing social services for certain categories of beneficiaries;
- Health facilities, schools and other public institutions that develop, at Community level, integrated social services.

e2 private providers of social services.

- Non-governmental organizations (associations and foundations in the field of social assistance);
- Religious cults recognized by law;
- Persons authorized by law;
- Subsidiaries and branch associations and foundations recognized in accordance with international law;
- Economic operators, under specific conditions prescribed by law.

All the social services Romania are recorded in an electronic register. The register single electronic service providers' social is managed by the National Agency for Payments and Inspection social. Are suppliers Certified for a period of 3 years or, where applicable, the period of provision of social services, if less than 3 years.

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1.4. Distribution Social Services Romania

In terms of regional distribution social services Romania distribution is not uniform, and the southern regions South West are clearly trolling, with the fewer services.

TABLE 1. REGIONAL BREAKDOWN OF TYPES OF SOCIAL SERVICES

Area	NE	SE	S	SV	V	NV	C	BI
Number of social services	152	126	56	52	127	128	153	92

Source: MMFES, 2015

There is also large differences social services in rural areas and urban areas: 482 local authorities in urban areas, against 167 in rural areas and 2224 in urban NGOs against 107 in rural areas.

TABLE 2 - DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIAL SERVICES IN COUNTIES DEVELOPMENT OF THE REGION

Type of provider / county	BH	BN	CJ	MM	SJ	SM
Associations	**18**	**7**	**29**	**10**	**15**	**13**
Foundations	**31**	**2**	**24**	**7**	**10**	**5**
Public services	**3**	**4**	**7**	**3**	**44**	**5**
Religious worship	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**13**	**-**
Healthcare Services	**5**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**1**	**-**
Other	**-**	**-**	**3**	**-**	**-**	**-**
TOTAL County	**57**	**13**	**63**	**20**	**83**	**23**
TOTAL Region	**259**					

Source: MMFES, 2015

Table 3 - INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DISABLED DEVELOPMENT BY REGION

Area	NE	SE	S	SV	V	NV	C	B
Number of institutions	24	14	24	18	18	18	21	10
Number of people institutionalized	3362	1837	3262	1544	1730	2175	2720	1240

Source: NAPSI, 2015

2. THE KNOWLEDGE ON STAGE THE PHENOMENON VIOLENCE AND DEFINED STUDIED IN LITERATURE SPECIALTY

2.1. Defining violence

For the purpose Organization World Health, violence is the threat or the intentional use of force Physical or power against oneself, against another or against a group or community, involving or threatening to involve injury, death, psychological effects, hardship or illness. The inclusion of the term "power" and the phrase "use of physical force", broadens the nature of the violent act and the conventional definition of the violence as acts violence resulting from power relationship, including threats and bullying (OMS, 2002 p. 5).

Use also of "use of power" allows the inclusion of neglect and acts of omission between acts violent. So, "use physical strength and power "can be understood as including aggression physical, sexual and psychological and suicide or other assaults self-inflicted (MJ-NIC, 2003 p. 2).

In Resolution 1996, the Assembly World Health declared that violence is a problem Major public health, asking the Organization World Health There definition of a typology of violence which will take into account the different types of phenomenon and at the same time, to establish connections between them.

In Romania, the concerns about violence were the horizon Search violence essentially home. A researcher believes that today we can say that violence can be an intentional use physical strength in order to achieve a certain thing, an event strength, power of a person over another individual and a legal perspective, violence involves "Physical integrity of somebody" (Bonea, 2012).

In the narrow sense, violence is the use of force and coercion by an individual, group, social class to impose its will on others (Wikipedia, 2015).

Some researchers approaches the phenomenon of violence in three main directions; perception that all those involved have on the level of violence and its forms, their declared victimization and self-reported violence (Carra et al, 2006)

However, none of above definitions do not seem to fully grasp the shapes and nuances in which can manifest violence now and then I made a presentation of differences between violence, aggression and abuse.

2.2. Differences between violence, aggression, abuse

We review defining Romanian researchers who consider violence means use intentional force physics get a certain thing, an event strength, power of a person over another individual and, in a legal perspective, violence involves "Physical integrity a person" (Bonea, 2012; Rădulescu, 2010).

But aggression is seen as a predominant instinctive action. The recommended rules of behavior in society often require self-control and moderation on the part of the individual. We believe that aggression is characterized by impulsivity and sometimes is hitting with fists or feet, throwing objects, destruction, conflicts, etc. (Brillon, 2010). Some researchers noted in their works that aggression can be felt and manifested in humans as well as animals. As for the people we can speak of an offensive behavior intended to produce different types of suffering (Bonea, 2012; Chelcea and Iluț, 2003). There are also scholars such as Konrad Lorenz, Nobel Laureate in Physiology or Medicine in 1973, which considers that aggression can also have a positive component. The Austrian scholar, considered the founder of modern

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ethology, believes that this component has influenced longest time people have to survive and motivated to change, emphasizing the will of development and progress.

Violence is breach of law, an offense, a crime committed someone exceeding its powers, trickery consisting for embezzlement, alienation or rejection to repay an object assigned Care or for use. Abuse may be, however, an offense which consists in the exercise of a right by ignoring its social purpose and economic. The formation of a boundless thing excess (Academy of the Romanian People's Republic, 1966). Some researchers believe that abuse implies a clear intention to harm someone (Bonea, 2012), to cause him suffering physical, mental, economic, social or sexual.

Another form of abuse, essentially specific to the business environment, is abuse of power and abuse of service. This guy abuse is characterized by the intentional use of a situation service by a public person, for his material interest or other personal interests, if it caused considerable damage to the public interest or rights and interests' legitimate individuals or legal persons (NAC, 2013).

In regards to abuse in the professional environment in legislation romaine we can identify three Types abuse:

a) Abuse of rights - can be defined as the exercise of a law against its economic purpose and social. According Romanian legislation the citizens are held to exercise their civil rights in strict accordance with their order socio-economic and taking into account rules of coexistence.

b) Breach of trust - can to be considered as an offense committed by one who has unjustly or refuses to hand a movable thing entrusted to him (as warehouse, office, pledge, lease, etc.) with the obligation to make.

c) Abuse service - may be considered an offense which consists of breach by an employee its service tasks if the violation produced damages serious public interest or interests legal citizens.

2.3. Typology violence

The typology of violence proposed by Organization World Health 2002 divides violence into three categories, corresponding to the characteristics of those who commit violent acts:

1. The *Self-Inflicted Violence*, which is divided into suicidal behavior and violence self-inflicted (The first category suicidal thoughts, suicide attempts also called Parasuicidal, Completed Suicides; the second category includes acts such as Self-mutilation);
2. *Violence Interpersonal* - which, in most case is in the form of domestic violence or child abuse and violence against her husband or abuse of it.

3. *Collective Violence* is subdivided into:

3.1. Has the *Economic Violence* - attacks by certain groups that have motivation Gain economic, disruption of economic activity, denying access to essential services;

3.2. *Violence Social* - crimes committed by organized groups, terrorist acts, violence crowds;

3.3. *Political Violence* - is usually found during wars or some violent conflicts related, but also in antisocial acts such as rape committed during the conflict and war physical and psychological;

3.4. *Community Violence* - may include physical aggression between young people, sexual violence in the Workplace and neglect the elderly in care facilities.

2.4. The intra-group violence

Literature not defines explicitly Forms in which violence can be manifested because in under an Action produced violent us can find various forms of protest. Although, OMS divided violence according to its authors into three broad categories, there are views who consider that violence produced between persons do not belong to the same family, called generically violence intra-group, where n can identify a variety of events such as: violence aggression, punishment of violence, physical violence, psychological violence, emotional abuse, economic abuse, sexual abuse (Ropotică, 2007 apud Bonea 2012 p. 23).

- *Violence Aggression* - occurs between two people are in a relationship equal force, and involves the exchange of blows. Such violence is bidirectional, and each has a moose in public. He can take place between people on the the same hierarchical level or different hierarchical levels. In the second situation, people on a lower hierarchical level act as the equals of others.
- *Violence Punishment* - is present when there is a relationship of inequality between people. Its name comes from the fact that by its very nature, appears as a punishment, penalty, abuse, torture. A variant of this type of punishment with violence symmetry latent which has the characteristic that one of the people involved, one that supports the act of violence, acts of resistance. Although the balance of power is different, the victim is opposed by attacking in a chaotic manner and inconsistent.
- *Physical Abuse* - is one of the most common forms of violence, focusing on physical strength.
- *Psychological Violence* - the use of a language which harms the development of the personality of a person.

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- *Emotional Abuse* - is the emergence of the state of fear in a way that the attacker can dominate the victim.
- *Violence Emotional* - that can occur when a person seeks to undermine the personality of another person. It is materialized by systematically bring insults to the person that generate feelings of inferiority and handling.
- *Verbal Abuse* - is a form of abusive behavior, using the language. The demarcation between violence verbal and emotional abuse is made quite difficult, usually, depending on the context.
- *Violence Economic* - is considered by some authors as a form of violence psychological characterized by the creation of a state of financial dependency of the victim. The aggressor is the one who decides how to spend money in the family. Such violence is also in situations not allowing the victim to have a job, a job or carry out other activities. Thus, the victim may be completely financially dependent on the abuser, because it has no access to money.
- *Incest or Sexual Abuse* - the victim is required to maintain a "sexual intercourse against her will."
- *Institutional Violence* - can occur when an institution denies the fundamental rights of some of its members; when violence is institutionalized, it becomes part of the culture and accepted by society.

3. METHODOLOGY INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

For a comprehensive analysis of manifestation of violence in the health sector and organizations providing social services in Romania we combine the art quantitative research methods with qualitative research; we will use mainly survey sociological by research methods specific such as questionnaires, interview, discussion group, secondary data analysis. A proposed model questionnaire is available on www.chestionare.ase.ro. There electronic platform is installed, configured and managed by me as a CMS dedicated.

Secondly, we propose that following research can confirm or refute some of the factors which theoretically can promote violence, such as:

- Different interests and different activities of the members of the organization;
- Strong emotional involvement in the completion of tasks;
- Individual interests contradictory to the interests of the group;
- The differences between the members of the organization regarding the age and sex;
- Discrepancy between the role from each holder and opportunities and personal interests;
- Increasing the degree of privacy in the workplace;

- Sense of belonging involuntarily to organizational members;
- The inherent occurrence of stress due to cycles socioeconomic which permeates the organization;
- Tolerance towards violence and its realization by the punishment of the young generations of the organization;
- Emergence of conflict situations.

We also try to validate or invalidate the theory of the wheel of power and control, developed by Dutton Donald G. and Andrew Starzomski (Bonea, 2012). According to this theory violence occurs through the "eight rays":

1. emotional abuse;
2. bullying;
3. the blackmail ;
4. isolation;
5. the blame;
6. denial ;
7. economic abuse;
8. Threat and coercion.

We also offer further develop research to identify mechanisms and effective ways to fight against violence. We can check whether the means theoretical following used to combat violence re found in practice or if they can be successfully tackled:

1. Meetings formal and informal.
2. Events organized by organizations.
3. Internal publications of the institution.
4. Publications outside the institution.
5. Online Media: Web page of the institution.
6. Press conference.

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France. The article summarized the issues presented and debated in international colloquium " Violences au sein des organisations du secteur sanitaire et social" in the period 13 to 15 may 2015 held in Arras, France.

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SOCIAL NETWORK USE IN ROMANIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: BIG CITIES, SMALL STEPS

UTILIZAREA REŢELELOR SOCIALE ÎN ADMINISTRAŢIA PUBLICĂ DIN ROMÂNIA. ORAŞE MARI, PAŞI MICI

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Abstract
Public institutions are more and more required to use the new communication paradigm brought by the so-called web 2.0, in which a big role is played by social networks. In this paper, we analyzed the Facebook accounts of the Romanian Counties Capital Cities, plus those of the 6 Bucharest Sectors. We have also tried to gauge the importance that these cities give to e-government, using as a proxy the number of people reserved in the organizational chart for the IT department. Our findings show that all of the cities taken into account use a Facebook account, but the new communication paradigm requested by this new media actor is not yet well understood. This could be also linked to the relatively low priority given to ICTs and to e-government development.

***Keywords*:** social networks, e-government, Facebook, local government.

JEL CODES: D73, H1, O33, H7, Z18

Rezumat
Administrația publică este din ce în ce mai presată să înțeleagă și să utilizeze noua paradigmă de comunicare adusă de dezvoltarea așa-numitului web 2.0, în care o parte esențială e reprezentată de rețelele sociale.
În această lucrare, am analizat conturile de Facebook ale primăriilor reședințelor de județ din România, plus primăriile celor 6 sectoare ale capitalei și Primăria generală București. Am încercat de asemenea să evaluăm importanța pe care aceste orașe o acordă e-guvernării, folosind pentru asta numărul de oameni angajați in departamentele de IT din fiecare primărie.
Rezultatele ne arată că cele mai multe primării folosesc Facebook, dar noul stil de comunicare folosit de aceste rețele de socializare nu este încă în general înțeles corect. Acest lucru poate fi legat și de prioritatea scăzută acordată utilizării noilor tehnologii în toate primăriile analizate.

Cuvinte cheie: rețele sociale, e-guvernare, Facebook, administrație publică locală.

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1. INTRODUCTION

E-government services are increasingly seen, even in Romania, as part of the public institution's raison d'etre. More than half of Romanians use the internet on a regularly basis, and most of the new connections to the internet are made from mobile devices (smartphones and tablets). Being able to interact with public administration from anywhere and with ease is something that people (especially young people) expect. This is particularly evident in big cities, where over 70% of people use the internet.

This trend of demanding more and better services is intertwined with changes in media consumption patterns. More and more people use social media as one of the most important (if not the most important) source of information. Aside from that, social media sites offer something that the traditional media could not provide: easy two-way interaction and constant updating. The old media paradigm of one-to-many is blown away by hundreds of millions of users, connected through a bewilderingly complex network, many of them plugged-in round the clock.

Public administration institutions are expected to take part in this global discussion. The advantages are evident: increase unmediated contact with citizens, greater visibility for government projects, and quick response in case of emergencies. But seizing these benefits requires a paradigm shift in the way public institution communicate with the public.

In this paper, we analyzed the Facebook accounts of the Romanian Counties Capital Cities, plus those of the 6 Bucharest Sectors. We have also tried to gauge the importance that these cities give to e-government, using as a proxy the number of people reserved in the organizational chart for the IT department.

Our findings show that all of the cities taken into account use a Facebook account, but the new communication paradigm requested by this new media actor is not yet well understood. This could be also linked to the relatively low priority given to ICTs and to e-government development.

2. THE INTERNET AND THE CHANGE IN COMMUNICATION PATTERNS

At the time we write this article, more than 3.2 billion people are using the internet on a regular basis (Telecommunication Development Bureau, 2015). Of these, over 2 billion are using social media (Kemp, 2015). These numbers will surely be out of date by the time this article is published. Internet and social media user growth rate shows little signs of slowing, at least for now.

This applies to Romania, too. The number of Romanians using the internet grew to over 11 million, meaning 56.3% of the population. There are over 8 million Romanian users on Facebook (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2015).

These numbers are part of a story. It is a story of the gulf that is widening between the ways in which governments are used to communicate with the citizens and the way the increasingly connected citizens expect to get information from these institutions.

This paradigm is changing with great speed, especially after the advent of the so-called web 2.0. In the first decade and a half of internet life, the webpages created were used for little more than static display of information. The public institutions were relatively quick to colonize this new medium of information, partly because they wanted to be seen as modern and up-to-date, partly because the paradigm was little different than what they were used to. One-to-many communication was already part of the public institutions day-to-day operation.

Beginning around 2005, the internet began to rapidly change its offering. The way in which users were using the internet went through a paradigm shift. New sites, which were not based on simply displaying information, but leveraged collaboration and the creation of various types of social networks grew exponentially. These sites were very diverse in subject and purpose, but they relied on one common commodity: the users were the main providers of content (blogs, wikis, Flickr), goods (eBay), friends (Facebook), relevance (Google PageRank), feedback and reputation (eBay, TripAdvisor), storing capacity and file transfer (P2P) or connectivity and computing power (Wi-Fi sharing, fold-at-home) (Osimo, 2008). All these were reunited under the somewhat vaguely defined term of web 2.0. They changed the way we interact with the internet. If we take a look at the global top 30 most visited sites, they are either search engines or web 2.0 sites (social networks, wikis, cloud service providers, blogging platforms, or online shops).

The information mix that users put together to stay informed has changed rapidly over the last few years. More and more people get a lot or a majority of information online. Moreover, social networks, and especially Facebook and Twitter are becoming an important news source for their users (Associated Press-NORC Center for Public Affairs Research, 2015) (in Romania Twitter is not that popular, so the go-to site remains Facebook).

3. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION REACTION

With the user preferences changing, those that can adjust better to their habits stand to gain. The fight is for the user's attention, and as such, those that want to reach the public must adapt. Public administration

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institutions are no exception. They are trying to use the new media instruments to reach their "clients": the citizens, and are doing this by using one of two methods: creating colaborative networks of their own or using the existing social sites.

The advantage of the first method is that the rules of the game can be decided by the public institution, specifically for the intended purpose. One example is the online consultations for the new Iceland Constitution (Landemore, 2015). The main disadvantage is that people are now very eager to be part of yet another social network, especially when it is organized and administrated by public institutions.

The other way in which public administration keeps in contact with the public is through the established social networks (Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn). The main advantages are the number of users already involved (scale does matter in this cases) and the fact that these people already spend a lot on time, on average, on these sites and are used to comment, get involved in discussions and voice their opinion (Urs, 2015). The main problems are not linked to the number of people involved – in the majority of developed countries, more than 50% of people have Facebook accounts (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2015), not even technological, but cultural, administrative and organizational. The administrative authority of a public institution is not automatically transferred to an official Facebook account, but it must be build and maintained over time (McNutt, 2014).

Despite these obstacles, public administration institutions all over the world try to harness the power of social networks to their needs, and they do this for two main reasons: they have a duty to communicate with the public, and social networks are just a new tool (albeit with different modus operandi), and if they are not trying to set the agenda, others will do so, and they will be forced to play just a "fireman" role, always responding to crises as they appear and develop, having less influence on how a story evolves.

4. THE CASE OF ROMANIA

Romanian public institutions are just beginning to learn how to use these new tools in their interaction with the public. The rules of the game, which are different than those employed by traditional media (newspapers, press agencies, radio, and TV stations), are not well understood. We can tell this just by witnessing the arguments between institutions (for example, between the Presidency and the Prime Minister Office), which are conducted in the open, through their Facebook accounts. Another such improper use is using a social media account as the primary official communication channel. This not only excludes all those that are not part of that social network (and the majority of those that are, because the computer algorithms that govern what pieces of information a user receives are not transparent), but also

look unprofessional (if the message uses the colloquial style suited for social networks) or stiff and out of touch (if the style used is a more official-sounding one).

If we look at the categorization proposed by Mergel and Bretschneider, public administration institutions usually go through three stages in their implementation of social networks in their communication mix. In the first one, public institutions or even individual public servants experiment with the new technologies or networks, usually outside the approved communication policies. The second stage proves the need to create and agree upon rules and regulation for the use of these new communication tools, to put order into the often unruly experimentations. The third phase sees the creation of dedicated departments, the implementation of rules and clear procedures, and the fading of these communication technologies into the background noise of day-to-day operation (Mergel & Bretschneider, 2013).

According to Eurostat, 61.7% of Romanians used the internet In the last year, and 44% on Romanians use the internet to take part in social networks (of which over 41% have a Facebook account). If we look at the way the government takes advantage of the increasing number of people online, we see that only 11% of Romanians had any online interaction with public administration institutions (local or national) in the last 12 months. These lack of progress can also be linked to the fact that Romania takes one of the last places in the rankings on all 6 items quantified by the UE in e-government development (connectivity, human capital, internet use, integration of digital technology, digital public services, and R&D). Reaching out to these frequent internet users through social media could increase the use of existing online government services and spur the development of new ones.

5. METHODOLOGY

Despite some isolated efforts at educating public servants in this field, the general perception is that Romanian public administration institutions are still mostly struggling when it comes to use social media in an appropriate way. To test this perception, we have analyzed the Facebook accounts of the Romanian county seats, plus the Bucharest City Hall and the City Halls of the capital's 6 sectors. We also wanted to ascertain in a way the importance that the municipalities to the employment of ITC in the back-office. As a proxy for this, we measured the number of people employed by the ITC Department).

We chose Facebook because over 8.3 million Romanians use this social network (Facebrands.ro, 2015) and because the others social networks are not as widely used: LinkedIn, mainly used for professional networking is less suited to the bidirectional communication needed by public institutions; Twitter has no big following in Romania – around 370,000 open accounts, but only about a tenth are maintained.

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The data were collected between January 1st 2014 and March 30th 2015 (454 days). We started in our analysis with 48 city halls, but in the end we gathered data only for 34 among them. The reasons for this wee manifold: some of them had no Facebook page (Brăila, Buftea, Buzău, Călărași, Focșani, Miercurea Ciuc, Satu Mare, and Vaslui), they had very few or no posts - very few meaning under 5 posts (Bistrița, Pitești, Sectorul 5, Slobozia, and Suceava), their page was created too late for our research (Zalău, in July 2015), or we could not find out the number of people in their IT Department (Drobeta Turnu Severin). We should also note that, from these 34 Facebook pages, 7 of them are not institutional, but fan pages of the mayors, used instead of a city hall page – Andrei Chiliman (Bucharest sector 1), Ciprian Prisăcaru (Târgoviște), Cristian Popescu Piedone (Sectorul 4), Emil Boc (Cluj-Napoca), Iulian Bădescu (Ploiești), Nicolae Robu (Timișoara), Robert Negoiță (Bucharest sector 3). The data were collected using the software FacePager, cleaned in Google Refine, and interpreted with the help of Microsoft Excel and Tableau Desktop.

The following categories of information were analyzed: the number of posts, the type of message, the content, number of likes, number of shares, number of comments, and total number of likes/fans of the page.

6. FINDINGS

We found that the way in which public administration institutions use their Facebook account varies widely, and the success of their interactions is also very different from one city hall to another. The next chart shows the number of posts in the 454 days for each account that had more than 100 posts in this interval (just over half of them):

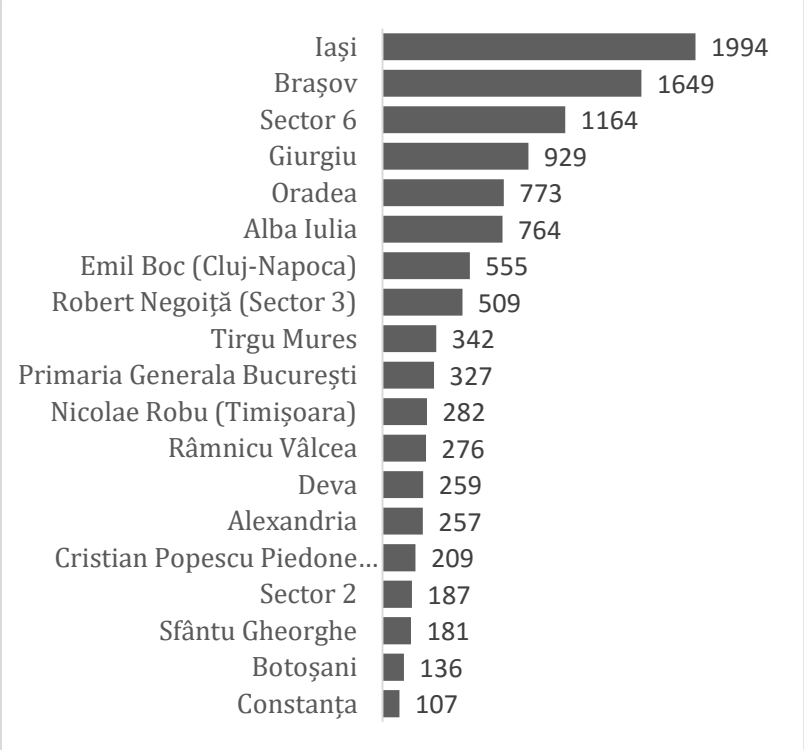


FIGURE 1 – NUMBER OF POSTS
Source: The Author

If we look at the number of likes/fans each page has, we can see that the first 4 places are all fan pages of the mayors, used as official accounts of the institutions. It seems that people on Facebook like to communicate not just with an organization, but with a person they can relate to.

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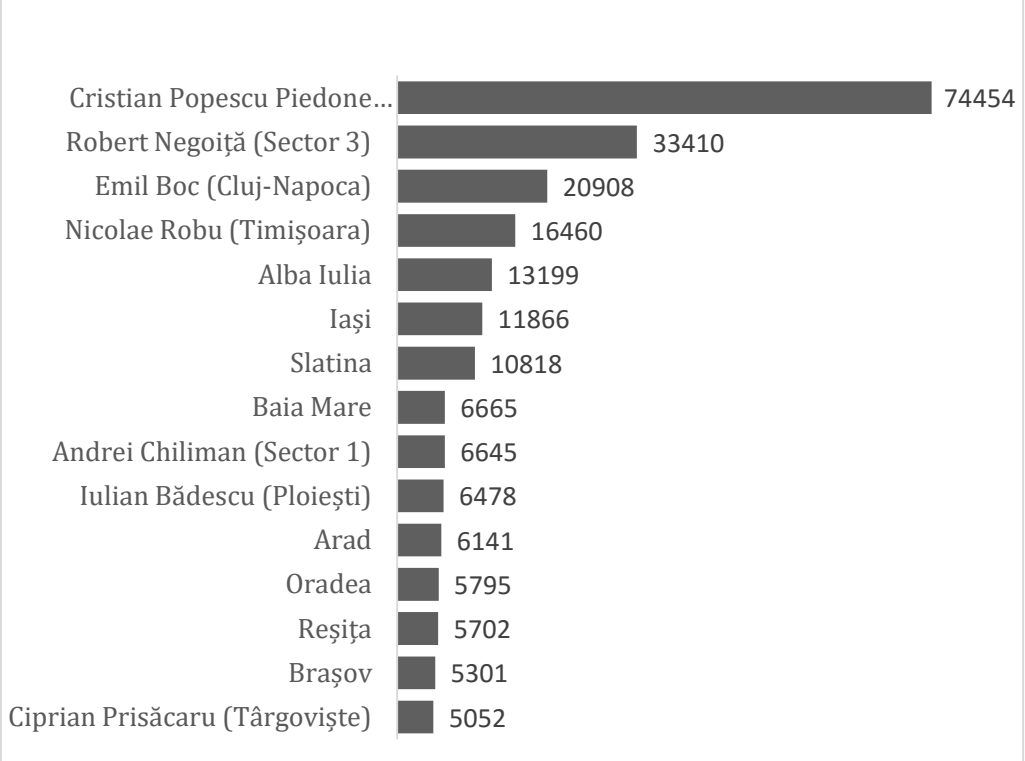


FIGURE 2 – NUMBER OF LIKES/FANS
Source: The Author

We wanted to see how successful their communication is, and, in social media, this is measured by the number of people involved in conversation, which act, in a way, as the messengers (they spread the message far and wide, to their network of friends and followers). If we look just at the number of such interactions per post (likes, comments, shares), we can see that Cristian Popescu Piedone had by far the biggest such number.

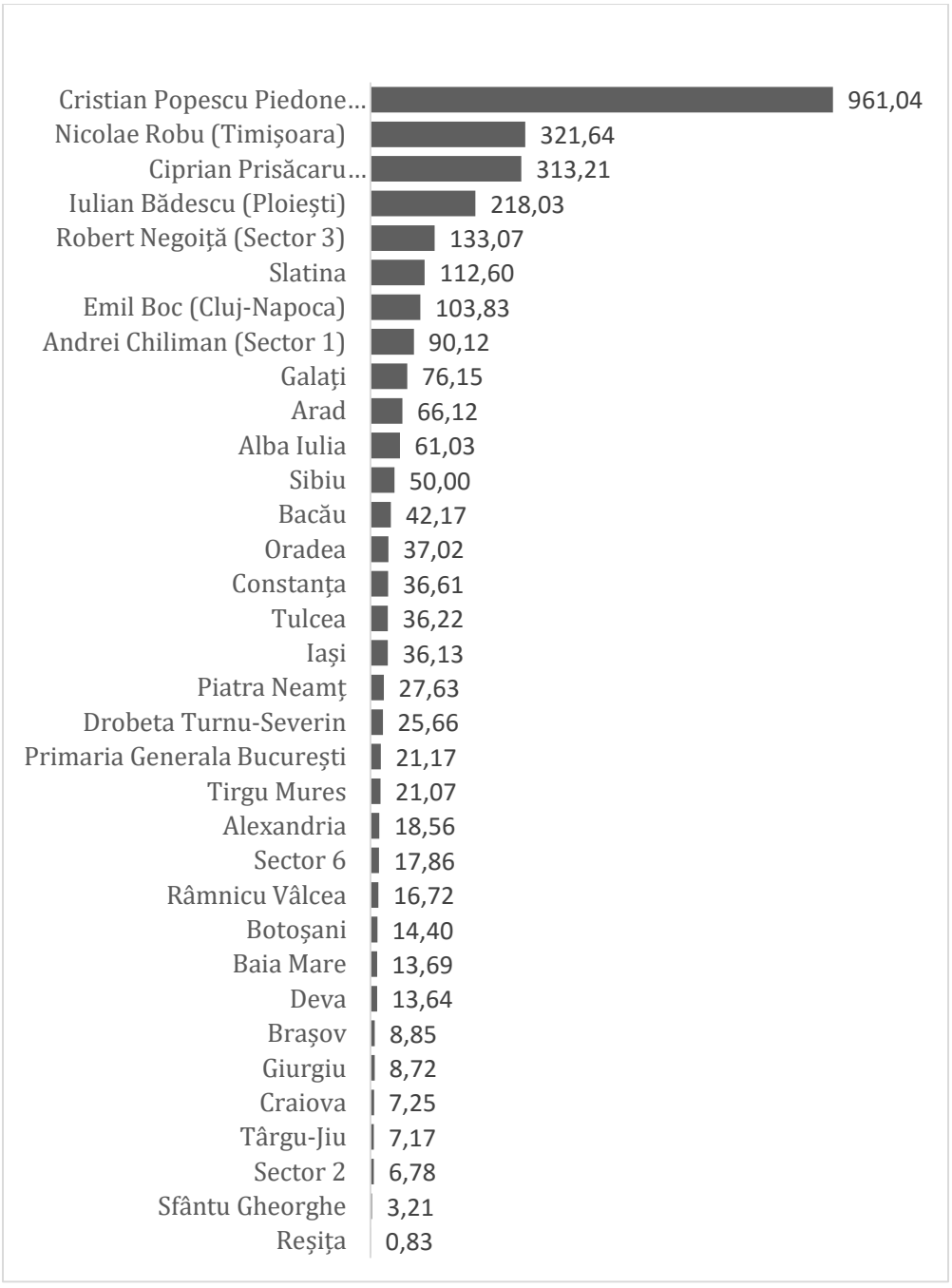


FIGURE 3 – INTERACTION RATE
Source: The Author

The instrument used by most researchers when studying the success of Facebook communication is the engagement rate. This is represented by the total number of interactions (Likes, Comments and Shares) per number of followers or fans. A score of 1 is generally considered a good result, one over 0.5 gets a

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passing grade (Leander, 2015). We have eliminated from this ranking the pages that had a low number of posts (under 100).

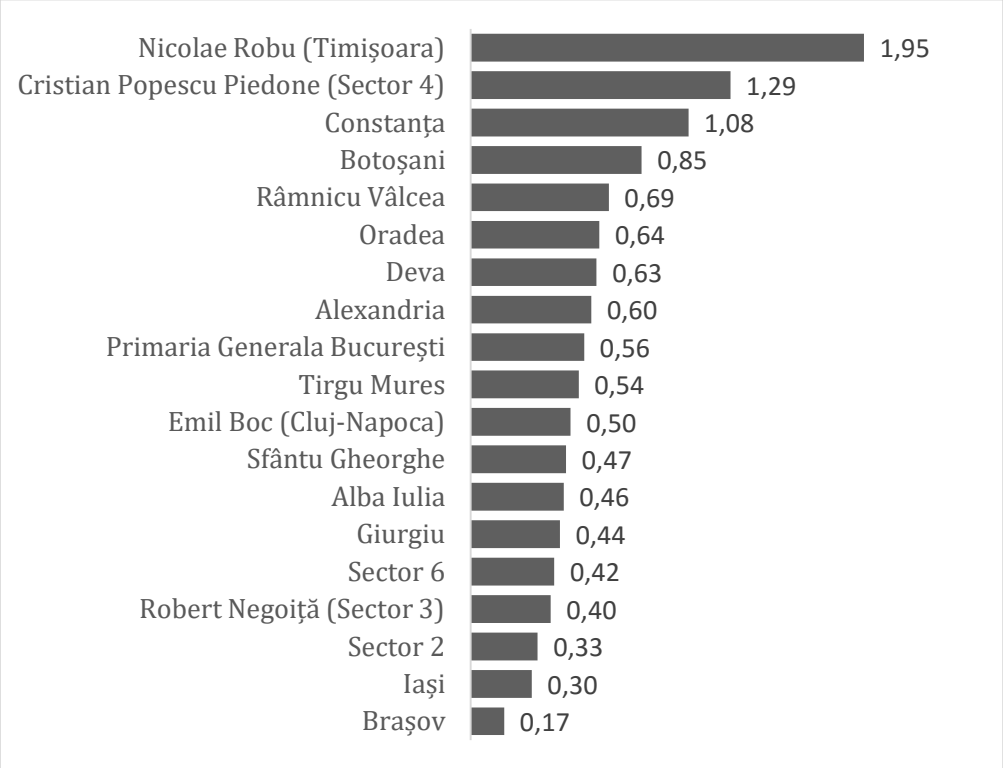


FIGURE 4 – ENGAGEMENT RATE
Source: The Author

It seems that only three pages pass the test for what is considered a good engagement rate.

There are a number of interesting numbers in our results (for example, Cristian Popescu Piedone had a very loyal following, even if he did not post that often – on average once every two days) or that Iași, despite posting on average more than 4 posts a day did not seems to find the know how to engage it's followers).

We wanted to find out how important ICTs are for these municipalities. As such, we scrutinized their organizational charts to find how many people their ICT department employs and what percentage they represent from the total number of personnel.

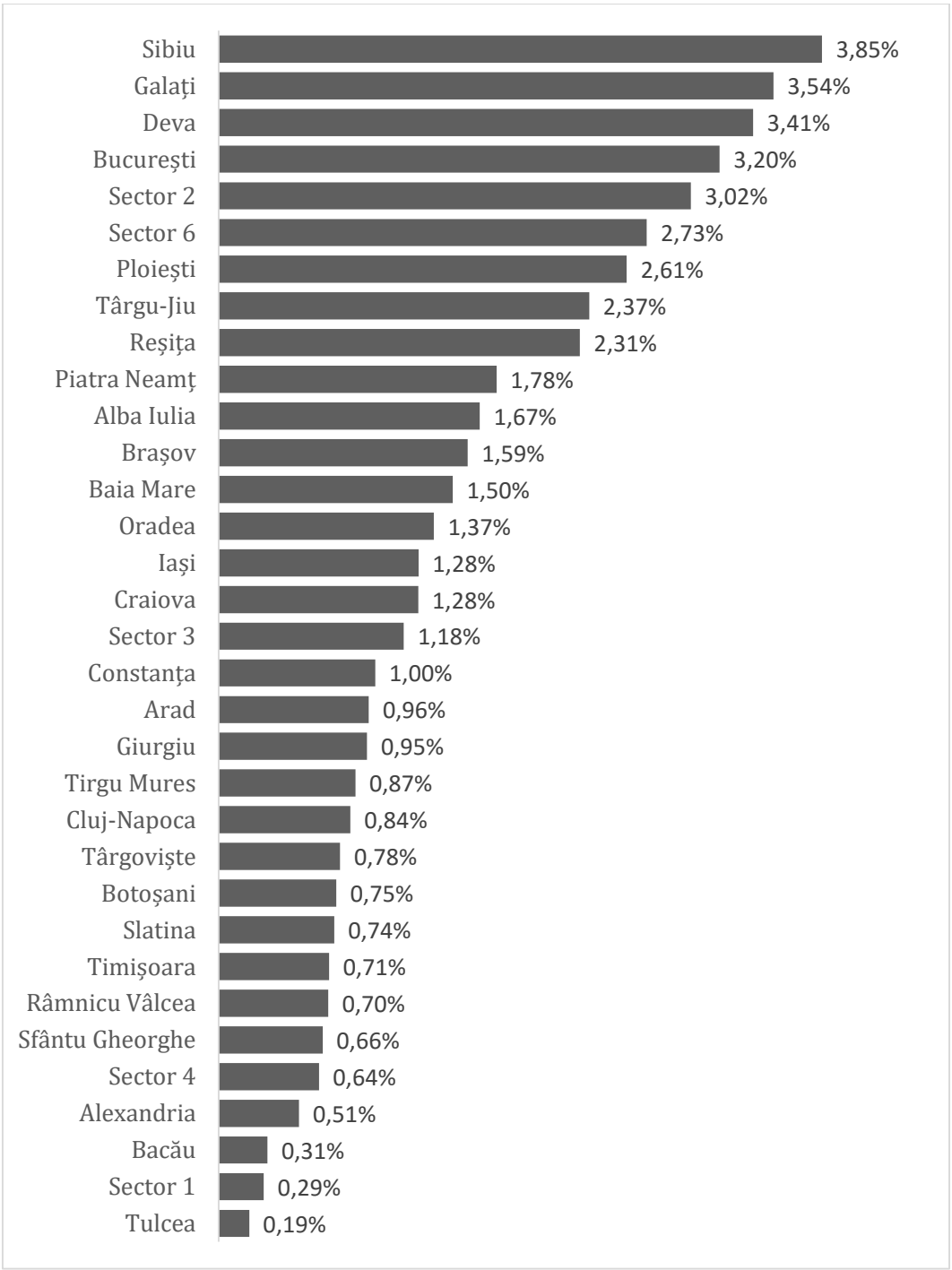


FIGURE 5 – EMPLOYEES IN ICT (%)
Source: The Author

The results varied from municipality to municipality, with the winner appearing to be Sibiu (the ICT department has, on paper, 17 staff). The problem is that, after talking with the head of this department,

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we found out that only 9 of the 17 positions are occupied. The same situation can be encountered in other city halls (Cluj-Napoca has 8 people, on paper, but only 4 people are actually hired). This part of the dataset is thus flawed, but it helps in painting an even bleaker picture of the importance given to ICT in the Romanian city halls.

It seems to be no correlation between the percent of people in city halls employed by the ICT departments and the success of their Facebook presence, and the probable answer is that the Facebook account (or fan page) is usually maintained by the people in the communication department of the institution.

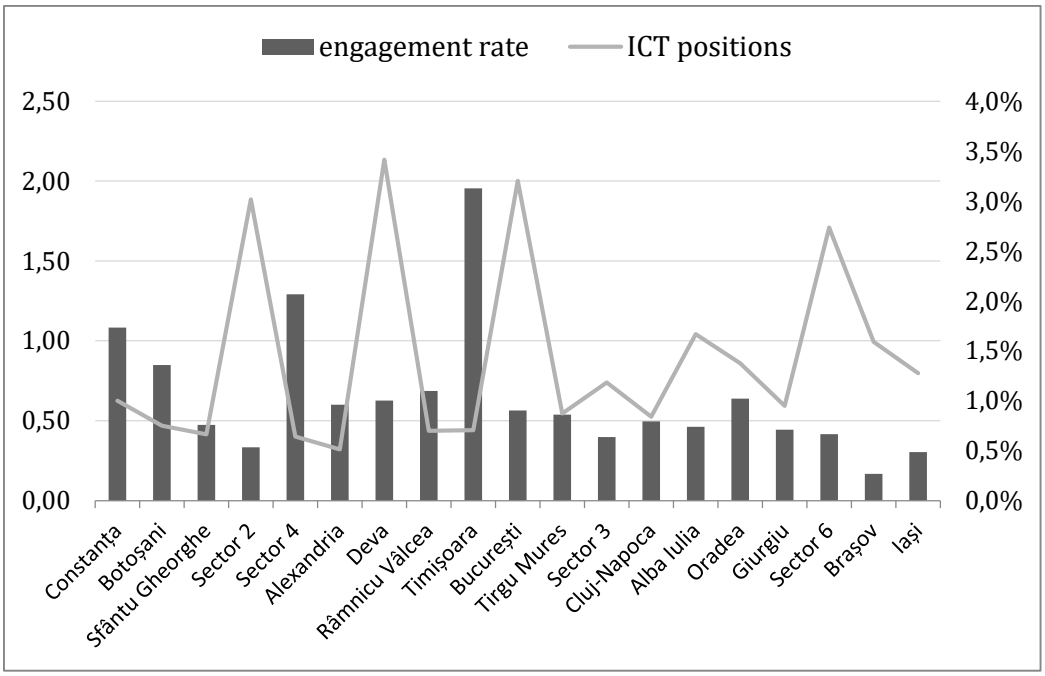


FIGURE 6 – COMPARISON BETWEEN ICT EMPLOYEES AND ENGAGEMENT RATE
Source: The Author

CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusion of this research is that the vast majority of the county seats city halls still have a lot to learn on how to take advantage of social networks to engage the citizens. The potential for real communication between public institutions and the citizens exists, but the interest for this varies a lot, depending on the city, but it is usually quite low.

If we look at the fact that the top 2 pages in the engagement ranking and the top 4 pages in interaction rate ranking are fan pages, we can come to a preliminary conclusion that Romanians like to be able to put a face on the public institution (in this case, the mayor being the face of the city hall).

Some pages were more effective than others in stoking dialogue and interactions. A semantical analysis could reveal more about the difference between the pages that were successful and those that were not. Our hypothesis (to be verified in another paper) is that official messages written in a more colloquial tone, from the citizen's perspective or with the point of view of the public taken into account, and sprinkled with a number of personal messages from the mayor is one path to creating an engaged community.

If we should place the use of Facebook in Romanian county seats official (or quasi-official) pages in the categorization offered by Mergel and Bretschneider, they would probably be at the beginning of the second stage: the public servants feel the need to have on official presence in social media, but the rules and regulation for this are not in place yet and the people in charge are not yet fully familiar with the advantages, disadvantages and idiosyncrasies of the new communication medium.

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SHIFTING TO PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN MUNICIPAL PUBLIC UTILITY SERVICES: A BRIEF RECENT HISTORY OF BENCHMARKING IN ROMANIA

Abstract
The use of benchmarking tools for measuring performance in public service delivery (public services audits) correlates with an increased strategic planning capability of municipal governments and a more judicious resource allocation. However, this process is still in an incipient stage in Romania and it is not necessarily internalized by the neither the agencies providing public services (be that public authorities themselves or private service providers), nor by an educated public utility services consumer, but rather it appears as an external, artificial procedure imposed by national legislation or by EU – related targets, where the case.

***Keywords*:** public utilities, performance management, benchmarking, minimum standards, key performance indicators.

JEL CODES: H4, L33

TRECEREA LA MANAGEMENTUL PERFORMANŢEI ÎN SECTORUL UTILITĂŢILOR PUBLICE MUNICIPALE: O SCURTĂ ISTORIE RECENTĂ A BENCHMARKINGULUI ÎN ROMÂNIA

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Rezumat
Utilizarea instrumentelor de tip benchmarking pentru măsurarea performanței în furnizarea de servicii publice (audituri) se corelează cu o capacitate de planificare strategică crescută a guvernelor locale și cu o alocare mai judicioasă a resurselor. Totuși, acest proces este încă într-un stadiu incipient în România și nu este în mod necesar internalizat nici de către furnizorii de servicii publice (fie acestea autorități publice locale sau furnizori privați), nici de către consumatorii de servicii, ci apare mai degrabă ca un proces extern, artificial, impus prin legislația national sau prin raportare la o serie de ținte europene, acolo unde acest lucru se aplică.

Cuvinte cheie: servicii de utilități publice, managementul performanței, benchmarking, standarde minime, indicatori de performanță

1. MODELS AND CHALLENGES IN INTERNALIZING THE BENCHMARKING INSTRUMENT

Use of benchmarking tools for measuring performance in public service delivery (public services audits) correlates with an increased strategic planning capability of municipal governments and a more judicious resource allocation.

Ideally, at the heart of public sector reforms should lie the philosophy of value for (public) money, while the public managers must have incentives to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their organization; in the private sector, such incentives are obvious and they mostly relate to competition/competitiveness on the market and ultimately profit (Cowper and Samuels, 1996). At the same time, the vast majority of public sector services do not operate in a competitive environment (are either natural monopoles or non-competitive markets) and therefore do not experience any intrinsic pressure to improve.

Still, as revealed by the current challenges that the public sector reform encounters in most of EU member states – such as increasing difficulties in financing the public sector, mounting pressures caused by the globalization of most aspects of social and economic life, a natural response to these has been the assimilation of new methods for improving the performance – and benchmarking is part of this strategy (Dahlberg and Statskontoret, 1996).

As the specific literature notes down, there are several classifications of the benchmarking model, based on the type of approach, methods involved and outcomes envisaged for the process. One of the most frequent classifications uses three types of benchmarking:

- Result oriented: leading to overcome performance gaps, improvement and target setting, as well as creating a basis for performance monitoring;
- Process oriented: setting up best practices for the process (in terms of quality, time and cost) and identifies organizational enablers like technology, systems and structures facilitating the process;
- Customer oriented: this type of benchmarking is actually a satisfaction measurement, revealing gaps in perception of customers and agency management and provides basis for improvement leading to higher consumer satisfaction.

However, any of the three classic benchmarking models involves the property of the either the process, the results or the consumer satisfaction outcomes by a distinct agency, voluntarily engaging in this process for any of the reasons mentioned above. Yet, when analyzing the path of institutionalizing

benchmarking for the public utility sector in Romania we can understand first that this process is to some extent an artificial and non-voluntarily one, as it relies most on legislation and imposed standards rather than on a genuine need identified by the public sector to perform better in public service delivery.

2. PATHS TO BENCHMARKING FOR PUBLIC UTILITY SERVICES – ROMANIAN CASE

The broader concept of performance management in relationship to public administration and the decentralization process has been explicitly introduced for the first time in in Romania in 2006, through two main pieces of legislation:

- Law 195/2006 on decentralization;
- Law 273/2006 on local public finances.

Initially, benchmarking, as foeseen by the two pieces of legislation, was focused on the minimal threshold that public services delivered by local governments should not fall under, namely the minimum quality standards and minimum cost standards – normative costs used for determined the quantum of financial resources allocated to local budgets for providing a certain public utility services (currently available in education, social services).

Most prominent achievements in developing tools for strategic planning for local public administration in Romania were included in the National Strategy for Accelerating the Development of Public Utilities Services (Government Decision no. 246/2006). This Strategy introduces for the first time the concept of key performance indicators for monitoring/evaluating the quality of public services delivered by LPAs.

The Strategy provisioned the introduction of urban audit used by Eurostat for providing information and comparable measurement on the different aspects on the quality of urban life in European cities.

Following the adoption of the Strategy, the Government (through the Ministry for Regional Development and Public Administration) has supervised the efforts of developing standardized tools (log-frames) for collecting information from over 3,300 LPAs on quality and cost parameters for local public services, as well as for monitoring implementation of local development strategies. In this context, under the direct supervision of the Ministry, a set of survey instruments have been developed for:

1. Monitoring implementation of local strategies, with a particular focus on general interest services/investments
2. Assessing the quality and costs of general interest services provided by LPAs (water & sewage, sanitation, public lighting, central heating, local public transportation)

3. Both quantitative instruments include pre-defined KPIs that have been developed in consultation with LPAs/sectoral experts in the fields of reference for the targeted sectors.
4. The reporting system is based on a web platform with unique user account for each LPA who is responsible for providing requested data.

Although developed in 2012, the system is still in process of operationalization at the level of LPAs. The reporting is voluntary for the time-being, although the Government is considering mandatory reporting provisions to be stipulated in the legislation.

The module on local public strategies on general interest services includes aspects related to investments objectives, planned financial resources (with a separate evidence for local budgets, state budget transfers, private investments, EU funded projects, loans) and timeline for implementation for a period of 4 years for 6 public services:

1. Transportation: including data on urban infrastructure, dispatchers, equipment, transport terminals
2. Heating: including data on thermal power units, transport and distribution of thermic energy, individual metering systems
3. Sanitation: including data on (selective) waste collection capacities, waste disposal, recycling
4. Water: including data on water intake, water treatment, water transport and distribution
5. Sewage: including data on collecting, transport and evacuation of wastewaters and meteoric waters, treatment & evacuation of muds and other waste
6. Public lighting: including data on infrastructure for transport and distribution of public lighting

The need to further focus on the strategic planning as a key area for improving the quality of the governance at both central and local level is stipulated also by the Strategy for Consolidating Public Administration 2014 - 2020, prepared by the Ministry for Regional Development and Public Administration. However, principles of performance management are still not entirely functional, as the budgeting process is not performance based, but rather inertial, historically based on yearly expenditures and certain central agencies still keep the prerogative of establishing the standard prices especially for public utility services in the fields of energy, transport

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3. RATIONALE FOR USING THE BENCHMARKING INSTRUMENT FOR THE MUNICIPAL PUBLIC UTILITY SECTOR

Datasets collected provide a wide spectrum for horizontal performance assessment in public service delivery performance between municipalities and dynamic self – assessments of performance for a municipality for a given time interval (e.g. a mandate of LPA). Selected KPIs have a large applicability/degree of comparability among different states (some of them deriving from EU Directives requirements), but also provide a solid background for allowing the respective agency (public authority) to undertake decisions with regards to the management of a particular public service based on objective evidences rather than arbitrary circumstances.

Such an approach – pertaining to the results oriented benchmarking model – would definitely mark a turning point in the management of the public utilities services that is performed today at the level of Romanian Municipalities.

4. APPLIED RESEARCH: MODEL KPIS FOR ASSESSING PERFORMANCE OF PUBLIC UTILITY SERVICES

Hereby below are presented some samples of KPIs that can be used for different municipal public utility services in the results – oriented benchmarking approach (author's model).

TABLE 1. Public Transportation

Definition of KPI	Measurement unit	Formula for calculating KPI	Requirement/condition
Ga – population access to public transportation	%	Ga = Ct/N, where: Ct = total capacity of public transportation means N = total no. of inhabitants; de unde sunt formulele	ACCESSIBILITY
Ga1 – degree of access of population to the public transportation system	-	Ga1 = St/Lt, where: St = no. of stations for public transportation means Lt = length of streets	ACCESSIBILITY
Vm – average age of local transportation means	years	Vmt = ΣNmt*Vmt/Nmt, where: Nmt = number of transportation means; Vmt = average age of each mean of public transportation	QUALITY OF SERVICE
Fc – frequency of circulation of transportation means on a given route	%	Fc = Nc/Gc, where Nc = number of routes Gc = number of routes included in circulation graphs	UNIFORMITY

Gacc – degree of accessibility of local public transportation	%	Ns = Nmt*/ Nmt, where: Nmt * = no. of transportation means accessible for persons with special needs/total no. of transportation means	ACCESSIBILITY

TABLE 2. Water supply

Definition of the KPI	Measurement unit	Formula for calculating the KPI	Dimension of the service measured
Ga – level of population access to water supply system	%	Ga = (Na+Nb+Nc)/Nt, where: Na = no. of inhabitants with access to public water supply system through common connecting pipe Nb = no. of inhabitants with access to public water supply system through individual connecting pipe; Nc = no. of inhabitants with access to public water supply system through street pumps; Nt = total no of inhabitants.	ACCESIBILITY
Gpotab – Degree of conformity with water potability requirements 98/83/CE	%	Gpotab = Npc/Npa, where: Npc = no. of compliant samples; Npa = total number of samples analyzed.	QUALITY
Pg – loss of potable water in the public transport and distribution system („un-billed water")	%	Pg = (Qp-Qf)/Qp, where: Qp = quantity of potable water produced (entering the transport and distribution system) in m3/year; Qf = quantity of potable water billed, in m3/year;	EFFICIENCY
Gsatisf – consumer satisfaction	%	Gsatisf = Nrecl/(Na+Nb+Nc), where Nrecl = total number of complaints registered annually; numărul total de reclamaţii înregistrate anual; Na = no. of inhabitants with access to public water supply system through common connecting pipe Nb = no. of inhabitants with access to public water supply system through individual connecting pipe; Nc = no. of inhabitants with access to public water supply system through street pumps	QUALITY
Gcont – meter level	%	Gcont = Nbc/Nb, where: Nbc = total number of metered connecting pipes; Nb = total number of connecting pipes.	EFFECTIVENESS

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Pa – price of potable water (VAT excluded)	lei/m3	Price in local currency	AFFORDABILITY

TABLE 3. Sanitation/Waste management

Definition of the KPI	Measurement unit	Formula for calculating the KPI	Dimension of the service measured
Ga – level of population access to sanitation service	%	Ga = Na/Nt, where: Na = no. of inhabitants/households with individual contracts for sanitation services; Nt = total no. of inhabitants/households	ACCESSIBILITY
Gss – level of municipal street sanitation	% or km	Gss = Nss/Ns, where: Nss = number of streets where waste is collected by the sanitation service Ns = total no. of streets in the municipality (alternatively measured as length)	ACCESSIBILITY
Gc – level of collection of municipal waste	%	Gc = Qc/Qt, where: Qc = quantity of collected municipal waste (in tones); Qt = total estimated quantity of generated municipal waste	QUALITY
Gselect – level of selective collection of waste, per category: paper, plastic, glass, metal	%	Gselect = Qselect/Qc, where: Qselect = quantity of municipal waste collected separately, per category (tones) Qc = overall quantity of municipal waste collected	QUALITY
Grecl – level of recycling of municipal waste collected separately, per category	%	Grecl = Qrecl/Qselect, where: Qrecl = quantity of recycled waste (tones) Qselect = quantity of municipal waste collected separately (per category);	EFFECTIVENESS
Gdepozit – level of storage of municipal waste collected	%	Gdepozit = Qde/Qdc, where: Qde = quantity of municipal waste effectively stored (tones) Qdc = quantity of municipal waste to be stored according to contracts with the LPA	EFFICIENCY
Gsatisf - citizen satisfaction towards the sanitation service	%	Gsatisf = Nrecl/Nt, where: Nrecl = total no. of complaints registered in 1 year Nt = total no. of inhabitants with individual contracts	QUALITY
Csalub – average sanitation cost per capita	Lei/loc	Csalub = Ctot/Nt, where: Ctot = total cost for sanitation, as per contract price per year Nt = total no. of inhabitants	AFFORDABILITY

TABLE 4. Public Lighting

Definition of the KPI	Measurement unit	Formula for calculating the KPI	Dimension of the service measured
Ga – level of access of population to public lighting	%	Ga = Li + Lai/Lt + Lat , where: Li = length of streets equipped with public lighting, in km; Lai = length of alleys equipped with public lighting, in km; Lt = total length of streets, in km Lat = total length of alleys, in km;	ACCESSIBILITY
Gp – continuity of service	%	Gp = ΣDp/T, where: Dp = duration of service provision, in no. of days; T = 365 days	QUALITY
Dîn – average duration of service failure	hours	Dîn = ΣNd/Nîn, where: Nd = no. of hours of service failure per each unscheduled episode Nîn = total number of episodes of service interruption per year, in hours	QUALITY
Gfunct – level of functionality of the public lighting service	lamps	Gfunct = CIn/CIt, where: CIn = number of out-of-order street lamps; CIt = total number of street lamps;	EFFICIENCY
Gsatisf - level of citizen satisfaction	%	Gsatisf = Nrecl/Nt, where: Nrecl = total no. of complaints registered in 1 year; Nt = total no. of inhabitants	QUALITY
Cilum – average cost of public lighting per capita	Lei/loc	Cilum = Ctot/Nt, where Ctot = total cost of public lighting as per contract per year; Nt = total no. of inhabitants	AFFORDABILITY

TABLE 5. Heating

Definition of the KPI	Measurement unit	Formula for calculating the KPI	Dimension of the service measured
Ga – level of access of population to the central heating system	%	Ga = Na/Nt, where: Na = total no. of inhabitants/households connected to the centralized heating system Nt = total no. of inhabitants/households	ACCESSIBILITY
Ga1 – level of access of population to alternative heating solutions (individual central heating systems)	%	Ga1 = Ngc/Ng, where: Ngc = no. of households with individual heating systems; Nt = total no of households	EFFECTIVENESS

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Dterm – duration of service provision	hours/24 h months/year	2.1 Dterm = Hterm/24, where: Hterm = no. of hours of centralized heating provision 2.1 Dterm = Lterm/12, where: Lterm = no. of months during which heating is provided to households	QUALITY
Gutiliz = level of usage of the heating pipe system	No. of users/km of pipe system	Gutiliz = Nutiliz/km pipe system where: Nutiliz = total no. of households connected to the central heating system	EFFICIENCY
Gp = loss of thermal energy in the centralized system	%	Gp = Qp/Qf, where: Qp = quantity of energy produced in the centralized heating system in one year Qc = quantity of energy billed in one year	EFFECTIVENESS
Gpol = level of pollution of the centralized heating system	tCO2/MWh	Gpol = QCO2/QC, where QCO2 = quantity of CO2 emissions; QC = quantity of heating provided	QUALITY
Gsatisf - level of citizen satisfaction	%	Gsatisf = Nrecl/Nt, where Nrecl = total no. of complaints registered in 1 year Nt = total no. of centralized heating system users	QUALITY
Price of giga-calory	lei/gcal		AFFORDABILITY
Gsub = level of subsidy of the price per gigacalory	%	Gsub = Gcalcons/Gcalprod, where Gcalcon = price paid by consumer per giga-calory Gcalplat = price of production per giga-calory	AFFORDABILITY

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SMART SPECIALIZATION STRATEGIES AND EMPOWERING CITIZENS

STRATEGII DE SPECIALIZARE INTELIGENTĂ ŞI ACREDITAREA CETĂŢENILOR

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Abstract

A possible solution of the nowadays challenges of local communities could be the development of the 'smart specialization strategies'. These can be viewed as a mix of modern industrial policy with innovation policies that emphasise a bottom-up approach (the entrepreneurial discovery), transparency (e.g. monitoring and evaluation) and flexibility (e.g. abandon failure programmes). Key encounters remain empowering citizens and identify those activities where new Research & Development and innovation projects will create future domestic capability and interregional comparative advantage. Citizens can participate through organisations representing vulnerable social categories, identifying row models, inspirational personalities and possible new path for social innovation.

***Keywords*:** smart specialization strategies, EU's growth strategy, quadruple helix approach, knowledge triangle, seals of excellence, local communities.

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Rezumat

O posibilă soluție a provocărilor recente ale comunităților locale poate fi dezvoltarea "strategiilor de specializare inteligentă". Acestea pot fi percepute ca o îmbinare a politicii industriale moderne cu politici de inovare care subliniază o abordare verticală de jos în sus (descoperire antreprenorială), transparentă (monitorizare și evaluare) și flexibilitate (abandonarea programelor lipsite de succes). Încercări cheie rămân abilitarea cetățenilor și identificarea acelor activități pentru care noi proiecte de cercetare, dezvoltare și inovare vor crea viitoare capabilități locale și avantaje inter-regionale. Cetățenii pot participa prin intermediul organizațiilor care reprezintă categorii sociale, identificând modele și personalități ce pot inspira și posibile căi pentru inovare socială.

Cuvinte cheie: strategii de specializare inteligentă, strategia europeană de creștere economică, abordarea de cuudruplu helix, triunghiul cunoașterii, trepte către excelență, comunități locale.

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1. STATE OF THE ART

Europe faces a dilemma in respect to its capacity to encourage the private initiative, to transfer the knowledge into marketable products, services or processes and loses far too many talented people. In terms of how the public funds are spent on the main area that are recognized as stimulus for innovation, education, research, favorable fiscal environment, IPRs, the question remain which priorities should be privileged and which are the mechanisms to incentivize the private investment to leverage the effect of the public support. A possible solution would be the development of the 'smart specialization strategies'. Smart specialisation "strategies" can be viewed as a mix of modern industrial policy with innovation policies that emphasise a bottom-up approach (the entrepreneurial discovery), transparency (e.g. monitoring and evaluation) and flexibility (e.g. abandon failure programmes). Key challenges remain empowering citizens and how to identify those activities or domains where new R&D and innovation projects will create future domestic capability and interregional comparative advantage (Foray et al., 2011). Empirical evidence suggests that "related variety" i.e. economic diversification offered by combining localised know-how and assets into new innovations that are related to existing areas of strength - leads to the best economic returns (Frenken et al. 2007; Boshma et al. 2012). Civil society represents bottom-up actions and views of the some vulnerable social categories, but also has the role of identifying row models, inspirational personalities and possible new path for social innovation. However, policymakers should ensure mechanisms such as crowd-sourcing and crowd-funding capabilities (public support) in instruments and initiatives included in their regional RIS3 strategies.

The article presents an overview of the European and international policies (OECD) and a model of engaging local communities in defining the strategies leading to growth, economic prosperity and identifying solutions to the most stringent societal challenges. It tries to offer an answer to what extent the Smart specialization strategy or other relevant, related or similar approaches enable local actors to be part of the policy-making process in order to overcome the effect of the economic crisis and welfare disparity in Europe.

2. EUROPE 2020, A STRATEGY FOR GROWTH, JOBS AND PROSPERITY

Europe 2020 (COM(2010) 2020 final) is the EU's growth strategy for the period 2014-2020 and represents the response of Europe to the challenges of the economic crisis faced in 2008. In a continuously changing world, the European Union (EU) aims to become a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy which offers a tailor-made support to its citizens. The three priorities should help the EU and the Member States deliver high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion. The governance accompanying the

implementation of the Europe 2020 Strategy is two-folded, thematic approach, 'combining priorities and headline targets; and country reporting, helping Member States to develop their strategies to underpin sustainable growth and public finances.' The Union has set five ambitious objectives - on employment, innovation, education, social inclusion and climate/energy - to be reached by 2020. The Commission put forward seven flagship initiatives to catalyse progress under each priority theme:

- "Innovation Union" targeting research and innovation to ensure that innovative ideas can be turned into products and services that create growth and jobs.
- "Youth on the move" to enhance the performance of European education systems.
- "A digital agenda for Europe" to speed up the roll-out of high-speed internet.
- "Resource efficient Europe" to help decouple economic growth from the use of resources, support the shift towards a low carbon economy, increase the use of renewable energy sources, modernise our transport sector and promote energy efficiency.
- "An industrial policy for the globalisation era" to improve the business environment, notably for SMEs.
- "An agenda for new skills and jobs" to modernise labour markets and support labour mobility.
- "European platform against poverty" to ensure social and territorial cohesion and people experiencing poverty and social exclusion are enabled to live in dignity and take an active part in society (European Commission, 2010).

It should be noted that in the center of the policy-makers interest are the European citizens, their combat with poverty and the preoccupation to re-establish the European economic stability, making use of the huge potential of the human capital and promoting the shift towards a new era, characterized by use of renewable energies in a new digital era.

The Strategy is accompanied by thematic targets which are regularly revised. The 2015 edition of 'Smarter, greener, more inclusive? — Indicators to support the Europe 2020 strategy' represents a series of Eurostat flagship publications providing statistical analyses related to important European Commission policy frameworks or important economic, social or environmental phenomena.

Since 2008 substantial progress has been made in the area of climate change and energy through the reduction in greenhouse gas emissions and the increase in the use of renewable energy sources. Positive developments are also visible in the area of education, where the EU is within reaching distance of both

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headline targets. Larger efforts will be required to get back on track with R&D investment, while meeting the employment and poverty targets will remain challenging.

3. SMART SPECIALIZATION STRATEGY (S3) AND QUADRUPLE HELIX (KNOWLEDGE TRIANGLE INTEGRATION)

'Europe 2020' requires policy makers to consider how the different aspects of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth are interrelated. Integrated smart specialization strategies respond to complex development challenges by adapting the policy to the regional context.

Regional Innovation Scheme (RIS3) supports the creation of knowledge-based jobs and growth not only in leading research and innovation (R&I) hubs but also in less developed and rural regions. RIS3 is a key part of the proposed EU Cohesion Policy reform supporting thematic concentration and reinforcing strategic programming and performance orientation. The concept of 'smart specialization' is not new or not applied only within EU Member States. As well OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) introduced the Smart specialisation' approach which combines industrial, educational and innovation policies to suggest that countries or regions identify and select a limited number of priority areas for knowledge-based investments, focusing on their strengths and comparative advantages. This entails:

- More effective spending of public resources, concentrating on certain domains of knowledge or expertise.
- The creation of synergies between public support mechanisms for R&D and innovation, industrial promotion and training institutions.
- The elimination of fragmentation and duplication of policy interventions that may result in a waste of public resources.
- The identification of the strongest or promising domains for entrepreneurship and growth through a careful analysis of the existing capabilities, assets, competences, competitive advantages in a city, region or country.
- Mechanisms to enable strategic development based on multi-faceted and multi-governance interactions.
- Mapping and benchmarking of cluster including analyses of the role and influence of key players.

- Evidence-based monitoring and evaluation systems to select the knowledge domains and innovation projects.

Focus is put to improve the innovation process as the RIS3 requires smart, strategic choices and evidence-based policy making. Priorities are set on the basis of a bottom-up entrepreneurial discovery process supported by strategic intelligence about a region's assets (1), its challenges (2), competitive advantages and potential for excellence (3).

RIS3 involves making sure that the policy mix, i.e. the combination of policy instruments available in a given regional environment – grants, loans and other support – is effective in reaching the overall policy goals, helps businesses, and leverages private investment.

What seemed to be quite a simple concept, focused on regional capabilities plus creating jobs, has appeared to be more complex and different from previous industrial growth policies. The smart specialization strategies embrasures the idea of 'entrepreneurial discovery' - an interactive process in which market forces and the private sector are discovering and producing information about new activities and the government assesses the outcomes and empowers those actors most capable of realising the potential (Forey, 2012; Hausmann and Rodrick, 2003; OECD, 2013).

The EU's initiative to create Knowledge and Innovation Communities (KICs) which are long-standing strategic partnerships aimed to enable people to create new services, products, to discover solutions to societal challenges represents a step forward in offering the right platform for the co-creation and ideation. The so-called 'knowledge triangle' is in materialized through a number of iterations (cooperation) between education, research and business, sometimes with the involvement of the public authorities. Within the RIS 3 these interactions are called 'triple/quadruple helix' and includes the demand-side perspective.

In general the delineation of roles and responsibilities are clearly established: universities provide the technical, scientific basis without any hook on entrepreneurial activities and links with industry; especially business schools or consultancy companies may take the lead in such interactions, as they provide a more practical, hands-on, shorter-term oriented education, which is better suited to meet the knowledge needs of the small, non-Research & Development (R&D) firms than the programmes of the universities. Similarly, in the absence of R&D- and technology-intensive companies that are usually involved in Triple Helix partnerships, professional associations or chambers of commerce representing the interests of the local business community take the lead in fostering partnerships with academia and government. The concept of triple helix evolved early 90s by encompassing the voices of the citizens who become thus legitimate stakeholders in the decision-making process. Arnkil et al. (2010) maintain that the degree of user involvement could be defined as inclusive of the 'design by users'. In line with this perspective, new

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innovative products, services and solutions are developed with the involvement of users in their role as lead users, co-developers and cocreators (Carayannis, 2012).

What is unique in the business model offered through the new entrepreneurial hubs for spur innovation in Europe (Co-location Centres)? The possibility of receiving tailor-made services, not just 'picking winner' model, copying the success story without understanding the specificity of the row model.

Another important characteristic of the smart specialization is that activities, not sectors per se are the level for setting priority setting for knowledge investments. While sectors still matter, the issue is not to target sectors but rather activities. Activities can be tied to specific technologies or the technology mix, to specific capabilities, natural assets etc.

Smart specialisation policies need to have measurable goals, whether it involves an increase in business R&D, R&D commercialisation or research excellence.

The difficulties occur while applying a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) - type analysis for judging the opportunity whether or not to support specific entrepreneurial processes. Most of the criteria are not fit for purpose in terms of assessing the impact, the efficiency and effectiveness of the activities.

In this evaluation process, all entrepreneurial actors including firms, but also universities and research centres should be engaged. Engaging them will not only allow policy makers to develop a deeper insight into the matches and mismatches of their specialisations, but it will also initiate and nurture the necessary collaboration efforts among these different actors.

If the evaluation exercise shows that some specific capabilities are missing, one should look across the borders of the region or country and see whether interregional and international collaborations with stronger partners can be set up. The global value chain perspective offers a valuable framework to support the attendant discovery and learning processes.

4. SEAL OF EXCELLENCE, SYNERGIES BETWEEN EU FUNDED PROJECTS

Seal of Excellence represents the latest initiative of the EC President, Jean-Claude Juncker for promoting synergies between the two important EU funded programs: Horizon 2020, the biggest European Communities program for research and Innovation and the European Structural and Investment Funds. The undeniable attractiveness of the first mentioned program among researchers, representatives of industry and SMEs and the success rate which remains very reduced (between 12-15%) should be reconciled and praised through national, regional or other type of investments. This measure will support

mostly the SMEs which have limited resources (human resources and financial) and the 'Seal of Excellence' certificate will be awarded to the applicants of above threshold not funded proposals and present the certificate as a label of a high-quality project proposal. Thanks to the 'Seal', high quality proposals from innovative Small and Medium Enterprises will have additional chances to be funded.

Further information on funding opportunities can be obtained at the local/national level either directly with the Managing Authorities or through Europe Enterprise Network and National Contact Point network.

It is up to each Member State or region to establish supporting funding schemes that are specifically dedicated to these types of proposals and enable the provision of alternative funding, in compliance with national and EU rules. A growing number of Member States and regions are already studying the best options for implementation since fall 2015 when the measure was announced.

Regions/Member States interested in funding these types of proposals could use ESIF resources (in line with ESIF priorities and in compliance with national and relevant EU rules) or their own national/regional resources to grant funding without additional qualitative evaluation.

It should be noticed that the two fundamental rules of the EU financial regulation remain valid for the above described synergies:

- No substitution of national/regional or private co-funding to EU projects/programmes under direct Commission management by ESIF money (and vice versa).
- No double financing: in no circumstances shall the same costs be financed twice by any budget.

Thus, the effort put by the consortia participants in preparing the project proposals can expect in case that their proposal reached the threshold of the seal of excellence to be rewarded by national authorities or by a private investor.

Other type of synergies are already happening in Poland, where KIC InnoEnergy (European Institute of Innovation and Technology through its EIT Strategic Innovation Agenda (SIA) 2014*)* – signed Memoranda of Understanding with the Managing Authorities of two regions, one being Malowpolska. In concrete terms the cooperation foresees the exchange of knowledge and use of experts, know-how for scouting innovative ideas etc.

5. INVOLVING CITIZENS IN DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

It is obvious that nowadays we experiment the culture of do-ocracy, a direct consequence of the fact that active citizens don't want the government to provide standard solutions for everything. They prefer a tailor-

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made approach and authorities that think along with them. So citizens and government are devising new ways of relating to each other and working together – in what is often called a 'do-ocracy'. Central governments as well as local ones should become keen to promote and support this form of democratic collaboration.

If this is the case in Western European countries, the interest on listening to the general public in the Eastern European didn't find much openness from the Governments in terms of public consultations, campaigns, referenda etc. Over the past few years, in Romania a positive trend was registered, for example public the debate on environmental impact of re-opening gold mines (Rosia Montana, 2013).

Nowadays, in the era of social media, crowd-funding and huge virtual campaigns, public mobilization can be easily kicked-off provided that the right strategy is put in place. The example above was partly successful due to its virtual communication strategy through various tools: blogs, social media (Facebook, Tweeter) and vast coverage press release.

However, the role played by physical meetings cannot be denied. Hackathons are collaborative innovation events, which offer a great opportunity for highly motivated individuals with any professional background to come together to exchange ideas. These open spaces are a great contradiction to traditional setups. One key driver here is open source thinking – people sharing methods, data and ideas without obstacles, which works fine as long as it involves open source licensed material, but if intellectual property rights come to play, it can get critical.

6. STUDY CASE: ONE STOP-SHOP FOR YOUNG PEOPLE (STUDENTS, ENTREPRENEURS, PUBLIC AUTHORITIES, NGOS ETC.) TO BE SETUP IN MAIN CAPITALS OF THE REGIONS

There are several ways that public authorities can support and assist representatives of the quadruple helix in meeting the challenges intrinsic in implementing the innovation models and the design of the smart specialization.

Examples of these roles are as follows:

- Enabler, e.g. sponsor and provider of infrastructure
- Decision maker, e.g. maker of regional/local innovation policies (e.g. guidelines, financial incentives, R&D&I programmes supporting user-oriented innovation)

- Supporter, e.g. to support the development of partners (e.g. firms, universities, users), the systematic collection and utilisation of user information and the knowledge and capability development related to the smart specialization, to promote the empowerment of citizens and to assist citizens in their innovation activities
- Developer, e.g. to utilise user-oriented development methods in the internal development work public sector
- Marketer, e.g. to raise awareness of user-oriented innovation models and practices among citizens, businesses and public sector
- Quality controller, e.g. to support the development of 'quality checks' or standards for smart specialization type of activities and for other co-creation environments and to assess the quality of activities by means of these standards.

If we extrapolate the example of the Co-location centres of the KICs, this one will become the enabler, offering the physical place for meetings, facilitating debates, organizing events, etc. The local authorities (ministries, managing authorities) should lead the dialogue between the representatives of the higher education organizations and industry/business sectors in order to facilitate the identification of the offer and demand for the human capital. The latest represent the supporters and the end-users.

The focus on impact and more precisely the measurement of expected impact, re-adjustment of the policy measures must increase the level of acceptance of the public policy (ies). In terms of economic impact, beyond the growth the performance indicators should take into account the improved skills and the entrepreneurial appetite for assuming risks.

Relative indices can be computed for scientific and economic specialisations. The former are often based on publication numbers per science domain, while the latter can use a variety of data types, including number of employees, number of newly established enterprises, Gross Domestic Product, and export data per economic sector. Significant progress has been achieved through different tools available at regional level, allowing internationally comparable economic data.

By comparing specialisation indicators over time, changes in scientific, technological or economic specialisations can be analysed. Interesting insights can also result from studying relations between scientific, technological and economic specialisations, which can be mapped using conversion tables (see for example Callaert et al., 2014).

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CONCLUSIONS

As a consequence of the absence of a clear view on public allocations to prioritized areas prevents policy-makers to assess the relevance and effectiveness of their policies. A good step to take would be to develop "Smart Specialisation-oriented" public budget calculations that would provide a picture of budgets allocated to each prioritized areas by aggregating:

- Budgets allocated to dedicated bodies and programmes (institutes, centres, R&D programmes, clusters…);
- Budgets allocated through preferential treatment in generic programmes;
- Ex post money received by prioritized areas in generic programmes.

At regional level, the debates for allocating the budgets should include not only budgets from regional origin, but also national money flowing to the priority areas, and money of EU origin in the case of EU regions (often the Structural Funds are the main funding sources for innovation and economic policies in the regions).

To conclude, the results of the study strongly underline the need to include a governance "process assessment" method into the toolbox that may underpin the design, deployment, follow-up and monitoring of smart specialisation strategies. Therefore questionnaires and survey methods should be deployed and the insights obtained with the governance template, will constitute a strong support to the further development of a Smart Specialisation policy "design and process" framework.

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QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RISKS IDENTIFIED IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE NON-REIMBURSABLE FUNDS IN ROMANIA IN 2007-2013

Abstract

In line with the principle of efficiency and effectiveness provided within the Strategy for strengthening the public administration in Romania, risk management is a key element in managing non-reimbursable funds in 2014-2020. Although was made compulsory by a regulation in force since 2005, as internal management control standard, risk management undertaken in 2007-2013 by the authorities and institutions involved in non-reimbursable funds management has proven to be relatively inefficient, Romania suffering great financial corrections and suspensions in the implementation of EU financing programs.

In an exhaustive analysis of the risks identified by the responsible authorities, this research focuses on the qualitative side of risk management in an attempt to identify viable solutions for an unitary methodology for risk management, that will be used by all responsible authorities / institutions and at the level of all financing programs.

Using such a methodology would have positive effects for local communities by increasing efficiency and effectiveness of resources use, namely by ensuring a stable and predictable administrative process.

Risks, Risk Management, Non-reimbursable Funds, Public Administration

JEL CODES: G32, H83

ANALIZA CALITATIVĂ A RISCURILOR IDENTIFICATE ÎN PROCESUL DE GESTIONARE A FONDURILOR NERAMBURSABILE ÎN ROMÂNIA ÎN PERIOADA 2007-2013

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Rezumat

În linie cu principiul eficienței și eficacității prevăzut de Strategia pentru consolidarea administrației publice în România, managementul riscurilor reprezintă un element cheie în gestionarea fondurilor nerambursabile în perioada 2014-2020. Deși a fost prevăzut ca obligatoriu de legislația în vigoare încă din anul 2005, ca standard de control managerial intern, managementul riscurilor derulat în perioada 2007-2013 de autoritățile și instituțiile implicate în gestionarea fondurilor nerambursabile s-a dovedit a fi relativ ineficient, România suferind numeroase corecții financiare și suspendări în implementarea programelor cu finanțare europeană. În cadrul unei analize exhaustive a riscurilor identificate de autoritățile responsabile, prezenta cercetare se concentrează pe latura calitativă a managementului riscurilor, în încercarea de a identifica soluții viabile pentru o viitoare metodologie unitară de managementul riscurilor, care va fi utilizată la nivelul tuturor autorităților / instituțiilor responsabile, respectiv la nivelul tuturor programelor de finanțare nerambursabilă. Utilizarea unei asemenea metodologii ar avea efecte pozitive pentru comunitățile locale, prin creșterea eficienței și eficacității utilizării resurselor, respectiv prin asigurarea unui proces administrativ stabil și predictibil.

Cuvinte cheie: Riscuri, Managementul riscurilor, Fonduri nerambursabile, Administrație publică

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1. INTRODUCTION

Unlike private organizations, which are characterized by profit orientation and access to resources in a competitive system, public sector organizations have more resources and more varied ways to achieve their mission and objectives.

Such a resource that public sector organizations can use to meet the public interest is represented by the non-reimbursable funds. In Romania, which became EU member state in 2007, the non-reimbursable funds are mainly external, i.e. additional to state budget funding.

Thus, for 2007-2013 financial period, the main such non-reimbursable funds were represented by structural and cohesion funds and rural development funds (over 90% of the total non-reimbursable funds available). In conjunction with funds from the national level (i.e. state aid for SMEs), as well as other funds from international donors (e.g. World Bank, United States Agency for Development, the Soros Foundation etc.) from 2007 to 2013 it represented an average of about 4 bln. Euro annually, nearly 3% of 2013 GDP (estimated to 631,130.1 million lei current prices). Compared to the state budget for the 2013 (98,182.5 million lei revenues) the non-reimbursable funds accounted for about 18%. For the 2014-2020 financial period Romania may use an average annual allocation of about 5 bln. Euro (according to European Commission press release "Summary of the Partnership Agreement with Romania, 2014-2020", dated august 2014, Romania will have a total allocation of Euro 30,725,192,684 from the EU budget, plus national co-financing).

For the use of the non-reimbursable funds was put in place a huge mechanism consisting of more than 100 public authorities and institutions, respectively more than 5,000 employees (civil servants and contractual employees). By the level of October 2015 these were accountable for managing 197,913 submitted projects and 100,162 financing contracts only on structural and cohesion funds (convergence objective) and rural development funds.

In this very complex field risk management represents a key element for the efficient and effective use of the non-reimbursable funds. Making more efficient the risk management system should be a priority for the state authorities and institutions.

2. THE LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE IN THE FIELD AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study aims to analyze qualitatively the risks identified in the management of the non-reimbursable funds in Romania in the 2007-2013 financial period. It starts from the economic theory of risks and concentrates on the Risk management methodologies used by the Romanian state authorities and

institutions involved within the non-reimbursable funds management as internal management control standard.

The current scientific literature in the field comprises a lot of papers treating risks from private companies' perspective and a few recent papers on themes that have also applicability to public administration (Didraga, 2013; Iordache, 2012). The studies and analysis on risk management in non-reimbursable funds in Romania are in the early stages and refers to specific issues, such as risks related to specific procurement procedures (Badea and Nicolae, 2015a) and to insurance of risks specific to non-reimbursable funds management system in Romania (Badea and Nicolae, 2015b).

Thus, the research methodology put a focus on actual Risk management methodologies used at the level of managing authorities and intermediary bodies involved in the European and national funds management system. Using the provisions of Law no. 544/2011 on free access to public information we obtained risk management procedures, risk registers and risk action plans from 35 authorities and public institutions out of the 50 intended to be covered by the analysis.

Within the exhaustive analysis of the risks identified by the Romanian authorities and institutions involved in the non-reimbursable funds management system, the current study focused on the qualitative aspects of these risks. In this respect each risk was analyzed for consistency and appropriateness to the non-reimbursable funds management activity. Out of a more that 500 individual risks cumulated from the organizations that submitted the requested information, 467 risks were considered to be specific in terms of not fully duplicating the meaning of other risks. This resulted by cumulating all the reported risks, out of which the identical risks were eliminated.

As many of the reported risks are not consistent to the accepted definition of risk, both of the economic theory and of the risk management procedures used by the mentioned state authorities and institutions, a further selection was carried on. In this respect, the risks were redefined, resulting only 120 coherent risks that cope to risk definition: potential loss, loss caused by the evolution of risk factors to the contrary of the expected results (Bârsan-Pipu and Popescu, 2003).

Both the 467 initial risks and the 120 coherent risks were distributed on key activities/areas and project cycle management phases, in order to analyze the risk coverage degree of the whole non-reimbursable management system.

3. RISK MANAGEMENT METHODOLOGIES USED WITHIN DE ROMANIAN NON-REIMBURSABLE FUNDS MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

The main conclusions of the overall analysis regarding the risk management system used within the Romanian non-reimbursable funds management system, partially published (Badea and Nicolae, 2015) or in course of publication to date, are:

- risk management procedures used by the public authorities and agencies involved in managing the non-reimbursable funds are reproductions of the Methodology for implementing internal control standard "Risk Management", issued by the Ministry of Public Finance in 2007 in order to support the implementation of Order no. 946/2005;
- the current procedures define risk as the problem (situation, event, etc.) that has not occurred, but that might occur in the future, in which case the achievement of the intended results is threatened or potentiated. In the first case, the risk represents a threat, while in the second risk is seen as opportunity. Risk represents uncertainty in achieving intended results and should be treated as a combination of probability and impact;
- although the use of non-reimbursable funds is essentially the same for all authorities and institutions involved, of course with a set of specific elements, the existing procedures are not uniform, treating different the notion of risk itself and also the ways to take action for controlling risks;
- the current procedures in force accept the fact that risk can be internal and may depend on organization's actions / omissions, so depending on the organization's own will / diligence;
- the current procedures do not include ways of financially quantify the risks;
- not all public authorities and institutions have developed and used risk registers;
- within the existing risk registers the majority of risks are operational risks (ex: risk of delay, risk of failure / error detection, risk of quality of financing);
- some of the risks have direct financial effects (ex: certification of ineligible expenditure, repeated payment of the same invoice included in several payment claims);
- there are three global risks (including with financial effects) concerning both each funding program and the funds management system in its entirety:
  - the risk of automatic decommitment (translated in low absorption rate of funds);

  - the risk of establishing financial corrections by donors;
  - the risk of low quality of financing (outputs, outcomes and impact of projects).
- some risks aren't included in the risk registers (ex: there are no risks related to impact assessment or quantification of projects effects), although it results from the obligations that Romania has from applying European regulations on non-reimbursable funds management;
- in most cases, the risks are identified and organized at department level (directorate, service, office), not at the operational program level;
- the human resources involved are few in number and largely without specific training in risk management:
  - 4.833 employees (reported by 42 authorities and institutions), of which:
    - only 407 employees have risk management responsibilities;
    - only 322 employees have attended a course on risk management.
- all the risks included in the risk registers have negative connotations (there is no risk as opportunity).

4. FINDINGS OF THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RISKS

As mentioned above, the study focused on the qualitative aspects of the risks included in the risk registers submitted by the 35 state authorities and institutions and covering the structural and cohesions funds (convergence objective) and the national state aid funds dedicated to SMEs.

The first finding of the analysis is that the risk registers does not refer to objectives, results or activities, the risks are just divided into categories / departments. In this respect, some risks can be clearly related to a compartment activity (ex: inadequate and continuously changing national legislation, with direct implications for the work carried out within the Economic and Financial Department).

The second finding of the analysis is that the classification of the risk does not follow a certain formula. Thus, some risks appear to be related to departments (e.g. procurement department), some to activities (e.g. checking and control) and others to procedural elements (e.g. irregularities).

The third finding of the analysis is that the definition of risk is poor, with no specificity or quantification. Only a few of them had the impact annexed, while more that 74% had to be lost in the redefining process.

For example, some of the risk in the risk registers were so general that could never be quantified: "failure to achieve financial engineering activity due to limited access to the levers of allocating funds".

The fourth finding of the analysis is that the most identified risks are related to: Financial & Accountancy (99 risks), Financing management (44), Human resources (43), Funds absorption (35), Reimbursement activities (32), Implementation capacity (20), Irregularities (22), Single Management Information System - SMIS (20).

At the end of risks redefining process, the distribution was the following: Funds absorption (6), Implementation capacity (7), Financial & Accountancy (5), Financing management (8), Irregularities (9), Human resources (7), Reimbursement activities (17), Single Management Information System - SMIS (6).

As seen in the below figure, the redefining of risks comprised a serious number reduction for Financial & Accountancy related risks (from 99 to 5), Financing management related risks (from 44 to 8), Human resources related risks (from 43 to 7) and Funds absorption related risks (from 35 to 6). We can conclude that in these areas, possible in the specific departments of the authorities/institutions there is a poorer understanding of risks than in the other areas / departments.

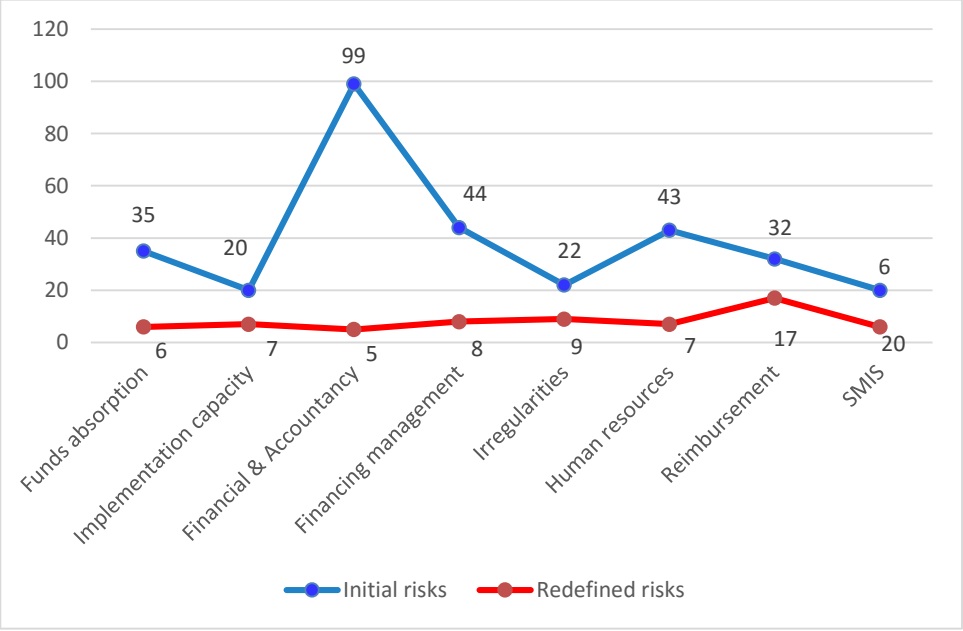


FIGURE 1 - ORGANIZATION OF RISKS ON MAIN ACTIVITIES/AREAS
Source: The Author

A big question mark we can put on the procurement related risks. Only 11 risks identified by all authorities/institutions might seem very little if we take into consideration the fact that the most financial

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corrections and program suspensions Romania suffered in the 2007-2013 financial period are due to procurement related problems.

The fifth finding of the analysis is that the coverage of the Project Cycle Management phases (European Commission, 2004) is unbalanced, more that 80% of the risks (412) in the risk registers referring to phase 4 – Implementation.

Although there is logic that the risks related to implementation of programs and projects be in majority, the distribution of the risks identified by the responsible authorities/institutions shows that the accent is on doing, rather than on planning, organizing or controlling.

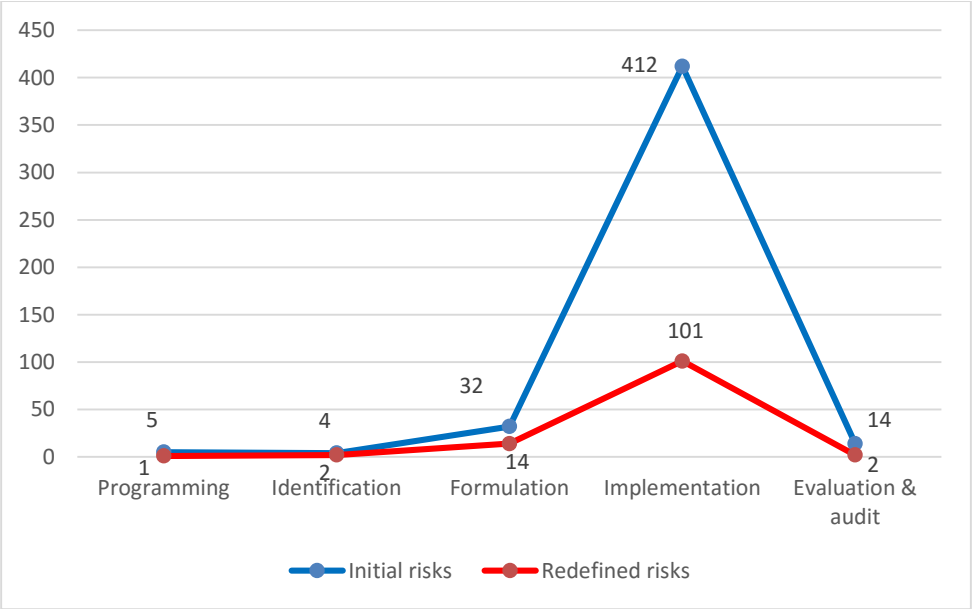


FIGURE 2 - ORGANIZATION OF RISKS ON PCM PHASES
Source: The Author

Even in the implementation phase some risks are not included in the risk registers. For example, there is no mentioning of the risks related to equal opportunities and sustainable development, although these are transversal principles provided by the European regulations on structural and cohesion funds accession.

5. THE RELATION BETWEEN RISK MANAGEMENT OF THE NON-REIMBURSABLE FUNDS AND THE STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Some authors (Didraga, 2013) consider risk management as being the most important instrument a manager can use for increasing the success of a project.

With respect to non-reimbursable funds management in Romania, we treat risk management as key to development resources. If we analyze only the use of structural and cohesion funds during 2007-2013 period, we can find that:

- there are serious delays in funds accession (at the level of October 2015 the absorption rate published by the Ministry of European Funds was 56,99% out of the 19 billion Euro, allocations Structural and Cohesion Funds);
- there is an increased consumption of resources (ex: the Romanian government announced loans of 6.045 billion RON in 2014, respectively 2.820 billion RON in 2015, in order to pay the beneficiaries of structural and cohesion funds, considering that Romania failed repeatedly to receive the expected reimbursements from the European Commission);
- there is a foresight that the financial corrections imposed by the European Commission related to Romania's available budget will be about 1 billion Euro (Romanian National News Agency AGERPRES, 2015) only for the Structural and Cohesion Funds 2007-2013; this represents approximately 5.26% of the total allocated amount - 19 billion Euro.

All the available funds not used, plus the financial corrections and resources used for sustaining the financial flows of structural funds use (up to 9 – 9,5 billion Euro) represents mist development resources.

Consistent with the principle of efficiency and effectiveness stated by the Strategy for strengthening the public administration in Romania 2014-2020 (aim to achieve objectives through optimal use of available resources and obtain results to be in line with targets) the use of non-reimbursable funds represents a key element for the public sector development and the risk management have to play an important role in the strategic management for local communities in Romania.

CONCLUSIONS

There is an obvious need for improving the risk management methodologies used by the authorities and institutions involved in the non-reimbursable funds management. A direction in this respect is to create a single unitary risks register, applicable to all non-reimbursable funds (European, national of from other sources), with coherent and consistent risks covering all the activities/areas and all the project cycle management phases.

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STRATEGIC SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN LOCAL COMMUNITIES. EXPERIENCE OF INTEGRATED TERRITORIAL INVESTMENTS (ITI) DANUBE DELTA

PLANIFICAREA STRATEGICĂ A DEZVOLTĂRII DURABILE ÎN COMUNITĂŢILE LOCALE. EXPERIENŢA INVESTIŢIILOR TERITORIALE INTEGRATE (ITI) DELTA DUNĂRII

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Abstract
Sustainable development strategic planning has become a challenge for local public administration as it should be implemented in all aspects of life, estimating economic, social, ecological, territorial, political and institutional issues. Local communities understood that the basis of strategic sustainable development plans has to be an integrated vision regarding the actions that are to be made in order to accomplish their objectives. The differences between communities make it impossible to create an universal sustainable development strategy, but finding similarities between close communities can generate an integrated strategy for a larger area. Sustainable development concept, principles of sustainable development and strategic planning, and integrated vision towards actions are used in the article.

***Keywords*:** sustainable development, strategic planning, integrated territorial investments, Danube Delta

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Rezumat
Planificarea strategică a dezvoltării durabile a devenit o provocare pentru administraţia publică locală deoarece ar trebui implementată în toate părţile vieţii, estimând aspectele economice, sociale, ecologice, teritoriale, politice şi instituţionale. Comunităţile locale au înţeles că baza planurilor de dezvoltare durabilă strategică trebuie să fie o viziune integrată privind acţiunile ce trebuiesc realizate pentru a-şi atinge obiectivele. Diferenţele dintre comunităţi fac imposibilă crearea unei strategii de dezvoltare durabilă universal valabilă, dar găsirea similitudinilor dintre comunităţi apropiate poate genera o strategie integrată pentru un areal mai mare. Conceptul de dezvolatre durabilă, principii de dezvoltare durabilă şi planificare strategică, şi viziunea integratăprivind acţiunile sunt concepte folosite în acest articol.

Cuvinte cheie: dezvoltare duirabilă, planificare strategică, investiţii teritoriale integrate, Delta Dunării

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1. INTRODUCTION

Strategic planning had been practiced in the private sector for many years when city and county leaders applied those practices in the public sector with good results. Communities embarked on their strategic planning exercises by determining their vision for the future and by addressing broad themes of common interest to all. So, strategic planning prescribes a „systematic process that enables a community's leadership to understand the numerous future environments in which the community will exist, establish consesus about how best to achieve its most desired vision, and illuminate the actions that will most likely make that happen – all within the context of expected available financial and human resources" (Gordon, 2005, p. 25).

As it is well known that each community is influenced by a series of factors, strategic planning has become a challenge for local public administration as it should be implemented in all aspects of life, estimating economic, social, ecological, territorial, political and institutional issues.

Moreover, in recent years there has been a growing interest in sustainable development as a guiding principle to allow the integration of economic development and the environment within policy and strategy. Sustainable development involves many things. More appropriate technologies, supportive policies, different ethics, and changes in individual behavior are among the more obvious factors.

New legislation places a statutory duty on all local authorities to prepare 'community strategies' for promoting the „economic, social and environmental well-being of their areas, and contributing to the achievement of sustainable development of the country" (Williams, 2002, p.198). Local communities understood that the basis of strategic sustainable development plans has to be an integrated vision regarding the actions that are to be made in order to accomplish their objectives.

2. NEW INSTRUMENTS USED IN STRATEGIC PLANNING

The multiple challenges confronting Europe – economic, environmental and social – show the need for an integrated and territorial approach to deliver an effective response. This approach is multi-dimensional, tailored to place-specific features and outcomes, which may mean going beyond traditional administrative boundaries, and may require greater willingness from different levels of government to co-operate and co-ordinate actions in order to achieve shared goals. This is in line with the new territorial cohesion objective introduced by the Lisbon Treaty, which acknowledges that economic and social cohesion cannot be achieved at the European level without a stronger focus on the territorial impact of EU policies. For this reason the Common Provisions Regulation has introduced new integrating tools that can be used to

implement territorial strategies on the ground, linking the thematic objectives identified in the Partnership Agreements and Operational Programmes and the territorial dimension: community led local development (European Parliament, 2013) and integrated territorial investments (European Parliament, 2013).

The integrated territorial investments (ITI) allows EU Member States to combine investments from several priority axes of one or more Operational Programmes for the purposes of multi-dimensional and cross-sectorial intervention.

Integrated territorial investments (ITI)

ITI is a tool to implement territorial strategies in an integrated way. The key elements of an ITI are:

- a designated territory and an integrated territorial development strategy;
- a package of actions to be implemented; and
- governance arrangements to manage the ITI.

It is essential to develop a cross-sectorial integrated development strategy that addresses the development needs of the area concerned. The strategy shall be designed in a way that the actions can build on the synergies produced by coordinated implementation. Any geographical area with particular territorial features can be the subject of an ITI, ranging from specific urban neighbourhoods with multiple deprivations to the urban, metropolitan, urban-rural, sub-regional, or inter-regional levels. For example, ITI existing in Romania, ITI Danube Delta, is located on an area with particular features, being on a sub-regional level. ITI territory is the territory of 38 local public administrations from the Danube Delta Biosphere Reserve, Tulcea County and the northern part of Constanta County, as it is represented in the map below.

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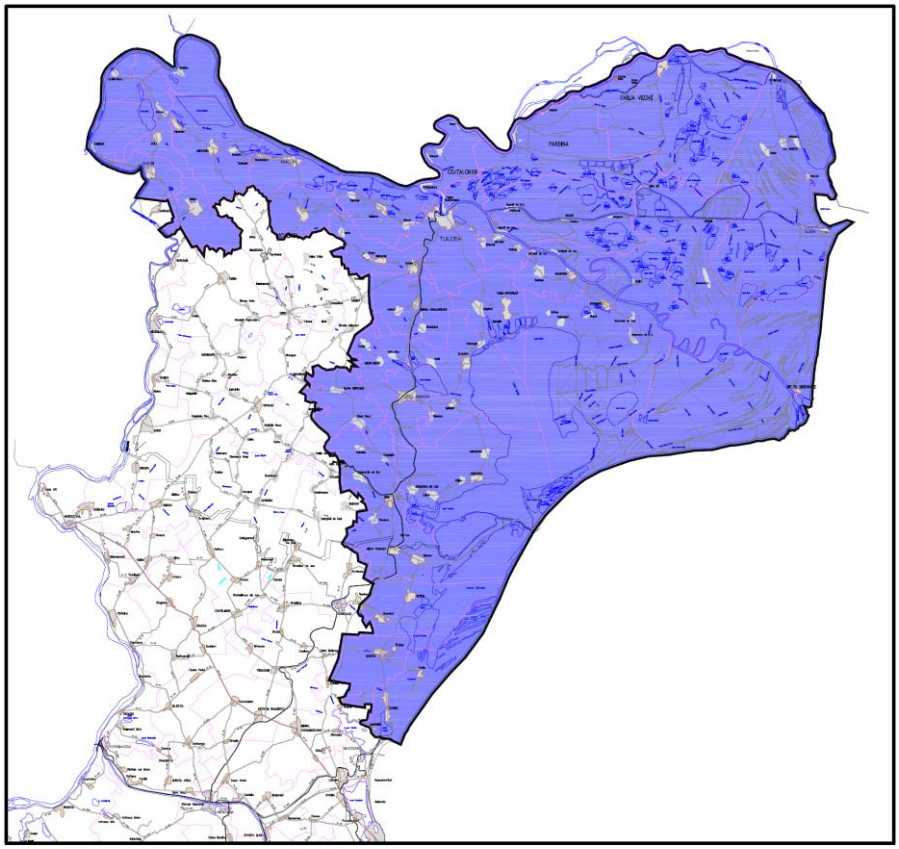


FIGURE 1 - TERRITORY OF ITI DANUBE DELTA

Source: The draft of Integrated Strategy of Sustainable Development for Danube Delta (2030) published on www.mdrap.ro (Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration, 2015)

The integrated territorial development strategy for Danube Delta is realized with the support of the World Bank, and it will be a document that addresses strategic development objectives on a long term for this territory and that defines an action plan that contains ideas of financeable projects from different sources.

At a theoretical level, the actions to be implemented through ITI shall contribute to the thematic objectives of the relevant priority axes of the participating Operational Programme(s), as well as the development objectives of the territorial strategy. They can involve investments from the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), European Social Fund (ESF) and Cohesion Fund. The funding can be complemented with support from the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) or the European Maritime and Fisheries Funds (EMFF). It is not compulsory to combine all Funds in each ITI. Nevertheless, it is encouraged that ITI combine different funds. The combination of physical investments in infrastructure from ERDF with the investments in human capital from ESF is particularly relevant in the case of sustainable urban development. Combined investments from ERFD and EAFRD are particularly relevant for support to urban-rural partnerships. An ITI can deliver support not only in the form of grants

but also through financial instruments (European Parliament, 2013) where they are appropriate to deliver actions defined in the development strategy.

For example, ITI Danube Delta is composed by all funds, as it has indicative allocations for all operational programmes in Romania. These allocations are listed below.

TABLE 1 - INDICATIVE ALLOCATIONS FOR ITI DANUBE DELTA

Programme	*Fund*	*Indicative allocations*
Regional Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)	358.11 mil Euro
Big Infrastructure Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and Cohesion Fund	407.64 mil Euro
Human Capital Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Social Fund (ESF)	60 mil Euro
Technical Assistency Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)	5 mil Euro
Competitiveness Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)	60 mil Euro
Administrative Capacity Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Social Fund (ESF)	16 mil Euro
Rural Development National Programme 2014-2020	European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD)	168 mil Euro
Fishing and Marine Affairs Operational Programme 2014-2020	European Maritime and Fisheries Fund (EMFF)	37 mil Euro
TOTAL		1,125 billion Euro

Source: www.itideltadunarii.com

The last key element of an ITI is regarding governance arrangements for the management of the ITI. Ultimately the 'Managing Authority' for the Operational Programme will be responsible for managing and implementing the operations of an ITI. It is not specified who a managing authority is, but one could presume that these could be the various government departments responsible for the different strands of funding. The managing authority can designate intermediary bodies to manage all or some of the operations of the ITI, e.g. a local authority or non-government organisation. Again, this multi-stakeholder approach does not appear to be a compulsory element.

For example, in the case of ITI Danube Delta the Managing Authority for each Programme is the main responsible for managing and implementing the operations of an ITI. In Romania, for all the programmes part of this instrument there are three main ministries:

1. Ministry of European Funds;
2. Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration;
3. Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development.

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According to the protocol signed between these three ministries and Intercommunity Development Association ITI Danube Delta, these four entities share joint responsibilities regarding the implementing of the Integrated Sustainable Development Strategy of Danube Delta 2014-2030, such as:

- Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration is the national authority responsible with monitoring and implementing the Integrated Sustainable Development Strategy of Danube Delta 2014-2030, being also the Managing Authority (MA) for Regional Operational Programme (ROP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015f), Administrative Capacity Operational Programme (ACOP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015a);
- Ministry of European Funds is the national coordinator of European Structural and of Investments Funds 2014-2020, being also the Managing Authority for Big Infrastructure Operational Programme (BIOP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015b) , Human Capital Operational Programme (HCOP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015e), Technical Assistency Operational Programme (TAOP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015h), Competitiveness Operational Programme (COP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015c) ;
- Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development is the national authority responsible of coordinating the process of implementing the Common Agricultural Policy, being also the Managing Authority for Rural Development National Programme (RDNP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015g), Fishing and Marine Affairs Operational Programme (FMAOP) 2014-2020 (European Commission, 2015d) ;
- Intercommunity Development Association ITI Danube Delta will coordinate the implementation of the Integrated Sustainable Development Strategy of Danube Delta 2014-2030 Action Plan; it has an important role in ITI, supporting the local beneficiaries (local authorities, public and private institutions, members and no-members) to develop projects according to the approved Action Plan and checking the projects proposed by the beneficiaries with the objectives stated in the Strategy.

The coordination of the financing of European Structural and of Investments Funds 2014-2020, at an operational level, will be made by the Functional Work Group ITI Danube Delta. This group will be formed by representatives from the Managing Authorities, Intercommunity Development Association ITI Danube Delta and other relevant partners to reach the Strategy's objectives.

The relations between these structures are represented below.

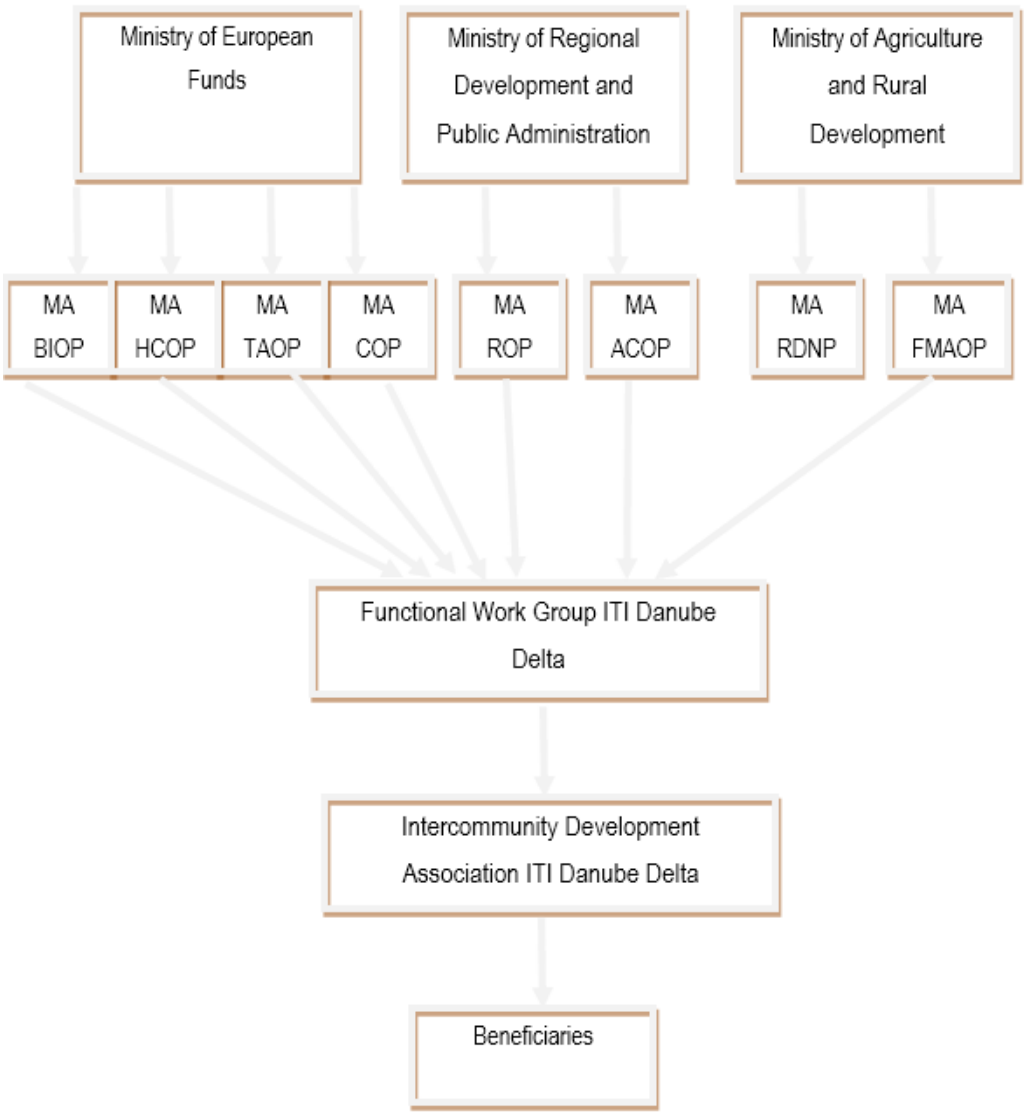


FIGURE 2 - RELATIONS BETWEEN STRUCTURES REGARDING ITI

Source: The Protocol signed between the Ministry of European Funds, the Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration, the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development and Intercommunity Development Association ITI Danube Delta (Ministry of European Funds, 2014)

Benefits of using Integrated Territorial Investments

The provisions regarding ITI have several potential benefits:

- The ITI as an instrument promoting the integrated use of Funds has the potential to lead to a better aggregate outcome for the same amount of public investment.

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- The possible delegation of management of ITIs empowers sub-regional actors (local/urban stakeholders) by ensuring their involvement and ownership of programme preparation and implementation.
- As an ITI will have its various funding streams secured at its inception, there will be greater certainty regarding the funding for integrated actions.
- ITI is an instrument designed for a place-based approach to development that can assist in unlocking the under-utilised potential contained at local and regional levels.

In October 2011, the European Commission adopted draft legislative proposals for EU cohesion policy for 2014-2020. The new proposals are designed to ensure that EU investment is targeted on the Commission's long term goals for growth and jobs and aim to harmonise the rules related to different European Funds (European Parliament, 2013). EU Cohesion Policy invests in areas such as energy efficiency; training; research and innovation; transport; support for Small and Medium Sized Enterprises (SMEs); renewable energy; and cooperation between European regions. The Commission is proposing changes to the Cohesion Policy for 2014-2020 in order to deliver the Europe 2020 Strategy objectives with a greater focus on results and positive outcomes and to maximise the impact of European Funding (European Parliament, 2013) . One aspect of the cohesion policy is promoting social cohesion and tackling issues such as social and economic deprivation.

In an effort to reinforce territorial cohesion the Commission believes that European cities have the potential to make a much larger contribution to policies for growth, social cohesion and environmental sustainability. To this end it is proposing that a minimum of 5% of the European Regional Development Fund (The European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) finances a number of areas in order to reduce economic, environmental and social problems – e.g. SME investment to create sustainable jobs; environment, energy and transport infrastructure; research, technology and innovation, communications; the development of economic and cross-border relations) resources for each Member State for 2014-2020 should be invested in integrated actions for sustainable urban development with the management and implementation delegated to cities (European Parliament, 2013).

What types of Integrated Territory Investments (ITIs) could be formed?

A research paper by Soto et al (2012), which explores the possibility of ITIs as a powerful tool for innovation and change in European cities, identified six possible types of ITIs:

- Single area ITIs: i.e. ITIs in single neighbourhoods or areas of the city, these do not necessarily have to be limited to deprived urban neighbourhoods, they could also take place in science quarters, declining industrial areas or brownfield sites, heritage areas, city centres.
- Multiple Areas of Intervention ITIs: multiple neighbourhoods or areas within cities e.g. an integrated approach to certain types of areas spread across the city (e.g. areas of industrial and industrial decline, areas of deprivation).
- Small City ITIs: i.e. small and medium sized service centres and attached rural hinterlands (e.g. could be applicable, for example, to Newry).
- Functional ITIs: i.e. ITIs dealing with functional urban areas, covering more than one city (e.g. Belfast, Derry/Londonderry, Lisburn, Newry).
- Rural-Urban Linkages ITIs: ITIs dealing with certain key urban-rural linkages (e.g. transport and business corridors between urban and rural areas, cross-border areas).
- Thematic or Target Group ITIs: i.e. whereby an ITI priorities particular target groups e.g. migrant populations, or target particular themes such e.g. the labour market – this approach should form a coherent part of an overall integrated strategy for the entire area.

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THE ECONOMIC REGENERATION OF LAGGING REGIONS. AN INQUIRY INTO THE REGIONAL OPERATIONAL PROGRAMME CONTRIBUTION, WITH AN EMPHASIS ON THE ENTERPRISE SUPPORT IN THE NORTH-EAST REGION OF ROMANIA

Abstract
The accession to the EU has created good opportunities for the economic regeneration of the lagging regions provided the European funds allocated to them be absorbed and employed in an effective and efficient manner. This paper proposes a brief examination of the North-East region of Romania, with a focus on Suceava county, addressing the contribution of the Regional Operational Programme (ROP) to the economic recovery. In line with the regional problem and the identified needs and strengths, enterprise support has been chosen as the policy heading for this study. It has been based on both available data and in-depth interviews conducted within the GRINCOH FP7 project.

***Keywords*:** economic regeneration, ROP, enterprise support

JEL CODES: R11, R28, R38, R58

REGENERAREA ECONOMICĂ A REGIUNILOR RĂMASE ÎN URMĂ. ANALIZA CONTRIBUŢIEI POR, CU ACCENT PE SPRIJINUL ACORDAT MEDIULUI DE AFACERI ÎN REGIUNEA NORD-EST

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Rezumat
Aderarea la Uniunea Europeana a creat oportunitati semnificative pentru regenerarea economica a regiunilor ramase in urma, cu conditia ca fondurile europene sa fie absorbite si utilizate intr-un mod eficace si eficient. Aceasta lucrare examineaza situatia regiunii de Nord-Est a Romaniei cu privire la contributia Programului Operational Regional la relansarea economica, concentrandu-se in mod deosebit pe judetul Suceava. Sprijinirea mediului de afaceri local a fost aleasa drept tema centrala de interes pentru acest studiu, fiind utilizate pentru analiza datele disponibile in acest sens si raspunsurile la interviurile in profunzime efectuate cu prilejul derularii proiectului FP7 GRINCOH, in care autorii au fost implicati ca membri ai echipei de cercetare a ASE Bucuresti.

Cuvinte cheie: regenerare economica, POR, sprijinirea mediului de afaceri

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper proposes a case study which assesses the achievements of Cohesion Policy in the North-East region of Romania, with a particular emphasis on Suceava county. This county is characterized by the predominance of employment in agriculture, weak industry and poor state of market services. Its economic growth was hindered in the past by the border location. Moreover, the North-East region (one of the eight NUTS 2 regions of Romania) is the least developed Romanian region and ranks third among the 'lagging behind' regions of the EU.

Considering the regional development realities in Romania, the allocations under the Regional Operational Programme (ROP) have prioritised these lagging regions. As a result, the North-East region has been allocated 16.32% of the ERDF for the ROP 2007-2013. The number of projects in Suceava county represent around 20 per cent of the total number of projects implemented or ongoing in the North-East region, which is an above average among the North-East region's six counties. Hence, the significance of the case study is twofold: on the one hand it offers a spotlight on a very sensitive area of Romania in terms of regional development level; on the other hand it discusses the added value, strategic quality and administrative capacity which have made it possible to record results above the average in the implementation process and, thus, to contribute to economic regeneration in this county.

In line with the regional problem and the identified needs and strengths, enterprise support has been chosen as the policy heading for this study. There is a clear continuity between the priority axes and key areas of intervention focusing on enterprise support in the ROP 2007-2013 and the enhancement of the SME competitiveness in the Cohesion Policy for 2014-2020, as one of the key areas for economic growth and job creation.

The research has been based on both desk research – with inquiries into the most important programming documents and result reports relating to the ROP in Romania and, in particular in the North-East region and Suceava county, accompanied by large volume of data analysis – and interviews with the persons involved in the implementation process – from local authorities to experts and beneficiaries at national, regional and county level.

The paper is organized as follows. It starts with a discussion on the nature of regional problem and identifies the needs as well as strengths and opportunities, the latter mainly deriving from the EU Cohesion Policy and related ROP. A special emphasis is put on the enterprise support, as a policy heading for the undertaken study, followed by the assessment of the value added, in relation to the strategic quality and administrative capacity. In the end the conclusions reveal the lessons that can be learnt from the 2007-

2013 programme period, so as to reinforce the economic development in the North-East region in the next years.

2. THE REGIONAL PROBLEM. NEEDS AND STRENGTHS

Suceava county is included in the North-East region, the least developed region in Romania (GDP/capita is 0.675 if the national average is 1, while in Bucharest-Ilfov it is 2.063). According to the level of GDP per capita, Suceava county is ranked third in the North-East region, after the counties of Iaşi and Bacau. In the last five years, the GDP of Suceava county has seen a different evolution of GDP than the North-East region as a whole. Although in 2007 real GDP growth at the county level was double (10.7%) of the percentage growth at regional level (5.4%), in 2007, in the context of the economic crisis, GDP dropped sharply, registering a negative growth (-3.9%), well below the regional average (3.6%). By 2009, the gap had widened even more: GDP at county level reaching a percentage reduction of 5%, while at the regional level it was increasing by 9.1% (Table 1).

TABLE 1 - GDP IN SUCEAVA COUNTY COMPARED TO NORTH-EAST REGION

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
North-East region								
GDP/capita (euro)	3698	4011	3303	3358	3555	4200	4500	4700
GDP growth (%)	5.4	3.6	9.1	-3.5	1.3	18.4	7.1	4.4
Suceava county								
GDP/capita (euro)	3763	3774	3242	3292	3488	3900	4300	…
GDP growth (%)	10.7	-3.9	-5	-3.2	1.6	11.8	10.25	…

Data source: Eurostat database

Economic efficiency of both North-East region and Suceava county, as reflected by labour productivity, has been constantly situated well below national average. In accordance with this poor labour productivity, net average earnings per employee in Suceava county represented 92.6 % if the regional average was 100 in 2009, placing the county on second lowest position in the region, while compared to the national average it was only 82%if the national average was 100. The economy of the county is characterised by low GDP per capita: for example, in 2012 it represented 95% of the North-East region average, 83% of Romania and less than 16% of EU28. The growth in GDP per capita was about 16% lower than the national average over the last 15 years prior to economic crisis (in all cases the average was 100).

Industry is currently recovering from the crisis, recording 20% growth in manufacturing in December 2012 against December 2011 and a 32.2% increase in manufacturing turnover during the same interval. The population of Suceava county has been constantly diminishing since 1992, due to both negative natural

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increase and out-migration triggered by industrial decline and poverty. Its population reached 614,451 persons (about 3.3% of the Romanian population) in 2011, while population density was 71.8 inhabitants per square kilometer, compared to the national average of 79.9.

In latest years both exogenous and endogenous factors acted in favour of developing the North-East region and the county of Suceava, the former prevailing. They refer to exports, foreign direct investments (in particular in trade and woodworking sector), grants from the EU and other sources of funding. The endogenous factors, mainly innovation and entrepreneurship had a smaller contribution. Other factors that positively influenced the economy of the region and county refer to the restructuring of the large firms in food industry, constructions and installation, the establishment of many new small firms in tourism, food industry, etc. as well as direct investments in food industry SMEs supported by the remittances of the Romanian emigrant workers. The biggest contribution to GVA in Suceava county has come from manufacturing and agriculture. The agriculture development has been based on the high share of agricultural land in total county's surface (40.8%) and big share of employment in agriculture (45.42%).

The economic development of the region depends on the ability to address a large range of obstacles that have hindered so far the development process: difficult access to finance for small producers (such as farmers) and SMEs, lack of a long term vision for the development of the county, insufficient support for innovation and entrepreneurship, complex procedures for accessing European funds and delays in reimbursement payments, frequent legislation changes; perpetuation of de-industrialization process; lack of investment in the environment (e.g. in waste collection and recycling, renewable energy); inadequate use of agricultural land and the large share of subsistence farming; lack of tax incentives for new investment; lack of own funds for investment and expensive credit; unequal and stiff competition from foreign private companies entering any market where they find opportunity; reduced innovation and competitiveness in competition with foreign investors; an education system that fails to mobilize students to training performance and lack of vocational secondary education, poor infrastructure, etc.

Despite these shortcomings, to a large extent, among the interviewed experts in the region there is a perception that both the national and EU interventions are concentrated on the regional needs. The most relevant examples refer to the industrial parks related policy, preservation of environment, sustainable development of tourism in Bucovina, measures for supporting farmers, forestry and timber processing, etc. Interviewees also highlighted the lower taxation policy for firms applied in the second half of the 1990s in order to support disadvantaged areas. Suceava county was a relevant case as a result of the closure of non-ferrous mining in the county in that period. However, the policy did not produce the expected results as many firms in the disadvantaged areas did not employed local material resources and local workers.

Regional policies are perceived as long-term policies, whereas sectoral ones are viewed as more focused, confined to some punctual objectives. There is not a clear opinion among interviewees about whether sectoral or regional policies have the most significant impact: some respondents rank first the regional policies, others – the sectoral ones. The emphasis is rather on the complementarity between sectoral and regional policies, with the former being supported by the latter. However, there is a significant concern about increasing in urban-rural disparities: the interviewees acknowledge the coherent approach of the ERDF based interventions and those financed by other sources but there are still problems in terms of complementarity. A stronger correlation is needed especially between ERDF, EARDF and Cohesion Fund supported programmes. ESF should also be included in this, as well as the support received from the World Bank. The impact of the horizontal policies is considered too, especially when it comes to the free movement of persons: labour migration has created important sources of revenues for family members who remain in the region and even for local development (e.g. small businesses) via remittances.

Suceava still remains a lagging behind county and, according to some of the interviewees, one of the reasons for this situation is the poor prioritisation of specific territorial needs in regional strategies. A pessimistic opinion is that the only decision to produce real impact has been the national decision related to the ROP to include of Suceava municipality among the urban development poles. Most interview responses indicate infrastructure improvement and development, tourism promotion and human resource development as the most important directions from the perspective of attracted funds and results of projects implemented. Interviewees also mentioned the lack of foresight and strategic vision for the hierarchy and correlation of local needs. Related to this is the issue of project approval being based on strictly financial considerations, accompanied by the 'uninspired' restrictions regarding the allocation of specific funds to various projects, e.g. implementing projects for water supply network without sewage system for the used water because the funds for sewage projects had been over; water network without hydrant points for fire situations; the creation of a green area on the commune's pasture, etc..

The development strategies of the North-East region and Suceava county, respectively, (see, for example, Economic and Social Development Strategy of Suceava County, 2011-2020) are built around the Cohesion Policy objectives, aiming to take full advantage of the funding opportunities they provide. Cohesion policy is perceived to have important support in overcoming the effects of the financial crisis, creating jobs for the youth and increasing the competitiveness of SMEs. Hence, competitiveness and social well-being are almost equally emphasized in the county. Yet, in some cases, taking into account that the North-East region is the poorest in Romania and one of the poorest in the whole EU, there is some specific focus on addressing social issues (e.g. through food aid for the poor).

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3. ENTERPRISE SUPPORT – A POLICY HEADING FOR THE UNDERTAKEN STUDY

In line with the regional problem and the identified needs and strengths, enterprise support has been chosen as the policy heading for this study. There is clear continuity between the priority axes and key areas of intervention focusing on enterprise support in the ROP 2007-2013 (Government of Romania, 2007) and the enhancement of SME competitiveness in the Cohesion Policy for 2014-2020, as one of the key areas for economic growth and job creation. Thus, the ROP 2007-2013 not only contains a key area of intervention (No.4) entirely dedicated to strengthening the regional and local business environment but also indicative operations referring to business environment within "Support to sustainable development of urban growth poles" and "Sustainable development and promotion of tourism" priority axes (No.1 and No.5, respectively). Moreover, enterprise support cannot be separated from innovation and labour market oriented support, these two headings also contributing to business environment consolidation and increasing performance. Also, it should be noted that the ROP is funding infrastructure investments (hard investments), while innovation (understood in terms of the Oslo Manual) includes investments in SMEs.

As far as Suceava county is concerned, an analysis of the top 10 projects (in terms of value) in the North-East region and Suceava county shows that in both cases only two projects are directly connected with the enterprise support heading but the other projects – most of them focused on transportation infrastructure - also contribute to a better development of the business environment by increased accessibility (Constantin and Ileanu, 2014).

4. ADDED VALUE

From the very beginning the whole ROP was conceived so as to generate added value in various ways. For example, as Romania in general and the North-East region in particular suffer from the lack of proper transport infrastructure important funds have been allocated for this axis. Further on, it helps to enhancing the accomplishment of the objectives established for other axes such as 'Support to sustainable development of urban growth poles' (Axis 1), 'Strengthening the regional and local business environment' (Axis 4) or 'Sustainable development and promotion of tourism' (Axis 5). In turn, a better local business environment or tourism development create additional sources of revenues for local budgets which can be used for rehabilitation or modernization of county and local roads. At the same time, a better business environment, a better transport infrastructure, in general better accessibility can contribute to attracting more foreign investors in the region, etc.

The enterprise support, funded via the whole Axis 4 and Key areas of intervention 1.1 and 5.2 has a special significance for the development of the local business environment and for the whole regional and local economy as well. A series of multiplier effects have been created created in terms of output, employment and income, attracting new activities, new areas (spread effects) in the development process.

The inquiries into various evaluation reports (Inforegio, 2016a and Inforegio, 2016b) as well as the interpretation of the experts' opinions show that the added value of the ROP performance varies in financial, strategic, operational, accountability and democratic terms. Thus, there are good partnership structures established in accordance with the cohesion policy principles, reflected in the financial partnerships too. When it comes to domestic plans and policies, however, the applying of the cohesion policy principles, mechanisms, project appraisal and selection procedure seems to bring about only moderate added value. Even if each Romanian region elaborated its own development plan, the implementation and monitoring of these plans does not represent a bold activity at region's level for multiple reasons. For example, the responsibility of implementing these plans is not clearly established in administrative terms at regional level as long as, according to the Regional Development Act still in force (Law No. 315/2004), the Romanian NUTS2 regions do not have legal personality.

With regard to Suceava county, the respondents to our in-depth interviews consider that their county's development strategy is well-structured, but its implementation is a long-term, difficult process as a result of poor financing, frequent political changes, insufficient coordination between local administrations and county administration for promoting larger projects of county interest. Interviewees have also pointed at the major role that has to be played by the County Council and the Prefecture in the county development process, considering their decision, planning, coordination, evaluation, control competencies. The need to expand coordination and cooperation between these institutions and the private sector, NGOs, and civil society has been also emphasized, as well as the need of improving coordination between the county council and local public administration. At the same time, it should be noted that the establishment of partnerships between Suceava county and NUTS 3 units from other countries has been considered an important step towards sustainable, integrated social-economic development.

In a broader context, the regional (NUTS 2) development strategy and corresponding regional development plan has been given an 8 on a scale from 1 to 10 in terms of its content by some interviewees. Even if there are close ties between the regional development plans and the ROP, they do not overlap and, as mentioned before, given the lack of legal personality in the case of NUTS 2 regions, the regional plans have an orientation character, without the necessary levers for implementation.

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Besides the above comments, it can be added that in the case of enterprise support significant difficulties are noticed with regard to co-financing capacity: they come from the need to ensure the own contribution in relation to the eligible expenses, which, in the SMEs case, can reach 30%. The contribution is much higher if the ineligible expenses are considered as well.

As regards the administrative capacity, it is considered good and very good in general terms. The efforts paid in this respect from the very pre-accession period and systematically continued afterwards with the strong support and monitoring of the European Commission have shown the fruits in stable structures and responsibilities, clear allocation of tasks, good human resource management systems, effective support for project applications, well defined process of payment claims, effective first level controlling, etc.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Considering the regional development realities in Romania, the allocations under the ROP have offered priority to the lagging regions. As the North-East region is the least developed Romanian NUTS 2 region and also ranks third among the lagging behind regions of the EU, it received the highest allocation, namely 16.32% of the ERDF for ROP.

To date (30 April, 2016), the ROP has an absorption rate of 73.20%, compared to the average for all operational programmes in Romania that is around 75% (Ministry of European Funds, 2016). The North-East region is above this average, with around 90%. The number of projects in Suceava county represents around 20 per cent of the total number of projects implemented or ongoing in the North-East region, which is a share above the average, considering that the North-East region counts six counties.

The institutions involved in the ROP management and implementation display a high degree of staff stability, resulting in the continuity of the corresponding systems. There has been a series of training sessions, consolidating the administrative performance in terms of human resources. The weaknesses indicated by the respondents to interview questions relate mainly to internal procedures, financial constraints, domestic legislation and politics, etc. The most frequent drawbacks mentioned by the interviewees in the North-East region refer to bureaucracy, lack of transparency, insufficient communication between institutions, the long waiting time for evaluation results, political intrusion, difficult access to co-financing credits especially because of high interest rates, delays in pre-financing payments, delays in reimbursements, etc. In particular, for Suceava county the need to expand coordination and cooperation between the public institutions and the private environment, NGOs, civil society has been emphasized, as well as the need of improve interaction between the county council and local public

administration. Also, the establishment of partnerships between Suceava county and NUTS 3 units from other counties is considered an important step towards sustainable, integrated social-economic development.

The lessons learnt can be summarized as follows: rationality and flexibility in establishing priorities at regional and local level and harmonization with national headings, simplified procedures, clear and effective implementation rules, a stable institutional and business environment, ensuring co-financing capacity, and good communication between institutions.

There is a strong need to shift from development projects of local importance (locality, county level) to real regional, large scale development projects, able to stimulate inter-county and even inter-regional cooperation.

The regionalization - decentralization process, temporarily postponed, should be resumed, so as to ensure the capacity of sub-national levels to address regional development objectives in accordance with the specific features of their territories.

A more stable, effective institutional and business environment could contribute to creating the national support for the cohesion policy funded objectives. On the other hand, the expectations regarding the European Commission point to more flexibility, simplified procedures, combined, however, with keeping high standards in terms of selection, monitoring and evaluation procedures.

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LOCAL DEVELOPMENT'S INFLUENCE ON THE FREEDOM OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN LOCAL COLLECTIVITIES IN ROMANIA

Abstract
The aim of this article is to observe and to analyze the influence of the local development on the strategic management in the local colectivities from Romania. The paper includes some explorative conceptual aspects, focused on theoretical and practical analysis of sustainable local development, using the empirical data provided by the strategic documents of the local colectivities. The cities that we have chosen for this analyze fall into three categories: big, medium and small cities, from different areas. Cluj-Napoca, Timisoara, Iasi count as big cities, Bistrita, Giurgiu, Vaslui are the medium ones, and the small cities are Negresti-Oas, Calafat and Cernavoda. The conclusion of the article consists of ways in which the local development level influences the type of management and summarizes the factors that contribute at implementing an efficient and accurate management.

***Keywords*:** strategic management, local strategies, decision-making process, sustainable development.

JEL CODES: D78, J18, H72, Q01,

INFLUENŢA DEZVOLTĂRII LOCALE ÎN LUAREA DECIZIILOR ÎN CADRUL COLECTIVITĂŢILOR LOCALE DIN ROMÂNIA

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Rezumat
Scopul acestui articol este să analizeze și să observe influența pe care dezvoltarea locală o are asupra managementului strategic din colectivitățile locale din România. Lucrarea include aspecte conceptuale axate pe o analiză teoretică și practică asupra sustenabilității dezvoltării locale utilizând date empirice furnizate de documentele strategice ale colectivităților locale. Orașele pe care le-am ales pentru analiză se încadrează în trei categorii: mari, medii și mici. Cluj-Napoca, Timișoara, Iași sunt orașe mari, Bistrița, Giurgiu, Vaslui intră în categoria orașelor medii, iar în categoria orașelor mici sunt incluse: Negrești- Oaș, Calafat și Cernavodă. În concluzie acest articol analizează modalitățile în care dezvoltarea locală influențează tipurile de management și sintetizează factorii care contribuie la implementarea unui management eficient..

Cuvinte cheie: management strategic, strategii de dezvoltare locală, procesul de luare al deciziilor, dezvoltare durabilă

1. INTRODUCTION

In a certain country, region or even small communities there are very different levels of local develpment, therefore the type of management used can vary significantly. A local community can have more attributions given as part of the governments' decentralization process, but unfortunately, this is not the case of Romania, where small local communities and even full large municipalities are bounded to the decisions taken far away in some cases, by the central government, these decisions having a great influence on their strategic management and somewhat limits their ability to make quick and necessary decissions.

Outside the capital, Bucharest, the other major cities of Romania that will be analysed here are Cluj, Timisoara and Iasi, all of them being the main cities in different parts of the country, cities that attract a large chunk of the investments made in those certain regions and also the most skilled labor force. Furthermore, these large cities have one more thing in common and also an advantage over the medium and small ones: the existance of clusters or geographic concentrations of interconnected companies, an attribute that is capable of generating employment, innovation and sustained economic development. Clusters represent (Porter, 2010) a new and different way for a state, region or city to develop and employs some new roles for companies, governments and local governing institutions in enhancing competitiveness, in order to be able to attract a larger number of companies in their own cluster. Other decisions made by the central or local government that are capable of influencing the development of a certain city or region are taken in areas like: budget's size and percentage made available for development and infrastructure projects, long-term investment programs that are designed according to the economic needs of the companies involved in the local economy, waste and environment management plans that can create an increased quality of life for the people living there, public safety plan, long-term financial schedule and development plan (Sztando, 2013). One of the most important fact that a community can pose as better than other is their ability to attract a larger percentage of european funds based on the development of accurate plans and projects, these funds being used mainly for large utility or infrastructure projects that would otherwise be dalayed or finished in a lot longer period.

Unfortunatey, there are a lot of downturns that reside from the fact that the cuntry is lacking a strategic development plan at the central government level (as said before, Romania has limited decentralization, with the most important decision being made in the capital, even though the regions or cities on which they apply are hundreds of kilometers apart), the lack of clear facts and directions in the process of strategic planning at local level, with the only motivation being to gain access to some European funds, poor undestanding by the local decision-making individuals of the advantages implied of strategic

planning or a rudimentary approach regarding the investments made (traditional solutions are applied with most of the investments being made in infrastructure, specific projects or other short term projects that give a fine sensation of good spending, but unfortunately does not help the local economy in any point).

Cluj-Napoca has been considered since the Middle Age "the heart of Transylvania" and, for the last century, has also been one of the most important cities in the country. Established first as a Roman settlement back in the first century, later as a fortress of German influences, the city developed rapidly during the Middle Ages and further after its incorporation into Greater Romania, after 1918 (Hințea, 2008).

Like most of the major cities in Romania, the current Development Strategy of Cluj-Napoca was elaborated back in 2012-2013 for the 2014-2020 period, to match with the European Union timeframe regarding the use and destination of funds. Its vision is formulated for the 2027 horizon, ensuring the continuity of its main directions and unlike most of cities that construct their strategies with the help of small expert groups, usually from within the municipality, in Cluj-Napoca the new strategy was put together with the effort of over 300 experts both local and foreign (Mureșanu, 2012). The general strategy for the city of Cluj is built on three pillars that are complementary for each other: Innovation, Education and Participation, which are the key strategic factors for the city's development. The city prioritizes its long term sustaiable development over the near term benefits, fact demonstrated by including culture and creativity as two out of the 25 chapters of the strategy, already making Cluj one of the most developed city in the cuntry, having a GDP and medium income more above the european average and also the center of an IT and outsourcing industry or automotive spare parts manufacturing (Heroiu, 2013).

Cluj, being one of the most cosmopolite cities in the country and has the highest quality of life in Romania (when taking into account the large cities), a fact that attracts more educated and entrepreneurial human resource from nearby areas or even further away in the country (Muresanu, 2012). Furthermore, Cluj is a role model city in terms of good governance, an academic hub representing a source for creativity and innovation and has a very good geographical location, being somewhat close to the Western border of the country, thus attracting investments in manufacturing and production, making the city to not be dependent of a single industry for its well-being (Mayor's Office of Cluj-Napoca, 2013).

Timișoara, one of Romania's largest city (population 332,000), the main center in the west of the country and residence town of Timis county, is also one of Romania's most developed cities along with the capital, Bucharest and Cluj. City authorities attribute its economic and social progress especially to its strategic geopolitical position, Timisoara being just 60 km away from the border with Hungary. Other facts that

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contribute to the city's success are the developed support structures compared to other regions, skilled human resources, and a high degree of cultural and social cohesion.

Local industry is extremely diverse and comprises various branches: machinery, electrical engineering, chemicals, wood processing industry, textiles and especially auto parts manufacturing and engineering (Murphy, 2011). A local and national university center, Timisoara gives the opportunity to study in several fields like medicine, psychology, veterinary medicine, polytechnics, economic sciences, political sciences or engineering, the city being one of the few in the country that can be proud of having a sizeable number of foreign students, a lot of italian or french students come to Timisoara for study, based on its low taxes and proximity to the west.

There are numerous factors that can be cited for the success achieved by the city in promoting entrepreneurship and SME development and also some areas where progress still needs improvement (although the areas that still need improvement are a handful compared to other cities in the country, including Bucharest). Amongst the reasons that contributed to the city's extraordinary performance are historical factors such as cross border trading even during the communist era, a strong regional identity and joint action by public and private interests, a greater accent on education compared with other parts of the country, and, not last, competitive costs that contributed to a higher productivity (Bazavan, 2014).

In particular the following reasons and measures are prominent: the mayor's office active involvement in creacting a sustainable development strategy for the city, the local mentality and tradition towards foreign exchange and relations, small and medium businesses are encouraged to settle in the town and maybe the most important factor, the creation of a local cluster for the automotive industry, an area that is somewhat unique and does not compete with Cluj, for example, that developed its own cluster, but focusing on the IT industry (Baga, 2009). With physical proximity, high level of concentration of the industrial basis and inter-firm networks of small companies in an array of interrelated industries, there is clear evidence of a more intensive spatial agglomeration of firms in the western part of Romania.

Timisoara faced all the problems that characterized most if not all the cities in the cuntry, with limited central government support and bound to the investments decided there and relatively low economic and social development when compared with other EU or neighbouring Central European countries. Usually, SMEs complained about constant changes in legislation and regulations and the need to simplify and stabilise the business environment, the absence of good clear information for investors, both domestic and foreign, and lack of management experience for the public services were obstacles to business development but, fortunately, there has been significant improvement in those areas, especially after 2007, the year that Romania joined the European Union.

Beginning with 2007 when Romania acceded to the European Union, Iaşi became the biggest city at the Eastern part of the Union, right at the border with the former Soviet Union. Due to its geographical location, Iaşi displays an increased potential to become a bridge between Western and Central European cuntries and the Moldova, Ukraine and Russia. Unfortunately for the city, Iaşi is placed within the most underdeveloped region of Romania, although is one of the largest cities in the country and the main economic center for the Eastern part of the country, the North-East Development Region, historically lagging behind other regions of development in the last decade (Popescu, 2011). Within this context of declining regional economy and deindustrialization, a phenomenon that appeared after the fall of the communism, Iaşi stands as the engine of economic growth for the entire County of Iaşi and North-East Region as well.

Usual for the majority of cities inside the European Union, Iasi developed a trategy based on the 2014-2020 hoeizon and takes into account the existing gaps at territorial level in comparison with other major cities in Romania, not to mention the EU. Thus, three main development levels were identified, each with its own development path, complementarily with the strategic vision for transforming Iasi into an economic hub in medium and long term (Local Council, 2013).

The first objective is directed towards improving the infrastructure, connectivity and accessibility, thus ensuring access to good-quality public services and utilities networks and improving connectivity within the county, as main measures in providing support for the private entrepreneurial sector's development and improving the citizens' overall quality of life, the latter being a drawback point for Iasi, when compared with Timisoara or Cluj. At the same time, by investing more in infrastructure, Iasi can benefit on the opportunity provided by its strategic location, in eastern Romania and could strengthen its position as a gateway to Moldova and further to Ukraine, but also to become an import hub for different merchndise imported from these two non-EU countries (Popescu, 2011).

The second objective is strengthening the city's economy through economic diversification and encouraging entrepreneurial development, focusing espacially on small and medium enterprises, Iasi lacking the big investments made by foreign companies that was seen in other western cities in the country, as well as trying to attract new large investments to the whole Iaşi County (Local Council, 2013). However, particular attention will be given to the sectors most likely to generate the most economic, these activity sectors being the pharmaceutical industry and medical services, machinery, installation and equipment manufacturing, metallurgical industry, and especially IT and communications industries (these industries don't need the kind of infrastructure that other producing industries consider to be vital and look away because of this lack of infrastructure), car and car parts manufacturing, textile industry, farming and

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agri-food industry (the agricultural industry is one important pillar for the city mostly on medium and long time periods).

The third and last objective that the municipality considers is improving the quality of life and environmental protection by providing support for skilled labour force, education and backing creativity as an essential growth factor while preserving in the same time the natural environment. The overall quality of life is essential in creating a good working and investment environment, thus being able to attract larger investments from within the country and from other member states of the EU, while ensuring the existence of highly skilled labour force to fully cover the human force requirements.

The city of Bistrita has a population of 85,154 inhabitants, thus making the city a medium sized one inside Romania and has a somwhat complex economy for its size, dominated by the service sector, supplemented by a well developed industrial sector, focused on the export, developed over the last 50 years, even sincer the communist era. Although it has a special potential and favourable natural conditions, the agricultural activities have an insignificant contribution to the city's economy, being limited only to the subsistence agriculture, a fact happening after a massive industrialization of the area during the communist era, that leaved the agriculture underdeveloped. Compared to the structure of the regional and national economy, Bistrita-Năsăud County has a higher weight of the industrial sector and services, and a lower weight of agriculture and constructions (Dumitru, 2014).

The industry and services contribute with about 56% to the total turnover achieved by the companies in Bistrita and provide approximately a half of the jobs found in the city. Althourgh the larger part of the turnover is generated by large companies, with over 49% of the total, there are still many small and medium companies, which managed to employ almost a third of the total number of people, with a large proportion of those businesses being in the industrial sector, thus generating larger added value that is redistributed inside the country. Unlike other cities located in the center and West of the country, the IT&C sector is less developed in Bistrita, taking in consideration the large industrial basis that the city has.

In order to maintain the positive trends and to ensure a long term sustainable development, the Local Development Strategy of Bistrita Municipality was created in the period between 2007 and 2010, in order to be implemented starting from 2010, even before the new EU budget for 2014-2020 period. This certain strategic planning aims at defining the strategic milestones for the entire community for a period of 20 years (Bistrita Municipality, 2011) with the overall objective of creating a more efficient public administration in order to enhance more economic benefits for the community. Furthermore, the strategy focuses on five strategic action fields like urban development and transport infrastructure, environment

and energy, economic development, human resources and creating a society with a high quality of life (including healthcare, sports or culture) and tourism.

Overall, Bistrita is one of the few well positioned and developed medium cities in Romania, having the potential to further thrive in a competitive economy and an open market with its industrial products being exported all over the European Union and even further away in Asia or South America.

Giurgiu is the main city of Giurgiu county, one of the five poorest counties in Romania, and has a population of around 62.000 people or approximately one quarter of the cunty's population.

The city's economy relies mostly on farming, industry and trade, although the agriculture is the main industry with over half the workforce being involved in this sector. The county in particular is covered by forests and arable land, while in the norh there are some oil and natural gas deposits that are being exploited. Also, Giurgiu is ne of the most important Danube ports in the country, using this as a geostrategic advantage for the city becouse is access route for different cargo being transported towards Western Europe or imported good being shipped in the country, especially for Bucharest as the final destination point (Alexandrescu, 2010).

Based on the information found on the city hall's website, there is a development strategy plan available for the period from 2014-2020, but there are only a few investments plans based on the funding received from the European Union, while the rest of the measures are only general ones, like improving the infrastructure, the accesibility, environmental programmes, the economy in general, developing the tourism and the public administration, without a certain pillar on which the community can develop and evolve. The lack of a clear development strategy plan might be a bad signal for some investors, unable to make an investment plan on medium and long time (Buciuta, 2014).

Vaslui, one of Romania's eastern cities is also one of the poorest in the country, having the lowest GDP/inhabitant (Panaete, 2014). After the fall of the communist regime in 1989, almost the entire county\s industries collapsed one by one, nowadays only "Rulmenti Barlad" running as the most notable example. Since then, only the agriculture remained asa the prominent sector which employs the bulk of the workforce with Vaslui also having significant activity in services sector, being the most important city and residence of Vaslui county.

Like most medium and large cities in the country, after the country's admission to the EU, Vaslui developed a development plan in order to attract foreign investment, but also European structural funds, vital for the city's economy. Therefore, "Integrated Urban Development Plan of Vaslui Municipality" was made, with the general objective to implement the concept of ecological transport backbone of the city for

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a better quality life through accessibility, mobility and increased security of citizens (Vaslui Local Council, 2011). The second and most important objective is to reduce disparities and to ensure accessibility and mobility between deprived areas and the central line of the city.

One of the major problems of Vaslui, unlike other comparable sized cities in the center and West of the country is also one with very few short term solutions: depopulation. After the large communist factories closed in the 1990's, there were a lot of unemployed and skilled workers and those workers found a new destination not long after by emigrating in the Western European countries that had a booming economy in 2005-2008 period, especially Spain, Germany or Italy.

Negresti Oas is a small city located in Satu Mare county, having a population of almost 12,000 people. Located in a rich and beautiful area in the country, Negresti Oas was a predominantly agricultural town before WWI, after that became more industrialised, the back then authorities starting the extraction of different construction materials, coal and iron ore, along with the exploration and production of the mineral and thermal waters.

Nowadays, after the fall of the communism, only a fraction of the industrial activity remained alive, with a single production site for construction materials and another for the mineral water spring. To somewhat compensate the loss of the industrial basis, all the local investments were made in order for the city to become a point of interest for tourists, Negresti Oas being now a touristic city with a local level of interest (City Hall of Negrești-Oaș, 2012).

The city's management encouraged the tourism by offering incentives to domestic and foreign investors, thus having a modern ski slope, housing units for tourists, restaurants and, not in the end, rehabilitated roads and sewage.

Calafat is an old and small city located in the south of Romania, on the banks of the Danube, one of the main and most important purposes being that as a river port and shipyard. But, like most other small cities having a sole industry for surviving, after the collapse of the whole industry in the 1990's, Calafat became more as a resort, a tourist destination for fishing or hunting. A boost was gave in 2013, when a new bridge over the Danube that unites Romania and Bulgaria created a local hub for the import and export of different goods towards and from Bulgaria and the Balkan Peninsula (Calafat Municipality, 2013).

The bridge's construction created a new oportunity for local businesses to offer different services for the import and export of goods, the local municipality taking action towards small and medium businesses support, but there is not a single area of support or development currently in place for the city.

Cernavoda, like many cities located in Constanta county, has a long history behind, being founded either by the ancient greeks or by the romans. Currently, Cernavoda is a small city located on the Danube river, but unlike many other small and medium cities in the country, has a strategic location and interest, in part because of the Danube-Black Sea canal which was innaugurated in 1984, after more than 10 years of construction and starts near Cernavoda and especially for the hosting of Romania's only nuclear power plant, since 1996, when the first reactor started producing energy (Hour, 2015).

The whole industry is currently focused in maintaining and operating the nuclear power plant with other industries virtually non-existent, with the exception of some companies that offer different services, this being the only sector that flourished after 1990.

According to the municipality's plans for the town, their plan is to invest more in creating green areas in the city, to build a new harbour for tourists that navigate along the Danube towards the Black Sea and the Danube Delta, thus transforming Cernavoda into a more desirable tourist destination and finally to develop a Center for Emergency Situations, vital for a city that hosts two nuclear reactors. As a short conclusion to the plans that the city's management has for Cernavoda, we can conclude that only the construction of the new river port has the potential of creating a new industry for the city and opportunities the local businesses and people (Groove, 2015).

CONCLUSION

After reviewing some basic attributes of three large, medium and small cities from Romania, a major conclusion can be drawn: the larger a city is, the more accurate and performant management has, even though some of the good measure taken were somewhat forced by the private investors that came in that certain city to open production facilities.

All the large cities analysed in this paper had a local development strategy, usually overlapping the EU fund calendar, focusing mostly on infrastructure, environment and, maybe one of the most important factor that only in the last few years appeared in the local strategies of several municipalities, the quality of life improvement. The latter one might be even more important usually because in a city or local community that is seen as having a high quality of life, many skilled people are likely to come and stay there. And skilled labour force means more economic activity, more innovation and more added value.

From wihin the medium cities trio, Bistrita kept or attention in particular, especially for its strong industrial basis, that managed to survive and thrive even after the fall of the communism and the EU accession. But, generally speaking, the smaller the cities, the more disarray the strategies are, some focusing on large infrastructure or tourism projects that might have minimal or no economic impact, with the sole

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meaning of spending the funds received from the European Union. The other two medium-sized cities are characterized by massive depopulation, the lack of new investments and significant economic activity, with only services and some construction activities being noticed and have no certain strategy to change the bad fortunes.

Finally, the small-sized cities are also the least fortuned in our analysis, many being founded or lived with only a large industrial facility dominating the city, which, in most cases collapsed quickly after 1990's. Currently, as identified by the facts above, these cities must carefully choose a single domain or industry on which to invest all its human and material resources, is order to ensure a sustained development on medium and long term. One good example is Negresti-Oas, that invested heavily in the tourism sector, after losing almost all its industrial basis after 1990's. Second in line would be Cernavoda, an old city that thrived only because the country's only nuclear facility was built there, all the city's businesses surviving on the nuclear power plant's shoulders.

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COLLABORATION IN CITY-LEVEL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

COLABORAREA ÎN DEZVOLTAREA ECONOMICĂ LA NIVEL DE ORAŞ

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Abstract
The purpose of this article is to gain a deeper understanding of the strategic tendency and the administrative infrastructure of a city as relevant drivers of the degree of collaborative activity, the tools of development as an outstanding constituent of a city's collaborative management approach, and the collaborative processes achievable to a city for attaining its strategic goals. The findings of this study have implications for the scale and objective of city government collaborative management, the connection between the embracing of development policy advances and the level of collaborative undertaking in cities, and the extensiveness of the collaborative framework for cities and economic development.

***Keywords*:** collaborative management; city government; economic development.

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Rezumat
Scopul acestui articol este de a dobândi o înțelegere mai profundă a tendinței strategice și a infrastructurii administrative a orașului ca, determinanți relevanți ai nivelului de activitate colaborativă, a instrumentelor dezvoltării, ca un constituent remarcabil al abordării de management colaborativ al orașului, și a proceselor colaborative ce pot fi realizate de orașe în vederea atingerii scopurilor lor strategice.
Rezultatele acestui studiu au implicații pentru dimensiunea și obiectivul managementului colaborativ la nivelul administrativ al orașului, legătura dintre acceptarea abordărilor politicilor de dezvoltare și nivelul de acțiune colaborativă în orașe și extinderea cadrului colaborativ pentru orașe și dezvoltare economică.

Cuvinte cheie: colaborare, oraș, infrastructură, administrativ, management, politici de dezvoltare

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1. INTRODUCTION

Cities and their public managers function in an intricate intergovernmental and interorganizational setting. In numerous operational regions, cities arrange with private-sphere agencies to provide fundamental services to citizens. Handling externalities is equivalent with administering in central cities and their neighboring outskirts. Cities hold an increasingly decisive position as the scenes for connecting possible partners. Collaboration has become an instrument that cities can employ to strategically undertake their political and economic goals. Cities inspect the setting and determine whether collaboration is an effective critical instrument, an unavoidable evil, or merely not relevant. Some cities regard collaboration as a chance, whereas others perceive it as pointless at the most and a responsibility at the worst. Some cities prefer to collaborate in any manner possible, but others refrain from it. Some cities collaborate as a way to accomplish local purposes, others as a process for not preventing the fulfillment of external goals. Countless cities collaborate with other stages of government, therefore functioning in the administrative network of federalism, others operate with local entities, exploiting the resources of profit-making and nonprofit bodies, and others capitalize on of both. (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003)

2. THE STRATEGIC TENDENCY AND THE ADMINISTRATIVE INFRASTRUCTURE OF A CITY AS RELEVANT DRIVERS OF THE DEGREE OF COLLABORATIVE ACTIVITY

Similar to performing within the city ranking, collaboration should be handled, even though in a distinct fashion. The intricate interorganizational, intersectoral, and intergovernmental scheme framework of cities supplies a chance for a city to strategically and collaboratively follow its political and economic goals. Economic development is a planned (Popescu, 2013c), prearranged, city-level undertaking. Cities make responsible judgments concerning the form and substance of economic development scheme. The city-level benefits of collaborative management differ across cities. The latter ones function in an elaborate network of jurisdictions, agencies, businesses, and nonprofit bodies, each of which having some demand on the governing undertakings of the city. Some cities prefer to employ the chances existent in the intergovernmental and multiorganizational setting, whereas some do not. (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003) A convergence of technology improvements undertakes extensive and positive alteration in local government, modifying everything from the manner employees accomplish fundamental functions (Lăzăroiu, 2015) to the fashion individuals engage with government. City workers can operate more swiftly and creatively to work out matters (Nica, 2012a) when their tasks are characterized as problem solving and not rule following. Governments that adopt the digital public switchboard will constitute it as a platform for shared undertaking with their components: cities can better prioritize resources, envision obstacles,

tailor-make feedbacks, and release the now-unexploited resources of collaborative community undertaking. The primary purpose of the digital revolution is a novel era of open-mindedness in city government, where employees carry out really beneficial performance in association with the individuals they govern (citizens are concerned more than anything else about the continuance of their own communities). Digital markets can function as the way for people to intercommunicate more vigorously and sagely when the city government operates. (Goldsmith and Crawford, 2014)

City administrators should furnish city services more proficiently while remaining within the confines of democratic values. Political economy theory may be a method for examining how politics and economics may impact city reestablishment endeavors. Eminent domain and police power are significant instruments employed by city officials to perform on the best benefits of the citizens. Eminent domain is the legal capacity city authorities own to assume responsibility of personal property aiming public enhancement. When police power is carried out, the city does not have to establish any judicial process or reimburse the property owner for any deprival in value of the property. City governments set up, apply, and put in force regulatory public scheme via the employment of ordinances and resolutions. Total compensation is characterized as the salary and benefit packages city governments supply their workers. City governments utilize tax revenues to cover the expenses of enrolling, developing, and maintaining workers, and throughout periods of austere budgets, cities frequently have problems in financing compensation programs. A city manager who establishes a compensation plan contingent upon equity theory would concentrate on instituting a salary and benefit package that recompensed all workers having the same level of qualifications similarly. (Starnes, 2013) City managers are community developers and enablers of democracy: they have become experts at facilitative leadership (Popescu, 2013b) and building associations and common consent, and more cognizant that legality of the city manager function requires more than a legal setting up in council-manager government, the manager's adhesion to the value of cost-effectiveness. Community building is a topic that conveys a grasp of how the city management profession has developed. The notion of community building is tempting as a foundation for the routine of city management as with it occurs a perception that both politics and administration are critical, many times conjoined, and should operate in the type of association that nearly all local government experts appreciate instead of the adversarial connection with their governing entity in which they sometimes find themselves. The relevance of city managers has been entrenched in the structure of government itself. (Nalbandian, 1999)

3. THE TOOLS OF DEVELOPMENT AS AN OUTSTANDING CONSTITUENT OF A CITY'S COLLABORATIVE MANAGEMENT APPROACH

Within the diversity of collaborative management there are associations of undertaking and goal that individualize a city's advance to the intergovernmental and multiorganizational setting. Collaborative management is a ruling process attainable to cities on a regular basis, and in numerous cities it is a prevalent undertaking of public management. Cities are effective units of interpretation for inspecting the diverse features of collaborative management, and provide substantial amounts and kinds of possible collaborators with governments. Jurisdiction-based enterprise by managers in cities takes place in administrative frameworks that are the most intricate, where scheme activity is considerable and demands to carry out are the strongest. Cities handle countless intergovernmental and intersectoral participants that are not instantly considered to be positioned within a particular policy sphere. (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003) The administration of infrastructure funding at the city and city-region scales is pivotal to the exploration of novel and ground-breaking financing mechanisms for infrastructure systems: the administration of local infrastructure subsidization has been shaped by the wider processes of financialization. The supplementing of private finance, at the city and city-region scale, is molded by three determinants: (i) the character of the capacity and interlinks that are present in decentralized and centralized systems between national and subnational governments; (ii) the capacity of positions to generate organized approaches and prioritized distribution schemes that can draw and embed national and international private financing; and (iii) the strength with which public and private entities handle both responsible and emerging city-region-wide governance alliances. Some cities are better at participating in urban managerial undertaking than others, which itself generates and consolidates fluctuating and disproportionate end results between positions. (O'Brien and Pike, 2015)

The digital innovation in governance generates a much better connection between city hall and the citizens it serves. A digitally informed city does not restrict its advantages to individual-to-government link and generates benefits in the user-to-business-sphere as government more thoroughly regards data and knowledge (Lăzăroiu, 2012) as a crucial service. Digital governance releases cities from the idea that government is the origin of all trustworthy data or the solution to every problem. The platform that cities supplies for involved individuals further customized and well-organized feedbacks, which stimulate them to take part as representatives of the community and not just as users gathering their proportion of services. As useful to a city government as predictive capacity is the potential to acquire from normalized information across cities. Local officials can obtain strength from comprehending how their fellow workers in other cities face down several of the influential forces that prevent data-informed governance.

(Goldsmith and Crawford, 2014) Council manager administration without a mayor is unimaginable, and since the type of administration preserves its reputation as "good government," the value and trustworthiness of the mayor is considerably unquestioned. The search for legitimacy is one for establishing what practicality the mayor attaches to a community. Mayors cannot dictate alterations as they do not handle the technical knowledge to completely grasp what they are asking for. As city staff starts to integrate facilitative management routines into their own performance, mayors who employ hierarchical supervision over them affect the frequently vulnerable arrangements staff has mediated among contending participants. Mayors are vulnerable to elected public servants and individuals disbelieving the proficiency of any government worker, even challenging the effectiveness of administration itself. (Nalbandian, 1999)

4. THE CONNECTION BETWEEN THE EMBRACING OF DEVELOPMENT POLICY ADVANCES AND THE LEVEL OF COLLABORATIVE UNDERTAKING IN CITIES

Regimes boost the potential of cities to devise and enforce public products and services. Managers in all cities may be drawn in countless connections with numerous diverse public agencies and private organizations, and in a way that is intensified potentially by manifold endeavors to advance local concerns. Numerous cities grasp to survive with the unpredictability of internal politics and advance strengths for prevailing over the political claims of the federal and state government. A city's economic capacity and degree of collaborative functioning (Popescu, 2013a) are reciprocally associated. Public servants in cities influence the level to which the public sphere interferes in the local economy, determine which policy proposals are exemplary employed to accomplish the required outcomes, and assess the planned consequences of these proposals. (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003) The influence that a city manager can have on the collaboration of a public entity may be distinct from that of a chief executive: environmental intricacy impacts collaboration by entities handled by public servants but not by those handled by chief executives. The features of public managers should be considered for the purpose of comprehending why public entities participate in collaborative undertakings. The manager's age has an important adverse consequence on collaboration (young managers tend to cooperate more than older ones). The top manager's educational background is an outstanding predictor of collaboration. The managers that have mastered better skills because of their higher educational qualifications (Lăzăroiu, 2013) are less unwilling to face the administrative intricacies that collaborations require. Managers that leave their offices and are involved in organizational courses are likely to collaborate more. Male and female public managers display no dissimilarities concerning their degrees of inter-organizational collaboration. Control variables related to the impact of organizational features have a powerful impact on collaboration. The magnitude of the

entity has a significant effect on collaboration: organizations with more workers participate in more collaborative undertakings. Favorable outcome in previous collaboration is powerfully associated with participating in collaborations. (Esteve et al., 2013)

Digital governance accelerates the scope of judiciousness and materialization for city workers. Cities should maintain the public confidence and further responsibility by raising openness in return for cutting down the transactional responsibilities of the present process (cities boost the pool of bidders, decreasing public expenditures rapidly). Mayors choosing to adopt the capacity of digital data (i) can empower government workers to employ their judiciousness and reasonableness, performing toward better existences for individuals, (ii) these leaders can engage with people in the relevant supplying of services, and (iii) these digital solutions will enable persons to operate with local government on collective solutions to the impressive difficult tasks that face all citizens (cities can empower, engage, and enable both public workers and individuals). Improved by digital technology, cities will alter the manner individuals perceive local government and civic existence. (Goldsmith and Crawford, 2014) "How" a local government regulates its business, whether with its own workers or with the ruling entity or individuals, is as significant as "what" is done. The accountability of the mayor is to authorize the governing body and people by assisting in advancing and employing the instruments of participation. The facilitative leadership functions enter in framing matters and procedures to handle various concerns, to concentrate on advantages and not attitudes when problem solving, and to establish collaborative alliances in policymaking and service distribution. (Nalbandian, 1999)

CONCLUSIONS

As cities have increased their implication in economic policymaking, the amount of participants that have an interest in improving city economies (Nica, 2012b) and consequently should be driven to successfully impact economic functioning (Popescu, 2013d) has escalated. Collaborative management is an evasive goal to assess exactly, granted the various participants and feasible approaches a city may undertake. Collaborative management in cities reflects the long-term societal action with regard to collaboration and arrangements. (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003)

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STUDY ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF EUROPEAN FUNDS FINANCED PROJECTS TO URBAN DEVELOPMENT

STUDIU PRIVIND CONTRIBUȚIA PROIECTELOR FINANȚATE DIN FONDURILE EUROPENE LA DEZVOLTAREA URBANĂ

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Abstract
The urban dimension has become increasingly important for the European Union`s cohesion policy. In this particular context, in order to reduce the obstacles cities, confront themselves with, local public authorities have started implementing projects financed from structural and cohesion funds. This paper is aimed at analysing the contribution EU funds have in the urban development process by presenting some successful projects of cities that invested in sustainable urban development. The choice of projects was based on two key aspects: (1) high level of complexity, efficient planning and execution; and (2) effects of the implemented projects, that are tangible and measurable, for the urban space rehabilitation process.

***Keywords*:** cities, urban dimension, EU funds, sustainable urban development.

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Rezumat
Dimensiunea urbană a devenit extrem de importantă pentru politica de coeziune europeană. În acest contex, pentru a reduce problemele cu care se confruntă orașele, autoritățile publice locale au început să implementeze proiecte finanțate prin fonduri structurale și de coeziune. Acest studiu încearcă să analizeze contribuția fondurilor UE la dezvoltarea urbană prezentând în acest sens câteva proiecte de succes ale unor orașe care au pariat pe dezvoltarea urbană durabilă. Alegerea acestor proiecte s-a bazat pe două aspecte esențiale: (1) nivelul de complexitate al acestora, eficiența planificării și modul de realizare; și (2) efectele - tangibile și măsurabile ale implementării proiectelor - pentru reabilitarea spațiului urban.

Cuvinte cheie: orașe, dimensiunea urbană, fonduri europene, dezvoltare urbană durabilă

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, cities development has become a necessity at both national and international level. This is also due to the fact that urban areas contribute widely to social, cultural and economic development (University of Oslo, Department of Sociology and Human Geography, 2013). However, this development can be achieved only if elements contributing to this growth are managed properly - this being the main problem cities often face: how policies and urban development plans are formulated, as well as the methods of implementing them.

The execution and formulation of policies of urban development can be divided into the following five tasks and essential elements (JICA, 2006, p. 22):

- setting and implementing the urban development plans;
- developing the urban infrastructure for urban growth and improving the urban living standards;
- restoring the residential areas in order to create proper living spaces from the health point of view;
- protecting the urban areas, as well as strengthening the natural resistance towards calamities;
- developing the administrative capacities in order to support urban management.

In the European Union, urban development and the problems facing urban areas have become increasingly more important. Thus, in the context of Cohesion Policy, urban areas have earned their place in the URBAN pilot project that was initiated in 1989.

In the time frame 2000-2006, the main EU priorities (laid down by the Lisbon strategy) were aimed at: economic growth, jobs and innovation. For urban development, the programs URBAN II and URACT I were created (European Commission, 2015).

In the time frame 2007-2013, the EU's top priorities took into account convergence, regional competitiveness and employment, and territorial cooperation (Carey et al., 2007, pp 32-33). During this period, the problems that the towns faced were integrated into all national and regional programs, which have been financed through the structural funds and cohesion funds. Thus, the URBACT II program was focused on the exchange of best practices and the creation of a network between experts and urbanists; the JESSICA initiative has provided support for sustainable investment, growth and employment in urban areas, while the Urban Audit Program has provided statistical data regarding the livelihood of citizens in at least 357 European cities, from Member States. Regarding the timeframe 2014-2020, according to the

Regulation (UE) 1303/2013[1], the funds contribute, first of all, to continue and intensify the actions to strengthen the social, and economic and territorial cohesion, and secondly, to achieve the objectives of Europe 2020 for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth (EUR-LEX, 2013b). Taking into account these aspects, sustainable urban development is becoming very important for achieving the objectives of Europe 2020, therefore, at the level of cohesion policies have been imposed a range of measures including:

- 5% of the ERDF budget will be distributed to each Member State for integrated actions for a sustainable urban development, and also for managing and implementing these actions into cities, in accordance with article 7 of Regulation No 17. 1301/2013[2] (EUR-LEX, 2013a);
- Creating a platform for urban development that would result in an active dialogue between European cities and the Commission with regard to cohesion policy, which will also be a mechanism that underlines the way in which cities can contribute to Europe 2020;
- Integrated Territorial Investment (ITI) will be used as a tool to support the actions integrated in urban areas, and will give the possibility to combine the funds according to different thematic objectives, or even merge the funds from priority axes with the ones from operational programs that are supported from all structural funds. ITI is the only tool that implements the Integrated Territorial Strategies (European Commission, 2014).
- The URBACT III program will continue the initiatives of the program URBACT II, from the time frame 2007-2013. This program, is financed by the European Regional Development Fund, will have a budget of approximately 96,3 billion Euro[3] (URBACT, 2015)

2. SUCCESSFUL URBAN PROJECTS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

At European level, the urban aspect has gained in time a considerable importance in the context of the Cohesion Policy. In this particular circumstances, cities have benefited - in order to be able to diminish

[1] In regards to Regulation (EU) no. 1303/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 December 2013 laying down common provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund, the Cohesion Fund, the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development and the European Maritime and Fisheries Fund and laying down general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund, the Cohesion Fund and the European Maritime and Fisheries Fund and repealing Council Regulation (EC) No 1083/2006, OJ L 347, 20.12.2013.
[2] In regards to Regulation (EU) no. 1301/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 December 2013 related to the European Regional Development Fund and specific dispositions for economic development and jobs creation objective and abrogation of Regulation (EC) no.1080/2006.
[3] From which: 71% - FEDR, 5,7% - member state, 17,2% -beneficiary city.

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the problems with which they have been confronted - by a series of projects that have been financed by structural and cohesion funds. In order to analyze the contribution of EU funds to sustainable urban development in this subchapter, I've presented two successful projects that have contributed to the achievement of the objectives of the Europe 2020. The choice of these projects was based on two essential aspects: (1) the level of complexity, the effectiveness of planning and implementation; and (2) - tangible and measurable results of implementing these projects - for the restoration of urban areas.

2.1. Malaga (Spain): Restoring the city center

Context. Before 1995, the Malaga historic center was in decline due to the fact that the buildings were in a poor condition, some were even ruins, and also due to the fact that the resident population was getting older, while the number of young people was getting smaller and the rate of unemployment was increasing. All these aspects were severely affecting the image of the city.

The restoration process of Malaga historic center has begun in 1995 with the first URBAN Community Initiative, a process that has also continued in the next stages of the program 2000-2006 and 2007-2013. The restoration process included: (1) measures of regeneration, restoration of streets, green spaces, buildings, factories and commercial areas, and (2) participation and involvement of residents of the area. Also, this process has eased, from a social point of view, the integration of disadvantaged and marginalized groups, who were living in buildings that had an advanced state of degradation (Urban Initiative, 2015).

Main objectives: (1) strengthening the cohesion, (2) social integration of disadvantaged / minority living in the area, and (3) increasing the attractiveness of the historic center.

Budget: 14,400,000 EUR (the city's contribution: 4,304,757 EUR) (European Association for Information on Local Development, 2013a). In figure 1 are presented the main areas in which European funds have been invested, in the 3 time frames (1994-1999: URBAN I; 2000-2006: URBAN II; 2007-2013: Urban Initiative[4] - POCTEFEX[5]).

[4] *Iniciativa Urbana Malaga "Arrabales-Carreterias"* had as a main objective to improve public spaces, strengthen the identity and its multiple domains. This project has continued the investments from the periods 1994-1999 and 2000-2006 in the historic center, with the note that in the period 2007-2014 different neighborhoods and areas have been targeted.
[5] POCTEFEX - Programa de Cooperación Transfronteriza España Fronteras Exteriores.

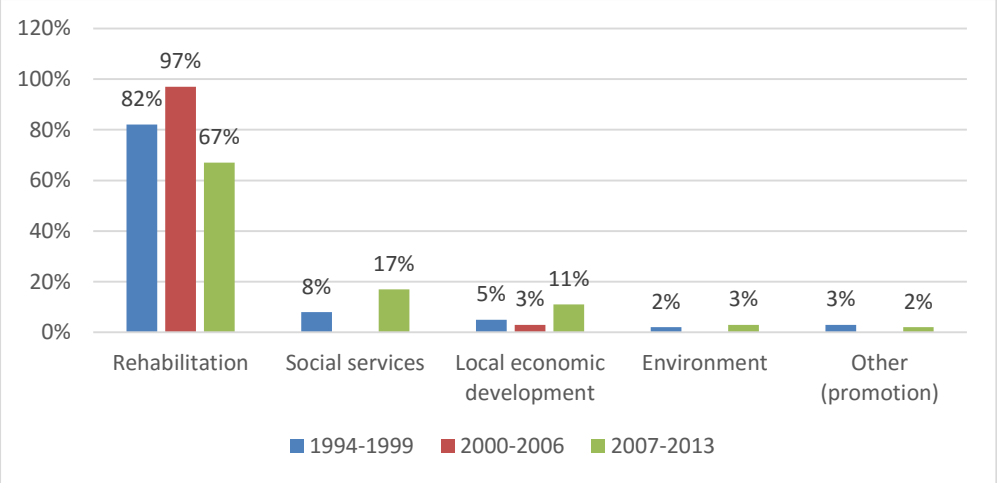


FIGURE 1. BUDGET DISTRIBUTION
Source: Cavestany, 2013, pp. 65-66

The project's beneficiaries: about 2,000 citizens (residents, SMEs that had headquarters in that specific area).

Project coordinators: the municipality through the European External Action Service, in collaboration with various public or private organizations (European Association for Information on Local Development, 2013a).

The project's results:

a) *Restoration of the historic center* [for example, the restoration of the Montano Civic Center; creating municipal playground in the Pericon Square (the result being: protecting the child care spaces); the renovation of the Merced Square (the result being: reducing the traffic in the area, improving the infrastructure, reopening of the Carmen Thyssen museum, the renovation of the Contemporary Art Museum Malaga (figure 2) (Cavestany, 2013, pp. 22-43)].



FIGURE 2. THE RENOVATION OF THE CONTEMPORARY ART MUSEUM MALAGA, IN MERCED SQUARE
Source: http://www.datuopinion.com/mercado-de-mayoristas-de-malaga and https://pintorjosemariafernandez.wordpress.com/2013/05/02/viaje-de-estudios-a-malaga/

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b) *Supporting local economic development* (for example, a center for supporting entrepreneurs was created with the purpose to strengthen the economy of the historic city center, by supporting the opening of new business and improving the business from the area).

c) *Ensuring inclusion and social cohesion* (for example, starting a series of training workshops for different categories of people, who have problems finding a job; starting a program called "Support companion" for people with addictions).

d) *Protecting the environment and environmental surroundings* [for example, creating an Environmental Consultancy Center for companies that have their headquarters in the historic center; increasing the number of pedestrian areas (figure 3)].



FIGURE 3. RESTORATION AND TRANSFORMATION OF A SERIES OF STREETS INTO PEDESTRIAN AREAS
Source: Cavestany, 2013, p. 23 and 28

e) *Changing the city's image has triggered an increase in the number of tourists.* Thus, the number of nights spent in Malaga has increased from 970,000 in 2005 to 1,697,000 in 2012. Also, cruise tourism has boomed, as the number of those who chose to visit Malaga has reached 650,000 in 2012 (an increase from 205,000 in 2005) (Cavestany, 2013, p.70).

Once the project was completed, Malaga has become a model of sustainable urban development, successfully combining an improvement in the quality of life of its population with economic, cultural and social development of the central area, in the context of an accelerated increase in the number of tourists (European Commission, 2013a, p. 2). Also, the project that was implemented in Malaga can be an

example for other cities that are experiencing problems related to road infrastructure, degraded buildings, industrial wasteland, an increasing unemployment rates and investors who choose to leave the area for more attractive centers, from more developed cities (European Association for Information on Local Development, 2013b).

2.2. Bydgoszcz (Poland): Revitalizing the industrial zone

Context. Mill Island (figure 4) was a deserted post-industrial area located in the Centre of Bydgoszcz. The zone sprawled over an area of 6.5 hectares and was neglected and excluded from the plans and strategies of urban community for about half of century.



FIGURE 4. MILL ISLAND, BYDGOSZCZ, POLAND BEFORE THE RESTORATION
Source: http://www.czystabydgoszcz.pl/upload/file/735.pdf

In 2004 the City Hall of Bydgoszcz launched a broad strategy[6] for revitalizing the area of Mill Island, which covered three **essential aspects:** (1) maintain the historical characteristics of Mill Island; (2) carry out and to take into account the requirements, or needs of its citizens and (3) attain the objectives of the EU with regard to securing and strengthening social cohesion and environmental sustainability (EuroCities, 2013b, p.1).

Project duration: 2004-2012

Main objectives: using the entire potential of the Island for its development in the areas of culture, tourism and leisure, through the rehabilitation and reconstruction of historic buildings, leisure parks, road and pedestrian infrastructure, thus fostering economic growth and strengthening social cohesion in the area

[6] "*Revitalizing the natural heritage on Mill Island and on its surroundings that are in close proximity*"

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(EuroCities, 2013a). Budget: 79,649,455 PLN (Polish złotych) (CA. 21 million EUR). The distribution of the budget for the four phases of the project is shown in figure 5.

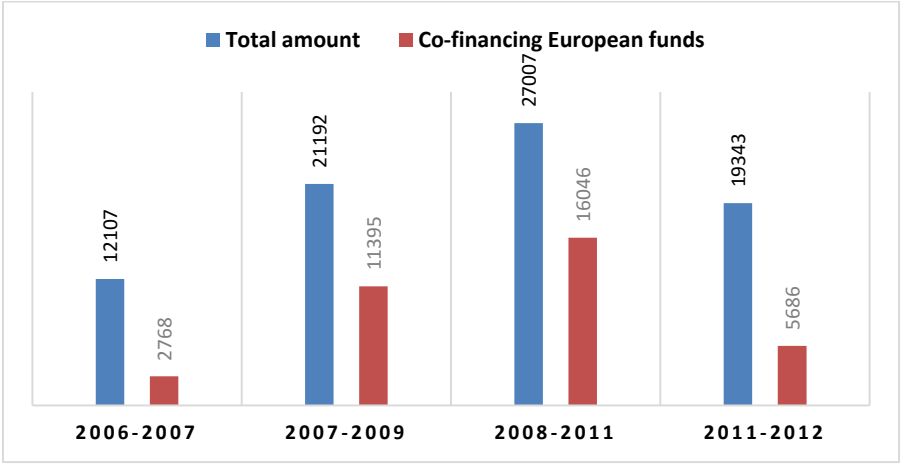


FIGURE 5. BUDGET DISTRIBUTION FOR THE 4 PHASES OF THE PROJECT (PLN)
Source: Bydgoszcz City Hall, 2011; Loose, 2011, p. 67; Szczesik-Zobek and Loose, 2011, p. 32

The project's beneficiaries: the residents in the Polish city Bydgoszcz, employees and unemployed persons in the area who are experiencing problems related to work, or have difficulties in finding a job, SMEs that operate in the area, entrepreneurs who want to open up a new business on Mille Island or nearby.

The regeneration process was divided into **four major phases** that have considered (Bydgoszcz City Hall, 2011; Loose, 2011; Szczesik-Zobek and Loose, 2011; EuroCities, 2013b):

1. *Revitalizing Mill Island for business development (existing or new) (2006-2007)* (figure 6) took into consideration: building three bridges that have linked the island with the rest of the city; the reconstruction of the Miedzywodzie channel; restoration of a historic building and turning it into a center for employment and business support.



FIGURE 6. REVITALIZING MILL ISLAND FOR BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT
Source: Loose, 2011, p. 18

2. *Revitalizing the cultural heritage of the Island (2007-2009)* (figure 7) was achieved through: the renovation of the Regional Museum, the restoration of a number of five historic buildings located on Mill Island, three representative buildings have been transformed into the Interactive Art Museum, Archeological Museum and the European Money Center.



FIGURE 7. REVITALIZING THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF THE ISLAND
Source: Bydgoszcz City Hall, 2011

3. *Building a recreational infrastructure (2008-2011)* (figure 8) has envisioned the construction of green spaces, the creation of bike trails, playgrounds and facilities for the water sports lovers; it was accomplished: street lightening, building an amphitheater as a support for organizing concerts, art shows, animation shows.



FIGURE 8. RECREATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE
Source: Szczesik-Zobek and Loose, 2011, pp. 27-28

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4. *Revitalizing the degraded sports areas (2011-2012)* (figure 9) was accomplished by demolishing the old sports club and building a marina, which offers a wellness center, catering services and accommodation facilities for potential tourists.



FIGURE 9. THE MARINA
Source: Loose, 2011, pp. 62-65

The project's results (Loose, n.d., p.13):

(1) Improving the quality of the cultural infrastructure.

(2) Promoting the Mill's image and history beyond the borders of the Polish city. Thus, after the completion of the project, approximately 20,000 people came to spend their free time on the island, in order to participate in various cultural, educational and sport events).

(3) Improving the business environment in the area (approximately 3,000-4,000 people have benefited from specialized counseling in the start-up centers, at the premises of the Association Of Employers and Entrepreneurs, and in various offices for business and vocational training).

(4) In the long run the objectives are: increasing the competitiveness of the area, ensuring and reinforcing social cohesion, and developing a new brand for the Polish city, taking into account the strategy of the Mill Island.

Awards. The program that aimed "Reviving the natural heritage on the Mill Island and its surroundings" has received several awards, of which (EuroCities, 2013a):

(1) in 2008 it received the title "Modernization of the year" from the Polish Ministry of Infrastructure and Development and from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education;

(2) in 2010 it was the winner of the competition "Seven miracles of EU funds", organized by the Polish Ministry of Regional Development;

(3) The EUROCITIES 2011 cooperation award;

(4) In 2013, the project was among the 27 finalists chosen by the RegioStars[7] jury, out of 149 projects that entered the competition, being selected in the CITYSTAR category: approaches to sustainable urban development, along with 4 other projects from different cities (European Commission, 2013b).

Currently, Mill Island represents a true support center for urban development for the entire city.

CONCLUSION

In order to bring long-term benefits, urban projects that are financed from European funds should: (1) meet the development needs of both the organizations that implement them, as well as the cities and even the regions, and (2) solve the problems that each area faces.

Starting from the analysis of the two successful projects from Spain and Poland, the cities from Romania should start acting. Thus, the Romanian cities have at their disposal, in order to access the European Structural and Investment Funds, Priority Axis 4 - dedicated to Supporting sustainable urban development within the Regional operational program (ROP) 2014-2020 (Regio, 2015). The available budget is 1.38 billion EUR (17.88% of the funds allocated to POR 2014-2020). The projects can be diverse and relate, mainly, to: (1) urban transportation; (2) buildings for educational, cultural and recreational activities; green areas, public squares or urban streets; (3) revitalizing urban areas and (4) educational infrastructure (Regio, 2015).

The projects that could be accomplished by Romanian urban areas by 2020 could contribute (as in the case of Bydgoszcz, Malaga) to the increase of the economic competitiveness (by supporting the development of the business environment), to improvement of the living conditions of local communities (through the development of infrastructure and services), and also to the sustainable development of cities, which will become able to manage their resources effectively and to pursue their potential for innovation and the uptake of technological progress.

[7] *The main objective of the RegioStars awards* is to find best practices in urban and regional development, and bring into attention original projects, or programs, from different European countries, which may be appealing and may represent a successful model for other cities and regions. These prizes are awarded annually by the European Commission since 2009 (European Commission, 2013b).

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EFICIENȚA ENERGETICĂ – O PROVOCARE PENTRU AUTORITĂȚILE LOCALE

ENERGY EFFICIENCY – A CHALLENGE FOR LOCAL AUTHORITIES

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Abstract
Localities are at the basis of any nation. Among the most important public service that citizens of these localities have the right to be provided with is energy service, especially district heating. Security of energy supply, mitigation of energy impact on environment, and energy service affordability are the main challenges for all national and local authorities. Present paper tries to discuss the role of energy efficiency at local level in the effort to solve these issues and proposes to introduce and promote proper long term policies where energy efficiency would have a top position. The importance of such an approach in Romania is clearer in the perspective of energy market complete liberalization that will be finished at the end of 2017 for all residential customers and – consequently - the danger of energy poverty increase will be highest. Local authorities have to cope with this situation and react properly.

***Keywords*:** local policies, energy efficiency, energy poverty.

JEL CODES: H76, I32, L97, M10

Rezumat
Localitățile stau la baza oricărei națiuni, iar cetățenii acestora sunt îndreptățiți să aibă acces la toate serviciile publice, printre cele mai importante numărându-se serviciile energetice, în special referitoare la încălzire. Securitatea aprovizionării cu energie, atenuarea impactului energiei asupra mediului și accesibilitatea serviciilor energetice sunt principalele provocări pentru toate autoritățile naționale și locale. Prezenta lucrare încearcă să abordeze rolul eficienței energetice la nivel local, în efortul de a rezolva aceste probleme și propune introducerea și promovarea de politici adecvate pe termen lung, în care eficiența energetică să aibă o poziție de top. Importanța unei astfel de abordări în România este mai clară în perspectiva liberalizării complete a pieței de energie, proces care va fi finalizat la sfârșitul anului 2017 pentru toți consumatorii rezidențiali și - în consecință - pericolul de creștere a sărăciei energetice va fi mai mare. Autoritățile locale trebuie să facă față acestei situații și să reacționeze în mod corespunzător.

Cuvinte cheie: politici locale, eficiență energetică, sărăcie energetică

1. WHY LOCALITIES ARE SO IMPORTANT

Localities are the basis for any nation's development. According to a World Bank Group document, "always they have been the most complex artifacts in any civilization" (Moffatt et al., 2012). Nowadays, the challenges that they have to cope increase because of the dimensions magnitude, connection to the global economy, poor local resources, population needs, but also because appearance of transnational problems, like climate change.

Unfortunately, the plans to solve all these issues face difficulties related to time horizons imposed by electoral cycles and – sometimes – group interests and this impedes to have an integrated thinking on long term, following correct development goals. Additionally, competition existing among neighboring localities – sometimes generated by the different parties that their leaders belong – can jeopardize a common approach for the same problems or an integrated planning inside the county or region that through coordination and collaboration could have an increased efficiency.

That is why, it is so important to develop public policies that are trans- and over- political parties and these is desirable to be integrated into sustainable and long term development strategies, areas where localities can cooperate and ways how the proposed measures are implemented. Typical for such common public policies are energy services and mitigation of impact on environment.

In this paper, we want to underline the importance of energy efficiency in solving these issues. Through energy efficiency a number of localities achieved "more with less", at the same time enjoying a healthier environment and prospering in national and global economy.

It is known that energy efficiency represents the first of the solutions to address for better energy services to the citizens. At the same time, it represents the primordial reply to the "energy trilemma" challenges, how they have been identified by World Energy Council: security of supply, sustainable development, and energy services affordability (World Energy Council, 2014).

In this context, it is essential to understand that in the localities governance is mandatory to properly deal with these issues in a sustainable way with benefits for the citizens. In many recent studies, the challenges mentioned above become tangible and urgent, especially in cities. Concerning this, documents of Covenant of Mayors (CoM) draw two important conclusions (Covenant of Mayors, 2013):

- Fight against climate change will be won or lost in urban areas;
- Majority of European population live and work in cities (three of four European citizens), consuming about 80% of energy used in EU, so even if measures to improve the situation are

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taken at local level, effects of this improvement of cities' economic and social life have impact at national and even at European Union's level.

On the other hand, as is specified in CoM's objective: "local administrations, as a governance level closest to the citizens, are the best placed to approach issues connected to climate in an integrated way" (Covenant of Mayors, 2013).

This is the reason why the measures to efficiently use energy in cities must be not only the part of energy services solutions but also to be firstly approached. We consider that these measures are a type of a socio – economic – ecologic system that has to be approached in its integrality, and any action to develop this system has to be considered in this integrality. In this way, the potential of the efficient measures is amplified and because the interaction of the results of these measures with national level could impact on country's development.

2. ENERGY "TRILEMMA" AND HOW ENERGY EFFICIENCY IS THE KEY TO SOLVING IT

Improvement in approaching any of the challenges of "energy trilemma" inevitably has effects on the other two and – because of it – we have to find ways to obtain an acceptable compromise to the entire trilemma's ensemble and – even more – can provide sustainable energy services. According with World Energy Council studies the core of the trilemma solution is establishment of proper national and local policies (Mușatescu, 2015).

Among the main conclusions proposed by these reports reveal are the following:

- National and local authorities will face major challenges for the next 20 years concerning energy and financial sectors to extend access to energy services, to develop new technologies, to cope with increased needs for energy investments in order to replace the old infrastructure and make it more robust.
- For energy sector is essential to be sure that public policies are attractive and business friendly by involving these sectors in the process of decision making and information distribution in order to overcome the informational asymmetry.
- It is essential for the leadership (we consider both central or local) to establish targets, to develop strategies and to create policies and regulations that can provide such an business environment to give energy and financial sectors certitude that their investments can bring profit, covering – at the same time – citizens needs and developing the whole economy in its integrality.

Energy efficiency is an important tool to solve the three challenges. By increasing efficiency, the energy consumption is lowered and the energy supply is more secure. At the same time, by using less fossil fuels a lower quantity of greenhouse gases emissions are recorded. Finally, through a more efficient use of energy, the energy bills will be more affordable. So, promoting energy efficiency and using it in appropriate public policies both at central and local level can provide adequate answer to energy trilemma and can engulf it into authorities' integrated decisions.

Because electricity and gas markets are countrywide, regional, and even at European level, the most important local public energy service is that related to district heating and this is the highest challenge that local authorities face, especially in Romania. The problem is complex and has implications on the citizens, on the City's budget, on the central budget, and even on the health system budget, because to sustain this service has implications on citizens financial resources, on the magnitude of central and local subsides, and the lack of this service has negative implications on citizens health and on health sector's budget. Unfortunately, if this specific public service is not properly delivered we encounter a consumer category that is not desired to appear in any city: „vulnerable consumers".

3. FUEL POVERTY

There is known that a share of Romania population is not capable – in general and in normal conditions – to enjoy a decent level of thermal comfort in their dwellings, because of the high cost of thermal bills in comparison with their income. In principle, this impossibility to ensure thermal comfort was identified in many countries and was studied especially in Great Britain under the name of "fuel poverty" (as part of a more general "energy poverty), and the consumers found in this position are considered to be "vulnerable thermal consumers".

As it is treated in social aid system in Romania, fuel poverty is considered to be intrinsic to poverty in general, being encountered in economies less developed. However, in studies made in other countries (again, especially in Great Britain) fuel poverty is considered to be a special problem, somehow linked to population's poverty but which has to be treated separately. This is very encouraging indeed, because if fuel poverty would be a part of poverty in general, it would be solved only when poverty in general would be solved. Consequently, those inequalities that can be avoided are – fundamentally – unfair and fuel poverty is considered to be evitable (Friends of the Earth, 2011).

In this respect, there is a resolution of European Parliament, preceded by a resolution of the European Council that requests to European Commission and to Member States to cooperate for adoption of a legislative strategy and of coherent policies in order to solve the consumers' vulnerability. These

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strategies and public policies have to properly integrate local policies to protect and reduce the number of such consumers.

As was showed, fuel poverty is caused by an interaction between expensive energy bills, low incomes, combined with additional elements like home maintenance and energy supply. The consequences are (Mușatescu and Dumitrescu, 2015):

- Low level of living comfort;
- Increased risk of heart diseases and viruses induced diseases;
- Reduced number of school and job activities;
- Increased appeal to the health system;
- Less food, on the principle: "heat or food";
- Dangerous strategies to approach vulnerability situation by disconnecting from the heating sources.

Local authorities have – in this respect – an essential role to mitigate the risks of such consequences. And to better underline the importance of adequate policies on heating as public service it is worth mentioning that there is an interesting initiative proposed in Great Britain. In this initiative, it is proposed a connection between fuel energy and the human rights under the idea that „ all of us have the right to access sustainable energy to ensure the basic necessities" (Christman, 2014).

Through a parallelism with The Bill of Rights from 1689, a campaign named Fuel Poverty Action (2014) launched in GB Parliament a declaration with the title: Energy Bill of Rights that has the purpose to „reaffirm that all must have standard basic rights to accessing clean, affordable, and controlled in a democratic way". The most powerful motivation for such approach is that this allows passing from „goodwill" to „mandatory", and rapid eradication of fuel poverty is imposed, becoming the only way of action.

4. FUEL POVERTY IN ROMANIA. ROLE OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES

In Romania, it is considered that fuel poverty (as part of energy poverty) appears when the normal conditions of comfort are not met (temperatures inside the apartment/house) either because the lack of access to energy, or because – if this access exists – the family is not able to buy this service in quantity and quality requested.

According to a recent study (Zamfir et al, 2015) „the policy to reduce it must include a complex of actions: together with the support to persons that do not have the minimum income needed to obtain appropriate energy services", including to establish measures to make energy consumption more efficient, to use competition for energy price reduction at the final consumers level, improvement of energy characteristics for living environment, especially at the level of buildings and a better access to all forms of energy, plus the "power of choice" for a better informed consumer.

The same study considers that "energy poverty" in nowadays Romania represents combination of four factors: low level of population income, increase of energy prices, access to energy sources, and energy related characteristics of the buildings and of supply with energy system.

To protect such vulnerable consumers, authorities have differentiated approaches. Central authorities can consider specific blocks of tariffs („social tariffs") cheaper than the energy prices existing on the liberalized markets or simply through direct subsidies to families with low income („social aid"). One other way is to consider subsidies only for the fuel used to provide district heating.

Local authorities can provide direct subsidies to reduce the local price for heat produced by cogeneration and delivered through centralized pipelines systems. But they have also a very important tool: energy efficiency specific policies focused on buildings.

Thermal improvement of buildings' envelops is the most common tool to reduce heat losses, but also measures like rehabilitation of transport and distribution district heating pipes and awareness campaigns to promote energy efficient behavior and to spread information on general policies like labeling and use of new smart technologies are more and more parts of local authorities public policies.

Concerning the direct support to the vulnerable consumers in Romania, the present philosophy recognizes the fact that fuel poverty appears when it is not possible to ensure the normal conditions of comfort (apartment temperatures), either because the lack of access to energy sources (thermal energy, fuel, etc.), or – when this access exists - because family is not able to purchase this service in quantity and quality requested.

For vulnerable consumers who encounter such situations, central authorities (Government) provide social aids which cover a part of the energy bills. Unfortunately, the present methodology (established each year through an Emergency Government Ordinance for the heating season) bases on a series of criteria that – in our opinion – are not adapted to heating systems reality.

We consider that there are a few criteria which are not taken into account in the present legislative framework (UNDP Project, 2013):

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a) Nowadays, the main indicator for social aid need for a dwelling is income on family member. This can be relevant for some expenses (food, clothes, etc.), but that is not correct for heating.

b) The present legislation allows payment of some part of the energy bill without knowing if this consumption is justify or is because of consumer's behavior and building's thermal conditions. In other words the social aid bases on the value of energy bill, not a properly calculated necessary.

c) The risk of such approach is a bad expenditure of public money: vulnerable consumer living in a building with big heat losses is financially helped, but will remain in a poorly heated dwelling.

d) A series of essential factors are not taken into account in assessment of the heat necessary consumption, like: building type, envelop properties, climate zone, etc.

e) In general, „the present policy expresses the effect of this simplistic reduction of energy poverty to the financial deficit of the present income. That is why „the deficit of financial resources has to be extended: not only to procure needed energy, but also to improve the energy characteristics of consumer's life environment: to improve his dwelling, to connect to energy system, etc." (Zamfir et al, 2015).

As a natural conclusion is the need to adjust the present methodology in such a way to take into account all these facts. In this new approach, a key element is energy efficiency that can help not only to reduce the energy bill, but can diminish also the appeal to social aid budget, and has a lower impact on the environment.

Concerning fuel poverty, energy efficiency needed measures have to be chosen and implemented under a local strategy of development. So, the local authorities are confronted with this new challenge and have to integrate it in a larger concept of sustainable development of the locality. Acting in this manner, the local authorities can solve a complex of economic, social, health related, and environmental problems. Because of it, the thermal rehabilitation programs for buildings are so important at local level, but also at the central level (Mușatescu and Comănescu, 2009).

The effects of these policies are larger: on health budget, labor productivity, and at the macroeconomic level for instance, countries dependence on imported fuels, balance of import-export trade, reaching of country's targets of the 20-20-20 program, etc.

The problem is augmented in the context of the two important events that will happen at the end of 2017: complete liberalization of electricity and gas markets (in the horizon of European energy internal markets integration) and the re-introduction of a number of green certificates (that have been withdrawn

in 2013 to reduce their pressure on electricity prices). This will be the major challenge not only for central authorities but especially for the local ones who are closer to the citizens and can better „absorb" citizens' satisfaction or discontent. It is clear that energy efficiency measures will be the single way to solve such a problem, so the local authorities have to act now.

CONCLUSIONS

Taking all these into account, we consider that energy poverty is a strategic issue related to any country's security and central and local authorities have specific roles in coping with such a problem. In such context, the main conclusions of this paper are:

- The energy (thermal energy, in special) public service is important in such a measure that some experts dare to express their view that this service is essential and its delivery could be considered as a basic right similar to the other human rights. At the same time, studies made by Romanian Academy (2015) consider that protection of energy consumer is part of country security. That shows the huge responsibility of the providers of the legal and regulatory framework and of the implementors of such services.
- The scarcity or even lack of needed energy service defines the vulnerable consumers and the „depth" of energy poverty. Now, in Romania, it is considered that a comparison between consumers' financial resources and the value of energy bill can define this energy poverty depth. But, recent studies demonstrated that a simple financial approach to provide social aid/ subsidies to these vulnerable consumers (the present approach in Romania) is not enough because there is a need to improve the energy characteristics of consumer's life environment: thermal modernization of the buildings, extension of connections to energy system, etc.
- Energy bill has as basic element a multiplication of energy quantity and the price. That shows that the energy poverty could be reduced not only by providing financial aid to increase income for vulnerable consumers, but also by reducing the need by using better that energy. In this respect, energy efficiency is an essential tool. If we discuss about electricity, gas, and other fuels, the markets are countrywide, but thermal energy provided through central district heating is local and usually transport, distribution, and supply are done by local authorities owned entities.
- In this context, local authorities have an essential role, not only in providing this public service, but also integrating energy efficiency programs in their policies and implementing them

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adequately. Good energy efficiency programs will augment good effects at the central level. This will solve a lot of existing problems at the economic, social, and environmental levels.

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EUROPEAN POLICIES WITH IMPACT ON TERRITORIAL PLANNING

POLITICI EUROPENE CU IMPACT ASUPRA ORGANIZĂRII SPAŢIULUI

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Abstract
The European goal to have a smart, sustainable, and inclusive economy supposes, among others, to reduce regional disparities. The European policies that have impact on territorial planning are the ones regarding competition, trans-European networks of transportation and telecommunication, agriculture and rural development, environmental protection and tourism. In order to highlight how the proposed actions contributed to the fulfilment of EU goals in regional development we examined the impact of policies on territorial planning using case studies from Romania. The analysis indicated that there is an influence, but the changes that occurred did not transform always in functional relations from administrative point of view.

***Keywords*:** regional development, territorial planning, European policies, Romania

JEL CODES: O18, O21

Rezumat
Obiectivul european al dezvoltării unei economii inteligente, sustenabile și inclusive, presupune, între altele, o diminuare a disparităților regionale. Politicile europene care au impact asupra organizării spațiului sunt cele privind concurența, rețelele transeuropene de transport și telecomunicații, agricultură și dezvoltare rurală, protecția mediului și turism. Pentru a evidenția modul în care acțiunile propuse au contribuit la îndeplinirea obiectivelor UE în domeniul dezvoltării regionale am examinat impactul acestor politici asupra organizării spațiului folosind o serie de studii de caz din România. Analiza a evidențiat că există o influență, dar schimbările produse nu s-au transformat întotdeauna în relații funcționale din punct de vedere administrativ.

Cuvinte cheie: dezvoltare regională, organizarea spațiului, politici europene, România

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1. INTRODUCTION

The geographic territory of Europe comprises an area of around 10 million square kilometers, situating this continent at the end of the hierarchy compared with the other continents. Nonetheless, Europe concentrates a variety of cultures that impacted on development all over the world. The current economic framework although allowed European states to value their historic capital, was also very advantageous for emerging regions that leaped in economic growth and now challenge European producers within the global market's framework.

The European Union (EU) is a political and economic construct that is not entirely overlapped with the geographic area, but holds most of it. Currently EU embodies states with different characteristics although with common interests in certain areas. The overarching goal of this construct is to reduce the differences in such a way that each state maximizes its development potential and their interaction boosts synergetic processes enabling the sustainable growth of EU's competitiveness in a global context. The main means of achieving this goal is economic growth facilitated by the economies of scale enabled within the common market. Thus, the three fundamental goals of the European policy are:

- Economic and social cohesion;
- Conservation and management of natural resources and of the cultural heritage;
- More balanced competitiveness of the European territory.

The differences among states arise from various aspects, including territorial planning. Each state has its own approach in this area, approach that impacts on the effectiveness of some European policies. It could be inferred that, on their turn, European policies will also have an impact on territorial planning, impact that should enable the achievement of these policies' goals.

Territorial planning itself is an issue with relevance for entire union and since the early phases it was outlined the European Spatial Development Program that is aiming to achieve a balanced and sustainable development of the European territory. This policy is considered the framework for sector policies of the EU and of the Member States that have impacts on territorial planning.

Territorial planning is a practice with a long tradition that stem back in times with a very different social, economic, political and cultural background (Cândea et al., 2006). In modern times, this practice was conceptualized and developed by scientific approach that resulted in some major changes, but with a patchy implementation across European states. These changes were more related with shifts of the political regime, while the dynamic of the economy was less influential until recently.

Territorial planning has long ranging effects and its change occur gradually or not at all unless an authority based regime is enforced. It is more likely that other changes needed in the pursuit of European goals will be brought to life by adapting policy measures to the opportunities and restrains of each Member State's territorial planning model. This raises the question of how the territorial impact could be enhanced in order to boost the effectiveness of European policies in various sectors. By examining some of these policies and their territorial impact we are aiming to highlight relevant aspects for the improvement of policy making.

2. TYPOLOGY OF EUROPEAN MODELS OF TERRITORIAL PLANNING

Territorial processes are determined by the interaction between investors and population who balances job and residential areas. In the current economic setting of the EU the logic of the free market leads to urban expansion that threatens the functionality of natural systems with a potential harmful impact on long term wellbeing. Therefore territorial planning is an issue of public interest that justifies public intervention and is recognized as such by the Member States.

Territorial planning is also considered an issue of European relevance and great effort was invested in developing a model that allows the start of a process of convergence. This effort was commenced by an assessment of the existing models that concerned common elements and their advantages and restrains against the goals of the European policies. Further, building on the results of this assessment it was developed a typology of European territorial planning models in order to substantiate institutional changes that might be necessary.

Despite the small size of the European territory, compared with other continents, and shifting national boundaries, national territorial planning evolved independently resulting in a variety of approaches. For their analysis there were proposed not less than four typologies developed using the following criteria: family of nations (Newman and Thornley, 1996); traditions of territorial planning (Faludi, 2004); macro-regional perspective; and hyper-cube of territorial planning based on four dimensions.

The typology based on family of nations comprises four models – British, Napoleonic, German, and Scandinavian, distributed as it is presented in figure 1.

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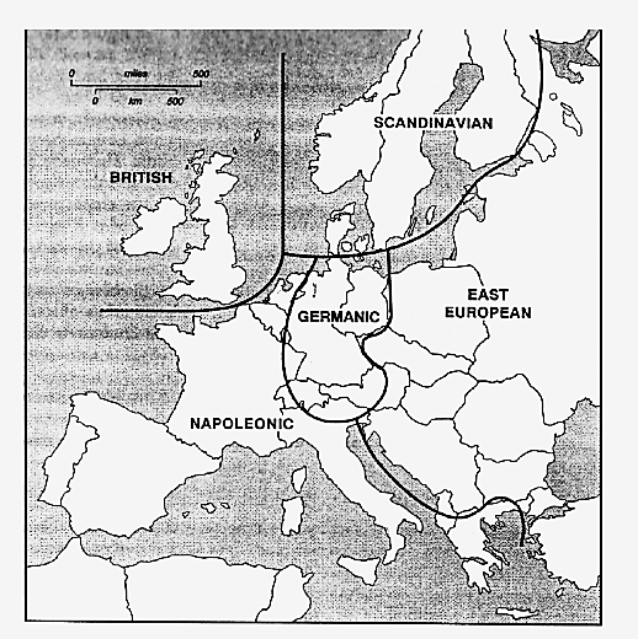


FIGURE 1 - TERRITORIAL PLANNING MODELS BASED ON FAMILIES OF NATIONS
Source: Newman and Thornley, 1996

In the British model each request is assessed separately; local decisions are evaluated by a central control against national guidelines. There is a competitive tension between local authorities and claims, although in case of large projects the plans are negotiated considering their overall benefits. Planning, development, and control are tasks of different departments.

Within the Napoleonic model territorial planning tend to be aligned to a national code and to have hierarchy, with the possibility to express the development policy on its superior level.

The German model outstands by its rigorous regulation of territorial planning with a regional pattern of I supported by regulations, plans, guidelines, and agreements. There are significant differences among regions, although the national context is very strong.

The Scandinavian model is the most decentralized, since the national component consisting only in the establishment of responsibilities and involvement in planning. Local planning supposes negotiations between authorities and claimers.

The tradition based typology outlines four categories too, namely: regional; comprehensive-integrative; land-use based; and urbanism based (figure 2).

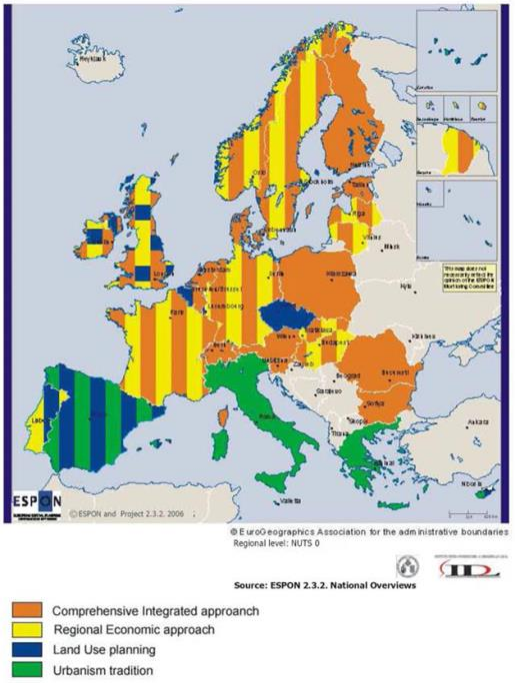


FIGURE 2 - TERRITORIAL PLANNING MODELS BASED ON TRADITIONS
Source: ESPON 3.2, 2007

The typology based on macro-regional perspective was outlined by the changes occurred under the influence of globalization being facilitated by more intense communication regarding territorial planning. The models outlined by this criterion are the followings:

- North-western perspective: the model combines the patterns of German, French, and Dutch models, having a great influence on the entire European approach of territorial planning (Rivolin and Faludi, 2005);
- British/Irish perspective: focus on the linkage between territorial planning and land use planning;
- Northern perspective: territorial planning is developed at local level, with very few elements established at national level;
- Mediterranean perspective: is featured by complex and gradual changes being deployed as urban regeneration and local development.

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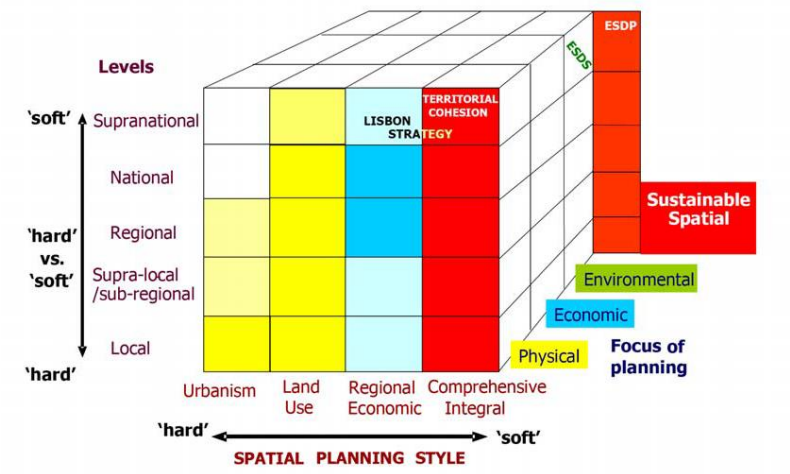


FIGURE 3 - THE FOUR DIMENSION HYPER-CUBE OF TERRITORIAL PLANNING
Source: ESPON 3.1, 2005

The typology of the hyper-cube, takes in account four dimensions: level of approach; style of territorial planning (the styles are corresponding with the models identified based on traditions); role of planning; and sustainability (figure 3). There are outlined five models of territorial planning (Schön, 2005): regional-administrative; regional decentralization; regionalization by existing local authorities; regional autonomy; and regional federalization.

3. EU'S ENVIRONMENTAL POLICY AND TERRITORIAL PLANNING

EU gained the reputation of pioneering in the field of environmental protection. This is endorsed by important action in policy making, but also by a highly performing industry that produces clean technology equipment. The aspects of the environmental policy that have impact on territorial planning are: water protection; waste management; biodiversity preservation; and climate change.

Water protection supposes a number of investments in systems of distribution of tap water and collection of waste waters. These investments should be managed by local authorities being designed to serve communities. The same is true for waste management system (deposits, recycling facilities) that could be efficient only if they are optimized by taking in account the territorial distribution of communities and the amount of waste they generate. In this process it is necessary to be in accordance with the administrative units, since contract with waste management operators are made by their local authorities.

Another environmental policy issue that has a great relevance for territorial planning is biodiversity preservation. Its most common action is to designate protected areas that aim to protect habitats and species. Although this activity is controlled by local environmental agencies, the boundaries of protected

areas are not always respecting the administrative limits. Further, protected areas are to be managed by their own administration and the goals should be correlated with spatial development goals.

The nature conservation goals that should be considered in territorial planning are:

- Monitoring, assessment, and improvement of species and habitats conservation status of community importance;
- Efficient management of protected areas, including Natura 2000 sites.

For instance, in Romania, where nature's conservation status is one of the highest across Europe, there are around 500 Natura 2000 sites, along with tens of nationally designated protected areas (figure 4). Altogether they represent around one quarter of the country's territory, an area of 6 million hectares.

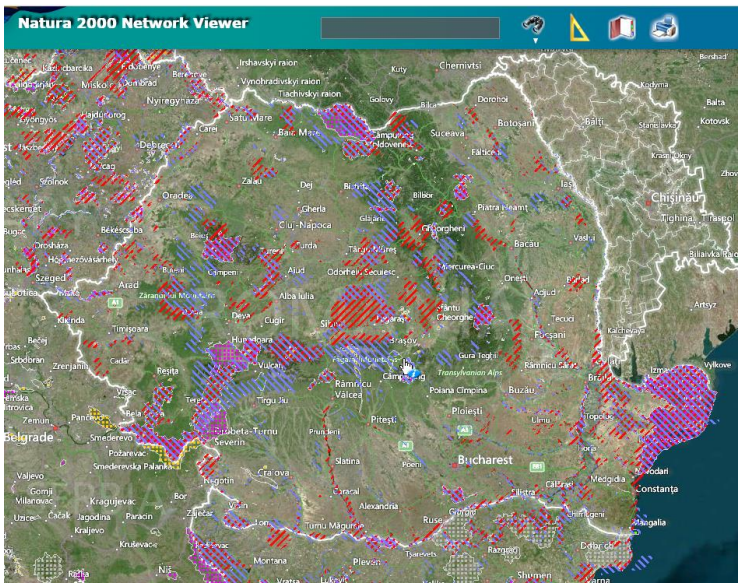


FIGURE 4 - PROTECTED AREAS IN ROMANIA
Source: Natura 2000 Network Viewer

A little proportion of them have established an administration based on a contract. Each protected area is composed by territories belonging to more local authorities. Most of these communities are envisaging the development of their infrastructure and this could have impact on the status of the protected areas. Further, local communities territorial plans should take in account the goals of the protected area that have included territories from their land.

Climate change adaptation, risk prevention and management suppose:

- Non-structural measures to mitigate the risks generated by climate change, such as floods, droughts, completed with infrastructure projects such as river arrangements and dams;

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- Investments for reducing coastal erosion;
- Improving response capacity in situation of emergence by developing professional services, including volunteers too.

Reducing the emission of greenhouse gases in all sectors involves promotion of the use of renewable energy sources. Wind and solar energy are the most important forms to be developed, but the power plant for this energy sources are using large areas and this type of use could hinder the possibilities for other uses. This aspect should be carefully considered especially in the case of solar power, since the presence of photovoltaic panels. The largest solar projects cover areas of hundreds of hectares, each unit of power being produced in 1-3 hectares of land. The most intensive use of land in photovoltaic projects is recorded in EU's largest project of this type – Ferme solaire de Cestas. Figure 5 presents the situation of production capacity (in megawatts) and compared with the area covered by the largest solar projects in Europe. Excepting the project mentioned above, the rest of the projects are located in Spain.

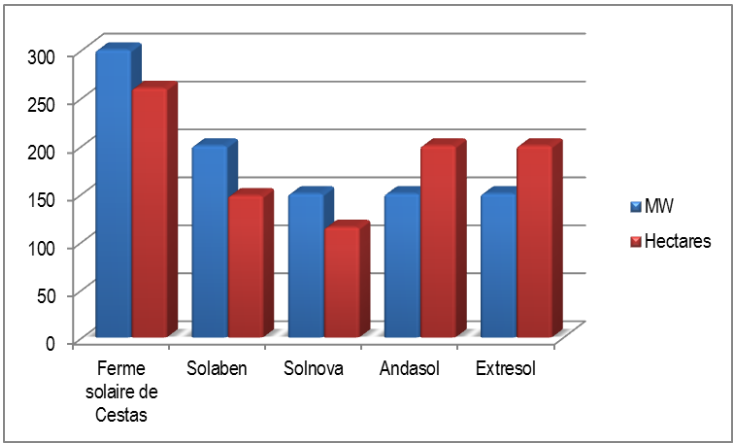


FIGURE 5 - THE LARGEST SOLAR PROJECTS IN EU
Source: Solar Power Europe data

Further, production of biofuel raw materials like corn, rapeseed oil withdraws land from food crops. It is also important to take in account the fact that most of the so called energy crops are very intensive users of minerals from soil and high yields will necessitate to apply intensive technologies that use large amounts of fertilizers and pesticides with the potential to create harmful effects on the fertility of soils and to diffuse as pollution through surface and ground water. At EU level it is estimated that 1.0-1.5 million hectares could be considered for energy crops.

CONCLUSIONS

Europe's territory although is amongst the smallest one compared with other continents, could be characterized as being varied from at least two points of view: natural organization and social organization.

Natural organization resulted in the presence of all forms of relief in balanced proportions supporting a range of ecosystems representing eleven bio-geographical regions. Although diverse, the natural organization does not create major restriction for arrangements that allow the use of resources and development of settlements.

Social organization of the space resulted also in a variety of concepts and principles that were grouped in families, traditions and other criteria. The process of European integration seeks to find a concept that could be applied all other the Member States, although such issues raise very sensitive aspects that influence administration on all levels. That is why current European policies consider the territorial planning as it is, but place their goals considering the processes that are of relevance at that scale. Thus, the implementation of these policies reveals the changed needed in territorial planning or at least the aspect that should be considered more carefully in order to achieve the goals.

A closer look was given for the case of environmental policies' impact on territorial planning. It revealed that almost all aspects of environmental protection are depending on territorial planning from data collection to renewable energy valuation. A special focus should be on nature preservation since the accomplishment of conservation goals necessitates the collaboration among communities belonging to different administrative units that should coordinate their development projects involving impact on the biodiversity.

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LIPSA UTILITĂȚILOR. ACCESUL CETĂȚENILOR ROMI LA UTILITĂȚILE LOCALE COMPARATIV CU POPULAȚIA GENERALĂ

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Rezumat
Principalul obiectiv al acestei lucrări este evidențierea lipsei de acces a cetățenilor etnici romi la sistemul public de utilități. Discriminarea și excluderea continuă să limiteze accesul la sursele primare pentru persoanele dezavantajate. Strategiile naționale din ultimele două decenii nu au reușit să reducă factorii socio-economice nefavorabili pentru minoritatea romă. Datele analizate în articol au fost colectate în cercetare "Observatorul pentru romi" din 2013, care a avut ca scop principal să descrie și să identifice formele de excluziune ale cetățenilor etnici romi. Unicitatea acestei cercetări este caracterul comparativ, folosind două eșantioane cu volume egale, unul reprezentativ pentru întreaga populație, și unul reprezentativ pentru populația etnică romă. Rezultatele sunt axate pe diferențele dintre lipsa de conectare la sistemul public de utilități a romilor comparative cu a ne-romilor.

Cuvinte cheie: Romi, minoritate etnică, utilități publice, politici publice, gospodărie

LAKE OF UTILITIES. ACCESS TO LOCAL UTILITIES OF ROMA CITIZENS COMPARATIVE WITH NON-ROMA POPULATION

Abstract
The main object of this article is to appoint this minority's lack of access to the Romanian public utilities system, as discrimination and exclusion is still leading to a lack of access at primary resources for disadvantaged people. The national strategies designed over the past two decades were unable to reduce the effects of these socio-economic unfavorable conditions for the Roma citizens. The used data is from a research conducted in 2013, with main purpose in exploring and describing all forms of exclusion of the Roma population. The uniqueness of the research is given by the comparison character, using two separate samples, one representative for the general population and one representative for citizens of Roma ethnicity. The results are focused on these exact differences, regarding access and connection to the public utilities network, between the Roma minority and the general population.

Keywords: Roma, ethnic minorities, public utilities, public policies, household

JEL CODES: J15, L97

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1. INTRODUCTION

The Roma ethnic population, mainly the Eastern European one, still finds itself in disadvantage by the lack of access (and here the discussion can be taken so much further) to the public health system, access to the education system, access to adequate housing and access to basic utilities.

Matter of fact, this article is going to tackle this exact subject: Roma population's lack of access to the Romanian public utilities system, a paradox that characterizes the modern society in which discrimination and exclusion will, without any doubt, always lead to a lack of access to primary resources for some individuals. According to the European Council, an estimated 1.85 million Roma ethnics live in Romania (8.32% of the entire population), from which 22% are living in compact communities.

Using the water utilities, electricity, gas or the sanitary sewers system are part of our daily routine. Our imagination is being reduce when, occasionally, one of the above resources in not functional. The level of stress and discomfort automatically increases in the event of restrictions in using one or more of these utilities. It is a challenge for most Europeans to envision everyday life without using water, electricity or gas to their own liking.

2. AIM AND METHODS

The exclusion of the Roma ethnic citizens from the rights of using the Romanian public utilities system is not a unique situation in Europe; Roma individuals from all over Central and Eastern Europe, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Serbia, Hungary and Bulgaria are having similar problems regarding the access to the main public utilities system.

Data from the "***Housing conditions of Roma and Travellers in the European Union***" report, gathered from various countries, brings to light the degree of access to public utilities of this ethnic group. For example, In Slovakia only 19% of the Roma settlements had access to sewage, 41% had access to gas supply and 63% to the main water supply, although 91% had access to the main power supply (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2009, 66).

A similar situation can be found in Slovenia, "where only 51% of the Roma households have access to main electricity network, and only 75 % have access to safe drinking water".

In Serbia only 78% of Roma homes benefit from safe drinking water, 79 % have electricity, only 60 % are situated nearby paved roads and street lighting, and only 14 % are connected to the sewerage system (European Roma Rights Centre, 2012, p. 11).

In Romania, 2009 data reveal large differences in access to the main utilities network between Roma ethnics and the rest of the population, "75 % had no access to gas supply (compared to 21% in other groups), 72 % had no access to sewage (compared to 15% in other groups), 73% had no running water in the house (compared to 10 % in other groups), 12 % were not connected to the power network (compared to 1% in other groups), while 14% are using waste for home heating or they are not heating the household at all" (Housing Conditions, 2009, p. 66).

My analysis is based on research that was conducted in 2013 by the *Împreună* agency at *Observatorul pentru romi's* initiative, with main purpose in exploring and describing all forms of exclusion of Roma population compared to other ethnicities. The main research directions were: employment, health, education, housing and infrastructure, but also specific issues: migration, inter-ethnic relations, public participation. Worth mentioning the authenticity of the research through its design and practicality, by using two separate samples, one for the general population and one for citizens of Roma ethnicity. (Sandu, 2005, p. 32)

The two samples were created based on the random sampling method, multi-staged, stratified, and representative at national level, with a margin of error of 3% at a 95% confidence interval (Cace et al., 2013, p. 14).

The volume of the two samples was represented by 2050 respondents, 1025 respondents from Roma households and 1025 respondents from other ethnicities households.

3. ACCESS OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

I will further explore the infrastructural dimension of the issue, with focus on the Roma population's degree in using all of these utilities in comparison with the degree in which the general population does. Living conditions and the quality of life determine the socio-economic development of a household. (Fésüs, 2012, p. 26) This includes aspects of health status, the educational act, and professional development, only to finally get to Maslow's paradigm claiming that we need to satisfy our basic needs in order to reach perfection.

If we are to look at the health dimension we can identify in the specialty literature a direct causal connection between access to utilities and health, Masseria and Co identifying in Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania the following:"developing illness because of living in unhygienic conditions were estimated

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only for the head of the household in Romania and Bulgaria since no information was available at the individual level. The proportion of people reporting high levels of feeling threatened by illness varies widely across the three countries. In Bulgaria, 41% of the respondents selected the two highest levels of threat, but in Hungary only 18% did so. The Roma and those belonging to other ethnic minority groups are more likely to feel threatened because of the unhygienic conditions in which they live than the national majority population in all three countries" (Masseria et al., 2010, p. 551).

Access to utilities, such as connection to the public main sewer network, electricity, gas, district heating, running cold and hot water, are the main indicator of housing comfort and quality of life (Zamfir et al., 2002, p. 184). From this point of view, comparing non-Roma households with the Roma ones, significant differences can be noticed, as seen in Figure 1. The dates reveal that utility least accessible for the Roma population is represented by gas (28%), while electricity is the most accessible, with only 7.4% of Roma households lacking electricity. However, the fact that they not have access to gas, doesn't necessarily translate in a negative point on the comfort scale, since they may opt for another form of heating the household, most common amongst Roma being the wood or the coal stove at a rate of 76%. We can here bring in the discussion the usefulness of using there other forms of heating, because although one could say it might be is cheaper to use a wood or coal stove, a lot more time and effort will be allocated. If you are looking at this matter in terms of efficiency you could just measure the time lost for cooking, heating the house, heating water and see the implication of using these alternatives to hygiene. The comfort of a residence and all of its inhabitants is all about this and more.

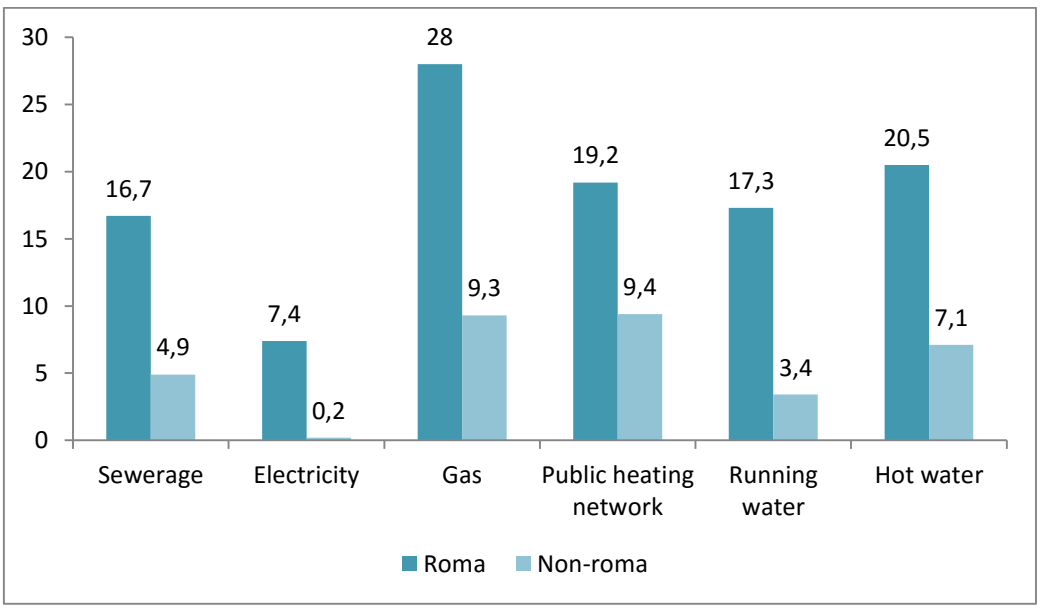


FIGURE 1. LAKE OF ACCESS TO PUBLIC UTILITIES BY TYPE OF HOUSEHOLD
Source: Cace et al., 2013, p. 40

To give a better image of the households comfort, I have used an index of *present utilities that* will include data about access to these six public utilities: sewerage, gas, electricity, public heating network, running water, hot water. Through these analyzed statistics we are able to see how many residences have access to these six utilities, and what percent of the Roma citizens are actually living in extreme poverty, suffering from a lack of any kind of utilities. I then compared the values in this index between Roma population and the non-Roma one, depending on the *exponential trend line* between both samples.

As can be seen in Figure 2, the Roma population will have less access to utilities than the non-Roma population has. For the Roma people without access to any of the six public utilities the gap is slightly higher, 8.4% houses are out of any kind of public utilities compared to non-Roma households, 1,2%. The differences between householders in accessing of all six utilities (sewerage, gas, electricity, public heating network, running water, hot water), is almost triple between Roma and non-Roma citizens, 8,6% of Roma houses are connected to all six utilities compared to 23,5% in the non-Roma houses. The tendency is negative in Roma population and positive in non-Roma population. These data are ultimately confirming the lack of comfort and the barrier in accessing the public utilities network of the Roma population.

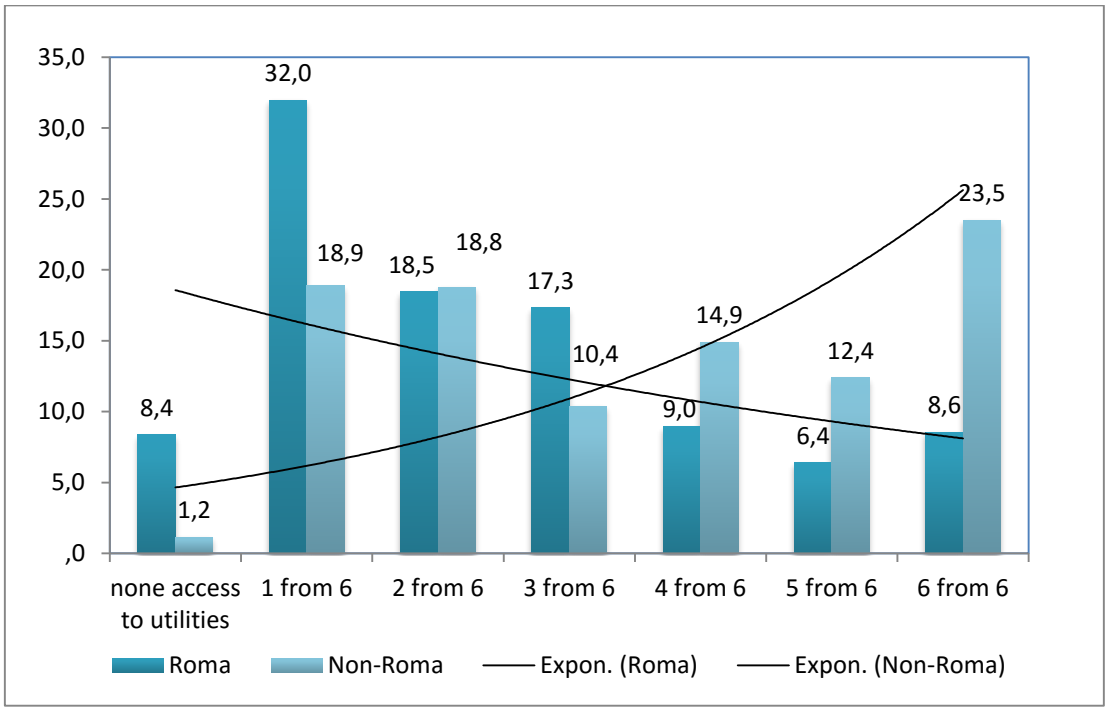


FIGURE 2. INDEX OF PRESENT UTILITIES, INCLUDING DATA ABOUT ACCESS TO SIX PUBLIC UTILITIES: SEWERAGE, GAS, ELECTRICITY, PUBLIC HEATING NETWORK, RUNNING WATER, HOT WATER
Source: Statistical analysis by author

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One explication for this different degree in connection to the utilities network is the position of the Roma households, inside or outside of the villages, considering that 22% of Roma population is living in compact communities. In regard to the issue of marginalization of the Roma communities, I can here trace some aspects. First, we must establish if there is a significant relationship between the position of Roma people housing in relation to the city grounds - on the edge or inside - and the type of community - homogeneous or heterogeneous. The correlation between these two variables is statistically significant and has a positive trend, registering a Spearman coefficient of 0.25. Therefore, if these individuals have residence on the outskirts of the village they are likely to be surrounded only by Roma families. More than a third of those who consider they are living in the village periphery say they are solely surrounded by Roma families. Also more than one-tenth of the Roma ethnicity respondents live in communities consisting entirely of people of the same ethnicity. Other than that, for all the other cases a high degree of heterogeneity in the community can be observed. The marginalization of the Roma individuals, with or without their consent, represents a barrier in the way of their access to the education system, health services and even the labor market opportunities (Zamfir et al., 2002, p. 285).

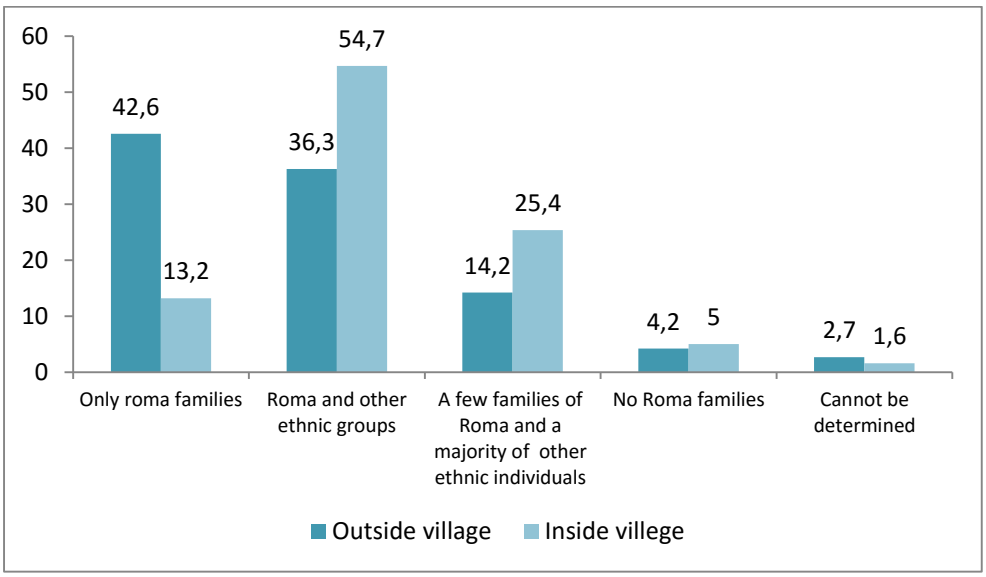


FIGURE 3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE POSITION OF THE HOUSEHOLD IN RELATION TO THE VILLAGE (OUTSIDE / INSIDE) AND THE SUBJECTIVE ESTIMATION OF THE ETHNIC HOMOGENEITY OF THE COMMUNITY.
Source: Cace et al., 2013, p. 48

4. AMENITIES PRESENT IN THE HOUSEHOLD

Besides access to utilities, to correctly assess the comfort level, we must also consider the amenities present in the household, appliances that, without access to the public range of utilities, would be considered meaningless. In Figure is the situation of appliances: cooker stove, phone, refrigerator,

washing machine, computer, television, internet connection, TV cable, in the Roma households. We can also observe the percentages for devices that cannot be found in Roma households. The largest deficit is in the communications sphere where, a landline, Internet access and a computer are missing in more than three quarters of the Roma households. At the same time, the lack of a washing machine in two-thirds of these households can be accounted on poverty or the continuing the tradition of washing clothes by hand, either at home or at a river.

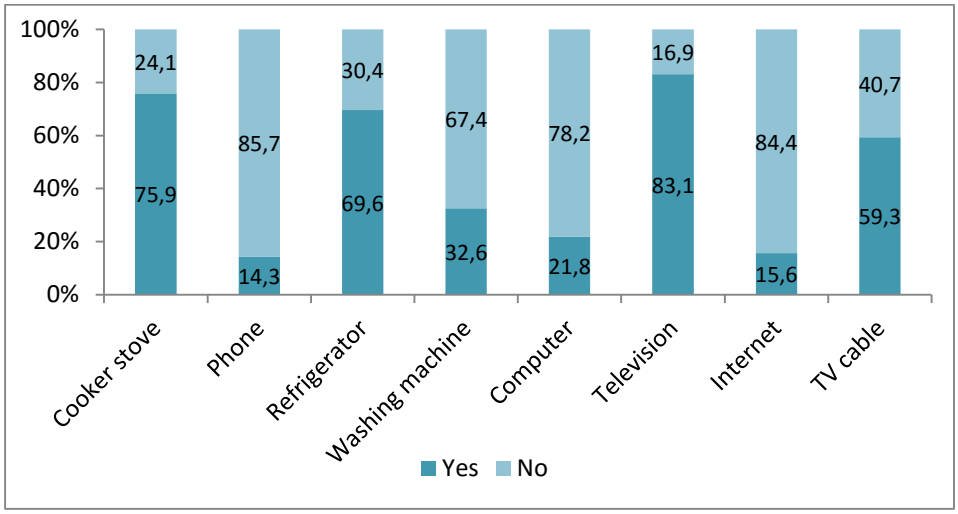


FIGURE 4. DISTRIBUTION OF APPLIANCES IN THE ROMA HOUSEHOLDS. PERCENTAGE VALUES FOR "YES" AND "NO" ANSWERS AT "HOUSEHOLD IS EQUIPPED WITH..."
Source: Cace et al., 2013, p. 46

Because we mentioned items of domestic use and public utilities access, we must also take into account the means of actually supporting the expenses that both of them come with, situations where bills aren't paid on time arising as a possibility. Meaning now we can compare the percentage of those who are falling behind with utility payments, depending on the type of household. In order to make a fair comparison we considered the prevalent utility in both categories - electricity - and, in a more generic way, its maintenance costs. It appears that about a quarter of Roma households have had delays in paying their utilities and almost a third have delayed payment of their electricity bills, while for non-Roma households the number is much smaller, with only a tenth of them falling behind.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion of this article would be that specific public policies for improving access need to be developed. And this is necessary for all population, not just this specific minority since this is fundamental right of any citizen, no matter the ethnicity. The debates on the social economic status of

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the Roma minority are starting from basic resources, like utilities, and furthermore continue with improving education, health, employment and so on. Hopefully the next strategy for Roma integration will take act in this direction and will provide basic recourse.

"National Roma Integration Strategies 2015-2020" aim is to create a legitimate framework for developing public policy for social integration of the Roma population, with principles of national strategy such as: consensus, social utility, sectorial distribution, integration, reach the goals, mechanism, technical measures, concrete actions. To reach these goals, the national strategy needs to implement mechanism, technical measures and concrete action at local level to improve access of public utilities (European Commission, 2014).

Roma communities through their unique diversity impose specific actions, and in order to answer to all these challenges and needs, local level administration must find positive and practical mechanisms for integrating Roma ethnics. Developing human resources in the public administration, both central and local, developing the collaboration between institution can be a good start for the local authorities in implementing a national strategy an success in the inclusion of the Roma population.

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A NEW WAY OF STRATEGIC THINKING – BOOSTING SUSTAINABLE URBAN MOBILITY PLANS- ROMANIAN CASE

Abstract
In the last three years, substantial progress has been made in the development of legal framework and guidance for the preparation of SUMPs, leading to the publication of guidance later in 2013. In Romania the procees have started last year, by the development through BERD assistance of the 7 growth poles of Romania, plus Bucharest – Ilfov. The purpose of this paper is to underline the importance of such plans for cities local development and to identify the main areas in which further intervention is needed. The paper reviews stage of SUMPs preparation in Romania, by analysing the tools used, it identifies the barrieres encoutered in this process. Finally, it highlights the lesson learned, and suggests ways of putting in practice in Romania.

Keywords: Sustainable urban mobility plans, citizens engangement, local develpment planning

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UN NOU MOD DE GÂNDIRE STRATEGICĂ – DEZVOLTAREA PLANURILOR DE MOBILITATE URBANĂ DURABILĂ – CAZUL ROMÂNIEI

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Rezumat
In ultimii ani, au fost realizate progrese semnificative in ceea ce privește cadrul legal, dar și metodologiile privind elaborarea planurilor de mobilitate urbană durabilă, un aspect important fiind publicarea în anul 2013 a unui ghid de elaborare. In România, procesul a demarat în anul 2014, prin semnarea unui contract cu Banca europeană de reconstrucție și dezvoltare, care a vizat asistență tehnică în elaborarea acestor documente pentru cei poli de creștere și regiunea București Ilfov. Scopul lucrării este de atrage atenția asupra importanței dezvoltării unor asemenea planuri pentru dezvoltarea locală a orașelor și pentru identificarea principalelor arii în care este necesare intervenția în viitor. Lucrarea analizează stadiul elaborării planurilor de mobilitate urbană durabilă în România, a instrumentelor utilizate, identificând barierele întâlnite în acest proces. În final, sunt subliniate lecțiile învățate și sunt sugerate modalități de punere în aplicare în România.

Cuvinte cheie: planuri de mobilitate urbană durabilă, implicarea cetățenilor, planificarea dezvoltării locale

1. INTRODUCTION

"Transportation is often referred to as the "lifeblood of cities" because it provides the essential link among activities and, in the long run, to a large extent, it helps shape the city" (Vuchic, 1999). To promote sustainable and livable urban environments, private, public and non-motorized transport must functionally complement each other by forming balanced intermodal systems. However, in many cities today, including Romania, transportation is characterized by the dominance of the car and high auto-dependency in travel. As long as there is infrastructure available (road and parking), the car offers freedom of travel, but in the same time it is accompanied with high negative effects on health, environment, tourism. Today, cities and the transportation systems are subject of enormous challenges:

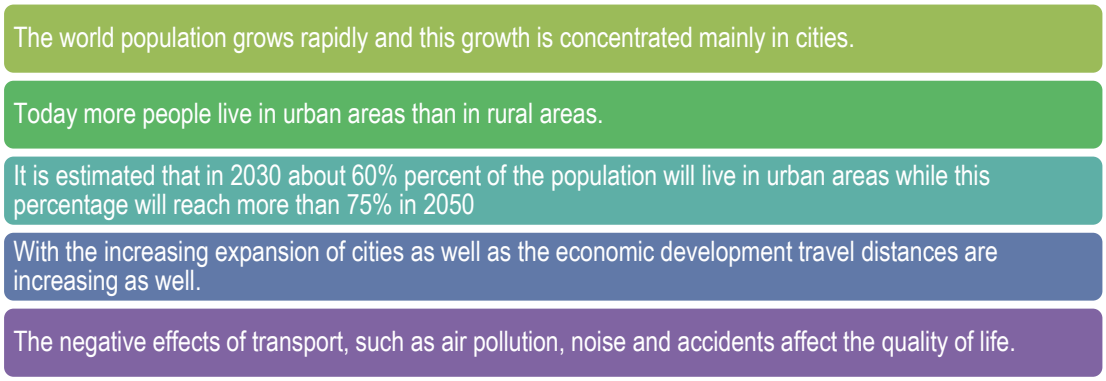


FIGURE 1 - CHALLENGES FOR THE TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS

Source: European Commission, 2011

Taking into account all these challenges, at the global level, the municipalities together with the researchers started in the last years to find solutions for a sustainable urban mobility. Considering the specificity of each cities and its development dynamics, it is underlined that solutions shall be tailored made for individual problems, but in the same time it recognized the fact that many cities are similar in their functioning and the solutions should be universal.

Thus, the research objectives are to:

- Present the European evolution of documents related to urban mobility
- Analyse the situation in different countries in which concern the SUMPs
- Explain the Romanian context and the situation of elaboration of SUMPs
- Underlined the main barriers and problems encountered

2. EUROPEAN CONTEXT

2.1. European important developments in the field of transport and urban mobility

The early discussions and agreements related to a common transport policy it started in 1957, when the European Economic Community was created (formed by France, Italy, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg). Later on, in 1992 Treaty of Maastricht, further approached the political, institutional and budgetary foundations for a European Commission transport policy, developing a mechanism of community funding for the pan-European network. Also in 1992, the EC issued its first White Paper on the future development of the common transport policy. Between 1995 and 1998, the European Commission, through some specific initiative (e.g. Citizens Network) developed a first set of policy proposals in the area of urban mobility. Through this initiative it was underline the importance of citizen participation in developing strategic document on urban mobility within municipalities.

In 2007 the EC published the Green Paper on Urban Mobility: 'Towards a new culture for urban mobility'.16 It set the foundations for a new European agenda for sustainable mobility policy (in which, eg. legislative initiatives are developed in an integrated, and not fragmented, manner) and invited stakeholders to a debate on what support the EU should provide, and how best to provide it (eg. how to achieve optimal European added-value through the effective promotion of best practices)

The importance of adopting a urban mobility plan has been underlined in the EC Transport White Paper (European Commission, 2011), which emphasizes the importance of "a mixed strategy involving land-use planning, pricing schemes, efficient public transport services and infrastructure for non-motorised modes and charging/refuelling of clean vehicles is needed to reduce congestion and emissions". This White Paper asks EU states to analyse the possibility of making the urban mobility plans a mandatory approach for cities of a certain size, according to national standards based on EU Guidelines. It also suggests to link regional development and cohesion funds to cities and regions that have submitted a current, independently validated Urban Mobility Performance and Sustainability Audit certificate.

2.2. Why EU states needs a new approach of transport?

In the European Countries, there was an increase in passenger transport demand between 2005 and 2012, although overall it has been stable in recent years. However, national trends varied significantly, with demand increasing in 23 countries and decreasing in 10. In 2012, the car was the dominant mode of transport in all countries. Car passenger transport has generally decreased in the last three years (2009

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to 2012) with a significant drop in some countries, the reasons being the transport policies and measures adopted and implemented by each countries in the last few years.

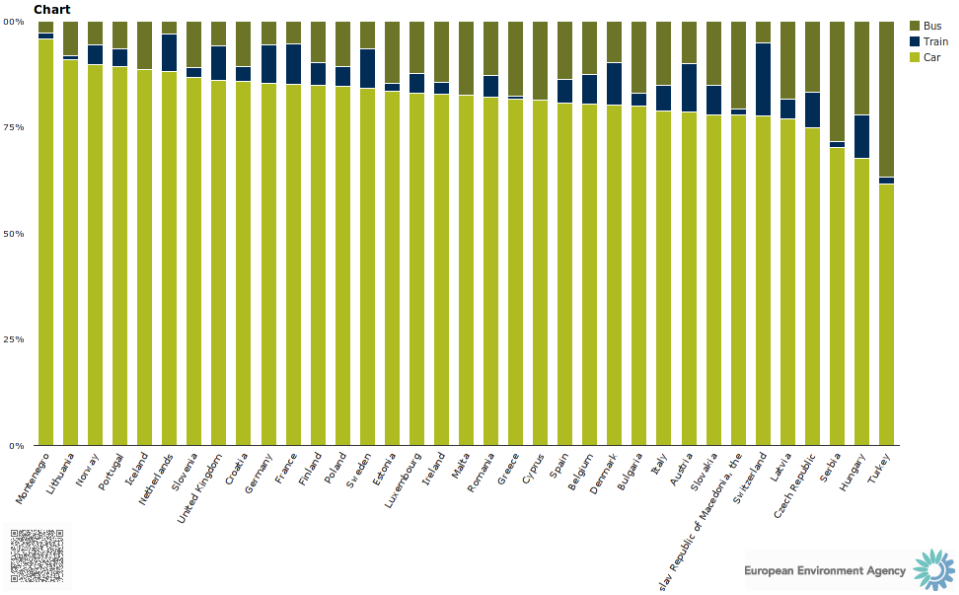


FIGURE 2 - MODAL SPLIT OF PASSENGER TRANSPORT IN 35 EUROPEAN COUNTRIES IN 2012

Source: http://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/daviz/passenger-transport-modal-split-2/chart_1.png/download

According to Eurostat, "The transport sector is the fastest growing consumer of energy and producer of greenhouse gases in the European Union." Namely, the transport sector is responsible for more than 25% of total final energy consumed in the EU (the other sectors being industry, households and services). Within the transport sector, the great majority of energy (83%) is consumed by road transport, whereas air transport comes second with 13% of total energy consumption in the sector.

Below are presented interesting facts about the mobility sector:

- Passenger cars are responsible for 75% of passenger km travelled
- 50% of car trips are less than 5km, 30% are less than 3km
- Average car occupancy remains close to one
- Urban freight is typically between 20% and 25% of road space use
- Less than 5% of passenger journeys are made by bicycle
- Ownership per household is increasing (+ 38% in average between 1990 and 2004 for the EU 25, and between +14% and +167% per country)
- Less than 10% of passenger journeys are made by public transport

FIGURE 3 - FACTS ON MOBILITY SECTOR
Source: European Environment Agency, 2010

Taking into account all these facts, the municipalities at the European level, have started to adopt a transport policy and its subsequent measures, by putting a great accent on the re-shaping of car-dominated cities and transform them into cities that provide efficient and sustainable mobility solutions. However, there are some aspects that needs to be taken into consideration, the cities are very dynamic, but within the cities, the built infrastructure, the land availability are static. So, there are some problems encountered which makes all infrastructural changes very difficult. It is recognized by many scholars that current transport planning is at a point of crisis: it underestimates the key challenges of current planning issues in terms of increasing congestion due to the growth of cities and CO2-emissions (Banister, 2008). The question however is how the concept of sustainable mobility can be defined and implemented. Banister (2008) defined 'the sustainability mobility paradigm' in how to achieve a more sustainable mobility system.

There is also a problems of mentality at the level of the population in which concern the culture of car domination, especially in the Eastern European countries, therefore the changes are more difficult and takes time. Thus, involving citizens in the process of elaboration and implementation of sustainable urban mobility plans is compulsory and needed for successful initiative and changes.

3. SUSTAINABLE URBAN MOBILITY PLANS - EU COUNTRIES EXPERIENCE

What is a SUMP? A Sustainable Urban Mobility Plan (SUMP) is a "Strategic plan designed to satisfy the mobility needs of people and businesses in cities and their surroundings for a better quality of life. It builds on existing planning practices and takes due consideration of integration, participation, and evaluation principles." (www.mobilityplans.eu)

The process for developing a SUMP was set out in the guidelines developed by the EltisPlus project. The process consists in four important stages, such us: analysis of the current situation, setting improvement goals, developing a clear set of actions and an implementation strategy. The plans need to cover all the mobility aspects, both freight and passenger, and the economic aspects al the city development. An important aspect is that the plans must be clearly integrated in the policy context at the national and European level, ensuring that they support these policy objectives.

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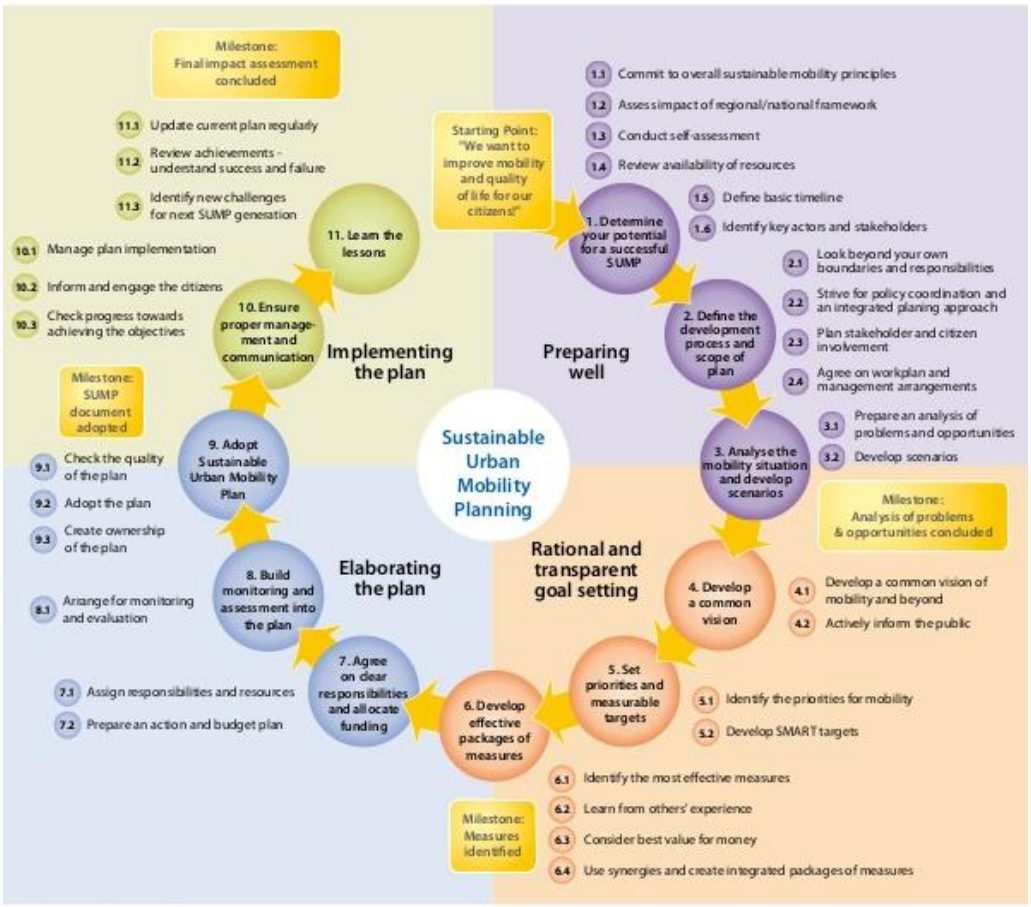


FIGURE 4 - SUMPS ELEMENTS AND ACTIVITIES
Source: *GUIDELINES DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING A SUSTAINABLE URBAN MOBILITY PLAN. - DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING A SUSTAINABLE URBAN MOBILITY PLAN*

In Europe, some countries adopted an early stage comprehensive transport policy through continuous guidance for local communities in developing and implementing urban transport plans. In the table below, are mentioned the important steps made by some European countries in this process.

TABLE 1 - SUMPS IN EU COUNTRIES

Countries	Legal framework	Urban mobility plan - description	Plans in place
Italy	Law 340/2000	The Law 340/2000 (art. 22) introduced the PUM (Piano Urbano della Mobilità) as a long term (10 years), systemic and integrated planning instrument for managing mobility in urban areas. PUMs were identified as a fundamental prerequisite for all municipalities or conurbations with a population of over 100,000 inhabitants in order to co-finance mobility projects with national funds (up to 60% of total investments).	There are many good examples: Reggio Emilia, Parma, Torino, Venezia

France	LOTI 1982; LAURE 1996; SRU 2000	PDU (Plans de Déplacements Urbains) mandatory for transport authorities in areas with more than 100.000 inhabitants – area with less than 100.000 inhabitants can choose to develop a PDU on a voluntary basis	There are more than 60 approved mandatory SUMPs in France
UK	(Transport Act 2000, amended in 2008; GLA Act 1999)	LTP (Local Transport Plan) mandatory for local transport authorities (county councils, unitary authorities, passenger transport authority, London Borough councils, etc. – varies in Wales, Scotland N. Ireland).	Compulsory for local authorities
GERMANY	Not mandatory	The development of a comprehensive urban mobility plan is not mandatory. Legally required is however a 'Nahverkehrsplan' (NVP, Public Transport Plan) for local authorities in all Federal States except Hamburg. These plans do not qualify as SUMP as they are only covering public transport related aspects.	SUMP Dresden 2025+
BELGIUM (FLANDERS)	Decree on local mobility policy 2009	It does not make the development of a 'Mobiliteitsplan' (mobility plan) mandatory, but de facto it is a 'must', because municipalities can only get funding from the Flemish government if they have an approved plan.	More than 90% of Flemish municipalities have a plan.
NETHERLANDS	SUMPs are not required by law.	However, the national traffic and transport planning act, passed in 1998 requires that national objectives are reflected in regional and local transport planning /policy.	Voluntary. Most cities have a GVVP which in many cases has the characteristics of an SUMP.

Source: own analysis based on Rupprecht Consult - Forschung & Beratung GmbH, 2011

The main barriers encountered in the process of development and implementation of this planning process are related to mentality change, institutional framework, resistance from established planning and engineering officials, and a lack of joint working between sectors, particularly transport and land use, lack of relevant knowledge among officials, lack of coordination between different levels of government and political conservatism. The plans are subjects of continuous improvements and changes, when is needed. The municipalities should have a specialized department, well trained and prepared to coordinate the implementation of projects in due time, with the citizens participation and support.

4. OVERVIEW OF URBAN MOBILITY IN ROMANIA.

The development of Sustainable Urban Mobility Plans (SUMPs) for the major Romanian cities it was agreed, as a priority by the Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration and the European Commission, and become the frame of urban transport projects to be financed under the Operational Programme Regional Development for the 2014-2020 period with European Regional Development Fund.

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The Law no. 190/2013 approving the Government Ordinance no. 7/2011 amending and supplementing Law no. 350/2001 on the regional planning and urbanism, into force since 13.07.2013, stipulates that the Urban Mobility Plan (UMP) is part of the General Urban Plan (GUP).

The SUMP is mandatory for all cities and towns, and optional for communes.

- Within Art. I, paragraph 19, (4) the institutional level of responsibility for the urban mobility planning is defined as follows: For cities rank 1 and 2, the metropolitan territorial development strategy and the metropolitan urban mobility plans are to be initiated by the County Administration or by the core city
- Within paragraph 46, a new expression is inserted - "Urban Mobility Plan", having the following definition: «Urban Mobility Plan - the strategic territorial planning instrument which correlates the spatial development of settlements in the metropolitan area with the mobility and transport needs of people, goods and commodities.»

The paper is analyzing the stage of elaboration of SUMPs in the 7s Growth poles and Bucharest Ilfov Region. The others 13 urban development poles were analyzed, based on the online available information.

The European Bank for Reconstruction and Development signed in April 2014 an agreement with Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration for ensuring technical assistance in elaboration of SUMPs for 8 Romanian municipalities (Iasi, Brasov, Craiova, Constanta, Timisoara, Cluj Napoca, Ploiesti, and Bucharest Ilfov region). According to the agreement the process of SUMPs elaboration was estimated at 1 year, until the end of July 2015. The first reports concerning SUMPs were presented in December 2015.

In the table below are summarized the general information about the SUMPs in all the 8 cities/metropolitan areas.

TABLE 2 - STAGE OF ELABORATION OF SUMPS IN THE 7 GROWTH POLES AND BUCHAREST – ILFOV REGION.

No.	Cities	Who elaborate SUMP	Online information available
1.	Bucharest Ilfov	ROM Transportation Engineering Ltd (Israel) AvensaConsulting Ltd (Romania) Subcontracting -GDZ Suez (Romania, Tractebel)	www.pmb.ro/servicii/transporturi.../planul_de_mobilitate_durabila_2016-2030.pdf https://www.facebook.com/Planul-de-mobilitate-urbană-durabilă-PMUD-BucureștiIlfov-954861951236183/?fref=ts
2.	Constanta	-WSP / United Kingdom, WSP Romania SRL / Romania, Panteia/ Netherlands, Rupprecht ConsultForschung & Beratung GmbH / Germany, AV Transport Planning SRL / Romania	www.primaria-constanta.ro/Fisiere/Proiecte/PlanMobilitateUrbanaDurabila.pdf https://www.facebook.com/search/top/?q=Plan%20de%20Mobilitate%20Urbana%20Durabila%20Constanta

3.	Brasov		www.brasovcity.ro/file-zone/proiecte-hotarari/PMUD/BRASOV%20-%20PMUD.pdf https://www.facebook.com/search/top/?q=Plan%20de%20Mobilitate%20Urbana%20Durabila%20brasov
4.	Iasi	PTV Transport Consult GmbH, SEAR CH, TTK, PTV AG	http://www.primaria-iasi.ro/content.aspx?item=1964&lang=RO https://www.facebook.com/Plan-de-Mobilitate-Urbana-Durabila-Iasi-661790630586088/
5.	Craiova		https://www.facebook.com/Plan-de-Mobilitate-Urbana-Durabila-Craiova-588214194640242/
6.	Ploiesti		https://www.facebook.com/Plan-de-Mobilitate-Urbana-Durabila-Ploiesti-297710333761054/
7.	Cluj Napoca	OveArup and Partners Ltd / United Kingdom, Studie Pianificazionedel Territorio(SPT) S.r.l. / Italy	http://gocj.ro/ https://www.facebook.com/pages/CJ-PMUD/837701882939386?fref=ts
8.	Timisoara		https://www.facebook.com/pages/Tm-Pmud/392915437546329?ref=profile http://gotm.ro/

Source: own analysis based on the municipalities' websites

In 2016, the municipalities have started the consultation and debate process, as well as the procedure for obtaining the environment approval from the Environment Agencies (in accordance with law requirements Government Decision no. 1076/2004). In all cities, the technical assistance teams consisted in Romanian and foreign experts, with huge experience in the field. This new approach has some specific features, the public and stakeholders participation it was more take into account and through different methods and techniques, the citizens were involved (e.g. social media – online survey, open office in Timisoara for meetings citizens, working groups meetings.) All plans are proposing considerable changes in which concern the institutional framework, some measures concerned building capacity of municipalities, in terms of specialized departments with well trained and motivated staff.

In the Romanian urban development poles, there is a considerable effort done my municipalities for elaboration of SUMPs. The main barriers for municipalities is the time pressure for having the plans, in order to obtain funding under Regional Operational Programme.

The following table is presenting the status of elaboration of SUMPs in the 13 Urban development Poles:

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TABLE 3 – STAGE OF ELABORATION OF SUMPS IN THE ROMANIAN URBAN DEVELOPMENT POLES

No.	Cities	Online information	Stage
1.	Arad	http://www.primariaarad.ro/info.php?page=/temp/pmud/index-pmud.html&newlang=ron&theme=th1-ron	Work in progress First report published in January 2016
2.	Bacau	N/A	The project – not yet started
3.	Braila	https://www.facebook.com/permalink.php?id=196618800430717&story_fbid=846478468778077 http://www.primariabraila.ro:7200/Continut%20site/Plan%20de%20mobilitate.aspx	Not yet approved by local council
4.	Baia Mare	http://www.baiamare.ro/ro/Proiecte/Dezvoltare-urbana/Planul-de-mobilitate-urbana/	Under implementation
5.	Deva	No information found	Work in progress
6.	Galati	http://www.primaria.galati.ro/portal/pagini.php?page_id=74&id=4	In consultation process, not yet approved
7.	Oradea	http://www.zmo.ro/ro/index.php/domenii-de-interes-metropolitan/transport-public	Approved in 2014, in 2016 the plan is under updating
8.	Pitesti	No online information available	Work in progress – process have started in 2016
9.	Ramnicu Valcea	No online information available on city hall website	Work in progress - process have started in 2016
10.	Sibiu	http://www.sibiu.ro/index.php/primaria/mobilitate	Work in progress, the process have started in 2016.
11.	Suceava[1]	ftp://primariasv.ro/pub/plmud/.../Memoriu%20PLMUD%20SUCEAVA.pdf	Approved – in implementation
12.	Satu Mare	No online information available	Work in progress
13.	Targu Mures	http://www.tirgumures.ro/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=4743%3Achestionar-socio-economic-privind-mobilitatea&catid=59%3Aorasul-meu&Itemid=280&lang=ro	Finalized, but not yet approved

Source: own analysis based on the municipalities' websites information

The cities from the West and Centre part of Romania are more active. Some of these cities, like Oradea and Arad are developing mobility plans at the cross border level. Thus, the success of these concept in Romania, depends on the level of involvement of municipalities, their openness to this new tool, which is very useful for their cities development.

In the case of big cities, a challenge is the area covered, all the SUMPs drafted referred in their case at the metropolitan level. The political differences, the later reaction of the communities to the new process

could be negative factors in the process of implementation. A challenge for the metropolitan area, is to develop Metropolitan transport authorities, to tackle all the mobility needs for passengers and freight.

Process of SUMPs elaboration – main findings

The techniques used by the consultants for gathering data and information were the following:

- Surveys e.g. manual turning counts, automatic Traffic Counts , journey time surveys, surveys among car drivers/Public transport users, Public Transport Vehicle Loading Surveys
- Data collection – interviews, questionnaires in traffic and on the streets, online surveys
- Analysis of documents and others information available from statistics and municipalities.

Al the cities involved the citizens in the process of elaboration, the most common ways of getting people involved are the following:

- Workshops and public meetings for identifying the current problems and the solutions with NGOs, schools, private sectors – at least 2 meetings were organized in each cities
- The social media – especially facebook, it was used for informing citizens about the stage of elaboration, also an online surveys it was implementing for collecting data.
- The websites of local authorities were used for sharing information to the public.

Problems encountered in the process of collecting data:

- "Terra incognita" travel demand and travel demand behaviour, no information about transport demand, no local information
- Difficult Household surveys- budget and time restrictions cause small samples under big pressure, uncertainties about massive derivations of trip frequencies compared to expected ones
- The less participation of people from the metropolitan areas

The official sources used to deliver data in Romania were:

- National Institute of Statistics and authorities from different administrative levels – complete databases, free of charge or not
- Stakeholders or transport companies – synthetic data from reports, studies, research, synthetic empirical data, of reduced availability.

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The analysis of the all SUMPs elaborated for the growth poles and Bucharest Ilfov region showed some common mobility policies proposed, such us:

- Encouraging walking and cycling. This refers to policies and measures that promote a mobility shift from motorised means of transport to walking and cycling: the most sustainable modes of transport. Encouraging people to walk and cycle by developing appropriate infrastructure and policies, and educating motorists to act with respect and caution toward pedestrians and cyclists will also likely spontaneously bring people to using these means of transport.

- Efficient collective transport system. This refers to policies and measures to make collective (public) transport systems more attractive. Attractiveness can be increased by providing transport systems that are reliable, frequent, comfortable, safe, direct, fast, affordable, accessible, and that reach a high proportion of the urban area. Public transport has long represented an essential and important service for citizens, as many citizens do not have a private car, cannot afford one, or are unable or unwilling to operate one. All municipalities has as an important objective to increase the numbers of passengers of the public transport. In this respect, are proposed projects which covered the metropolitan region.

- Demand management – Refers to policies and measures which decrease the need to travel and allow for more sustainable options when travel is necessary. Some examples are: restriction or banning of access of private vehicles to certain zones (esp. in the city centre); a congestion charge—it consists of charging a fee to vehicles that enter selected areas of a city; car-sharing, which intends to reduce the need for people to own a car carpooling, which refers to two or more persons commuting in the same car, thus decreasing economic and environmental costs of motorised vehicle use.

- Lifestyle and behavioural change (including those of decision-makers) – Refers to policies and measures that raise awareness among the population on the negative impacts of certain modes of transport and the new more sustainable options available. These policies can also aim to question the very need to travel. Local Governments need to understand that lifestyle and behavioural change promotion needs to necessarily be accompanied by a range of options available to citizens to engage in more sustainable transport habits. Successful implementation requires a high level of acceptance, interest, awareness, understanding of responsibilities and recognition of expected benefits among the different target groups.

- Technology – Refers to measures and actions that promote the introduction of new technologies to reduce the negative impacts of motorised transport, including cleaner fuels and vehicles.

Besides the reduction of the number of vehicles on the streets, the use of less polluting and more efficient fuels for both private and public fleets should be targeted in order to improve air quality and reduce the negative impact of transport on the environment. Research and development on technological solutions are today making much progress and a wide range of green fuels and technologies are available, as for example bio-fuels, electric-, hydrogen- and hybrid cars.

- An essential aspect for a good implementation of the SUMPs in the communication and coordination with regional and national (as well as with European) levels of government. These linkages also have the advantage of potentially facilitating the availability of funding for projects at the local level.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND LESSON LEARNED

Cities are in the centre stage and are a crucial actor in shaping the future of the transport sector. By the end of this decade four of every five Europeans will be living in cities. Local governments have a key responsibility in redirecting the way that mobility and accessibility to the urban area are conceptualised.

Moving from the vision to the preparation and implementation of a holistic and functional sustainable urban mobility plan requires a strong structural framework and some specific ingredients for success:

- Political commitment is an important step of this cycle as it sends a 'green light' to the different departments and staff, stating that management is determined to make changes. It is also the step where budgets are approved, paving the way for the implementation of the actions. Monitoring, evaluating and reporting the results in a systematic and regular way will, finally, allow a thorough evaluation of the process and the start of a new cycle with increased knowledge about the local situation and progress.
- Organisational integration - One of the conditions necessary for the development of a well-integrated public transport system is that an autonomous, metropolitan authority be given the power to introduce a set of through-service standards (Nash, 1988). To remove the barriers among modes and services provided by different agencies, cooperation must be ensured through an impartial umbrella authority unifying several functions, responsibilities and jurisdictions of the involved operators at several levels.
- Internal and external cooperation. While actions of the strategy is performed at the local level, collaboration of municipalities with other municipalities, regional, national and EU levels of government is necessary in order to align policies and visions and take advantage of processes

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that may already be underway at these higher levels. This interaction will also lead to the spreading of sustainable practices beyond the city limits and determine the potential transformation of the sector at national and European levels.

CONCLUSIONS

The experience in Romania showed that its application is only a start and that is has to be accompanied by and based on many other undertakings to support the successful use, such as:

- Common data and knowledge (sustained by an active scientific community)
- Adequate standards (would also need more communication between the experts)
- Institutional strengthening and Political will
- Public awareness and public agreement

The municipalities should pay more attention to use SUMP more than a means to obtain funding. They should focus on „People" and „quality of life", a hanging mindsets must be part of the package, the SUMP should use as a change process towards a better city and internal cooperation with all stakeholders is needed.

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DECENTRALIZATION DEVELOPMENTS IN ROMANIA AND POLAND SINCE 1990

Abstract
Romania and Poland started their democratization process in 1990 having relatively similar socio-economic conditions and an almost equal GDP per capita. Nonetheless, 25 years later, Poland's GDP per capita is around 30% higher although Romania's population decreased more. While there are several explanations for this unequal development, Poland has benefited significantly from the 1998 local government reform when it created an administrative system based on three levels of subdivision. Romania, on the other hand, still retains a slightly modified version of the 1968 administrative system with only two levels of subdivision which is not taking into account the historical regions which formed the modern state. While Poland has become a best-practice in terms of decentralisation and regional development in Central and Eastern Europe, Romania continues with the centralised system imposed by the communist regime. The article looks into the steps taken towards decentralisation seen in these two countries since 1990.

***Keywords*:** Romania, Poland, decentralisation.

JEL CODES:

EVOLUȚIA PROCESULUI DE DESCENTRALIZARE ÎN ROMÂNIA ŞI POLONIA ÎNCEPÂND CU ANUL 1990

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Rezumat
România și Polonia au demarat procesul de democratizare în 1990 având condiții socio-economice similare și un PIB per cap de locuitor aproape egal. Cu toate acestea, 25 de ani mai târziu, PIB-ul pe cap de locuitor în Polonia este mai mare cu aproximativ 30% mai mare deși populația României a scăzut mai mult. Deși există multe explicații pentru aceste evoluții inegale, Polonia a beneficiat din plin de reforma administrației locale din 1998 când s-a creat un sistem administrativ bazat pe trei niveluri de subdiviziune. România pe de altă parte, încă folosește o versiune puțin modificată a sistemului administrativ creat în 1968 cu doar două niveluri de subdiviziune și care nu ia în calcul regiunile istorice care au format statul modern. În timp ce modelul polonez de descentralizare și regionalizare este considerat o bună practică în Europa de centru și de est, România continua să funcționeze cu un sistem centralizat impus de regimul comunist. Acest articol analizează evoluția procesului de descentralizare în cele două țări începând cu anul 1990.

Cuvinte cheie: România, Polonia, descentralizare.

1. INTRODCTION

Poland and Romania are the largest countries from the Eastern Bloc and the sixth and seventh largest countries in the European Union. Both countries started their post-communist path from rather similar conditions – almost the same GDP per capita (around 1,700 USD), a public administration still anchored into old practices and a centralised territorial design imposed by the communist leadership. Nonetheless, 25 years later the situation could not be more different. The GDP per capita in Poland is almost 50% higher compared to Romania (14,423 USD vs 9,997 USD in 2014). At the same time, the population in Romania dropped with around 16.5% while in Poland it remained rather constant. Furthermore, while the Polish public administration has been constantly appreciated for its good governance in terms of absorbing the EU Funds, Romania has often been criticised for its lack of capacity in this area. Finally, while Romania remains a rather centralised country with administrative divisions inherited from the communist times, Poland has embarked on a complex process of regionalisation and decentralisation of power. This article looks into this particular issue in order to observe the developments in terms of decentralisation in the two countries.

2. DECENTRALISATION DEVELOPMENTS IN ROMANIA SINCE 1990

After the fall of communism one could observe a lag between Romania and Western Europe in terms of local government empowerment. The distribution of powers between the different layers of government generated many political discussions as several politicians were not particularly in favour of decentralisation. Still the process started when the first post-communist Constitution enacted in 1991 brought forward the principles of local autonomy and administrative decentralisation. However, the GDP share for local governments was increased only seven years later when it was almost doubled from 3.6% to 6.5%. The 2003 revised Constitution introduced the concept of deconcentration and added a fiscal component. It also added new administrative rights for the national minorities.

At the local level both the municipal/communal and the county level are elected by the resident population. At the regional level there is no accountable administration. The prefect is the central government's representative in each county overseeing the deconcentrated public services of the central public administration (i.e.: emergency situations and civil protection, public health, cultural and heritage affairs). The prefect's institution can challenge before an administrative court any act issued by the county council, the local councils or the mayors if it is considered to breach the national legislation and until a ruling is provided, the respective act is suspended.

In 2006, the Parliament issued a law regarding decentralisation which stated that the process of decentralisation in Romania needs to follow the principles of subsidiarity, responsibility, stability, predictability and equity. The central government can only decentralise services based on the potential economies of scales and the geographical area. Local governments have exclusive, shared or delegated competences. Asymmetric decentralisation was also introduced in order to allow the centre government to exercise efficiently the devolved responsibilities to the capable layer of administration. In this regard, if a subnational authority at the municipal level cannot handle the entrusted tasks, the devolved responsibilities are transferred at the county level. While the decentralisation law did not create regional authorities, in several fields these entities have been established through specific pieces of legislation. These authorities cannot replace the local authorities established in each county but can coordinate several authorities in a specific region (Ruano and Profiroiu, 2016).

In 2014 the Romanian Constitutional Court ruled out a modification of the decentralisation law as it infringed local autonomy principles. Furthermore, the proposal was drafted without consulting the local governments.

In terms of the administrative divisions, the territorial system introduced in 1968 is still in place today with a few small modifications. Romania has a three-tier system of government with central, county and municipal/ communal layers. The 41 counties and Bucharest have an average surface of 5,680 square kilometres and an average population of 480,000 inhabitants (National Institute of Statistics, 2011). At the municipal/ communal level there are 103 municipalities, 217 towns and 2.861 communes. In 2014 the population of these 3,181 units ranged from 129 to 1,908,669 with an average of 6,683 (EUROSTAT, 2014). There are also eight development regions created only for statistical reasons and management of European funds. These administrative divisions were created without any historical, geographical or cultural bases and do not have any legal status.

As of 2006 the budgets of the local administration are composed of own revenues: taxes and levies and a quota from the income tax, a quota from the state revenues, subsidies provided by the central government budget; donations and sponsorship, external funding (EU and others). In this regard both the expenditure and the revenue incurred at the local level grew from roughly 7% of the 2003 GDP to more than 9% of the 2014 GDP.

Between 2006 and 2011 the municipal/ communal level received 47% from the income tax quota, the county councils received 13% and 22% was earmarked for balancing budgets. As of 2011, the quota of the municipal/ communal councils was reduced to 41.75%, the quota for the county council was reduced to 11.25% and only 18.5% was earmarked for balancing budgets. In Bucharest, the general city council

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and the six district council receive 64.50% with only 7% earmarked for balancing the local budgets within the capital. 70% of the state revenues are allocated based on the financial capacity of counties and 30% is based on surface. The county councils receive 27% of the total allocation. The other 73% is divided between the municipalities and the communes. In 2014 there were big differences between counties in terms of budgets as Bucharest had an allocation 15 times higher than the smallest county in the country (Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration, 2014)..

30% of the local budgets are earmarked for personnel, 23% are for goods and services, EU-funded projects take 9% and 6% are earmarked for social assistance. In terms of services, education infrastructure, social benefits and general public services have the highest allocations (Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration, 2014).

As of 1995 local governments have been allowed to borrow money under the supervision of a committee appointed by the central government. These loans may be taken as bank credits or bonds issues up to a level of 30% of the average own revenues in the past three years (Ruano and Profiroiu, 2016). According to the latest provided by the Ministry of Finance in September 2015 out of the total public debt, local governments had a share of 6%.

Looking retrospectively it can be noticed that Romania is still influenced by the communist legacy of centralism (Hughes et al. 2004). Nonetheless, due to international pressures, the country embarked slowly in a couple of decentralisation developments. However, decisions have not been coherent and consistent and were constantly delayed (Rezessy et al. 2006). In addition, as the central government has had a continuous control over the state budget, there was a mismatch between the devolved responsibilities and the resources made available (Poputoaia and Bouzarovski 2010). While the legislation might have seemed coherent, weak coordination and a lack of clarity regarding roles and accountability hampered the implementation (Laking, 2005).

3. DECENTRALISATION DEVELOPMENTS IN POLAND SINCE 1990

Historically, Poland has been a unitary state, subordinated to the authority of the central leadership – a king or a government after World War I. Still, especially in the first half of the 20th century, regions were given a certain autonomy. The Polish communist regime, however, abolished the traditional local government apparatus by replacing it with entities subordinated to the centre party. Since 1990 Poland has made a U-turn and saw decentralisation as the key element of the democrat functional state.

The first developments of the Polish decentralisation took place between 1989 and 1997 when the municipalities were re-empowered. Nevertheless, the territorial organisation of the state remained

unchanged. Between 1993 and 1997 the large cities were granted more responsibilities and functions while the central government started a programme of deconcentration of tasks to the local level by creating different agencies accountable to the government in Warsaw. Finally, a new Constitution was enacted that stated that the territorial system of the country must ensure the decentralisation of public power.

Between 1998 and 2003 a radical development is observed. Firstly, in 1999 Poland switched from a two-tier to a three-tier territorial division composed of 2.489 municipalities, 308 counties and 16 regions, after long and vivid public discussions (Dabrowski, 2008). Secondly, as of 2002 the citizens were given the right to directly elect the mayors in their municipalities. Consequently, the trust in the local institutions became higher as compared to the central government (Swianiewicz, 2001).

After the EU accession in 2004 the decentralisation process consolidated especially after the regional governments were put in charge of managing the EU funds made available at the regional level although conflicts over power and political influence between the different layers of government were still observed (Regulski, 2010).

The current sub-national government system consists of three tiers incorporating 2.479 municipalities and 380 counties, out of which 66 are city counties, at the local level and 16 voivodeships at regional level. In 2005 the average population of a municipality was 15.528, the average population of county was 101.304 and the average population of voivodeship was 2.405.981 (Central Statistical Office, 2015). Municipalities are responsible for all public issues of local significance, which have not been delegated by law to other levels of government. Tasks not capable of being addressed at municipality level like high school level education, healthcare or county-level infrastructure are attributed to the country level. At the regional level, the voivode is the representative of the central government (similar to the prefect in Romania) coordinating services like the police, the emergency services or the environmental protection while also supervising the lower tiers of government. Some tasks of the governmental administration are delegated at the county level under the coordination of the starosta. The design and implementation of regional development programs and the maintenance of the technical infrastructure within the region are also within the responsibilities devolved at the regional level (Ruano and Profiroiu, 2016).

In the past 25 years the size of sub-national public sector in Poland has expanded continuously. Initially municipalities received an increasing number of tasks to perform but were not receiving enough financial resources (Regulski 1999). Between the end of the 1990s and the end of the 2000s, expenditures at the local level grew from 11% to 12.5 % of GDP.

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Local revenues in Poland come from own sources (local taxes – especially the tax on real estate, fees for services and various own revenues), a share from the income tax collected by the central government, general-purpose grants and earmarked grants (especially from the European Union). It should be noted that Poland applies an equalisation system in order to increase the allocations for poorer regions. At the regional level each voivodeship enteres into an agreement with the central government in order to receive the co-financing needed for implementing the EU funds. Public debt at the local level is lower than the EU average as the central government restricts the process of borrowing (Ruano and Profiroiu, 2016).

CONCLUSIONS

Romania and Poland have had a very different experience in relation to decentralisation in the past 25 years although in 1990 the situation in the two countries was rather similar. While Poland is considered a good practice in Eastern Europe, Romania is still seen as a rather centralised country.

Poland has witnessed significant developments as regards decentralisation and regionalisation in the past 25 years which led to an economic and political shift. Legislation adopted in Poland after 1990 has encouraged local autonomy and delegation of competencies as mentioned in the Constitution. In this regard Polish local authorities have seen a significant shift in terms of both responsibilities and resources especially after the country moved from a two-tier to a three-tier territorial division. The quality of governance and access to the European and global market were incentives for embarking on these reforms.

The post-communist Romania has inherited the administrative divisions created in 1968 by Nicolae Ceaușescu as the recently created development regions are still not functional as long as these entities are not given legal status. Furthermore, the authority at local level continues to be rather low, strongly influenced by the central government and the resources given are insufficient in comparison with the given responsibilities. As regards the latter, in some of the sectors there is still an incomplete transfer of responsibilities. Nonetheless, as both the decentralisation process and local autonomy are mentioned in the Constitution, some steps in this direction have been taken mostly through deconcentration but also through devolution of responsibilities in some sectors. In addition there seems to be a political will to decentralise more responsibilities, albeit not in the most transparent matter.

The post-communist governments of Poland have understood better than their Romanian counterparts the principle of subsidiarity. They have started the discussions about decentralisation early in the 1990s and managed to switch from a two-tier to a three-tier territorial division before joining the EU. Romania, on the other hand, did not bring this issue forward in the first post-communist decade as politicians in

Bucharest wanted to retain as much power as possible. This lack of empowerment of the local government has been visible on the long term. In this regard, Romania can look into the good practices developed in Poland in the past decades.

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CAPITALIZATION OF ENERGY RESOURCES IN TERRITORIAL ASPECT

Abstract
An efficient exploitation of natural resources may lead to the establishment of a country's energy independence. In this sense, the article shows the status of primary energy resources, for the period 2000-2013, in Romania.
Emissions of greenhouse gases produce climate change. One of the ways to reduce gas emissions greenhouse is given to capitalization of renewable energy resources. Reserves of fossil fuels are not inexhaustible. For this reason, are becoming increasingly significant actions of identifying alternative energy resources.
Considering the situation of the energy resources, the article presents a situation for the production of electric energy by categories of electrical centrals. For a good use, durable, of the natural resources, and for realise a sustainable development, it is need the involvement of all stakeholders from local and regional communities.

***Keywords*:** natural resources, green economy, Romania

JEL CODES: O13, P48, Q42

VALORIFICAREA RESURSELOR ENERGETICE ÎN PROFIL TERITORIAL

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Rezumat
O exploatare eficientă a resurselor naturale poate conduce la stabilirea independenței energetice a unei țări. În acest sens, articolul prezintă starea resurselor de energie primară, pentru perioada 2000-2013, în România.
Emisiile de gaze cu efect de seră produc schimbări climatice. Una din modalitățile de reducere a emisiilor de gaze cu efect de seră este dată de valorificarea resurselor regenerabile de energie. Rezervele de combustibili fosili nu sunt inepuizabile. Din acest motiv, sunt din ce în ce mai importante acțiunile de identificare a resurselor alternative de energie.
Având în vedere situația resurselor energetice, articolul prezintă o situația referitoare la producția de energie electrică pe categorii de centrale electrice. Pentru o bună utilizare, durabilă, a resursele naturale, precum și pentru a realiza o dezvoltare durabilă, este nevoie de implicarea tuturor factorilor din comunitățile locale și regionale.

Cuvinte cheie: resurse naturale, economie verde, România

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1. INTRODUCTION

At the territorial level is desired balanced development by stimulating economic growth based on knowledge. It also aims to achieve environmental protection, sustainable use of natural resources and strengthening social cohesion.

In this regard, an important financial contribution I can provide European funds. These funds can be used for environmental protection, biodiversity conservation, climate change mitigation and prevention of natural hazards, expanding the use of alternative energy sources and improving energy efficiency in industry and in the household.

Nonrenewable energy resources are on the verge of exhaustion. In the European Union it desires that, until 2020, the share of energy from renewable sources in gross final energy consumption to be 20%. The national objective is 24% (ME, 2015). For this reason, in Romania should develop and implement a legal framework and mechanisms for targeting EU funds in the renewable energy sense. According to European commitments, Romania should like 2020 to improve its energy efficiency by 19% and reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 20% effect. Also, to meet its target, Romania will have to capitalize 63.5% of the total potential of renewable energy sources at its disposal. The European energy sector is heavily dependent on fossil fuels. This fuel is exhausted by burning pollutes the environment and accentuates the greenhouse effect. Therefore, to support the identification of other energy resources, the European Union formulated a series of policies and measures for the use of renewable energy resources. In the European Union for the next period seeks to put great emphasis on energy efficiency. An important objective is on supporting the transition to an economy with low carbon consumption. Investments must be made in the coming years is the increase of energy efficiency of housing and public buildings, the use of heating and cooling from renewable energy sources, development and implementation of integrated strategies to reduce emissions of carbon dioxide and sustainable Energy action Plans favorable for urban areas, including public lighting systems and smart grids. The actions of thermal rehabilitation of housing can lead to the increase of energy efficiency and increase the attractiveness of urban areas.

2. PRODUCTION OF ELECTRIC ENERGY

It is considered that electricity production is given by the total quantity of electricity obtained from solid, liquid and gaseous fuels, both in thermal power plants, hydroelectric, nuclear and other energy sources.

It notes that, globally, to produce electricity, using increasingly more renewable sources. Due to the development of alternative energy sector, Romania has the ability to produce electricity "green", with low

greenhouse gas emissions. In this way, the EU requirements can be met relating to energy production from renewable sources. The electricity that comes from renewable sources cannot totally replace energy produced by power stations using conventional materials. However, electricity produced from renewable sources can become an important pillar of the national energy system (ICEMENERG, 2015). One of the objectives of Europe 2020 is given share of renewable energy fulfilling of all energy consumed at least 24%. Thus, based on the upward trend of Romania has the opportunity to achieve and exceed this value. Regarding regional development, an important objective is improving the quality of the environment. One way of achieving this objective is given by the energy efficient use of resources. Energy resources available today are: coal, natural gas, petroleum products and other resources. In the last ten years, electricity production nationally registered alternative differences in plus and minus over the previous year. Thus, in the Table 1 shows the production of electricity for the period 1992-2013, in million kilowatt hours.

TABLE 1 - PRODUCTION OF ELECTRIC ENERGY FOR THE PERIOD 1992-2013

Year	Categories power plants				
	Total	thermoelectric power plants	hydroelectric power plants	wind power plants	nuclear power plants
1992	54.195	42.495	11.700	-	-
1993	55.476	42.708	12.768	-	-
1994	55.136	42.090	13.046	-	-
1995	59.267	42.573	16.694	-	-
1996	61.350	44.209	15.755	-	1.386
1997	57.148	34.239	17.509	-	5.400
1998	53.496	29.310	18.879	-	5.307
1999	50.713	27.225	18.290	-	5.198
2000	51.935	31.701	14.778	-	5.456
2001	53.866	33.497	14.923	-	5.446
2002	54.935	33.376	16.046	-	5.513
2003	56.645	38.480	13.259	-	4.906
2004	56.482	34.421	16.513	-	5.548
2005	59.413	33.651	20.207	-	5.555
2006	62.696	38.709	18.355	-	5.632
2007	61.673	37.995	15.966	3	7.709
2008	64.956	36.529	17.196	5	11.226
2009	58.016	30.448	15.807	9	11.752
2010	60.979	28.807	20.243	306	11.623
2011	62.216	34.136	14.946	1.387	11.747
2012	59.047	32.604	12.337	2.640	11.466
2013	58.888	27.443	15.307	4.520	11.618

Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

Although it appears that annual variations in electricity production, in 2013 is about 9% higher than that recorded in 1992.

From the data it can be concluded that in 20 years (1992-2013) electricity production in thermoelectric power plants has achieved almost halved. Also, the share of hydropower plants in the production of electricity has remained relatively constant. It is important to note that in 1996 the share of electricity produced in nuclear power plants was only 2% and in 2013 is 20%. Wind power plants began producing

electricity in 2007. In just six years, the share of electricity produced from wind power plants increased from 0.005% (2007) to 7.67% (2013).

Thus, the variation of electricity generation in wind power plants for 2007-2013 is shown in Figure 1.

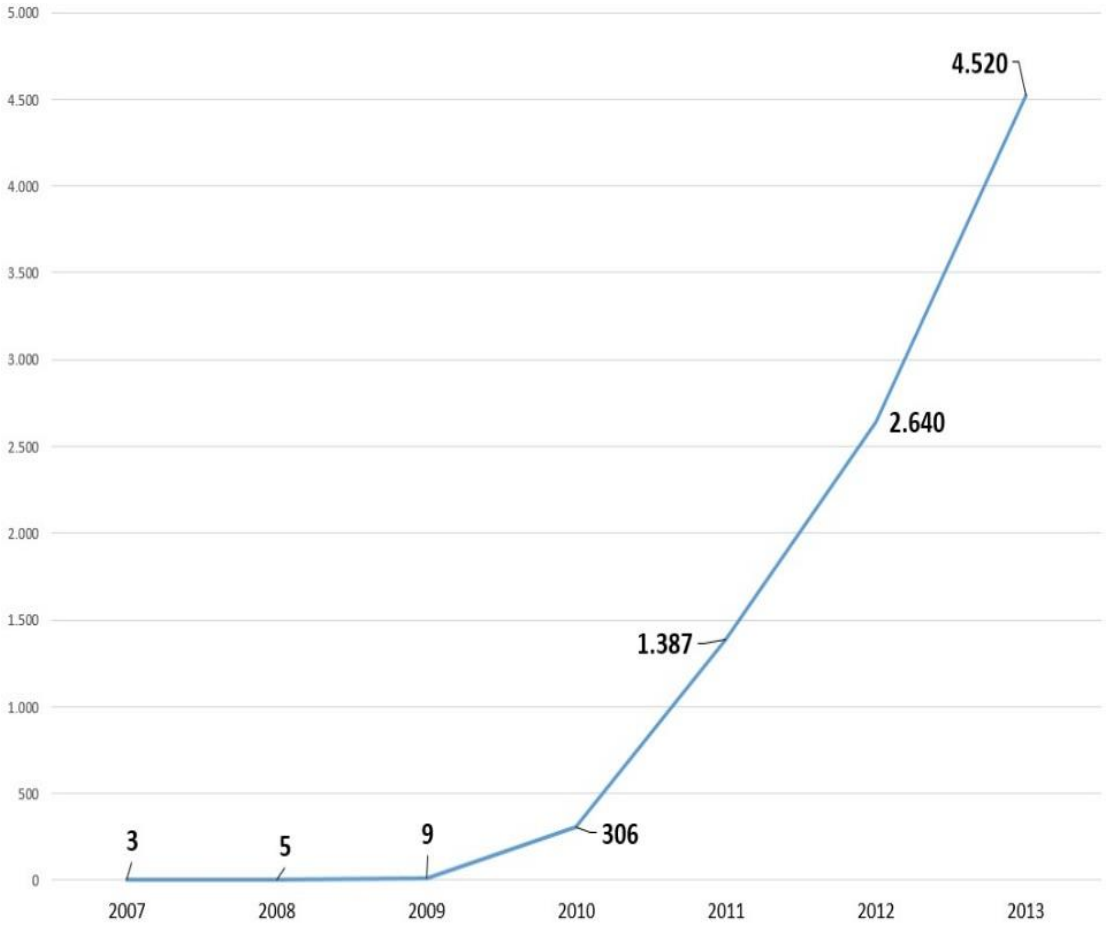


FIGURE 1 - PRODUCTION OF ELECTRIC ENERGY IN WIND POWER PLANTS, FOR 2007-2013
Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

The primary energy resources include: bearers of primary energy production, importing primary energy, stocks on 1 January of primary energy carriers in establishments producing, consuming units and distribution units. In the category of primary energy bearers production includes net coal, oil natural gas used, firewood, hydroelectricity, nuclear energy and renewable electricity unconventional (NSI, 2015)).

With this in mind, in Table 2 are presented for the period 1992-2013, total primary energy resources and the share of coal in these resources, expressed in thousands of tonnes of oil equivalent.

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TABLE 2 - TOTAL PRIMARY ENERGY RESOURCES AND COAL, FOR THE PERIOD 1992-2013

Year	Categories of primary energy sources	
	Total energy resources	of which: coal
1992	50.943	12.171
1993	50.683	10.793
1994	50.164	11.523
1995	55.941	12.172
1996	55.936	12.109
1997	51.275	11.397
1998	46.205	9.381
1999	39.791	7.511
2000	40.360	8.058
2001	42.664	8.977
2002	43.992	9.775
2003	45.377	9.912
2004	47.137	9.611
2005	47.289	9.408
2006	47.630	9.906
2007	47.460	10.616
2008	48.166	10.130
2009	42.729	8.078
2010	42.467	7.393
2011	42.430	8.299
2012	41.727	7.846
2013	39.251	6.060

Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

The graphical representation for total primary energy resources is shown in Figure 2.

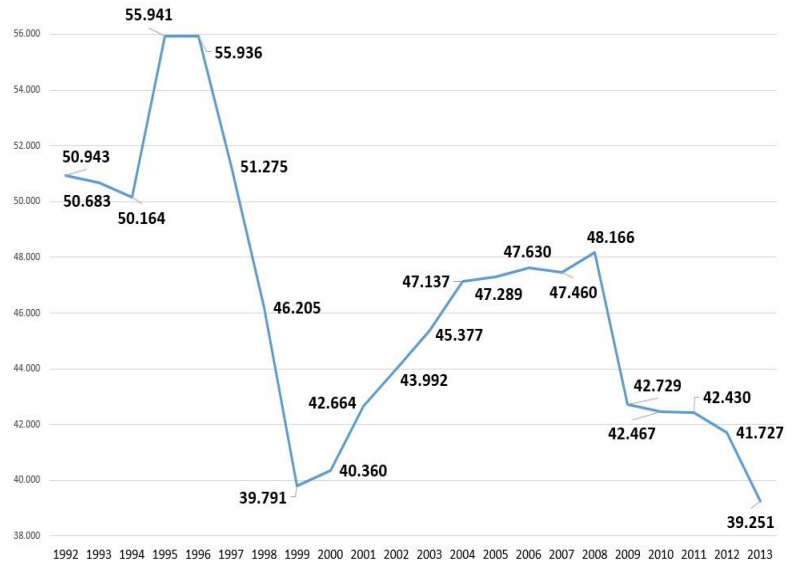


FIGURE 2 - TOTAL PRIMARY ENERGY RESOURCES, FOR THE PERIOD 1992-2013

Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

From the data presented, it appears that total primary energy resources decreased in 2013 to about 77% of the value it had in 1992.

3. RENEWABLE RESOURCES

Is there a high primary energy consumption in both the public sector and the private sector. This is manifested by higher costs for businesses, the public budget, but also for the population. At the same time, is maintained high level of carbon dioxide emissions. However, there is interest in combating climate change by using energy with low carbon emissions and renewable energy, and promoting energy efficiency (ELCEN, 2015).

In recent years, the share of renewables in final energy consumption volume increased. However, renewable energy is not sufficiently exploited to energy efficient public institutions or thermal power plants.

The share of energy from renewable sources in gross final consumption of energy (EUROSTAT, 2015), for Romania and the European Union for the period 2004-2013 is shown in Figure 3.

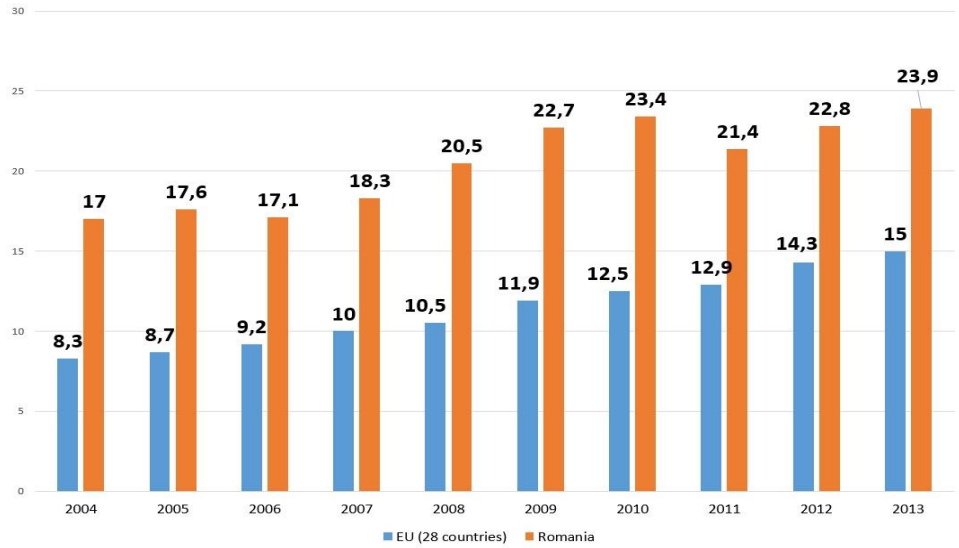


FIGURE 3 - THE SHARE OF ENERGY FROM RENEWABLE SOURCES IN GROSS FINAL CONSUMPTION OF ENERGY, FOR ROMANIA AND THE EUROPEAN UNION, FOR THE PERIOD 2004-2013
Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the EUROSTAT

It is important to note that the EU proposed target is 20% and for Romania is 24%. From the graph, it appears that Romania has reached the programmed target. Both European policies and national policies recommended to increase energy efficiency and reduce emissions of greenhouse gases.

Under these circumstances, it increased both the level of investment and the number of projects for producing energy from renewable sources. Energy resources available to Romania are diverse, but small quantity. They consist of both fossil and mineral primary resources (oil, natural gas, coal and uranium) and renewable resources. The business environment from a community contributes to the success of the local economy and the sustainable development of that community. Thus, if the business environment is

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performing, whose investment to increase energy efficiency, both in production activities and for activities represented by the services sector, these investments can be a key element for increasing economic performance. At EU level was decided to create until 2020 cogeneration of electricity and heat for that use the waste. The cogeneration plants should take for about 40% of the waste burning a community. Given the speed with which technology advances are necessary programs to inform and awareness of community members on the need for energy efficiency and use of renewable resources (TRANSELECTRICA, 2015). Another important aspect of efficient public lighting is given based on the use of renewable resources. Are necessary studies in order to increase energy efficiency at local communities and regional communities. Also, investments are needed on efficient energy consumption of public institutions.

Another important source of renewable energy is provided by solar radiation. To capture it using photovoltaic and thermal solar collectors.

CONCLUSIONS

From the above data, we find that Romania has significant natural resources, including energy resources. At the territorial level, depending on relief, we estimate that for renewable energy resources we have opportunities for the capitalization. However, climate change and rational exploitation of natural resources may adversely affect the ability to exploit energy resources. For an efficiency the energetic buildings, is necessary to investment through the implementation of systems using renewable energies. Also, investments can be made so that there is the possibility of producing electricity and heat, in both biomass and biogas power plants and in geothermal plants. Another possibility for the use of renewable resources is given the extension of intelligent lighting systems in the street, respectively road transport.

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THE ROLE OF COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

ROLUL INSTITUȚIILOR COLABORATIVE ÎN ADMINISTRAȚIA PUBLICĂ

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Abstract
The objective of this paper is to emphasize the advent of collaboration in public policy and administration, the essential character of collaboration as a task for public managers, and the various kinds of collaborative agreements that managers undertake as they operate within their communities. This paper seeks to fill a gap in the current literature by examining specific models of policy adoption related to collaborative policymaking and administration, multiactor collaboration as a public policymaking and management instrument, and pivotal features of collaborative public management.

***Keywords*:** collaborative institution; public administration; policymaking; community

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Rezumat
Obiectivul acestui articol este de a accentua abordarea colaborativă în administrație și politicile publice, caracterul esențial al colaborării, ca sarcină a managerilor publici, și tipurile variate de acorduri colaborative pe care managerii le analizează în timp ce acționează în cadrul comunităților.
Articolul de față vizează să acopere un gol în literatura curentă prin examinarea modelelor specifice de adoptare a politicilor asociate cu realizarea de politici colaborative și administrare, colaborării multiparticipative, ca realizare de politici publice și instrument de management, și a aspectelor pivotale ale managementului public colaborativ.

Cuvinte cheie: managementul public colaborativ, administrație, politici asociate.

1. INTRODUCTION

Collaborative public management should comprise collaboration between and among entities and the function of the public and individuals in governance (it requires democratic accountability). The pervasiveness of network governance (Lăzăroiu, 2013), contracting out, and more significant collaboration with individuals has modified the dynamics of public administration and what it signifies to be a leader. Managers find themselves convoking, furthering, transacting, moderating, and collaborating with numerous partners. The arrival of cheap instantaneous means of communication has cut down the transaction expenses of collaborating. The outstanding and increasing alteration is in the level of collaboration in public management. Design matters encompass the link of collaboration to responsibility structures. Networks should determine the novel endeavor, product, or output required from collaboration (Popescu, 2014), should regulate responsibility structures correspondingly, and should establish data gathering on direct procedures of collaborative conducts and undertakings. The sphere of public administration should cooperate with managers in the planned, sophisticated, participative configuration of systems for collaboration and can develop on the performance of other domains in that endeavor. Collaboration and negotiation abilities are significant in a diversity of circumstances, from the interpersonal stage between and among individuals representing entities in an arrangement, to the organizational stage in which network fellows agree to policy preferences. (Blomgren Bingham et al., 2015)

2. PIVOTAL FEATURES OF COLLABORATIVE PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Although all types of performing together demand some level of mutuality, collaborations necessitate reciprocal interdependence: although the participants in a collaboration process constitute self-governing entities, they should acknowledge from the beginning that they are reliant on each other in such a manner that for the undertakings of one to be successful they should depend on the undertakings of another. The threats in collaborative arrangements are significant: actors should be prepared to advance novel fashions of reasoning and acting, establish new kinds of connections and be disposed to make alterations in current systems of operation and service distribution. Collaborating does not cover carrying out duties but identifying novel fashions for advancing new systems and/or devising new bureaucratic networks to get tasks accomplished. Successful connections are key to effective collaboration. Concerning processes, collaboration management covers encouraging interplays, eliminating impediments and, where required, taking on the function of unbiased mediator. (Keast and Mandell, 2014) Collaboration between public organizations or between the latter and NGOs is a way to further enterprises that are planned to work out public matters: collaborative management entails various and countless connections with numerous

distinct public entities and NGOs, both nonprofit and for-profit, in a manner that should allow for manifold differentiated endeavors to foster some essential jurisdiction and other concerns. Public collaborative management indicates that the government agency's members are dynamically concerned in practicing leadership while preserving their duties to retain the public's interests. Collaborative "groupware" entails social capital (Nica, 2013a), collective learning, a culture of shared problem solving, and transaction among role-based participants. Public administrators especially undergo collaborative management in handling the performances and routines of nonprofit and for-profit entities external to their structure. (Agranoff, 2012)

Public managers who perform collaboratively perceive themselves not entirely as individual leaders of individual entities, but furthering and working in multiorganizational networks (Nica, 2013b) to clarify problems that cannot be deciphered, or cleared up definitely, by individual entities. There are no one-size-fits-all formulas for an effective collaboration as managers require comparing numerous elements. The concerns of collaborators may be incompatible with each other, but they should reach agreement on the entire goal of the collaboration to perform together. Capacity construction frequently raises the probability of positive result in collaborations and can assist in advancing an inter-organizational assignment and a collaborative culture. Before one consents to collaborate, one should consider the incentive and adherence of other associates. Governance is the undertaking of making shared judgments and rules to manage the collaboration, encompassing rule making and arrangements regarding how collaborators will interact, get in contact, and perform within the collaborative fabric for the purpose of accomplishing the end result. (O'Leary and Vij, 2012) Agencies at all levels encounter a series of chances to collaborate with private participants to accomplish public objectives more successfully than government can on its own. In collaborative governance each group assists in establishing both the way by which a widely determined objective is accomplished, and the particulars of the objective itself. The collective discretion that is the indication of collaborative governance can increase government's strength for carrying out public assignments and raise the adaptability with which they are performed. The enlarging relevance and refinement of private functions in public enterprises indicate that organizing collaboration, in opposition to handling agencies, is an essential competency for public managers. Government expenditure across the range of public, semiprivate, and directed products, over time and between divisions, exhibits significant diversity in the employment of collaboration. Well-structured collaborations can influence private participants to be partly responsible readily for a collective effort, profiting both themselves and the public copiously. (Donahue and Zeckhauser, 2011)

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3. MULTIACTOR COLLABORATION AS A PUBLIC POLICYMAKING AND MANAGEMENT INSTRUMENT

Collaboration is a mutual process between entities that entails negotiation, advancement and evaluation of commitments, and enforcement of the latter. Collaboration encompasses a process typified by the convictions that individuals who constitute partner entities in collaboration are reliable, that partner entities can rely on each other to preserve their duties, and that it is more constructive to remain in the collaboration than to give up. (Thomson et al., 2015) Collaborative arrangements for supplying of public service are frequently established by regulation and are devised and initiated by a hierarchical coordinating agency. Interlocal arrangements and co-operations supply self-organizing governance workings to diminish service expenditures and raise benefits via collaboration. Intergovernmental collaboration can generate both shared and particular benefit for separate government units. Collaborative arrangements bring about shared benefit by leading to efficiencies and economies of scale in the supplying and creation of services and interiorizing spillover problems, and produce particular advantages if they promote the separate concerns of local government representatives. Separate career motivations impact the disposition of local leaders to participate in collaborative agreements. Institutional shared action clarifications concentrate concern on both service and transaction expenses of collaboration. (Feiock, 2015) Ordered collaborative undertakings demand the employment of open-ended operations to harmonize the enterprises of tenacious persons so they can most fully use their particular skills and practices to the specific difficulties that tackle the collaborative enterprise under discussion. Collaborating supervisors both inside and outside governments should organize knowledge and constitute the communities of practice that are the indication of reciprocal learning and determination. Collaborative management initiates and establishes connections and frequently more ordinary interconnected links via transactions that pursue information and analysis; consider goal-inhibiting rules, criteria, and procedures; bring in other organizations to constitute co-operations or adjust local scheme; and pool funding. (Agranoff, 2012)

In collaborative governance the governmental principal readily allows its delegate a particular quantity of judiciousness. Producing public value by exploiting private capacity demands the thoughtful weighing of the benefits and expenses of discretion for the purpose of optimizing the net superiority of collaborating concerning what government can accomplish on its own. If government is dependent on collaboration to get its performance achieved, monitoring should be an intrinsic, unpremeditated, persistent feature of its management process. The public manager who strives to improve her assignment via collaborative networks should associate trained mastery of the widespread features of a group of collaborators with careful concern to the details of the particular individuals and entities across the table. (Donahue and

Zeckhauser, 2011) Government 2.0 is the employment of social technologies to raise involvement, openness, and interagency collaboration in the public sphere. A relevant feature of social technologies is the nascent collaborative and integrative voluntary component. The capacity of interactive web tools to back straightforwardness of collaboration and unconstrained horizontal and vertical information sharing among collaborators brings about a duty to organize, handle, and supervise information diffusion. Achieving and managing collaborative skills in a top-down establishment with pre-established standard operating processes demand talent and the disposition to depend not only on urging and emotional intelligence (Popescu, 2012) but also on a thorough knowledge of procedures, requirements, and administrative patterns in government entities. In settings where grasp comes prepackaged via the hierarchical reporting configuration or is implanted in comprehensible, standard operating processes, individuals may not identify the necessity to collaborate. Social technologies can be employed in manners that back assignment-specific information sharing (Lăzăroiu, 2014a) and collaboration across agencies and with individuals. The cultural challenges that prevent the accomplishment of the open, collaborative, sharing setting that social media tools assign should be worked out. (Mergel, 2013)

4. SPECIFIC MODELS OF POLICY ADOPTION RELATED TO COLLABORATIVE POLICYMAKING AND ADMINISTRATION

In collaborations the leadership concern is not on persons as such but rather on the operation by which new knowledge develops and novel manners of behaving materializes. Effective collaborations depend of the capacity of associates and administrators to be conscious of the pivotal components of the collaboration and be calculated in their setting up and enforcement. Collaboration is a useful instrument to provide public and social advantage (Nica, 2013c), but to satisfy its capacity it should be employed with more relevant strategic aim. Collaboration should be devised and enforced fit-for-purpose, requiring a broad and thoughtful examination of the problem space and the variety of possible solutions achievable in addition to the enlarged resources and responsibilities demanded. Collaboration functions at a more significant degree of connection and concentrates on reorganizing or altering service systems, involving an enlarged series of competencies centered on furthering and supervising the interplay process to enable coactions to be provided and collaborative benefit to be acquired. Separate collaborative competencies require a powerful mainstay for effective practice and end results. (Keast and Mandell, 2014) A collaborative outcome is frequently needed as scarcely ever a single government or agency has an ascendance on possible solutions to troublesome problems, or the resources or programs to handle them. Considerateness, toleration, and a disposition to make alterations are required to surmount obstacles in achieving collaborative success. Effective collaborative performance focuses on the issue of

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whether the interplay can generate something that can be determined as enhancing value to some public operation. The relevance of acquisition in multiactor collaborative circumstances like in arrangements is required to clarify the reality of diverging and occasionally discordant perceptions, goals, and organizations. (Agranoff, 2012)

Power inequalities within collaborations may bring about dispute and cooptation, and may influence the favorable outcome of the collaboration. Government officials can utilize power over the other collaborators as they constitute the government. Before assenting to a collaborative agreement, it is significant to establish if and how a collaborative entity is held responsible to individuals and bureaucrats. Those who are considering whether to collaborate or not should clarify that communication routes are comprehensive, recognizable, and steady. Trust can be advanced among new collaborators via transparent communication, interdependence, objective alignment, openness, information and knowledge sharing, and by indicating capability, good intentions, and completion. (O'Leary and Vij, 2012) Collaboration may release the energies of individuals and entities across the sectoral range. A shortage of governmental management strength can suppress collaboration even if a governmental entity would embrace a collaborative proposal as the exemplary manner of achieving a public goal, and even if political challenges to collaboration can be satisfied. A broad-spectrum requirement to effective collaborative governance is a perceptive perspective of collaboration as a pattern within a broader aggregation of manners to get public work achieved. Effective collaboration demands that its approaches and incentives be grasped both by government officials and by their private peers. An increasing function for collaborative governance irrefutably tackles the public sphere with the requirement for analytical strength that is detailed, lasting, and broadly and thoroughly disseminated via government. (Donahue and Zeckhauser, 2011)

CONCLUSIONS

Collaboration has a conditional and multidimensional character established on the interdependency of objectives (Lăzăroiu, 2014b), the degree of resources, its political and organizational leadership (Nica, 2013d), and diverse other internal and external features. When the developing character of governmental entities and schemes is inspected, collaboration between the spheres can be regarded as an outcome of their indistinctness. For public managers, any examination of intersectoral collaboration involves how shared undertakings may back or weaken senses of public responsibility. The distinct conditions of public governance affect cooperative incentives, specifically concerning the particular responsibility objectives of the public sphere. The possible advantages of intersectoral collaboration comprise economy efficiencies, more adequate reactions to collective troubles and public demands, enhancements in both

the quality and range of public or private services, threat propagation, and enlarged access to subsidization or other resources. (Gazley, 2015)

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IMF POLICIES AND THEIR EFFECTS ON EDUCATION IN ROMANIA

Abstract
The International Monetary Fund (IMF) has been largely criticized for its austere measures attached to the programs, so called conditionality. Some scholars claim that IMF has adverse effects on education in borrower countries. The latter is conditioned with the fact, that IMF often requires governments to cut budget deficits which is accompanied with direct cuts of public spending on education and health care. At the same time, Romania has been among the frontrunners of the European Union (EU) states to turn to the IMF for financial assistance during the crisis.
Hence, article seeks to analyze the possible ways that IMF may influence public spending on education and reveal the current effects of IMF intervention on Romanian education. Thus, we have explored all Stand-By arrangements since 2008 and their measures: Prior actions,Quantitative performance criteria and Structural benchmarks. Furthermore, we have applied *with-without*, approach on main education indicators, in order to illustrate the IMF participation effects on Romanian educationsector by attributing differences to the IMF programs. Particularly, employing Bulgaria as a control group for with-without approach, shows that during the crisis Romanian education indicatorshave been more affected than those of Bulgaria. Our findings report that Romanian government should be aware while applying to the IMF assistance that it may have adverse effects on education in short and medium term periods.

***Keywords*:** IMF, Romania, conditionality, education.

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POLITICILE FMI ŞI EFECTELE LOR ASUPRA EDUCAŢIEI ÎN ROMÂNIA

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Rezumat
Fondul Monetar Internațional (FMI) a fost criticat foarte mult pentru măsurile sale de austeritate cuprinse în programe sub denumirea de condiționalități. Unii cercetători susțin că măsurile FMI au efecte negative asupra educației din țările împrumutate. Acesta se explică prin faptul că FMI cere de multe ori guvernelor să reducă deficitele bugetare, iar această măsură determină reduceri directe ale cheltuielilor publice în domeniile educație și sănătate. În același timp, România a fost printre statele Uniunii Europene care în perioada crizei a apelat la asistență financiară de la FMI. Prin urmare, articolul analizează modalitățile posibile prin care FMI ar putea influența cheltuielilor publice pentru educație și descoperă efectele actuale ale intervenție FMI în domeniul educației din România. Astfel, începând din 2008, am analizat toate acordurile stand-by ale României cu FMI și măsurile lor: acțiuni prealabile, criteriile cantitative de performanță și indicatori structurali. Mai mult, am aplicat abordare de tipul ”with-without” asupra indicatorilor principali din educație cu scopul de a evidenția efectele implicării FMI prin programe speciale în domeniul educației din România. În mod concret, folosind Bulgaria ca bază de control pentru abordarea ”with-without” am constatat că în perioada crizei indicatorii specifici domeniului educației din România au fost mai mult afectați decât cei ai Bulgariei.Descoperirile noastre arată că Guvernul României ar trebui să fie mai vigilent când apelează la asistență de la FMI, deoarece aceasta ar putea avea efecte adverse asupra educației pe termen scurt și mediu.

Cuvinte cheie: FMI, Romania, condiționalitate, educație.

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1. INTRODUCTION

IMF programs have regained their popularity since the outburst of financial crisis by offering financial and technical assistance to developing countries, even developed ones from the EU. The lack of credibility to the IMF as a global financial architect has been conditioned with failures to assure sound economic development in late 1990s to its borrowers such as Argentina, Mexico, South Korea and etc. (Sachs, 1998; Stiglitz, 2002; Hutchison & Noy,2003; Miyakoshi et al, 2012).This could be noticed from the IMF data on yearly total disbursments. Particulalry, in period of 2001-2003 total disbursments in average comprised SDR 24.1 billions, in 2004-2007 just SDR 2.9 billions, yet in 2008-2011 SDR 22.9 billions (IMF, 2015a)[1]. Yet, the lack of credibility has not been caused just by mistreatment of countries in need, but the growing evidence of IMF adverse impact on economic growth (Przeworski & Vreeland, 2000; Dreher, 2006, Bas & Stone, 2014), on income distribution and poverty (Pastor, 1987; Garuda, 2000; Oberdabernig, 2013), on labor (Vreeland, 2002; Nooruddin & Vreeland, 2010; Andronicеanu & Ohanyan, 2015), on health care (Ruckert & Labonté,2013; Reeves et al, 2014; Kentikelenis et al, 2014) and education (Alexander, 2001; Marphatia, 2010; Vranken et al, 2011).In its turn, the IMF to tackle ongoing critiques towards the institutions has launched several amendments and reforms. Particularly, in order to protect poorest member countries, in 1999 the IMF established the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF), which then has been replaced by the Extended Credit Facility (ECF). The aim of these arrangements is to fit the objectives of country's own poverty reduction strategy preserving country ownership (IMF, 2009). Furthermore, in 2001 the IMF launched initiative to streamlining the number of conditions in IMF programs and increasing country ownership (IMF, 2002).Later on, since 2002 the IMF has become more public and transparent by publishing member countries' letter of intents and making available the data on prior actions, structural benchmarks and quantitive performance criteria via Monitoring of Fund Arrangements (MONA) database. Meanwhile, Lamdany (2009) notes that compliance rate among the member countries remains lowcomprising just 60 percent in the areas of IMF core competency[2], which undermines efficiency of conditionality and IMF programs in borrower countries.

Thus, in 2009 the IMF has launched another initiative to streamlining conditionality and has become more flexible in the way to interact with countries. Particularly, structural performance criteria requiring formal

[1]SDR- Special Drawing Rights is an international reserve asset, established by the IMF in 1969 to complement its member countries' official reserves. Its value is forming based on a basket of four key international currencies: US dollar, Japanese Yen, Great Britain Pound, Euro, and SDRs can be exchanged for freely usable currencies. As of September 11th, 2015 SDR was equal to USD 0.66

[2] The author consider compliance as no delay to draw corresponding tranche on the agree date> Waivers are sought for late or partial compliance (Lamdany, 2009)

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waivers, was discontinued, and structural reforms, which should be tailored borrower countries' different policies, are subject of overall program performance review (IMF, 2015b). The latter should mitigate the conditions to withdraw disbursements even if there are some mid-term delays. In this end, recent review of IMF conditionality highlights that IMF measures have been better targeted on country programs and programs have generally been more effective and safeguarded priority spending (IMF, 2012).

On the other side, the national system of education is the quintessential tool for the creation and application of knowledge, which is pledge of long-term economic growth. Yet, education sector is mostly financed by public budget and in time of crises it is the shortest way to cut budget deficit.Moreover, fiscal adjustment is core measure for IMF to help economies to recover from the turmoil, sometimes by instrumentalizing health and education to pursue economic development (Marphatia, 2010).However, there is a wide consensus among policy makers and donors for greater education financing. In particular, in 2000 the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in association with the World Bank (WB) launched Education for All - Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) movement, which is now known under Global Partnership for Education (GPE) to provide quality basic education for all children, youth and adults(UNESCO, 2015).At the same time, this project considers devotion from recipient countries, which means scaled-up levels of public investment as a share of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).While, there are two major concerns in scaling-up public investment: to stay in compliance with the IMF policies, which imply low budget deficits and low inflation, and aid from the other donors is usually linked to compliance with these policies (Rowden, 2011, p. 12).

Thus, the paper seeks to unveil IMF program effects on education in Romania during the crisis. Romanian authorities have signed three consecutive Stand-By Arrangements (SBA) with the Fund since 2009. In the light of IMF reforms towards safeguarding the priority spending in borrower countries it is of increased interest whether the IMF has required measures that have adverse effects on education in Romania.

The article is organized as follows. In the next section we present a brief literature review of measuring effects of IMF programs on education. Section 3 shows a theoretical background ofIMF conditionality and recent modifications towards flexibility. In Section 4 we discuss SBAs between Romania and the IMF by highlighting the measure that may affect education. Section 5 is devoted to description of applied methodology and data sources. Section 6 outlines the results of IMF program effects on education in Romania. The final section provides concluding remarks.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a bulk amount literature that claims IMF adverse effects on social spending, especially on health care and education. While, we have chosen those pieces that are directly related with Romanian education sector and IMF program effects on education. Even, since 1986, the IMF has been highly criticized for affecting the poorest and most vulnerable sectors of society that are most dependent on the state for valuable public services such as health and education (Remmer, 1986, p. 7). Likewise, other prominent scholars note that burden of cuts in public spending as a result of IMF's fiscal adjustment spills on economic services and on education and health care, rather than on defense (Pinstrup-Andersen et al, 1987, p. 77).

Therefore, the IMF's watchdog Independent Evaluation Office (IEO), in order to tackle such critiques towards the institution, published a circumstantial review of Fund's fiscal adjustment (Martin & Segura-Ubiergo, 2004). The authors employing Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model techniques, also a two-stage estimation method to correct for the endogeneity of IMF programs, find that social spending does not decline under IMF-supported programs. The data covers 146 countries over 1985-2000 period. Yet, the paper does not cover efficiency of public spending, i.e. IMF impact on health and education outcome indicators have not been evaluated, but total expenditures on health and education as a share of GDP.At the same, time this paper is considered first attempt to assess empirically IMF conditionality effects on public spending. As Nooruddin& Simmons (2006) underline thatpreceding studies had problems either with data availability mostly based on anecdotal evidence or did not count selection bias or endogeneity. Furthermore, they note that Martin & Segura-Ubiego (2004) study has solved the issue with endogeneity and it is more rigorous, but it is not bereft of a serious flaw. Particularly, the paper has not accounted political considerations regarding with governments cut spending as a response to IMF austere measures. Thus, Nooruddin & Simmons (2006, p. 1013) includes political consideration in their regression and questions the following two issues:

"First, we may find that the effect of IMF programs is conditional on the regime type of the recipient country, and possibly that they have different effects in different political systems. Second, we may find that the precise impact of increasing the level of democracy in a given country on its level of social spending depends on whether there is an IMF program in place".

Including political considerations in the regression, the authors find strong and robust evidence towards IMF adverse effects on health and education sector (Nooruddin & Simmons, 2006, p. 1027).

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Another paper evaluating effects of IMF programs on school enrollment covers data on school attendance at the district level aged 9-11 and 12-14 from 44 developing countries between1997-2007 (Vrankenet al, 2011, p. 11). The authors using multi-level analyses find significant positive short-term impact on school enrollment in the age 9-11, and positive significant for 14-14 age group if employed specific group of control variables. Meanwhile long-term insignificant negative impact on boys and girls in age 12-14 is found and bivariate analyses show positive but as well insignificant impact on growth in school enrollment.

Case studies from Latvia, Jamaica and Uganda come to corroborate the critiques towards the IMF adverse effects on education during the global financial crisis. The author exploring alternative ways to avoid cuts on education, claim that education advocates need to be unified in fighting against the neoliberal regime put forward by the IMF like institutions (Rowden, 2011, p. 68).

IMF experts conducted another research to evaluate effects of IMF programs on social spending in 2011 and found positive significant impact on growth of health care and education spending (Clements et al, 2011). Particularly, the authors use cross-country panel regression model for data of 140 countries from between 1985 and 2009, where all countries are eligible for concessional IMF lending. They argue, that concessional loans contributes to the growth in social spending, where over a five-year period education spending as a share of GDP increases 0.8 percentage point of GDP, and for health care, about 1 percentage point of GDP.

The most recent research on the topic of IMF effects on social spending was conducted in 2014, which claimed that IMF had negative impact on social indicators inclusive health and education in 9 under-program countries (Kotsios & Kotsios, 2014, p. 218). The authors simply compare under-program countries' social indicators with non-program ones and conclude about lower rates in under-program countries without accounting selection bias. In many cases, IMF under-program countries are affected by crisis and other factors that should have been included in the analysis.

By reviewing appropriate literature on chosen topic, we find that our research may fill the niche on case studies revealing the nature of domestic bargaining under the shadow of IMF austerity measures as it is proposed by Nooruddin & Simmons (2006).

3. BRIEF OVERVIEW OF ROMANIAN EDUCATION SECTOR: EXOGENOUS ANTECEDENTS

It is, indeed, a difficult and harmful path transformation from socialism to capitalism towards market-oriented economic system. Romania, after the famed revolution in 1989 and termination of Ceausescu's socialist regime, has started collaboration with international financial institutions such as IMF and WB, to mitigate the economic slow-down, rising inflation with its adverse consequences on the population.

Besides, Romania in 1993 signed an association agreement with European Union as a first step towards integration with European society. Yet, collaboration with such institutions and higher targets of integrations supposed substantial changes and structural reforms. Particularly, the IMF has famed by its conditionality attached to the loans, which entails privatization and marketization of economy. The IMF goal is to solve balance of payments problems of its member-states and to contribute to sustainable economic growth. Yet, its conditions vary from fiscal adjustment to structural reforms in education and health care. Since the collapse of socialist regime, first SBA with IMF signed in 1994 under Nicolae Văcăroiu government, meanwhile first full compliance with IFM conditionality and continuity of tranches was recorded in mere 1999 under technocrat prime-minister Mugur Isărescu. Education sector along with other sectors of economy was privatized transforming higher education from totally controlled and government-funded institutions to privatized and internationally commercialized ones. Particularly, Eisemon *et al* (1999) note that Romania was the leader in Europe by operating 73 private higher education institutions in late 1990s.Moreover, Ginsburg *et al* (2005) highlight that enrollment in higher private institutions was significantly increased from 0 percent in 1989-1990 to 31.9 percent in 2000-2001. Continuing the reforms in education sector, Romania became first post-socialist country, which created the legislative framework for distance education. Within this framework, Bucharest University of Economic studies opened its branch in Piatra-Neamț in 2001. Moreover, several public universities began to launch their own open distance education programs. Notwithstanding the dynamics of reforms, assessment of Romanian Education performance before the adhesion to the EU by World Bank experts finds real failures and challenges for Romanian authorities. In particular, Romania Education Policy Note (2007) underlines major challenges among them: continuously decreasing teacher/student ration, therefore high staffing level; strong trade unions and regulations; low teaching loads and low wages, human resource management, chronically underfinanced education sector. Indeed, Romania lagged behind the neighboring countries by most indicators. Accordingly, Program for International Student Assessment launched by Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) scores Romania 36th out of 57 participant countries (PISA, 2006).In addition, low wages of teachers make them reluctant to their jobs and there are poorly motivated and rarely accountable. This is partially caused by Romanian Ministry of Education and Scientific Research (MESR) low authority to supervise and motivate the teachers. As MESR preserves the right to establish the curricula, to hire the staff but it does not have any instrument to guide the allocation of scarce resources and defend education budget. Instead, Ministry of Public Finance (MPF) is responsible for remuneration, which is almost 60 percent of annual expenditures on education. Recent phase of Romanian education has begun since its accession to the EU in 2007. Currently, Particularly, Romanian government has a unique opportunity to improve efficiency of

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education allocation and increase expenditures/GDP ratio via attracting resources from structural and cohesion funds. While, they by absorption rate of cohesion funds are lagging behind the average EU-28 by 15 percentage points comprising 63.7 percent in 2013 (Cohesion data, 2013).Already, in 2008 all major political parties and trade unions highlighted the urgency of educational reforms by signing National Pact for Education (NPE). The following objectives are put in the pact: modernization of education and institutions in 2008-2013; budget allocation on education pin at minimum 6 percent of GDP by 2013; adoption of the principle "the money follows the students" in precollege education and many others (NPE, 2008). Yet, Romanian government receded since global financial crisis hard hit its economy. Moreover, it could not be able to withstand the downturn solely turned to the IMF and the EU for financial assistance. Both gave financial assistance by conditioning Romanian government to pursue IMF measures tailored to the loans.

An overview of some Romanian educational indicators in 2008-2013 reveals negative impact of crisis (see Table 1). Particularly, since 2008 educational units decreased by 1,161 comprising only 7,069 in 2013. Moreover, population enrollment in education and teaching staff along with shrinkage of educational units curtailed by respectively around 700 thousand and 32 thousand persons.

TABLE 1 - SOME DESCRIPTIVE INDICATORS OF ROMANIAN EDUCATION

Years	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
Units	**8,230**	**8,221**	**8,244**	**7,588**	**7,204**	**7,069**
Enrolled population (M)	**4,405**	**4,325**	**4,177**	**4,029**	**3,824**	**3,734**
Children in kindergartens (M)	650	653	666	674	674	581
Pupils (M)	2847	2781	2735	2682	2610	2689
Student (M)	907	891	775	673	540	465
Teaching staff (M)	**277**	**275**	**269**	**253**	**247**	**245**
Education abandon rate (percent)						
Primary and secondary	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.8	na
High school and vocational	4.1	3.6	2.9	4.2	4.2	na
Post high school and foremen	4.8	5.9	5.5	6.3	6.1	na
State budget allocation on education (percent of public budget)	9.1	5.8	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.5

Source: Romanian National Institute of Statistics and authors' calculation

Yet, some small improvement could be noticed on primary and secondary education abandon rate, which comprised 1.8 percent in 2012 instead of 2.0 percent in 2008. At the same time, abandon rate within high school and post high school education increased respectively comprising 4.2 and 6.1 percent in 2012. As could be observed state allocation on education as was significantly reduced becoming just 3.5 percent of state budget.

Indeed, we could observe that education has been palpably affected since financial crisis penetrated the national economy. In this end, further analysis would be an attempt to identify whether and in what extent the IMF participation helped Romanian government to mitigate adverse effects on education. As was

mentioned above, there is a notable amount of studies claiming that IMF participation led to reducing budget allocations on educations, freezing salaries of public employees and cutting jobs in public institutions. Hence, we present comprehensive discussion of employed methodology in the next chapter.

4. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In the literature there are several statistical methods employed to estimate effects of IMF programs. In this section we briefly introduce those main methodological approaches by justifying our choice of a method. Particularly, Ul Haque and Khan (1998) segregate the following four methods: before-after method, with-without, generalized evaluation and comparison of simulations.

Yet, Vreeland (2006) goes further by splitting generalized evaluation into three distinct approaches, there are as follows: controlling for selection on observed variables, controlling for selection on unobserved variables and instrumental variables. Each of them represents sophisticated methods to tackle selection problem in evaluation of IMF programs.

The before-after (BA) and with-without (WW) approaches are more intuitive and have drawback as they do not count selection problem, but their advantage is the ease of calculation. Yet, generalized evaluation and controlling for selection demand large-n observations, which are available in cross country and panel data analysis. Moreover, these methods, as well, have their limitations. Particularly, controlling selection methods are based on assumption that errors are distributed normally or bell-shaped. Instrumental variables could solve the problem with selection, but factors that condition the selection into IMF program can influence its effects, as well (Vreeland, 2006). Thus, assessment of IMF conditionality effects on program countries is not straightforward.

Given that our research attempts to identify IMF conditionality effects on Romanian education, we have faced with real constraints on data availability. Data limitation hinders employment of above mentioned sophisticated methods for evaluation remaining the most appropriate ones BA and WW. Meanwhile, BA approach could be applied in this case, as Romania since 2009 has signed three continuous SBAs with IMF with two years duration, respectively in 2011 and 2013. Hence, there is no available data on education indicators to evaluate after program performance.

We have consulted the literature on overcoming selection problem in WW approach. As not considering the selection could cause serious misinterpretation of results. Particularly, it is not fair to compare a country that has problems and turned to the IMF with one that is more preferable economic situation.

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The solution to surmount this issue is offered by Garuda (2000), who uses propensity scores to group countries based on their economic performance and probability to apply for IMF financial assistance. Furthermore, employing propensity score method in evaluation IMF program effects on employment within the EU, it is found that Romania has similar pre-economic conditions, i.e. closest propensity scores to apply for IMF programs in 2009. Meanwhile, Romania turned to the IMF in 2009 and Bulgarian authorities abstained. This evidence reduces availability of selection bias, as those two countries had economic conditions alike. Thus, in evaluating IMF program effects on Romanian education we employ Bulgaria as "control group".

In general, data on analysis of education sector include input and output variables, where input variables are public expenditures on different levels of education and its share in GDP and public budget. Yet, output variables illustrate the efficiency of such expenditures on education such as enrollment of students, out-of-school children number. In this end, we have made comparison both input and output variables in Romania and Bulgaria to understand the sway of IMF programs on Romanian education.

It should be noted, that input variables have been under indirect influence of IMF measures such as cutting budget deficit, shrinkage of public jobs and wage increase limitations. Those IMF measures on Romania during the crisis and after are comprehensively discussed in the following chapter. In order to eliminate problems related with differences between statistical methodologies of distinct sources. We have based just on Eurostat databases, which provide data till 2012.

5. DISCUSSION OF IMF PROGRAM EFFECTS ON EDUCATION IN ROMANIA

Romania since 2009 has signed three SBAs with IMF, where the last two ones have been declared as precautionary.[3] Due to data limitation we discuss further SBAs signed in 2009 and 2011 each respectively with 24 month duration (see Table 2).

Particularly, the IMF officials need to review Romanian government performance on quarterly basis. Hence, we have analyzed 16 overall reviews by the IMF staff and extracted the reforms or measures that directly or indirectly could influence Romanian education sector.

TABLE 2 - DESCRIPTION OF ROMANIAN STAND-BY ARRANGEMENTS

Approval Date	Initial End Date	Revised End Date	Total Access	Precautionary	Delayed By
05/04/2009	05/03/2011	03/30/2011	11.4 SDR mln.	No	
03/31/2011	03/30/2013	06/30/2013	3.1 SDR mln.	Yes	3 to 6 months

Source: IMF MONA database

[3] Precautionary arrangements are used when countries do not intend to draw on approved amounts, but retain the option to do so should they need it.

Particularly, the IMF officials after all reviews concluded that "Romania has successfully concluded two Stand-by Arrangements with the Fund" (IMF MONA, 2015). Given that IMF staff announced about successful accomplishment of two SBAs with Romania, we suppose that government compliance was not a problem in implementation of IMF measures. Hence, the effects of IMF policies on Romanian education sector could be fully attributed to the Fund, as soon as compliance was not an issue.

TABLE 3 - MAJOR REQUIREMENTS OF THE IMF

SBA 2009-2011	SBA 2011-2013
Budget expenditures	**Budget expenditures**
Streamlined public employment (by over 100,000)	Continued streamlining of public employment allowing restoration of the 2010 public wage cut within a sustainable wage bill
A public sector wage cut of 25 percent (partly offset by 15 percent increase in 2011)	Improved targeting of subsidies and social assistance
Elimination of holiday bonuses and the 13th salary	Elimination of arrears of the health insurance fund, reduction and improved control of central and local government arrears, and shortening of payments period
Inefficient social benefits cut (15 percent) and reinforced social inspections	
Central government arrears reduced to near zero	
Budget revenue	**Budget revenue**
A rise in social security contribution rates (3 ppts.)	Integration of tax and social contributions collection
Structural reforms	**Structural reforms**
A major pension reform was approved to increase retirement ages, move indexation from wages to inflation, and reduce incentives for early retirement, while continuing to build the second pension pillar	Passage of a New Labor Code and Social Dialogue Law that enhance labor market efficiency
The public wage system was reformed, harmonizing wages across ministries and significantly reducing the role of bonuses in compensation	Passage of a Social Assistance Law that provides for streamlining and better targeting of social benefits
Social benefits were reformed—including unemployment insurance, social assistance programs, and maternity benefits—to improve efficiency while reducing costs	

Source: IMF official reviews of Romanian SBAs initiated in 2009 and 2011

According to the reviews of the IMF staff Romanian government has implemented various successive and comprehensive reforms in four major economic areas: budget expenditures and revenue, structural reforms and financial sector. Yet, within our topic we have extracted those measures that could affect education sector either directly or indirectly (see Table 3). Particularly, first SBA signed in 2009 urged Romanian government to cut budget deficit up to 3 percent of GDP. This difficult path could not be implemented without harmful and rigid methods.

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Especially, on expenditure side IMF measures caused shrinkage in public employment by over 100,000 persons, public wages are cut by 25 percent, the 13th salary was eliminated and inefficient social benefits were cut by 15 percent. Meanwhile, the majority of public employees are in education and in health sector, hence those sectors are more affected of the aforementioned measures. Moreover, on the revenue side 3 percentage point rise in social contribution, as well may have adverse effects on employment in private sector and private schools. Furthermore, Romanian authorities made reforms of wages and social contribution by reducing the role of bonuses and compensations.

Review of SBA initiated in 2011 shows that Romanian government continued streamlining of public employment, eliminations of arrears and improved targeting of social assistance on the expenditure side. Yet, on the revenue side IMF officials highlight that integration of tax and social contribution collection took place. Amongst the structural reforms we have extracted Passage of New Labor Code and Social Assistance Law, which could affect the education sector.

In this end, we further analyze main education indicators of Romania and Bulgaria to unveil the effects of aforementioned measures on education. Thus, the data are split into two categories based on their nature. Particularly, data represented in the first part include those indicators that directly may be affected by local fiscal policies and are entitled as input variables.

As was mentioned above the data are extracted from the one source, in order to overcome some minor differences in statistics. In our case all data are captured from Eurostat database, which let us analyze the desired data from 2008 until 2012 with some exceptions. We include 2008 as a non-crisis year to draw on some conclusions (See Table 4 and Table 5).

First of all, the attention is directed to the education expenditures to explore its development since crisis penetration. This indicator is calculated as percentage of GDP and illustrates that Bulgaria has notable comparative advantage on Romania. Especially, Bulgarian authorities managed to preserve approximately the pre-crisis year level of education expenditures comprising 3.8 percent in 2013.

At the same time, Romanian authorities, perhaps due to IMF imposed measures to cut budget deficit, notably reduced expenditures on education pinning it on 2.8 percent in 2013, which is less than pre-crisis year by 37.7 percentage points.

Detailed breakdown of public expenditures on all levels of education, i.e. pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary, unveils that all four educational levels have been affected by budget shrinkages (see Table 4).

TABLE 4 - ROMANIAN AND BULGARIAN EDUCATIONAL INPUT INDICATORS

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Education expenditures as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)						
Bulgaria	4,0	4,2	3,7	3,5	3,4	3,8
Romania	4,5	4,1	3,3	4,1	3,0	2,8
Total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at pre-primary level of education						
Bulgaria	0,85	0,91	0,92	0,88		
Romania	na	0,73	0,66	0,67		
Total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at primary level of education						
Bulgaria	0,84	0,85	0,80	0,71		
Romania	na	0,78	0,58	0,49		
Total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at secondary level of education						
Bulgaria	1,89	1,87	1,76	1,59		
Romania	na	1,53	1,28	1,07		
Total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at tertiary level of education						
Bulgaria	0,86	0,95	0,61	0,65		
Romania	na	1,20	1,00	0,85		
Expenditure on educational institutions from private sources as % of GDP						
Bulgaria	0,56	0,66	0,63	0,65		
Romania	na	0,11	0,12	0,11		
Public subsidies to the private sector as % of GDP, for all levels of education combined						
Bulgaria	0,60	0,70	0,74	0,65		
Romania	na	0,13	0,12	0,12		
Annual expenditure on public and private educational institutions per pupil/student in pps						
Bulgaria	2.874,3	2.860,7	2.655,0	2.713,4		
Romania	na	2.391,0	2.132,5	2.074,6		

Source: Eurostat

By another indicator, such as expenditures on educational institutions from private sources as percentage of GDP, as well Bulgaria steps forward. Particularly, during 2008-2011 investment from private sources on education had some growth increasing by 16,5 percent and comprising 0,65 percent of GDP in 2011. At the same time, Romania being behind Bulgaria by this indicator could hardly preserve that level comprising just 0,11 percent of GDP in 2011. Moreover, public subsidies towards private sector illustrates the same image, i.e. Bulgarian authorities with minor deeds, but stepped forward, while Romanian authorities just lagged behind their Bulgarian counterparts respectively 0,65 and 0,12 percents of GDP in 2011.

Our last input indicator is annual expenditure on educational institutions per pupil/student in purchasing power standard. By comparing performances of these two countries in 2009 and 2011 respectively could be revealed that Romanian students were more affected than Bulgarian ones. Besides the fact that Bulgarian government spends more money on an average pupil/student they did manage to mitigate the

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adverse effects of crisis more efficiently than Romanian government. Particularly, per student expenditures in Bulgarian and Romanian decreased in 2011 comparing with 2009 by respectively 5,1 and 13,2 percents composing 2.713 and 2.074 pps.

We further discuss the effects of input indicators on overall performance of education sector by presenting some output indicators (see Table 5). Teachers and academic staff in these countries are seriously affected by the crisis. The data show that both in Bulgaria and Romania took place serious cuts, particularly comparing with 2008 the overall number of teachers and academic staff decreased by respectively 10,1 and 10,6 percents comprising 97,1 thousand and 247,5 thousand in 2011.

TABLE 5 - ROMANIAN AND BULGARIAN EDUCATIONAL OUTPUT INDICATORS

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Teachers (ISCED 0-4) and academic staff (ISCED 5-6) thousand persons[4]					
Bulgaria	108,1	100,6	98,4	96,4	97,1
Romania	276,8	275,4	268,7	253,0	247,5
Number of students in enrolled in all levels of education million persons					
Bulgaria	1.349,5	1.323,0	1.314,8	1.307,7	1.294,0
Romania	4.553,9	4.532,1	4.401,1	4.228,1	3.989,0
Ratio of Students to teachers (ISCED 1-3)					
Bulgaria	12,8	13,5	13,6	13,8	13,9
Romania	14,3	14,1	14,3	15,2	15,4
Students in public institutions (ISCED 1 to 4) - as % of all students in public and private institutions					
Bulgaria	97,1	97,0	97,3	96,7	96,3
Romania	98,4	98,0	97,7	97,5	97,4
Participants in early education (aged between 4-7 years-old) - as % of inhabitants of the corresponding age group					
Bulgaria	84,4	84,2	85,3	86,6	87,1
Romania	88,5	88,0	87,2	86,4	85,5

Source: Eurostat

As well, a drastic shrinkage in number felt students in those countries, as in 2012 compared with pre-crisis year student amount in Bulgaria and Romania decreased respectively by 4,1 and 12,4 percents. These two mentioned indicators together contribute to the growth of students to teachers ratio, which traditionally was lagging behind the EU member-states. Particularly, in Bulgaria and Romania this indicator comprised respectively 13,9 and 15,4 at primary and secondary levels of education. Furthermore, from Table 5 could be shown that two countries have high level student enrollment in public institutions in Bulgaria 96,3 percent and 97,4 percent in Romania. Yet, both two countries felt decrease in enrollment in public institutions during the crisis. At the same time, Bulgaria has significantly improved

[4] The International Standard classification of Education is a statistical framework for organizing information on education.

enrollment in early education increasing it by 3,2 percent compared with pre-crisis year. Yet, Romania felt decrease in enrollment of pre-primary education by 3,4 percent in the same period. Hence, 14,5 and 12,9 percents of inhabitants corresponding age group remained out of education in 2012 respectively in Romania and Bulgaria.

CONCLUSIONS

Romania since fall of socialism regime has made several reforms to improve education sector and to be more integrated with the EU member-states. Yet, in 2008 by signing a national pact on education all major parties and civil societies agreed that it is still more need to be done to improve the efficiency of education sector. On the other side, financial crisis put another pressure on Romanian authorities to implement those reforms with stringent budget. Moreover, Romania could not solely withstand the adverse effects of crisis and turned to IMF for assistance, which aggravated the pressure on government to cut the budget deficit. The latter caused elimination of thousand jobs in public sector, wage freezes and elimination of 13th salary.

Nevertheless, the IMF during the crisis underlined the importance of both education and health sector, in Romania education sector has felt the serious financial shortages. In this end, we involved Bulgaria as "control group" and make a comparison between those two countries, based on our earlier findings that those two had closest propensity in pre-crisis years to apply to an IMF program. Thus, two types of education indicators are employed, i.e. input and output indicators. First one unveils direct impact of budget cuts on education sector, while the second one attempts to reveal the efficiency of those expenditures.

Overview of both input and output indicators reveal that Romanian education sector is more affected than Bulgarian one. Particularly, expenditures on education in Romania are cut more drastically than in Bulgaria and enrollment of students are more severe than in Bulgaria. Moreover, enrollment in early education has increased in the observed period in Bulgaria, but dropped down in Romania. On the other side in both countries predominates the concept, that public educational institutions are better, which is explained by overwhelming weight of student enrollment in public institutions.

Taking into consideration the rigor of employed methodology in estimation the effects of IMF programs on Romanian education, we could conclude that during the crisis initiated two SBAs had adverse effects on Romanian education. It should be noted that the nature of the methodology does not let us to generalize the results. Yet, in Romanian case IMF programs had negative short and middle-term impact

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on education. Hence, before applying to another precautionary loan from the IMF, Romanian government should be advised about adverse social effects of those conditional loans.

At the same time we would like to underline the limitations that we have faced during the research is the problem of endogeneity of programs and lack of data for more empirical studies. Thus, the study should be revised upon the data availability.

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A REVIEW OF ORGANISATION CULTURE ASSESSING INSTRUMENTS

O TRECERE ÎN REVISTĂ A INSTRUMENTELOR DE EVALUARE A CULTURII ORGANIZAȚIONALE

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Abstract
More and more companies across the word consider the organisation culture vital for the performance of their employees and ultimately for their business success. To identify and assess the organisation culture a number of instruments have been developed. The purpose of this research is to investigate what are the key dimensions or areas addressed by organisational culture assessing instruments administered across organisations from different geographical regions and if companies prefer to use a standard instrument or develop a custom made questionnaire. The research was made by conducting a literature review to understand what instruments have been previously developed and standardised for profiling and assessing the organisational culture.

***Keywords*:** Organisational culture, organisation culture assessing instruments.

JEL CODES: M10,M14, M19

Rezumat
Din ce în ce mai multe companii din întreaga lume consideră vitală cultura organizațională pentru performanța angajaților lor, și nu, în ultimul rând pentru succesul afacerii lor. Pentru a identifica și evalua cultura organizațiilor au fost dezvoltate o serie de instrumente. Scopul acestei cercetări este să investigheze care sunt dimensiunile cheie sau ariile abordate de instrumentele de evaluare a culturii organizațiilor din diferite regiuni geografice și dacă companiile prefera să utilizeze un instrument standard sau dezvoltă de fiecare dată un chestionar adaptat clientului. Cercetarea a fost realizată prin investigarea literaturii de specialitate pentru a înțelege ce instrumente au fost dezvoltate și standardizate anterior pentru stabili profilul și a evalua cultura organizațională.

Cuvinte cheie: cultura organizațională, instrumente de evaluare a culturii organizației.

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1. INTRODUCTION

More and more companies across the word consider the organisation culture vital for the performance of their employees and ultimately for their business success.

"The contemporary definition of Organizational Culture includes what is valued; the leadership style, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that characterizes an organization. So, organizational culture is a specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organization" (Markovic, 2008).

More and more companies in the recent years have a well-defined business strategy and consider vital for their success to align the organisation culture to the company strategy. Many business leaders have been focusing on creating and fostering an organisation culture that will encourage performance and in the same time will determine employees' motivation and engagement.

Even though the organisational culture varies from one organisation to another, commonalities do exist and different authors developed models used to identify, describe and assess the organisational culture. However, many authors agree that new technologies and globalisation put pressure to change on organisations in different countries and regions. Moreover, they had a significant impact on many sectors or industry macrocultures.

The world changed significantly in the last decade. The development of the Internet and the wide availability of information and knowledge, the almost free instant communication mediated by email and other electronic aids, social networking, all other advances in IT have changed the way people think and the way companies are doing business.

Therefore, successful organisations tend to be more flexible, willing to learn and adapt quickly to new ways of working and according to recent articles, organizational culture will probably be an even more important factor in determining the success or failure of firms during the next decade when more technological changes are expected.

In the age of globalisation and rapid emergence of new technologies that allow companies to have instant access to information, the instruments available for profiling the organisational cultural have a great variety and are easily accessible to managers and HR professionals from across the world.

The purpose of this study is to review and analyse some of standardised instruments for measuring and profiling the organisational culture and also to understand why many companies who decide to investigate

the organisational culture prefer to develop their own questionnaires in order to capture aspects they consider specific for their organisation or aspects who they consider they need to focus more on in their effort to align the organisation culture to company strategy to support its vision, mission, values and strategic objectives.

2. METHODOLOGY

The study was made by conducting a literature review to understand what instruments have been previously developed and standardised for profiling and measuring the organisation culture.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW OF ORGANISATION CULTURE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS

In trying to understand the variety of different organisation cultures that can be encountered, the researcher can use the typologies that allow the categorisation of different organizations into types. Such typologies have the advantage of simplifying and building higher-order theoretical categories, but they have the disadvantage of being so abstract that they often fail to describe accurately a particular organization (Schein, 2004).

A number of such typologies have been proposed by many authors and a number of assessment instruments have been created to measure or decipher the content of the organisational culture from a researcher or consultant point of view. The review of the culture assessment instruments studied how the organisation culture is currently profiled and measured.

Balthazard and Cooke (2004) consider that "traditionally, culture has been assessed by qualitative methods. However, quantitative approaches such as culture surveys offer important advantages for both cross-sectional organisational research and knowledge-based cultural change initiatives" therefore the qualitative and quantitative methods for the assessment of organisational processes and attributes are complementary.

Yauch and Steudel (2003) in their research of organizational cultures of two manufacturers, analysed the use of qualitative and quantitative assessment methods and identified strengths and weaknesses of both methods.

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TABLE 1. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF QUALITATIVE/QUANTITATIVE CULTURAL ASSESSMENT

	Strengths	*Weaknesses*
Qualitative approach	Ability to probe for underlying values, beliefs, and assumptions	Time-consuming process
	Broad, open-ended inquiry; participants can raise issues that matter most to them	An important issue could be overlooked; observations and results depend on interpretation(s) of a positioned subject(s)
		An important issue could be overlooked; participants have more control over the process
Quantitative approach	Rapid data collection and analysis	Some respondents may not be able to read/understand the questions
	Facilitates comparison	Interpretation is not discussed; it is left to the respondent's discretion
		An important issue could be overlooked; focuses only on preconceived issues and concepts
		Assumptions must be made about the appropriate group or groups to sample, depending on the view of culture (integration, differentiation, or fragmentation; Martin, 1992)

Source: Yauch and Steudel, 2003

Apart from possibility of benchmarking with other organisations, quantitative methods "offer an important practical advantage of being less onerous to use than qualitative methods. They tend to be more resource efficient in terms of time taken for both data collection and data analysis." (Reichers and Schneider, 1990)

Well-known quantitative instruments of assessing organization culture include the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke and Lafferty, 1989), the Organizational Culture Profile (O' Reilly III, Chatman and Caldwell ,1981), the Six-Dimensional Model (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders, 1990) and the Competing Values Model (CVM), also known as competing Values Framework (Cameron and Quinn,1999).

The main differences between these quantitative instruments are that "Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) measures behavioural norms and expectations in organizations, while Competing Values Model (CVM) and Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) measure values that impact on behaviour. The Six

Dimensional Model of Organisation Culture is an instrument that assesses culture from perceived practice of members of an organization" (Reiny and Butlle, 2006, p.140).

Organizational Culture Inventory, developed in 1983, by Cooke and Lafferty, is a self-report paper and pencil diagnostic instrument designed to measure twelve sets of normative beliefs or shared behavioural expectations associated with three general type of cultures, Constructive, Passive-Defensive and Aggressive–Defensive (Cooke and Szumal,1993). Different researchers that used OCI have shown a positive relationship between the Constructive culture and outcomes. In the same way, at the societal level, other scholars revealed the importance of the Constructive styles and demonstrates a negative relationship between the Defensive culture styles and World Competitiveness.

Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) is an instrument that uses a set of value statements to assess individual and organisational values. It was developed to measure person-organization fit, by correlating the profile of organizational values with the profile of the individual's preferences. The extent that person-organization fit is related with work-outcomes was measured by using the following variables: person-organization fit, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intent to leave, turnover, control variables as tenure, genre and age. (O' Reilly III, Chatman and Caldwell, 1981)

The Hofstede model of the organisation culture is based on the research conducted by Geert Hofstede. Between 1969 and 1973 he conducted one of the most comprehensive studies of how values in the workplace are influenced by culture. He analysed a large database of employee value scores collected within IBM in 53 countries. Subsequent studies validated the earlier results and included groups of respondents from a more diverse range of industries. In his study, Hofstede demonstrated that there are national and regional characteristics that affect the behaviour of organisations and identified five dimensions of national cultures: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity and long-term orientation.

In a follow up study of organizational culture differences, conducted by Geert's institute IRIC across 20 organisations in Denmark and the Netherlands in the 1980s, identified six independent dimensions of organisational culture: process-oriented versus results-oriented, job-oriented versus employee-oriented, professional versus parochial, open systems versus closed systems, tightly versus loosely controlled, and pragmatic versus normative.

The Hofstede Multi-Focus Model was further developed by ITIM International founder, Bob Waisfisz, and now it consists of eight dimensions (six autonomous dimensions or variables and two semi-autonomous dimensions):

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Means-oriented vs. Goal-oriented	Autonomous dimensions
Internally driven vs. Externally driven	
Easygoing work discipline vs. Strict work discipline	
Local vs. Professional	
Open system vs. Closed system	
Employee-oriented vs. Work-oriented	
Degree of acceptance of leadership style	Semi-autonomous dimensions
Degree of identification with your organisation	

Source: adapted from Waisfisz, 2015

The Values Survey Module 2013 (VSM 2013) is a 30-item paper-and-pencil questionnaire developed for comparing culturally influenced values and sentiments of similar respondents from two or more countries, or sometimes regions within countries. It allows scores to be computed on six dimensions of national culture, on the basis of four questions per dimension. The six dimensions measured were developed in the work of Hofstede and Minkov (2013) and they deal with key issues in national societies, known from social anthropology and cross-cultural research.

„The Competing Values Framework (CVF) has claimed its origins in the work of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) who developed the framework based on their analysis of 39 organisational effectiveness indicators, initially created by Cambel et al. (1974). Cameron and Quinn (1999) reworked the CVF and renamed it the OCAI„ (Reiny and Butlle, 2006 p.140).

The Organizational Cultural Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is a psychometric tool developed to help organizations identify their current and preferred culture. Through the use of a simple survey, participants identify their perceptions of both existing culture and their desired future culture. Organizations can then use these results to assess both the current cultural state and also to identify gaps between current and desired futures. For example, Suderman Jeff (2012, p.52), a practitioner, has tried to check the effectiveness of this tool, by using it in an organization that changed its leader. OCAI was applied at the beginning and the end of first year job of new leader and has served as a tool for leadership development.

Also, many authors and scholars made extensive researches and comparisons between culture assessment instruments.

R. Mannion (2008) have developed a comprehensive review of the ideas and themes raised by the organisational culturists and also have presented the result of a thorough study of 24 organisational culture assessment tools. He identified that even though the instruments vary greatly in terms of

theoretical approach, level of culture they tap into and pragmatism, there is a little practical application of these tools.

N. Delobbe, R.R. Haccoun and C. Vandenberghe (2005) have presented the comparative study of 20 organisation culture instruments. In their research, they started from the idea that to date, there is no consensus on a finite set of key dimensions able to describe and compare organisational culture across a large range of organisations and tried to fill this gap. Therefore, they analysed the dimensions measured by current questionnaires and synthetized them into four core dimensions that are common: people orientation, innovation, control and outcome orientation.

Some scholars (Davies, Nutley and Mannion 2000; Shortell &al .2001) were interested in quantitative measurement of organizational culture in order to determine its relationship with performance and products and services quality.

Scott et al. (2003, p.924) consider that the option for the best assessment instrument depends on how the ‘‘culture’’, ‘‘measurement,’’ and ‘‘organization’’ are defined, on the purpose of the investigation, on the intended use of the results, and the availability of resources. Scott & al (2003) concluded in their study that the choice of the instruments used is depended of context of cultural assessment and recommended a multimethod approach.

4. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

Different concepts of culture, stemming from anthropology and sociology, have been applied to organisational studies and there is no consensus on a determined set of dimensions that can describe the organisational culture across a large range of organisations.

In choosing the instruments for measuring and profiling the organisation culture, there are a variety of instruments in the market that offer standardisation and the opportunity of benchmarking with other organisations. However, a multimethod approach that combines qualitative with quantitative approaches might be more useful in understanding the underlying elements of the culture by putting the culture investigated into context.

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GESTIUNEA TENSIUNILOR ŞI CONTRADICŢIILOR ÎN ORGANIZAŢIILE DIN ROMÂNIA FURNIZOARE DE SERVICII SOCIALE PENTRU PERSOANELE VÂRSTNICE

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Rezumat
În prezent, țara noastră se confruntă cu un dezechilibru între numărul salariaților şi numărul pensionarilor, în sensul că, datorită politicii de stimulare a pensionării timpurii de după 1990, a crescut rapid numărul de pensionari în timp ce numărul salariaților a scăzut, mai ales prin emigrarea tinerilor în afara granițelor țării. În acest context, îmbătrânirea populației accentuează o problemă resimțita deja în societatea românească: persoanele vârstnice au nevoie de îngrijire medicală aproape permanente si o atenție asupra lor sporita şi asistenta personală. Politica guvernamentală în domeniul asistenței sociale este necesar să vizeze o serie de măsuri destinate combaterii excluziunii sociale şi promovării incluziunii sociale, inclusiv prin elaborarea unor reglementări legislative menite să asigure o construcție de sistem coerentă, un management eficient, o îmbunătățire permanentă diverselor măsuri de suport financiar destinate vârstnicilor şi respectiv celor în situație de risc, precum şi o consolidare şi dezvoltare a rețelei de servicii sociale, medicale şi geriatrice adresate acestei categorii de populație.

Cuvinte cheie: sectorul sanitar, violență, managementul conflictelor.

STRESS MANAGEMENT AND CONTRADICTIONS IN ROMANIA ORGANIZATIONS PROVIDING SOCIAL SERVICES FOR THE ELDERLY PEOPLE

Abstract
Currently, our country is faced with an imbalance between the number of employees and the number of pensioners in the sense that due to the policy of stimulating early retirement after 1990, rapidly increased the number of pensioners while the number of employees decreased, especially emigration of young people abroad. In this context, it emphasizes the aging population problem already felt in the Romanian society: the elderly need care and attention on almost permanent and enhanced their personal assistance.

***Keywords*:** violence, health sector, conflict management

JEL CODES: I18, I12, I13

1. GENERAL FRAMEWORK (background, context)

The general regulatory framework for social services is given today by Social Assistance Law no. 292/2011, published in Official Gazette no. 905 in December 2011. Specific legislation social services as a whole is rapidly changing and upgrading. Social services are defined in Chapter III (Social Services System), Article 27 of the Social Assistance Act, as follows:

"Art. 27 (1) Social services is the activity or set of activities implemented to meet social needs, and the special individual, family or group to overcome difficult situations, prevent and combat the risk of social exclusion, promoting social inclusion and improve quality of life. (2) Social services are services of general interest and are organized in various forms or structures, depending on the specific activity / activities performed and the particular needs of each category of beneficiaries. "

In Article 39 (point a) it is clear that responsibility lies with the central government (Ministry of Labor, Family and Social Protection) to assess and monitor the quality of social services.

Article 43 (para. 2 and 3) of the same law provides for a filing system of social services at national level. Art. 43 (2) nationally organize a filing system of social services that include data and information on social services. (3) The manner of organization, administration and operation of the recording system referred to in paragraph (2) shall be approved by the Minister of Labor, Family and Social Protection.

Article 106 of Law 292/2011 states that the Ministry of Labor, Family and Social Protection: develop, propose and monitor social indicators in the field; analyzing annual national data on poverty and social exclusion, identify factors that contribute to social inclusion, develop national field reports, recommendations and proposals to streamline decision-making process in the field of social inclusion; (...) Collects and processes data and information on beneficiaries, providers and social services provided at national level; (...) To (n) develops criteria, performance indicators and quality standards for social services, monitor and control their compliance by public and private providers.

An important provision of the Law on Social Welfare is linked to the National Social Observatory. To Article 109 (1) of the Act states that: "In order to streamline the preparation and implementation of social policies at the national Ministry of Labor, Family and Social Protection organize the National Social Observatory, hereinafter Observatory.

Observatory is to collect and analyze national data on public policies for social protection, employment, housing, education, health, information communication, mobility, security, justice and culture an integral part of the social inclusion process, to develop national reports in the field, and to make recommendations

and proposals to streamline decision-making process in the areas mentioned. In order to fulfill its tasks, the Observatory cooperates with national and international bodies active in the field of social protection and conclude cooperation agreements, including sectoral social or territorial observatories organized by them (Romanian Parliament, 2011).

Organization, operation and financing of the Observatory was established by Government decision, proposed by the Ministry of Labor, Family and Social Protection.

Social services may be the primary services and specialized. Social services are primary nature of social services aimed at preventing or limiting situations of difficulty or vulnerability that can lead to marginalization and social exclusion. Such services are: identification activities social need of individual, family and group activities to inform about rights and obligations, measures and awareness and social awareness, measures and emergency actions to maintain the community of people difficulty activities and counseling services, measures and activities of the organization and community development for social participation and social solidarity etc.

Specialized services are social services aimed at maintaining, restoring or developing the capacity of the individual to overcome a situation of social need. These services are: recovery and rehabilitation, support and assistance to people in need, including the elderly dependent care socio - facilities for people in difficulty, the institutionalized counseling, information and counseling centers etc.

The issue of rendering social services to the elderly in Romania (SWOT Analysis)

Currently, our country is faced with an imbalance between the number of employees and the number of pensioners in the sense that due to the policy of stimulating early retirement after 1990, rapidly increased the number of pensioners while the number of employees decreased, especially through emigration youth abroad. In this context, it emphasizes the aging population problem already felt in the Romanian society: the elderly need care and attention on almost permanent and enhanced their personal assistance. These resources that we have so much need there is a major emergency system consists of insurance and social assistance. In this regard, Law no. 34/1998 on granting subsidies Romanian associations and foundations with legal personality, a unit set up and manage social assistance (Romanian Parliament, 1998).

According to the 2001 Norms of implementation of Law no. 34/1998, Romanian associations and foundations may receive grants if given at least 12 months of social work services in an organized respectively by a social welfare unit.

Few people recognize the needs, problems, rights and potential contributions of older people who become refugees in their own country. Older people have special needs that must be addressed in planning our programs. Lack of mobility, visual impairments, chronic disease often, feelings of isolation, to name just a few of the problems they face, can make difficult access to health and basic services.

In 1990, due to reduction of the retirement age five years, temporarily, it was a rapid growth in the number of pensioners, leading to an increase by 24% within 5 years. The percentage is in contrast with European standards. In 1991 the system of state social insurance pensioners were 3.018 million in 1996 to reach 3.741 million. Subsequently, in January 2005, their number increased to 4.607 million (increase of 23%).

Number of pensioners in agriculture was even more pronounced, up from 1.016 million in 1991 rose to 1.612 million in 1996 (an increase of almost 50%), reaching in January 2005 to 1,430 million (a decrease in the number their deaths due time). The increases occurred from 1991 to 1996 were determined by the provisions of Law 80/1992, which was reduced retirement age, adopting the same level as for state social insurance system (Romanian Parliament, 1994).

Between 1990 and 2000 there was a massive increase in the number of pensioners (with an average age of approx. 55 years), and while this increase was a decrease in the number of employed population, so that there is an increase in the degree of dependence (retirees relative to total employment). Due to the decreasing number of contributors to social security (aging population, early retirement, unemployment, black market labor) and the increasing number of retirees Insurance (without farmers) in Romania was taken with increasing gradually the retirement age to 57 years to 60 for women and from 62 years to 65 for men by 2014, thereby increasing not only the number of taxpayers but also the level of pensions (by increasing the contribution period and the possibilities the pension fund) (National Institute Of Statistics, 1998 - 2015).

Through Assistance Strategy for Refugees perspective Diversity Age and Gender (AGDM), UNHCR in Central Europe is trying to ensure that older people can express their needs and problems, and that can actively participate planning and implementing protection policies and activities that addressed these issues.

Social contracting refers to a specific area of NGO-Government partnership that can take different forms in different social models and within each country.

Description period can start to define its components:

Social - refers to activities and social services in the area - the provision of those services whose purpose is to help citizens to have equal opportunities and access public life. But as we all know, in Romania there

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are obstacles. There are obstacles to social contracting at the local government level in Romania. These were identified in the research conducted by the Foundation for Civil Society Development were grouped in three levels - legal obstacles, administrative and cultural.

Legal barriers noted are: duplication of legislation, Law 350/2005 applying locally, lack of legislative coherence, lack of consistency between the concepts of contracting, financing, public-private partnership (Romanian Parliament, 2005).

Concerning of administrative obstacles we can mention: bureaucracy, lack of objective assessment, underdevelopment social services market, the lack of impact assessment, lack of databases with beneficiaries and providers, lack of transparency in local government.

Cultural obstacles relate to: the tendency of self-preservation of local government and NGOs fear competition, weak involvement of NGOs in policy formulation in the area, the lack of dialogue between government and NGOs.

A major problem identified by non-governmental organizations is the tendency to develop their own social care services, which will in the future lead to a decrease in the amounts awarded NGO even if their services are of better quality.

In this way it appears unfair competition or did you correctly said a pseudo-competition as long as funds are granted by local government for their services. Funds for NGOs will be granted only in areas not covered by public institutions.

- INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT (Strengths, Weaknesses)
- EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT (Opportunities, Threats)

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES	OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
-existence In society of these social units for elderly	- Insufficient resources on the allocation of social services.	- Development of social service provision.	- Economic Instability
A strategy for assistance on information, solving, policy implementation assistance	- Migration of labor abroad.	- The allocation of EU funds.	- Decreased income population.

TABLE 1 - STATISTICAL DATA AND INFORMATION ON SOCIAL SERVICES TO THE ELDERLY PEOPLE IN ROMANIA.

Types of units in order to assist adult people	Years			
	2010	2011	2012	2013
	UM: Number			
Care and support centers	99	102	105	110
Integration centers for occupational therapy	19	20	21	19
Recovery and Rehabilitation Centre	254	260	272	263
Hostels for elderly persons	118	142	166	n/a

Source: © 1998 - 2015 NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF STATISTICS

TABLE 2 - STATISTICAL DATA AND INFORMATION ACCORDING TO THE TYPES OF DISABILITIES

Types of units in order to assist adult people	Types of disabilities	Years			
		2010	2011	2012	2013
		UM: Number of persons			
Recovery and rehabilitation centers for disabled adults	Physical	n/a	n/a	n/a	796
	Somatic	n/a	n/a	n/a	177
	Aural	n/a	n/a	n/a	56
	Visual	n/a	n/a	n/a	200
	Mental	n/a	n/a	n/a	6149
	Neuropsychiatric	n/a	n/a	n/a	2614
	Severely Disabled (Associate)	n/a	n/a	n/a	980
	Rare Diseases	n/a	n/a	n/a	33
	Other Categories	n/a	n/a	n/a	5
Care and support center	Physical	695	724	748	764
	Somatic	335	318	321	331
	Aural	55	60	61	54
	Visual	328	323	326	313
	Mental	2746	2848	2874	3175
	Neuropsychiatric	1211	1218	1163	1135
	Severely Disabled (Associate)	498	497	560	620
	Rare Diseases	45	43	60	50
	Other Categories	529	506	442	n/a
Integration centers for occupational therapy	Physical	22	22	26	18
	Somatic	8	17	15	6
	Aural	10	47	45	5
	Visual	51	112	58	6
	Mental	935	802	859	788
	Neuropsychiatric	366	358	377	356
	Severely Disabled (Associate)	150	112	115	120

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	Rare Diseases	2	6	10	2
	Other Categories	6	7	6	n/a
Recovery and Rehabilitation Centre	Physical	961	1110	843	n/a
	Somatic	181	199	238	n/a
	Aural	19	22	30	n/a
	Visual	125	133	174	n/a
	Mental	5498	5974	5997	n/a
	Neuropsychiatric	2893	2713	2713	n/a
	Severely Disabled (Associate)	999	872	973	n/a
	Rare Diseases	24	16	58	n/a
	Other Categories	376	482	335	n/a
	Physical	1	n/a	n/a	n/a

Source: National Institute of Statistics, 1998 - 2015

Defining interorganizational conflict in the entities that provide social services for Elderly

Conflicts can be classified according to several criteria: location, level, degree of intensity, appearance, duration and evolution.

After the level that manifests conflicts can be:

- intrapersonal Conflicts
- Interpersonal Conflicts
- Conflicts within groups
- Intergroup Conflict
- Conflicts between Organizations;
- International Conflicts

From the perspective of institutions providing social services the elderly can say that Social Security covers a problematic broad including both a system intended to protect people of working age (social security) and those who cannot work or are socially disadvantaged. The two differ in the nature and sources. Social assistance designates a set of institutions, programs, actions, activities professionalized services to protect individuals, groups, communities with special needs temporary in difficulty, which for reasons of an economic, socio-cultural, biological or psychological not possibility to achieve by its own means a normal, decent life. Through the intercession and intervention of social assistance is helping persons in difficulty and help them obtain the necessary conditions for a decent life and to develop their capabilities and skills for a proper social functioning.

Social Assistance as an important part of social protection is a way of implementing programs and measures for the following social welfare, which is considered part of the target population. Social

assistance system based on the principle of universality and solidarity; not dependent on any previous personal contribution, as opposed to benefits from social insurance system.

Social work dealing with matters at different levels:

1. *Individually* - economic assistance, psychological;
2. *Interpersonal and Group Level* - family therapy, social groups
1. to Marginalized;
2. at *Community Level* - ethnic conflict resolution, group, individual and collective energies to mobilize the necessary resources to restore their normal integration.
3. *D*efining *Social Services* in general, and of *Social Assistance* in particular, revolves but around a common core on their purpose and that is to help individuals, groups or communities to exceed the period of difficulty adjusting to normal life.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE SUBJECT

In the literature there is still a wide variety of positions across the defining social welfare services, their quality and their cost reporting. Some identifies social welfare services as specialized programs, some identify as social intervention techniques, and in a different perspective these activities are seen as ways of knowing the needs and specific types of failures for people with problems.

H. Goldstein considers that the central objective is the knowledge of any social service or social learning. This implies a direct relationship between the client and the social worker. The concept of "welfare state" has a recent history. In literature it is deemed to have occurred around of the Second World War.

In Britain, Flora and Heidenheimer (1995) states that it began to be used only after publication of the Beveridge Report in 1942. New concept was tried to be found correspondents in reality. "Simply stated," the welfare state "refers to the process begun in the late nineteenth century, by which the state assumes collective welfare functions. Basically, it can say that it is the nationalization of social protection" (Zamfir and Stănescu, 2007)

In the literature there is a lack of a clear definition of the concept of "welfare state". Olsson identify a duality concept, it comprising, on the one hand, a redistributive component aimed, and as a result, social welfare, on the other hand, an institutional aspect (state) with respect to inputs and output- sites related to implementation. At the same time, it can be said that this concept has several components: political (the manifestation of a political community), social (expression of social solidarity) and economic (promoting economic growth - economic welfare and security and removing poverty).

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Deming believes that improving the quality of social services may reduce costs. To achieve this goal requires a methodical approach to quality. Literature raises a Demming Cycle, which determines the structure and sequencing of actions 4 components in a specific sequential order. Demming Cycle would provide a thematic quality social services, conducting specific activities are in constant motion and change, included in a tempo of 14 steps.

Stages of conflict are:

- emergence generating source of conflict - latent;
- perception in a different way of the conflict - perceived conflict;
- explicit appearance of the characteristics status conflict - perceived conflict;
- open action intended to resolve the conflict - state manifested;
- emergence consequences of the conflict (Manolescu, 2011).

The first stage involves an emotional component, those involved in the conflict from one another to feel hostility and tension (if destructive conflict) or enthusiasm or ambition (if beneficial conflict) (Manolescu, 2011).

Causes and effects of tensions and conflicts in organizations that provide social services elderly.

Because life expectancy increasingly larger number of very old people (over 80 years) is growing. In the years 2025 respectively 2050 the number of elderly people worldwide will reach 1.2 billion or 2 billion, with 241.0% and 462.8% more than in 1975, representing 15.1%, respectively 21.7% of the total population, compared to 8.6% in 1975, increasingly more older people live alone, because family members have moved away or because they are widowed. Encouraged in other areas of European policy or national mobility, including cross-border, it is an additional challenge for long-term care. Due to low birth rates, reduce potential support between generations (the ratio of people who can provide care and those who require it, the potential for family care) and at the same time is becoming increasingly difficult to meet the need for staff careers on the labor market. Another aspect of the demographic change and social, changing family structure and increasing the number of women in employment has led to many cases where care was previously provided by family, and especially women, will no longer be possible in the future or not to the same extent.

CONCLUSION

It is obvious that the level of competence of organizations is strictly conditioned by the quality. We can say that a product or service is of "high quality" if it produced who is responsible. Considering quality as a measure of satisfaction obtained, a provider of social services that fully satisfy the requirements and

expectations beneficiaries is appreciated as a supplier "strongly oriented towards quality. Investing in skills provider refers to a duty or obligation to fulfill its tasks and activating they had been entrusted. Lack of social support in the period up to 1990 was reflected in the relatively chaotic organization of social services doubled by the lack of professionals and legislation, lack of motivation wage even in this that we live in. We can say that the system of social services in Romania was recreated after 1989 many of the skills being left to the local public administration. The way sharing of powers between central and local government in this area but will have to corroborate both the provisions of Law no. 47/2006 and decentralization law no. 195/2006. Both framework law on social assistance and law provide for of decentralization so that the transfer of powers from central to local government to make the necessary resources while ensuring their exercise.

The first report of the European Community on poverty and social inclusion was specified for the European Union countries that the elderly are most vulnerable in terms of risk of social exclusion due to insufficient levels of pensions. Quality standards shall be implemented in accordance with the heterogeneity and diversity of this age group, thus adapting social services to the elderly. Required quality standards of social services specialized in Romania, provided in the public system, private and public-private partnership covers: organization and management, rights, ethics, global, comprehensive and integrated centering on people, participation, partnerships, orientation the results and continuous improvement. The significance of quality social services for the client includes: time and availability; finality - the level of achievement of service; deference - how well treated by the staff providing the services; Stability - is the same level of service provided to all interventions. On the basis of quality service are considered as fundamental criteria, namely:

- *Courtesy* - so that the beneficiary does not feel humiliated because she needs help; consideration.
- *Sympathy* - to have an open relationship with the customer as promptly.
- *Active listening* - to identify the real problem to be solved.
- *Accurately* - solving the problem to be solved, rather than another.

Government policy on social assistance should cover a number of measures to combat social exclusion and promote social inclusion, including the development of legislative provisions to ensure system construction coherent, effective management, improvement continual various measures of financial support respectively for the elderly and those at risk, as well as consolidating and developing the network of social services, medical and geriatric addressed this population. Even the media or political environments in Romania contributed an image to shape their relatively unfavorable, often reported that the number of older people recorded an upward trend compared to the working population. These effects

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found amongst these organizations require taking measures for providing resources for the maintenance of the elderly, reconsidering health policies according to the specific needs of this population, the development of complex services and automatically these conflicts and tensions will disappear.

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HUMAN RESOURCES POLICIES AND STRATEGIES IN THE LIGHT OF ROMANIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Abstract
It is known that the administration of a country cannot be effective and modern if its human resources are not of somewhat performance. Improving the performance of human capital from the administration sector, is a major objective of the current Romanian government. However, in the absence of clear strategies and policies and transparent in the light of the human resources from the administration sector, there may be a crisis in this area. The reform of the public administration, either central or local, entails certain aspects of human resources to change, of which are at its disposal: the recruitment, selection and appointment of public performance appraisal, evaluation of professional performance, staff motivation and increases of salaries, professional training and career development for the personnel which is part of this industry. All of the aspects mentioned above have been addressed in this paper, from the point of view of both the specific literature and from a strategic perspective..

***Keywords*:** strategies; policies; human resources development; reform of the public administration.

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STRATEGII ŞI POLITICI PRIVIND RESURSELE UMANE DIN PERSPECTIVA CONSOLIDĂRII ADMINISTRAŢIEI PUBLICE ROMÂNEŞTI

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Rezumat
Este cunoscut faptul că, administrația unei țări nu poate fi eficientă, modernă, dacă resursele umane ale acesteia nu sunt unele performante. Îmbunătățirea performanțelor capitalului uman, din administrație, constituie un obiectiv major al actualei guvernări, din România. Însă, în lipsa unor strategii și politici clare, transparente privind resursele umane din administrație, poate apărea o situație de criză în acest domeniu. Reforma unei administrații publice, fie ea centrală sau locală, presupune modificarea unor aspecte legate de resursele umane, de care aceasta dispune: condițiile de recrutare, selecție și numire în funcția publică, evaluarea performanțelor profesionale, motivarea și salarizarea personalului, formarea profesională și dezvoltarea carierei personalului din acest sector al economiei.Toate aspectele menționate anterior au fost abordate în prezenta lucrare, atât din perspectiva literaturii de specialitate, cât și din perspectivă strategică.

Cuvinte cheie: strategii, politici, dezvoltarea resurselor umane, reforma în administrația publică.

1. INTRODUCTION

Currently, the Romanian economy is a system in constant change, and being the subject of multiple challenges of various sizes. Regarding organizations, they are constantly changing, their main objective is to adapt to new trends, by applying different strategies and trying to use more efficiently the resources they have, whatever their nature. It is a difficult goal to achieve, because the external environment is in constant transformation, the consumers' demands undergoes metamorphosis, while the internal environment of the organizations must adapt to new economic trends and general management (Demen and Lala-Popa, 2013, p.232).

In all of this complex environment, the organization's human resources are the foundation on which the entire management is based. However, these resources are not homogeneous, they differ in time and space depending on a variety of criteria. Thus, each person is unique in its own way, there are no two identical individuals. "People" – extrapolated to the concept of "work" and "human resources", varies by age, gender, physical or mental abilities, values, intellectual qualities inherited or acquired over time. They are "social-cultural constructions, consisting of assessment (assessment, selection, and prioritization) and use (effective use) of real and virtual capacities of employees by managers, without social relations (through coercion or negotiation) between managers and employees (current or potential)" (Nica, 2012, p.11).

Human capital represents the resource of the organization able to adapt over time, to add value and to generate results proportional with their level of education. We showed in a previous study that if decades ago young graduates acquired a profession based on the knowledge obtained in schools, today the baggage of knowledge, aptitudes and professional skills accumulated over time becomes outdated very quickly. Existence of employee who are no longer able to professionally keep up with the mutations that occur in the conduct of activities at the organizational level, is a major problem for managers (Manole et al., 2011, p.208). The main objective of the staff development department, is to provide skill and experience, in order to obtain optimum and reliable performance, using the most appropriate methods. In achieving this objective, an important role plays the strategies and polices of the personnel, because the modernization of work processes do not ensure economic efficiency, if personnel development is not taken into consideration (Manole et al., 2011, p.208).

2. THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGIES AND POLICES IN HUMAN RESOURCES

Among experts, it is well known that "an important component of the human resources management is the forecast of human resources needs" (Lefter et al., 2008, p.39). Therefore, the makers of this field must

have the capability to predict the grade of employment of the workforce and to establish the necessary human resource for a period of several years. Also, they must be able to ensure the most effective use of human resources, adapting the staff needs required by the evolution of the organization's activities, and also by the economy in general (Lefter and all, 2008, p.39). Researching specific to this industry literature, we can say that over time, to the term strategy there have been awarded different meanings in relation to the area in which this term has been used. Thus, the human resources strategies represents overall long term goals in terms of human resources, the main ways of achieving them and the necessary or allocated resources to ensure structure, values and culture of the organization, and as well as the utilization of its personnel to contribute to the overall objective of the organization (Manolescu, 2001, p.122).

According to the views of multiple authors, such as Michael Armstrong, personnel strategies define the intentions of the organization in terms of ways of developing human resources, as well as the needs or requirements to be met in this area, to facilitate the achievement of organizational goals (Armstrong, 1996, p.170). According to other authors, human resources strategies of an organization, refers to its fundamental concept about its employees, reflect the type of human resources decisions, decisions which are directly related to organizational and environmental conditions (Milkovich and Boudreau, 1988, p.108). The definition represents in fact three very important aspects (Manolescu, 2001, p.122): managers' decisions regarding employment relations; the connection between organizational conditions and managers' decisions regarding human resources, liaison studied with priority by many specialists, for example Miles and Snow; the effects of environmental pressures on the organization and on human resources. Similar strategies for personnel and policy making, in light of human resources there is no official widely accepted point of view that meet the consensus of experts of the field. Researching the relevant literature, we found that there are numerous formulations assigned to personnel policies, such as:

a) They define how the organization fulfills its social responsibility towards employees;
b) Are an expression of the organization's values and beliefs about the function of human resources;
c) Aims to establish goals and guidelines in the field of personnel;
d) Means all rules and attitudes of human resources, on which management decisions are adopted, specific to human capital etc.

In conclusion, we can say that if strategies in human resources are the overall objectives in the long run (over 5 years) related to human capital, personnel policies represent all attitudes and major directions of

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the management practices relating to insuring, maintaining and developing human resources at organizational level.Thus we can say that if human resources strategies provide the basis for personnel policies, the latter ones support the implementation of strategies. At the same time, covering and analyzing the different definitions presented, it can be concluded that they do not contain contradictory elements, but complement each other, and their authors have paid special attention to existing value systems, both at an organizational an individual level.

3. THE NEED OF A STRATEGY FOR HUMAN RESOUCES IN ROMANIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In the period 2014-2020, the strategic approach to strengthening public administration is a major concern of the executive of Bucharest, which the European Union supports permanently. A modern and consolidated administration must be able, at any time, to facilitate economic and social development of the country through an effective public service, to adapt and promptly respond to the complex needs of the contemporary society. Only thus it will be able to implement public policies in the interest of citizens. As part of such administration, human resources, respectively its strategic approach to development will become a mandatory requirement (Manole et al., 2011, p.207). In this respect, the Romanian administration needs, at present, competent human resources and extremely well managed, in order to take responsibility for modernizing the entire Romanian public sector, and in this way to contribute to achieving the objectives of the Europe's Strategy 2020.

From this perspective it was developed the Integrated Strategy for Human Resources Development (SIDRU) 1 from the point of view of lifelong learning, which aims to be an embodiment of Romania's efforts to align with the Revised Strategy from Lisbon, to contribute to its implementation and to make compatible the community's objectives of the European Employment Strategy (SEO), with the national strategy. Thus, by combining policies in education, employment and social inclusion, SIDRU is trying to support a connection between economic sectors for a better and economic social cohesion and for sustainable development by ensuring the development of competent human resources, highly qualified.

Now, more than ever, the Romanian administration required highly qualified human resources, which is to fundamentally change its current configuration in order to improve public services provided o citizens. In the geopolitical regional crisis, in which Romania finds itself (in turn this may cause a highly dangerous geo-economics regional crisis), efficiency of the actions of human capital is the foundation of change in

[1] view Project SIDRU 2009-2020, document produced within the Project PHDRE RO 2006/018-147.04.05.01.07.02

Romanian public sector, of development and efficiency of social services provided to citizens (Manole, 2015, p.31).

In conclusion, we can say that formulation of a strategy aimed at strengthening the Romanian public administration, especially the development of its human resources is fundamental for the nest period. "The proposed reforms will only succeed if supported by a clear strategy and can contribute to a significant improvement in the quality of public administration in Romania" (Profiroiu, 2003, p.36).

4. ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT OF ROMANIA

Over time, numerous studies have been conducted on human resources based on the public administration, they provide a global and questionable image on human capital. In all these studies, the major problem reported by specialists concerned how the general principles of performance management were reflected in the processes of staffing (through recruitment-selection-appraisal), evaluation, promotion, motivation and development of administrative human resources, as follows:

a) From the perspective of the assuring process with personnel in the public service

According to the theory of management, it is known that the main objective in the process of recruitment-selection-appraisal relates to maximize compatibility between the requirements of the vacancy and the real competence of the potential candidate (knowledge, skills, abilities, potential for development, etc).

Regarding the public function, one of the criticisms of the recruitment and selection process, over time, was that it is a rigid process, focused more on checking theoretical knowledge acquired on the basis of a bibliography predetermined than evaluating skills and practical abilities required by the job for which the recruitment and selection is carried out. Since 2008[2] this system was changed in order to allow testing of practical abilities necessary for obtaining the public job, skills and motivation of candidates. Although the new legislation allowed testing other aspects of the candidates, not only the capacity to memory, and the legislative measures were supported by different initiatives (manuals, development of guidelines, training, etc.) aimed to facilitate their application; over time practice demonstrated that preferred were approaches targeted towards testing of candidates' theoretical knowledge and not approaches orientated towards testing the candidates' aptitudes and practical abilities.

b) From the perspective evaluation of professional performances in administrative personnel

[2] H.G. no. 611/2008 for approving rules regarding professional organization and development of public employees.

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In terms of management theory, professional performance appraisal system is an intrinsic and extremely important part of the human resources management (M.R.U.) in particular. According to J.T. Austin and P. Villanova (see fig. no.1), evaluation of performance is a central activity of M.R.U. because it affects numerous decisions of the M.R.U. system (Manolescu, 2001, p. 382; Ferris and Buckley, 1996, p. 272).

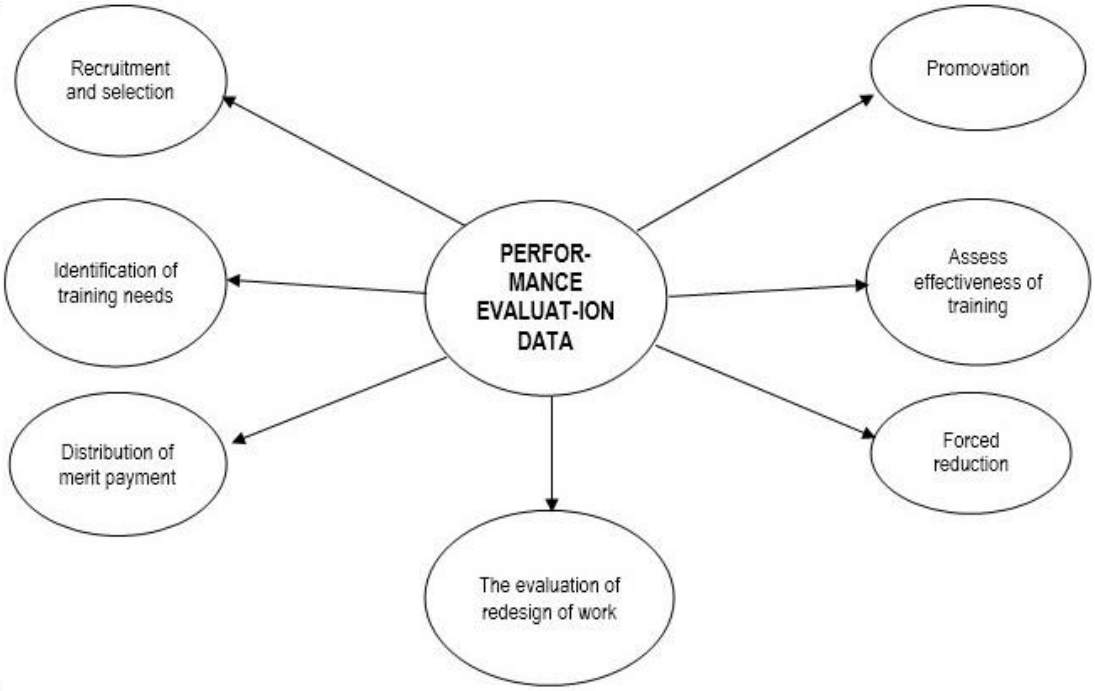


FIGURE 1 - CONNECTIONS OF THE PERFORMANCE EVALUATION PROCESS WITH OTHER ACTIVITIES OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT
Source: after J.T. Austin, P. Villanova and H. D. Hindman

According to the opinion of other specialists through more strategic approach to individual and organizational performance, its evaluation should be regarded as a central element of the concept of "performance management" (Anderson and Herriot, 1994, p.42). In fact, the essence of the professional performance evaluation process is that it must concern every employee's contribution to achieving organizational goals. In regards to the Romanian public sector, although the legislature's intention was that the performance of civil servants to be evaluated in conjunction with and in relation to institutional objectives, this situation was not reflected in institutional practice, mainly as a consequence of training individuals directly involved in the human resources process (both decision-making levels and operational levels), and the lack of tools that provide standardized correlations based on the requirements of the position with skills, abilities aptitudes of potential employees[3].

c) From the perspective of motivation and remuneration of managerial personnel

[3] The Strategy to Strenghten Public Administration, 2014-2020 (project)

The specialty literature shows that rewarding employees is a very important field of the M.R.U., which affects both employee behavior and organizational effectiveness (Manolescu, 2001, p.456). Regarding public administration, the salary cuts introduced by the Law no.118/2010, and the budgetary constraints have made the Law on the unitary pay of personnel paid from the public funds no.284/2010 to be applied only partially. The main aspects for which are not applicable the law of unitary pay of personnel are those concerning to the method of determine wages (using hierarchal coefficients and the reference value), and granting of bonuses and allowances, which just represents principal factors such as to ensure the unitary pay. At the same time, through art. 23 of the law there is the possibility of monthly prizes up to 2% of the salary's expenses for relevant staff in positions to obtain outstanding results[4] , the provision could not be applied due to budgetary cuts. Currently the ministry is considering the introduction of a new provision that would foster professional performance by awarding an excellence prize up to 2 basic wages / year, which will not generate additional costs to those agreed with the sphere of international banks, as it will provide savings to the salary fund[5].

d) From the perspective of training of civil servants

According to the theory of management, professional training and development represents fundamental activities aimed at developing human resources in general and the development of individual's career in particular. From this point of view, the main problem facing the government at present is that few institutions and public authorities communicate annually to the National Agency of Civil Servants, the plan for professional training of civil servants and the forecast of required funds (those being substantially reduced because of recent budgetary cuts). Other issues concerning the training system of civil servants is the fact that[6]: there is not a national database containing tutorials and training courses on specific fields practiced by the civil servants; there isn't a uniform quality management mechanism on training programs; there isn't a validating system of correlating training needs with the attributions needs for the job for each public official, practiced in various forms of professional development, etc.

To all the problems mentioned above are added some objective aspects generated by the current socio-economic and political environment, which is reflected in our country and will influence the labor market,

[4] Article 23 of Law no. 284/2010 regarding the unitary remuneration of personnel paid from public funds, as amended and supplemented
[5] The Strategy for Strengthening Public Administration, 2014-2020 (Project)
[6] Idem

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with long term risk of imbalances between supply and demand of the workforce. For example, regarding public administration, there are the following[7]:

a) The structure by age of the civil servants shows a high degree of aging, the age group over 50 years representing 35.5% of all civil servants. Simultaneously, another concern related to this issue is the distribution of the other age group in the public sector: 35.2% of civil servants are aged between 40-50 years old, the age group 30-40 years old 25.55% fall within this category, while only 3.75% of civil servants are under 30 years old. The result is noticeable, especially having a significant impact on adaptability and transformation of the administrative system.

b) Concentration of executive staff in public administration in higher professional ranks, mainly that: 50% represent higher grade public positions, 25.2% primary level public functions and only 24.8% level and junior assistant public positions. This situation is aggravated by the fact that 53.24% of executive civil servants have reached the maximum professional level, higher education, with implications for professional performances to decrease when compared to their motivation, while only 87.25% of the public functions at the level of professional debutant are vacant;

c) Today, salaries are not established according to the framework of Law no. 284/2010 using the coefficients of hierarchy and the reference value, the determination of basic salaries is the same as the one set prior the enforcement of the above law, namely that since December 2009, which led to some discrepancies in wages.

Concluding this part of the study, it can be said that implementing a performance management in the Romanian public administration is needed a simultaneously strategic approach of all mentioned deficiencies.

5. STRATETGIC OBJECTIVES, PRIORITY ACTIONS AND POLICIES' RESULTS OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE ROMANIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

From the perspective of achieving a performant management in the Romanian administration (in 2014-2020), the current program of government targets the adaptation of policies and the entire human resources system to the goals of a modern administration. Thus, some of the strategic objectives,

[7] The data and information presented were taken from the Socio-economic Analysis conducted at the level the Thematic Advisory Board and Good Governance in 2013, which represents the situation actually recorded in the year of 2012 (See Strategy to Strengthen Public Administration 2014-2020)

specifically envisaged by the present government to resolve the deficiencies in human resource administration system, follow8:

I. Increasing professionalism and stability in the public function, as a result of adapting recruitment, selection and evaluation of performance management requirements;

II. Reviewing motivational human resources policies in the public administration, inclusive from the point of view of career opportunities and remuneration performance oriented;

III. Integrated approach to developing skills for the public administration.

Some of the priority actions to be undertaken in 2014-2020, to achieve the objective mentioned above, that into consideration[9]:

- Creation of competency frameworks on common strategic areas of activities in the administration domain (public policies, rulemaking, human resources, finance and internal audit management, project management, institutional representation in the work of international relations, etc.);
- Assessment of current recruitment systems for the introduction of amendments to facilitate the existence of a greater degree of correlation between staffing needs of the system and the institutions and skills, knowledge and competencies of people interest in a career in administration;
- Implementation of an evaluation system for staff, based on criteria aiming abilities, performance and conduct (change of current evaluation system);
- Increasing transparency on recruitment, promotion and performance of functions. Thus, actions on increasing transparency will consider:
- clear definition of management functions, along with how to delegate decisional competencies;
- establish of new mechanisms for mobility and penalties, based on criteria including performance targets and the possibility to administratively appeal and in the courts / specialized bodies.
- Facilitate the implementation of the Framework Law no. 284/2010 regarding the unitary remuneration of personnel paid from public funds. For this it is considering revising the entire regulatory framework and reintroducing salary elements that reward performance at individual

[8] The strategy to strengthen public administration 2014-2020 (Project)
[9] The strategy to strengthen public administration 2014-2020 (Project)

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level (possible solution for financing new measures creating savings at the salary fund level, by authorized officers, so that these can use the relevant amounts for the above mentioned target);

- Redefining the system of vocational training and development of skills for public administration (strategic, normative, methodological and institutional framework). Underlying this strategic priority will form the three parts followed in the evaluation process – competence, efficiency and conduct;
- Establishing and implementing principals for quality assurance regarding professional training for the public administration. In order to achieve this strategic priority, an important role will be played by the National Agency of Civil Servants, which should[10]:
- establish priorities and to develop or, where appropriate, to endorse national policies and strategies regarding professional training for the public administration, in conjunction with national / European policies regarding professional training, but based on the needs of the administration;
- establish the necessary and relevant skills for performing different categories of functions, or, where appropriate, the different categories of public power activities in conjunction with the national inventory systems and description of those competences, but based on the needs directly resulting from the architecture of recruitment and selection systems in the public sector, in particular of those based on career development;
- define the modalities for recognition of skills resulted from learning activities, made by each person while exercising public functions, corresponding the exact method of how this was achieved (formal or informal system);
- redefine the institutional goals and priorities so that activities / tasks specific to the training provider status are subject to promote self-reliant activities like branding, re-branding and marketing of the product;
- redefine an appropriate institutional structure of the new objectives, based on including additional allocated human resources.

The expected results to be achieved in terms of adaptation of policies and human resources of the whole system to the objectives of a modern administration can be summarized, as follows:

[10]Idem

TABLE - 1

NAME OF SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES; PRIORITY ACTIONS	*RESULTS*
Specific objective I: Increasing professionalism and stability in the public domain, as a result of adapting recruitment, selection and evaluation procedures to the requirements of performance management	
- Establish and implement a system of standardization of skills in strategic domains of activities in administration (e.g. public policies, human resources, financial management and internal audit, project management, etc.), for various types of functions and specific domains, where appropriate (e.g. specific functions which are part of some ministries etc.)	- Defining and identification of strategic and specific domains; - Defining and implementing of frameworks on strategic and specific domains; - Updating relevant occupational standards.
- Assessment of current recruitment systems for the introductions of amendments to facilitate the existence of a greater degree of correlation between the needs of the institutions and the abilities, knowledge and competences of persons interested in a career in administration, along with the implementation of a evaluation system for the staff based on criteria aimed to competence, performance and conduct.	- Analysis of the current situation (from the point of view of enforcing current rules); - Updating legislation through the integration of positive aspects and example of good practice (amending and completing Law no. 188/1999 regarding the status of civil servants) identified as a result of implementing YPS[11] and BSGR[12] programs, and also of the analytical pilot system of career development in the public industry (rules, manuals, guides, etc.).
- Increased transparency on recruitment, promotion and performance of functions	- Increased degree of transparency about the activities of staffing, promotion and performance of functions
Specific objective II: Review of motivational human resource policies in public administration (AP), inclusive of career opportunities and salaries driven by performance	
- Facilitate the implementation of Framework Law no. 284/2010 on the unitary pay process paid from public funds	- Law on salaries of staff paid from public funds, developed in 2015; - By December 2020, the implementation of stages of a unitary pay system and considerable decrease (by December 2020) of wage gaps generated by demotivation of civil servants.
- Establish of a coherent system of recruitment and development of personnel performance evaluation methodology of structural funds and investments, based on performance criteria stipulated by national law	- Specific requirements for recruitment by competitions of the personnel who manages community funds, and also an unified pay system, unique and stimulating for the same category of staff (established in December 2014); - Develop a mechanism for periodic assessment of performance at the individual level, based on performance indicators established for each position (beginning with January 2015); - Provide financial incentives based on individual performance;
- Evaluation of the YPS and BSGR programs and integrating the "+" aspects through a new approach of career development in AP.	- Legislation updated with the "+" aspects and examples of good practice (from June 2015 to December2020)
- Development of an occupational pension scheme for staff in AP	- Developed occupational pension scheme for staff from the administration industry (date of completion is December 2018)
Specific Objective III: The integrated approach to development of competences in the public administration (AP)	

[11] Young Professional Scheme
[12] Romanian Government Special Scholarship

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- Redefining the vocational training system (strategic, normative, methodological and institutional framework) and skills development for AP	- Develop and implement public policies on training and skills development for AP; - Creation of a functional and sustainable regulatory and institutional framework; - Implement a system of quality assurance for the training processes; - Analysis of establishing an entity responsible in terms of training of the AP.
- Establishment and implementation of quality assurance **principles**, regarding the vocational training for AP	- Implement a system of quality assurance of the training processes (deadline June 2017); - Creating permanent mechanism for collaboration between institutions in terms of providing quality vocational training (as part of the new regulatory and institutional framework)
- Training of AP personnel in correlation with developed competence frameworks and institutional needs	- Internal strategies for developing staff skills (throughout 2014-2020); - Implementation of staff training programs (developed on strategic and specific domains, with poor expertise throughout the period 2014-2020)
- Professionalism of counseling activities within the cabinets of dignitaries	- Providing decisional and high quality advice on policy maker factors; - Conducting activities on specific training, related to the functions and the role of concerned persons; - Development of a framework for specific competences, for functions aimed at advisers working in political areas.

Source: The action plan on strategy implementation to strengthen public administration, 2014-2020

CONCLUSIONS

Currently, both the Romanian Government and at the level of European Union, there is a major concern relating to the modernization of the Romanian public administration, so that this is able to fulfill its role as a facilitator of socio-economic development for the country. In fact, this concern is also apparent in the negotiations that the Executive of Bucharest has with the European Commission relating to the Partnership, which will be the basis for grants from the structural funds for the entire period 2014-2020.

All the strategic objectives and also the priority actions mentioned above, related to human resources in Romanian public administration aim the need to prepare the country to meets its obligations assumed at the European level concerning a series of goals set by the European Strategy 2020. The objectives and lines of action set out above will be complemented by those contained in the Integrated Strategy for Human Resources Development (SIDRU) of the lifelong learning perspective, which considers the current problems in Romania in the field of education, employment and social inclusion and which could be financed by the European Social Fund throughout 2014-2020[13].

[13] The Project for Integrated Strategy of Human Resources Development, from the point of view of lifelong learning perspective, 2009-2020

Given the fact that, the strategic approach to human resources development is a mandatory requirement in the era of globalization, we can say that continuous training of employees is essential (Manole, 2012, p.53). Only in this way, human resources, both in public administration industry and other sectors of the national economy, will cope with increased competitive pressures on the European and global market (Manole, 2012, pp.60-61).

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF ROMANIAN LOCAL PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS

CULTURĂ ORGANIZAȚIOANALĂ ÎN ADMINISTRAȚIA PUBLICĂ LOCALĂ DIN ROMÂNIA

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Abstract
Organizational culture has become one of the most important aspects of management. Organizational culture refers to the symbolic side of the organization, the less visible part of it, the side which is more difficult to understand, but which has a vital role in the success of the organization. Culture is for the organization what personality is for an individual: it defines it yet it is hidden, hard to understand, defined by the experiences the organization went through since its birth, hard to change and has a key role in achieving the organization's objectives.
The goal of this paper is to analyze the organizational culture (using Daniel Denison's Organizational Culture Model) of the Romanian local public administration, focusing especially on three types of organizations (County Council, City Hall and Prefecture) from five different counties (Cluj, Sălaj, Bistrița Năsăud, Satu Mare, Covasna).

***Keywords*:** organizational culture, Romanian local public administration, Denison culture model

JEL CODES: D73, D23, H83

Rezumat
Cultura organizațională (construirea, întreținerea, dezvoltarea ei) a devenit unul dintre cele mai importante aspecte în managementul organizațiilor. Cultura organizațională se referă la latura simbolică a organizației, partea mai puțin vizibilă a acesteia, mai greu de descifrat, mai greu de înțeles, dar care are un rol vital în succesul organizației. Cultura este pentru organizație ceea ce personalitatea este pentru individ: definitorie, ascunsă, greu de înțeles, formată în timp, definită de experiențe prin care a trecut încă de la apariție, greu de schimbat și având un rol fundamental în atingerea obiectivelor.
Scopul acestei cercetări a fost să analizeze cultura organizațională (plecând de la modelul lui Denison) din administrația publică locală din România, cu precădere în trei tipuri de instituții: consilii județele, primării și prefecturi. Toate aceste trei tipuri de instituții publice aparțin administrației publice locale, dar sunt diferite între ele, atât prin funcții și formă, cât și prin dimensiune, subordonare, legislație, arie de deservire, public țintă etc.

Cuvinte cheie: cultură organizațională, organizații publice, administrație publică locală, modelul Denison

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1. INTRODUCTION

Organizational culture has become one of the most important aspects of management. Organizational culture refers to the symbolic side of the organization, the less visible part of it, the side which is more difficult to understand, but which has a vital role in the success of the organization. Culture is for the organization what personality is for an individual: it defines it yet it is hidden, hard to understand, defined by the experiences the organization went through since its birth, hard to change and has a key role in achieving the organization's objectives.

Large private companies (multinational corporations), to which we turn whenever we seek performance benchmarks, in their constant pursuit of profit and hence performance and efficiency, began to value the human resource so much and the role that the organizational culture can play in the success of the organization that, when recruiting, they put more emphasis on the compatibility between the individual and the organization's values than they do on the education, experience or skills that that individual has.

Often, these organizations prefer to recruit (especially for entry level positions) young people, just out of university or even students, individuals in training without a value system yet fully formed, immature, without their personality traits fully contoured. The dream of any organization of this kind is to have a place in which employees share the values of the organization and even identify with them (and the organization itself), where employees talk about the organization in terms of "we", not "them", in which individuals understand the organization's objectives and the role each of them plays in achieving these objectives, an organization in which these individuals see the connection between the work of each of them and the results achieved and personal satisfaction.

Nowadays this aspect of organizations came to be so important to the success of the organization that large companies make considerable efforts (including financial efforts) to build and maintain a culture that supports performance: from how they recruit and select human resources (they create a psychological profile, they check the compatibility between the individual and the organization's values, etc.), to how they organize the work environment, and interact with their employees, to how that involve them in decision making , and even go as far as to offer them facilities that allow them to develop within the company and allow them to engage in charitable activities or develop their own projects to implement their own ideas.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

As in many other areas, the concern for organizational culture first emerged and developed better in the private sector because they always seek ways to increase their profits, thus becoming more effective,

making them more prone to use their assets in order to maximize their return on investment. Once with the change of paradigm in public administration (the development of the New Public Management), characterized in particular by the desire to take over some ideas, concepts, techniques, tools from the private sector in order to adapt them to the public sector began an increased interest in organizational culture in the public organizations. However, we cannot see the same effort in the public sector as we do in the private sector regarding organizational culture and its role in the success of the entire organization. Although other countries, western and especially northern ones, are much better than Romania (and Eastern Europe in general) in using the principles of organizational culture, there are still differences in which this theory is regarded in the public sector versus the private one.

The concern of the corporations for organizational culture has developed an increase of the academic interest on this subject also, which began researching this aspect in an effort to better understand what it is, how it works and what connection exists between it and organizational performance. As usual, in the social studies field, there were heated debates on the subject, such as from which perspective should organizational culture be studied (sociological, psychological, anthropological etc.) or what methods should be used in its study (quantitative, qualitative).

The literature presents several models of analysis of the organizational culture, some based on simple models, such Edgar Schein's model (1990), which presents three levels of the organizational culture starting with a visible level and ending with the level that holds all the values and the basic assumptions and which is more difficult to approach, or Geert Hofstede's (2010) model of national culture which consists of six dimensions that represent independent preferences for one state of affairs over another that distinguish countries (rather than individuals) from each other (Power Distance Index, Individualism versus Collectivism, Masculinity versus Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance Index, Long Term Orientation versus Short Term Normative Orientation, Indulgence versus Restraint).

Others are based on more complex models such as Geert Hofstede's (2015) Multi-Focus Model, which consists of six autonomous dimensions or variables and two semi-autonomous dimensions (Means-oriented vs. Goal-oriented, Internally driven vs. Externally driven, Easygoing work discipline vs. Strict work discipline, Local vs. Professional, Open system vs. Closed system, Employee-oriented vs. Work-oriented, Degree of acceptance of leadership style, Degree of identification with your organization), or the model of Kim Cameron and Robert Quinn (2011), which claim that there are four major types of organizational cultures (Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy) or that of Daniel Denison (1990), which identifies a single type of organizational culture, but characterized by four main traits (Adaptability, Mission,

Involvement and Consistency), each of the four having three sub-dimensions which lead to the study of 12 dimensions that help us have a complete picture of the culture of an organization.

3. DANIEL DENISON'S MODEL

The model developed by Daniel R. Denison has a bottom-up approach, starting at the level of the employees in order to establish the cultural profile of the organization – defined as a result of all individual values and behaviors. Unlike Geert Hofstede's famous national culture model, Denison focused mainly on the analysis and evaluation of organizational culture at the level of the whole organization. The bulk of his research study was conducted on the impact of organizational culture on the organizations' performance and effectiveness over time, in a context in which many organizational culture researchers focused on the importance of values and beliefs, and on the way organizations developed these values and conveyed them to others.

Graphically, Denison's model is represented by a straight-forward diagram (see Figure 1) that allows a fast comprehension and interpretation of organizational culture, with its four main dimensions.

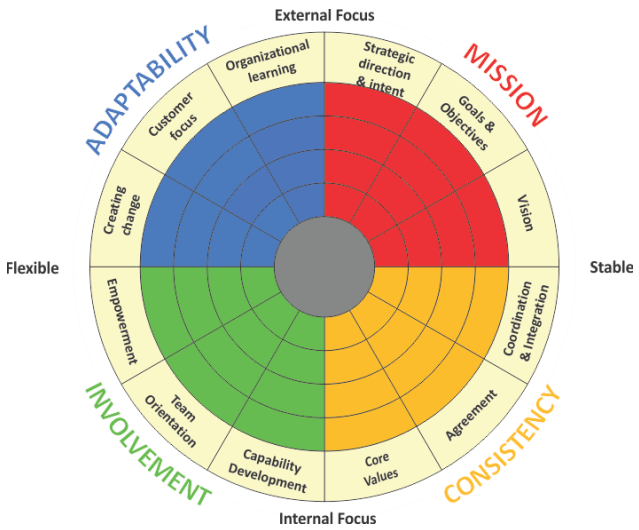


FIGURE 1. THE DENISON ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE MODEL
Source: adapted from Denison (2005)

Involvement (1) is one of the main conditions that organizations realized they had to fulfill and that, when exploited, led to success. Denison talked about two types of approach regarding involvement: on the one hand, involvement meant capability development, and the accountability of each individual to the smooth running of the organization; on the other hand, involvement led individuals to identify with the organization, and developed their sense of belonging, both of which greatly influenced the members' motivation.

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Besides involvement, the development of a system of shared values, certainties, and symbols is highly important for any organization. Denison gathered these aspects under the umbrella of **Consistency (2)** (Denison, 1990, pp. 8-11) and emphasized the importance of a strong culture in reaching effectiveness. A system of beliefs, values, and symbols, which was accepted by all the members of the organization, has a positive impact on their ability to reach consensus.

The first two cultural traits of Denison's model are all about the organizations' internal environment; the author believed that effective organizations seemed to combine the two principles – that of involvement and that of consistency. Involvement was used to generate ideas and solutions, which were then transposed into a more specific set of principles, accepted by all organization members. Measuring these two concepts should allow an overview of the degree of their internal integration.

Adaptability (3) is necessary to any organization if effectiveness is to be reached; if the aspect of adaptability is not considered, we are dealing with a rigid, bureaucratic system, based on values and beliefs that are stability-oriented.

The last component of Denison's model is **Mission (4)**. First of all, the Mission of an organization offers it meaning and purpose – implicitly, a purpose other than financial wellbeing, in order to understand the importance of work in an organization. In other words, it defines the social role of the organization. However, the role of the Mission is to also define the values on which the bureaucratic system relies, and that lead the actions of individuals towards reaching the organization's purpose, through the accomplishment of its objectives.

Adaptability and Mission (Denison, 1990, pp. 11-15) are dimensions that emphasize the organizations' capacity to adapt to their external environment.

4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

The goal of this paper is to analyze organizational culture (based on Denison's model) of the local public administration from Romania, focusing especially in three types of institutions: the County Council, City Hall and Prefectures. All three types of public institutions belong to the local administration (there are other types of institutions that are a part of the public administration system, but I chose only these three types because they are the most important ones), these three types of institutions are very different one form the other, both in features and form and size, and also in aspects regarding their subordination, the legislation they must obey, the are they service, and their target audience, etc.

The research is a quantitative one and aims to find out whether there are significant differences in organizational culture based on (1) Type of organization – Do different organization from the same county

have different cultures? – (2) Location – Do similar organizations from different counties have different cultures? Does local culture influence the organizational culture? – (3) System – Is there a shared culture of the Romanian local administration?

Without claiming that the results of this thesis are representative for the entire local public administration in Romania, mainly because the research is not exhaustive (I analyzed three types of organizations in just five of the 41 counties of Romania: Cluj, Sălaj, Bistrița Năsăud, Satu Mare, Covasna), it is however particularly important given that in Romania there is no research on organizational culture of the local public administration (there are only a few research papers done related to the academic environment).

The research is based on a quantitative method using a sociological survey based on a questionnaire. The questionnaire used is a version translated and adapted by me of the one developed by Daniel Denison and his organization. The instrument was offered to me, at my request, by the organization led by Daniel Denison (Denison Consulting) together with their agreement to allow me the use the tool for academic purposes.

As discussed in the methodology, the questionnaire has a number of 60 statements, each with five possible answers (1-strong disagreement, 2-disagree, 3 neutral, 4-agree, 5 strong agreement). Each of the 12 dimensions of Denison's model is measured by 5 questions out of 60. To calculate the average scores, I did an average for each of the 60 statements and then the average of groups of five questions to obtain a result for the 12 dimensions and then an average for the three dimensions to obtain a result for the four traits. The questionnaire comprises eight more questions related to age, sex, education level, work experience etc.

The questionnaires were distributed to a large number of employees from the 15 selected institutions; the sample is one of convenience because it was not possible otherwise (due to the lack of human resources, poor cooperation from the institutions, the reluctance of employees etc.). The number of questionnaires received is 534, which represent approximately 22% of the total number of employees from the 15 organizations. In some organizations I have managed to cover a large number of employees (77% - from the County Council of Bistrița, 70% from the Sălaj Prefecture, 52% from the County Council of Cluj), but in others the response rate was very low (8% in the City Hall of Satu Mare, 10% in the City Hall of Bistrița, 13% in the Cluj-Napoca City Hall).

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5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

City Halls

Figure 2 shows a general overview of organizational culture for the five City Halls. A first observation would be the fact that there are no significant differences among them, and that none of them stands out in any way – quite the contrary, they almost overlap; their cultures are somewhat similar, and balanced, as none reached maximum or minimum rates on any dimension.



FIGURE 2. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF CITY HALLS

By analyzing the score of each City Hall, I noticed that they are all within the interval 3.01-3.78, meaning slightly above average, which, according to Denison's research (Denison D., 1990; Denison, Haaland, & Goelzer, 2004), implies sound grounds for good performance. What is surprising is not only that all dimensions scored above average (we would have expected customer focus, at least, to score lower, given the nature of these institutions), but also the fact that there were no major differences between them, although they are in five separate counties, in separate geographical areas, with separate regional cultures.

County Councils

Figure 3 shows a general overview of organizational culture regarding the five County Councils. Once again, we witness an almost total overlap of the five cultures, as the differences actually seem smaller than in the case of City Halls; as shown above, there is a balance between the 12 dimensions in each

case, with no major discrepancies.

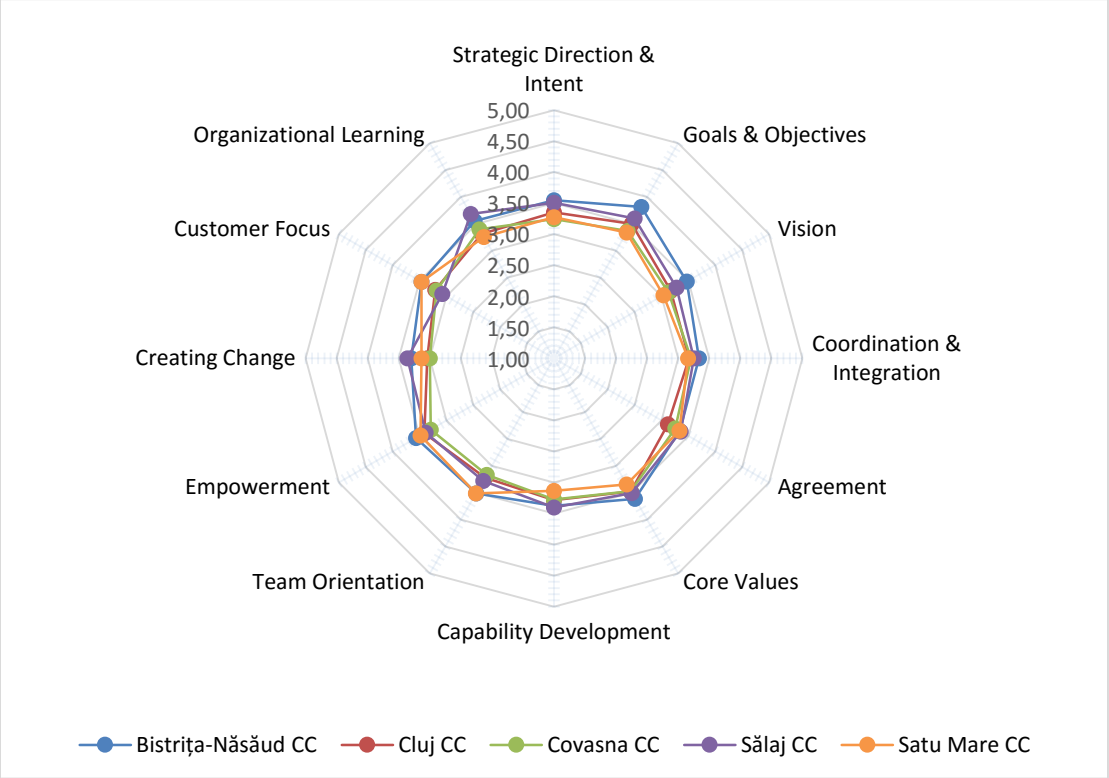


FIGURE 3. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURES OF COUNTY COUNCILS (CC)

If we take a look at the score of each County Council, we will notice that they are all situated between 3.00-3.82, meaning slightly above average, a fact which, according to Denison's research (Denison D., 1990; Denison, Haaland, & Goelzer, 2004), represents sound grounds for good performance. The highest score was reached by the Bistrița County Council, with a general average of 3.49 and with 5 highest-scoring dimensions; the lowest score was reached by the Covasna County Council, with an average of 3.25 and with 3 of the lowest scoring dimensions.

Prefectures

Figure 4 shows a general overview of organizational culture for the five Prefectures. We notice that all five cultures are extremely close to one another in the median area, with no major variances; the difference between the highest-rated and the lowest-rated Prefecture is quite small, but still visible on the graph.

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FIGURE 4. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF PREFECTURES

All organizations

By analyzing all 15 organizations on a single graph (see Figure 5), it is plain to see, even without their respective scores, how much alike these cultures are. Not only do we have 15 lines that are quite hard to distinguish, but all 15 are also bundled in the same interval (2.9-3.9), namely the median one. All cultures are balanced, without high or low values, without a defining, dominant dimension.

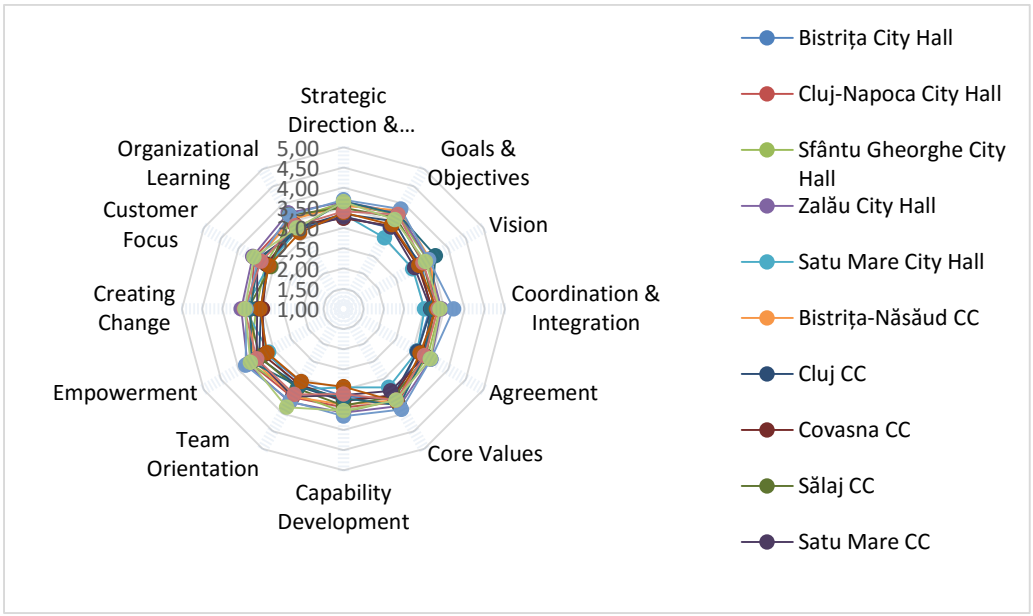


FIGURE 5. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF LOCAL PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS

The data becomes even clearer in Table 1, which shows that the difference between the total score of organizational culture of all the institutions studied is very small, from a statistical point of view, more specifically between 3.16 and 3.64. Therefore, we are talking about a variation of under 0.50 on a scale of 1 to 5. That cluster of values is extremely tight and, considering all the endo- and exogenous differences between the 15 organizations, unexpected.

TABLE 1. THE TOTAL SCORE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURES, ACCORDING TO TYPE OF INSTITUTION

No.	Type of institution	Total
1.	Bistrița City Hall	3.22
2.	Cluj-Napoca City Hall	3.51
3.	Sfântu Gheorghe City Hall	3.48
4.	Zalău City Hall	3.62
5.	Satu Mare City Hall	**3.16**
6.	Bistrița-Năsăud County Council	3.49
7.	Cluj County Council	3.27
8.	Covasna County Council	3.25
9.	Sălaj County Council	3.39
10.	Satu Mare County Council	3.29
11.	Bistrița Năsăud Prefecture	3.44
12.	Cluj Prefecture	3.22
13.	Covasna Prefecture	**3.64**
14.	Sălaj Prefecture	3.41
15.	Satu Mare Prefecture	3.53

Surprisingly enough, the hypothesis that organizational culture was influenced by local culture and peculiarities, as well as by the size of the organization was not confirmed, as all three types of organizations (City Halls, County Councils, and Prefectures) had similar organizational culture traits, regardless of the county (host culture) they came from, as well as of their size. There are indeed some dissimilarities, but they are not noteworthy. Romanian local public organizations seems to have a common culture, perhaps a bureaucratic culture that is specific rather to the system than to a certain institution, or region; moreover, it does not seem influenced by factors such as size or type of activity, either.

CONCLUSIONS

Surprisingly, my hypothesis were not confirmed, apparently all organizations studied have very similar cultures, despite their differences in type, size, shape, purpose, subordination or location. They seem to have a strong bureaucratic culture with significant premises towards organizational performance.

The first hypothesis (which stated that the organizational culture is influenced by the local culture and local specificities) was not confirmed; in all three types of organizations (County Council, City Hall and Prefectures) I have identified similar traits of organizational culture regardless of county of origin. The small differences that I found are not significant.

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The second hypothesis, that said that the type of organization (purpose, tasks, structure, size, etc.) influences organizational culture, was not confirmed either; the paradox is that in each of the five counties, the organizational culture from the County Council, City Hall and Prefecture is similar, sometimes almost overlapped, all revolving around the median, and the differences are not significant at all. Even if the three institutions are different in so many ways (goals, tasks, procedures, subordination, size, number of employees, coverage etc.) their cultures are similar.

The analysis of all 15 institutions from the perspective of this model reveals that they are very similar. Not only do we have 15 cultures that almost merge with each other, but all 15 are cramped, considering the scores they got, in the same range (2.9 to 3.9), the medium value range. All cultures are balanced without very high or very low values, without a striking feature, to define them.

We cannot find any differences in terms of the type of institution (County Council, City Hall and Prefectures) or based on their geographical location (different counties). Romanian local public administration seems to have a common culture; perhaps a bureaucratic culture is more specific to the entire system rather than a specific institution or a particular region of the country.

At a more in depth analysis, we find that the Prefecture of Covasna County stands out a bit more from the rest of organizations testing the higher values at 9 from the 12 dimensions described in the questionnaire while the City Hall from Satu Mare and the Prefecture of Cluj are at the opposite side of the range with a higher number of small scoring.

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ACTIVATION OF THE HUMAN POTENTIAL THROUGH EDUCATION AND TRAINING

ACTIVAREA POTENŢIALULUI UMAN PRIN EDUCAŢIE ŞI FORMARE PROFESIONALĂ

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Abstract
A society it can develop only if focus is put on the education and training system. Economic progress can only occur if decisions have an impact on sustainable development. These decisions are based on well trained human resources. Developing a system of education and training well designed and implemented allows individuals to acquire the skills they require to the workplace. The article offers an analysis of the importance of the educational level of the population and the impact on economic progress and sustainable development. The education level of the population can influence decisions and economic progress of a community.

***Keywords*:** human resources, education and training, skills, Romania

JEL CODES: I20, J24, O15

Rezumat
O societate se poate dezvolta numai dacă accentul este pus pe sistemul de educație și formare profesională. Progresul economic poate avea loc numai în cazul în care deciziile au un impact asupra dezvoltării durabile. Aceste decizii se bazează pe resurse umane bine pregătite. Dezvoltarea unui sistem de educație și formare bine conceput și implementat permite indivizilor de a dobândi abilitățile de care au nevoie la locul de muncă. Articolul oferă o analiză a importanței nivelului de educație al populației și a impactului asupra progresului economic și a dezvoltării durabile. Nivelul de educație al populației poate influența deciziile și progresul economic al unei comunități.

Cuvinte cheie: resurse umane, educație și formare profesională, competențe, România

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1. INTRODUCTION

At global level, identifying skills required of employees is a priority for any employer. Identifying the right personnel for jobs in a society is a confrontation employers. Due to lack of experience, employers have difficulties to cover job vacancies (UNDP, 2012).

The economic crisis has led to personnel cuts. Activities companies must continue. For this reason, the remaining employees in the companies were forced to work multiple jobs or have them load existing job descriptions. Thus, they received new responsibilities in addition to existing ones. It was a way to maximize the potential of employees. Due to these structural changes, many organizations seeking to recruit staff with a wide range of skills and competences. If we talk about the employability of graduates into the labour market, we can say that it is reduced. There are many causes that lead to this. Among the causes can be enumerated the large number of graduates in conjunction with a shortage of jobs for them. Technical skills and key competencies do not allow graduates entering the labour market. Because of this, there are high expectations of education and training system in terms of preparing individuals for employment. To achieve a clear situation of training needs, the education sector needs the support of employers. Thus, through a partnership between education and training on the one hand and employers on the other hand, are possible actions for identifying requirements and employment skills needed for a job. From this point of view, it is desired that a new employee to have the skills that make him adaptable and open acquiring new knowledge and skills. Education and training contributes determining how people respond to new challenges. At the same time, ways of training required of graduates to be as flexible as regards employability. Owning strong technical skills, and abilities appropriate working environment, as well as any flexibility in employment represent assets of persons seeking employment. Employee participation in training programs are ways of activating the human potential of the company. The staff of an organization can be sent to training providers to follow certain courses. Lately, there is a tendency of organizing internal training programs, based on the experience of team members. Also, extracurricular activities or extraprofessional, can contribute to the activation of human potential.

It aims to increase human potential to stimulate business growth organization and to lead to a high adaptability to changing labour market. The quality and relevance the educational process depends on the success of the business conducted by employers.

2. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

United Nations Development Programme published in 1990 the first report evaluating the economic and social progress worldwide. In this report was formulated the concept of human development as "a process

of enlarging people's choices. The most critical of these wide-ranging choices are to live a long and healthy life, to be educated and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. Additional choices include political freedom, guaranteed human rights and personal self-respect." (UNDP, 1990). Classical theory of economic development, based simply on GDP, considered the human being as an economic development force aiming to achieve social progress. The concept of human development has replaced the classic theories of economic development. The Human Development Index (HDI) measures achievements of a nation in terms of health, education and real income of citizens. It believes that to evaluate a country's development is not enough to consider only economic growth. The HDI was designed to assess a country's development given the people and their capabilities. HDI has a component on education. The education index variation for Romania, for the period 1980-2013, is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1 - THE EDUCATION INDEX VARIATION FOR ROMANIA, FOR THE PERIOD 1980-2013

Year	Education index
1980	0,597300
1985	0,618433
1990	0,637311
1995	0,623856
2000	0,653900
2005	0,708633
2006	0,717371
2007	0,731665
2008	0,748065
2009	0,754178
2010	0,746929
2011	0,747894
2012	0,747894
2013	0,747894

Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the United Nations Development Programme

The data in Table 1 may be implemented in graphical representation. Thus, Figure 1 shows this variation.

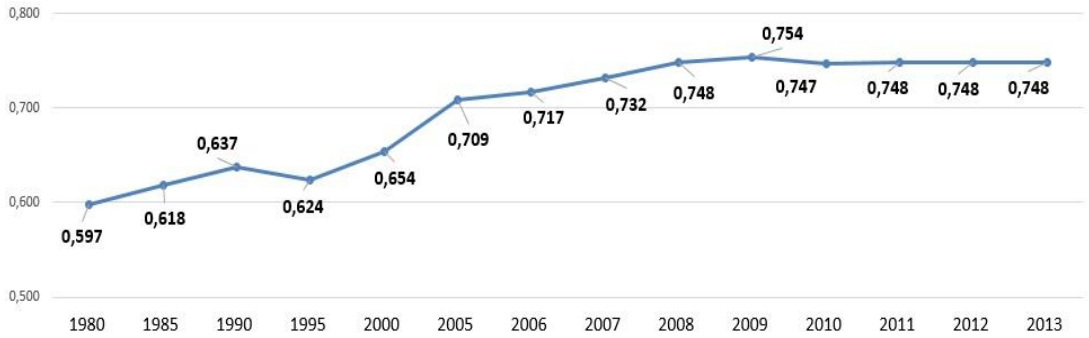


FIGURE 1 - THE EDUCATION INDEX VARIATION
Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the United Nations Development Programme

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In the Human Development Reports 2014, Romania ranks the 54 (value of 0.785) (UNDP, 2014).

The first 49 countries fall into the category of very high human development. From position 50 to position 102 are countries high human development category. Medium human development category is represented by countries from the positions 103-144 and 145-187 heading is the low human development category of countries. Table 2 presents the values for the top 15 countries.

TABLE 2 - TOP 15 COUNTRIES, 2013 HDI RANK

HDI rank	Country	Value
1	Norway	0,944
2	Australia	0,933
3	Switzerland	0,917
4	Netherlands	0,915
5	United States	0,914
6	Germany	0,911
7	New Zealand	0,910
8	Canada	0,902
9	Singapore	0,901
10	Denmark	0,900
11	Ireland	0,899
12	Sweden	0,898
13	Iceland	0,895
14	United Kingdom	0,892
15	Hong Kong, China (SAR)	0,891
15	Korea (Republic of)	0,891

Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the United Nations Development Programme

General government expenditure on education (current, capital, and transfers) Expressed as a percentage is of GDP (WBG, 2015). From this point of view, Figure 2 shows the situation of education expenditure (% of GDP) for the period 1996-2012 in Romania.

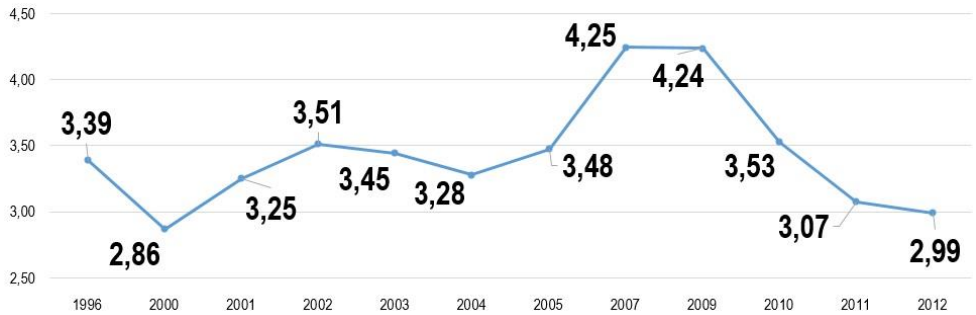


FIGURE 2 - EDUCATION EXPENDITURE (% OF GDP) FOR THE PERIOD 1996-2012 IN ROMANIA
Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the World Bank Group

Thus, it is observed that general government expenditure on education varies from year to year. For example, in 2012, they reached the value of 2.99% of GDP.

3. EDUCATION AND TRAINING

At European level there is strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training for the period following until 2020. The purpose of this framework is to support the development of education and training systems of the Member States of the European Union.

Human potential is as a result of a important factor: education. The degree and the extent in which jobs are occupied by members of a community depends on the education level of the community.

We can relate to the population aged 10 years and above. Thus, for Romania, after the census of 2011, the category of the population aged 10 and over were within 18,022,221 inhabitants (NSI, 2015).

This population has the level of education mentioned in Table 3.

TABLE 3 - LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	The population aged 10 years and over	Level of the educational institution graduated.					
		Higher	Upper-Secondary and Post-Secondary	Vocational school and apprenticeship	Lower-Secondary (Gymnasium)	Primary	With no schooling
The urban area – both genders	54,42	22,45	34,90	13,21	19,02	8,54	1,89
The urban area – male	47,36	21,86	34,76	17,48	16,68	7,47	1,76
The urban area– female	52,64	22,98	35,02	9,37	21,12	9,51	2,00
The rural area – both genders	45,58	4,74	18,77	14,67	36,56	20,92	4,34
The rural area – male	49,48	4,49	19,43	21,01	34,31	17,38	3,39
The rural area– female	50,52	4,99	18,14	8,46	38,76	24,39	5,27
Total - both genders	100,00	14,38	27,55	13,88	27,01	14,18	3,00

	The population aged 10 years and over	Level of the educational institution graduated.					
		Higher	Upper-Secondary and Post-Secondary	Vocational school and apprenticeship	Lower-Secondary (Gymnasium)	Primary	With no schooling
Total - male	48,33	13,75	27,60	19,13	24,91	12,09	2,52
Total-female	51,67	14,96	27,50	8,96	28,98	16,14	3,45

Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

From the data presented, we can see that in urban areas living about 54% of the population and about 46% in rural areas. From the total population aged 10 and over, only a percentage of almost 14% have graduated higher education. For people in rural areas this percentage is higher, it amounted to 22%. In rural areas, people with higher education is only about 5% of the population.

Figure 3 shows the level of education for people from rural area:

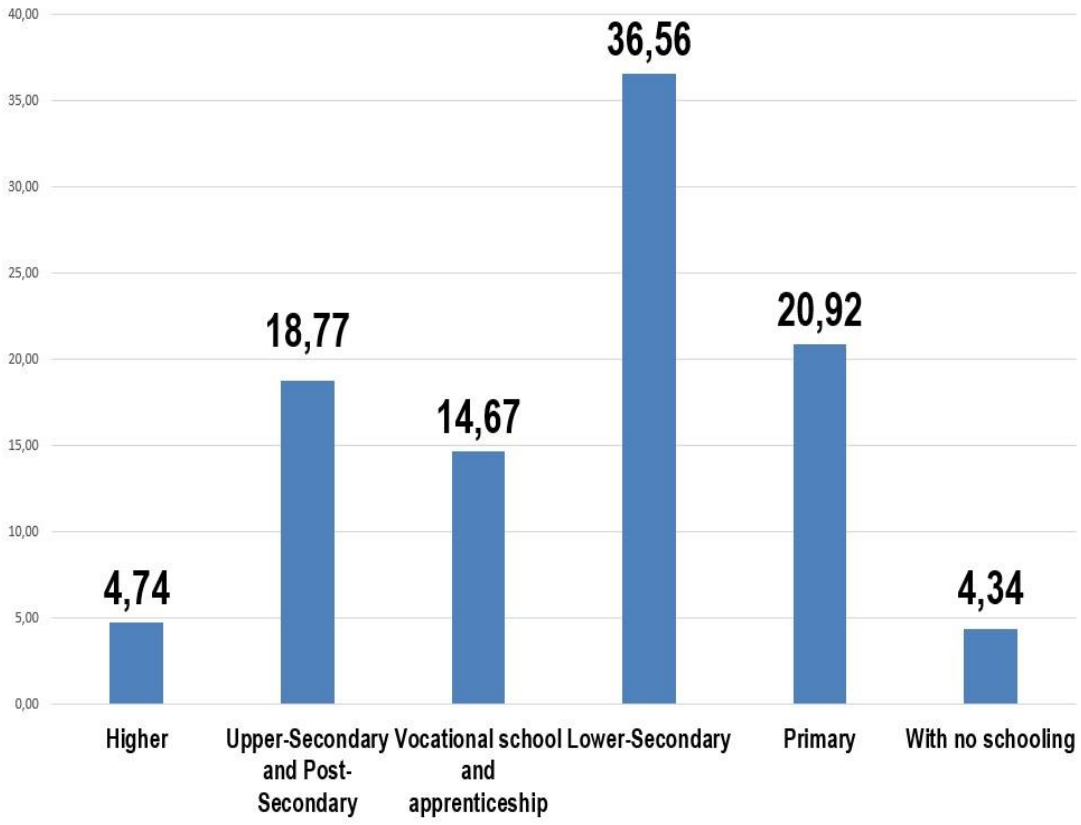


FIGURE 3 - LEVEL OF EDUCATION FOR PEOPLE FROM RURAL AREA
Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

Figure 3 shows the level of education for people from urban area:

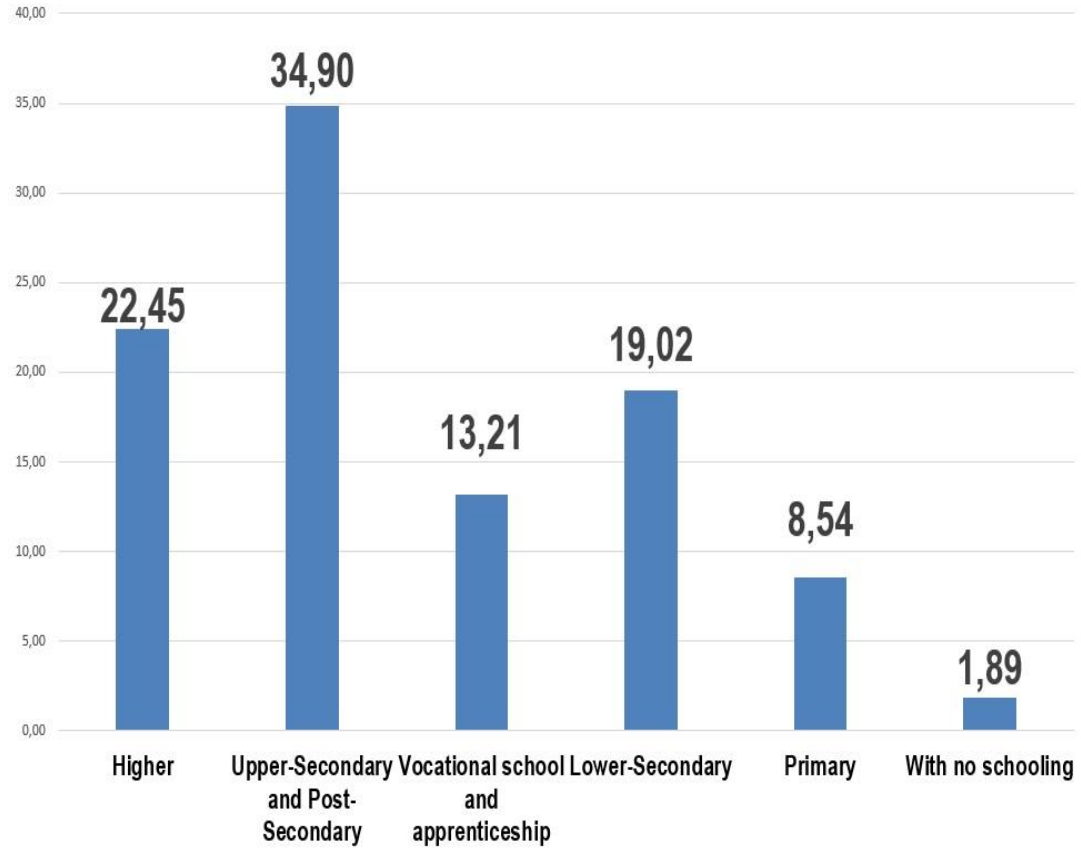


FIGURE 4 - LEVEL OF EDUCATION FOR PEOPLE FROM URBAN AREA
Source: conducted by the authors based on existing information on the website of the National Statistics Institute

Important is that almost 42% of the population with aged 10 and over has at least upper secondary graduate. Nevertheless, in rural areas the percentage drops to only 23% of the population.

Also, from the data presented, follows that the in rural areas, nearly 62% of the population has graduate at most secondary school (8 classes).

Employers have the possibility of participating in partnerships with institutions providing education and training. In these partnerships can take measures to support individuals to increase and activate human potential. This can be redefined employment requirements. In this regard, measures may be applied to modify the curricula and training. Another way is given by the modular organizing of education and training programs. The acquisition of skills on completion of each module can be considered an advantage. Accumulation of skills acquired in each of these modules may ultimately lead to new qualifications.

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CONCLUSIONS

Due to technological changes, changes are needed in the labour market. It is observed that individuals need new skills matched to needs in the labour market. For each individual, the chances of finding a job and prevent unemployment grow if given due importance of education, training, skills and lifelong learning. A competitive system of education and training can help to promote social cohesion and sustainable development. Partnerships between professional and educational fields allow for efficient communication between them. Certainly young people who present a high risk of early school leavers have low levels of basic skills. Early identification of such persons and application of correct strategies can make them to avoid school dropout. Activities of validation of non-formal and informal learning, the educational and vocational guidance, and certain individual learning services adapted to the needs, are factors in the system of education and training which can contribute to the activation of human potential.

The ability of individuals to adapt easily to changes and new requirements of the labour market could increase if they hold transversal competences and transversal skills. Activation of human potential can be achieved through the contribution of employers to support employee participation in training programs. They contribute to increasing the value of business organization.

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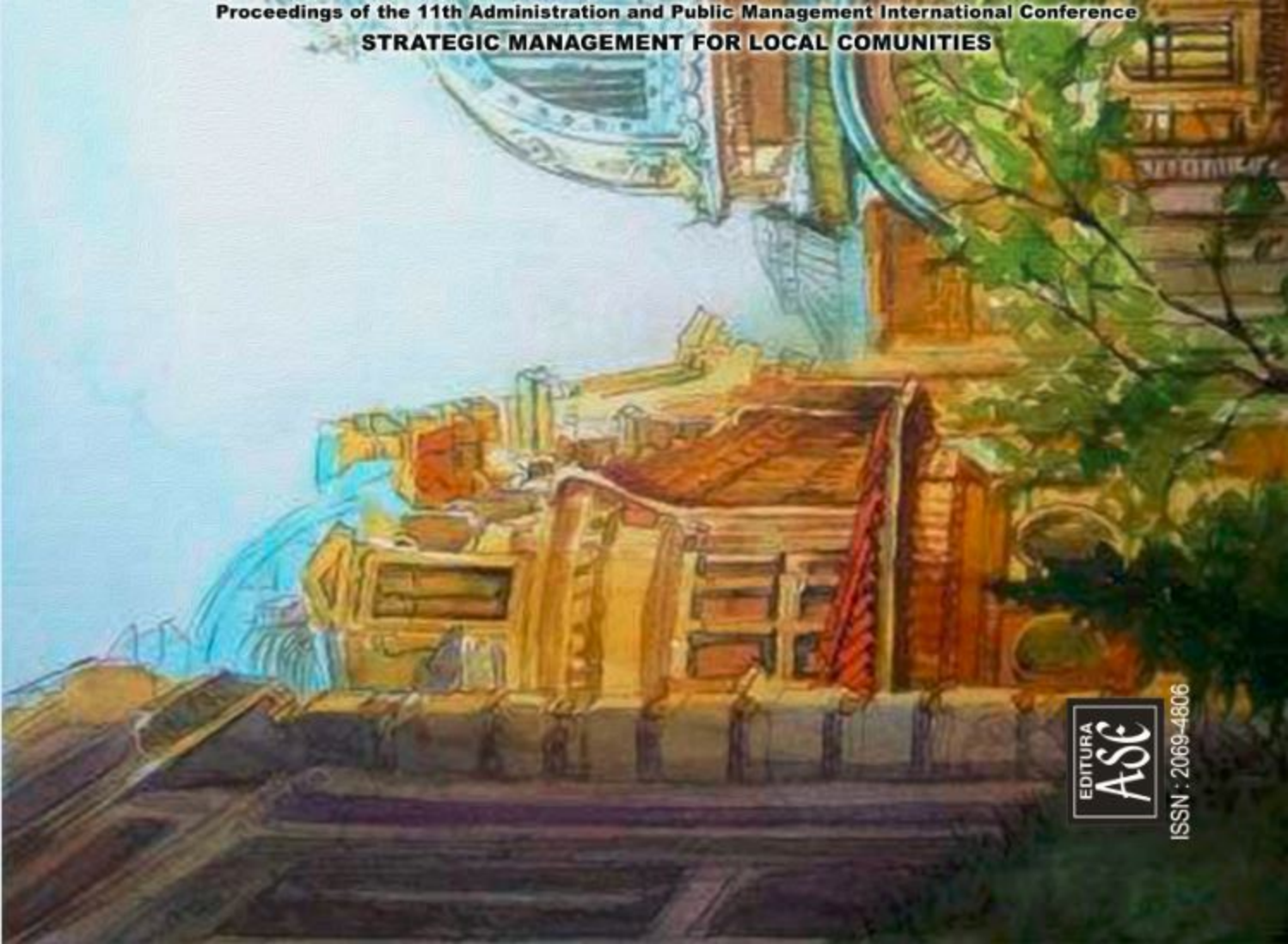
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