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CONTENT

PSYCHO-SOCIAL APPROACHES OF THE GENDER DISCRIMINATION AND SEX SEGREGATION IN THE WORKPLACE*

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Abstract: *Discrimination is a real phenomenon in Romania, which takes different forms and which affects different social groups. This paper is a synthesis of the theories explaining discrimination and it includes presentations of the theory of real conflicts, theory of the social identity, theory of equity, theory of the relative privation and theory of the behavioural interaction. The article also discusses sex or age segregation at the workplace and the factors that may influence these phenomena. The phenomenon of segregation is analysed via gender equality, revealing the reasons underlying the discriminatory acts/attitudes of employers towards women.*

Keywords: *discrimination, professional segregation, gender equality, age discrimination, employment*

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1. General theories on discrimination

1.1. Introduction

In a general meaning we may say that discrimination represents any difference, restriction, exclusion, preference or altered treatment which disadvantages an individual/group in comparison with the other individuals/groups in similar situations, or unequal treatment of a person or groups of persons due to racial, ethnic, religious or class reasons. The term "is used to describe the action of a dominant majority in relation with the minority and it involves a prejudice to a person or a group". (I. Mihăilescu in C. Zamfir, L. Vlăsceanu, 1993, p.177).

Discrimination is, therefore, the different treatment of a person because it belongs to a specific social group. Discrimination is an individual action, but if the members of the same group are treated in a similar manner, this is a social pattern of collective behaviour (M. Banton, 1998 in M. Voicu, 2002, p. 276). In the social sciences, the term refers to a different treatment by the large majority, with adverse effects on the person exposed to this treatment.

The United Nations includes in discrimination "any behaviour based on the distinction on the basis of natural and social categories, not on the individual capacity and merit or on the actual behaviour of an individual." (I. Mihăiescu, 1993, p. 177).

There are diverse underlying reasons of discrimination: nationality, religion, ethnic group, gender, language, sexual preferences, handicap, age. Discrimination is favoured by situations such as: insufficient knowledge of the other people, generalization of own life experience (of an unpleasant experience with a single member or with a few members belonging to a group), ethnocentrism, the existence of stereotypes of some beliefs, preformed impressions and prejudices regarding the opponents in a competition.

This kind of unequal treatment is applied in all societies, with different intensities, and the evaluation is done in agreement with the dominant social norms and values of the society. Legally, any kind of gender, ethnic affiliation, race and religion discrimination is banned in all democratic societies; however, the societies don't comply fully with the constitutional provisions. (I. Mihăilescu in C. Zamfir, L. Vlăsceanu,1993, p.177)

In order to explain the process of discrimination and its emergence, the different theories reveal the mechanisms of thought and behaviour which may generate intolerance. Among the known theories are the theory of the real conflicts, the theory of the social identity, the theory of the behavioural interaction, the theory of preference for discrimination and the theory of the relative privation. Most theories speak of the positive attitude towards own group and the negative attitude towards the other groups, in order to promote the group of reference to which belongs the individual which may eventually discriminate.

1.2. Theory of the real conflicts

The *Theory of Real conflicts* developed by Muzafer Sherif (1996) claims that discrimination appears when there is competition between two groups for limited resources and when the people tend to favour the members of their group.

The *Theory of Real conflicts* shows that one of the basic reasons for the development of prejudices and discrimination is the conflict for limited resources (R. Bouhis, A.Gagnon, L. Celine Moise, 1996, p. 132). The fight for limited resources is the proper field for the display of differentiated treatments and prejudices.

This theory reveals that the goods which are important for the people (food, health, power, natural resources, energy), are limited, so that the components of a group manage to reach a particular level of wealth at the expense of the other group.

The basic idea of this theory is that in order to understand the intergroup behaviour, one must examine the functional relations between these groups. Sherif says that the intergroup relations can be described as competitive and of cooperation. In the first case, the conflicts are generated by realistic reasons of competition for actual resources (goods, territories) or for abstract goods (power). In the second case, cooperation appears as a means to attain a common goal which can only be obtained by an active mutual support.

In Sherif's opinion, competition and conflict are due to objective reasons; competition can play a significant role in the generation of intergroup conflicts. Sherif documented his conclusions from the experiments conducted for several years on young subjects from white, middle class, Protestant families, with a good psychological profile. Without being informed, the young people became the actors of an experimental scenario consisting of four stages: establishment of the interpersonal relations of acquaintance between the young people; *establishment of two groups with independent activities; objective conflict of interest between the groups; intergroup cooperation to solve problems that can only be solved by joint effort*. The results of the study reveal the impact of intergroup competition and cooperation on the development of prejudices and discriminating behaviours. (D. Capozza, C. Volpato in R.Y. Bourhis, J. Ph. Leyens, 1997, p. 18-20, p. 132)

1.3. Theory of the social identity

Henry Tajfel (1981) is the founder of the theory of the social identity. He shows that the individuals tend to discriminate in favour of their own group so that it can bet a better position in the society. When the group attains such a position, the members of the group benefit of a higher standard. Using the theory of social identity we can build a meaning for what we are, placing us within the complex network of the social relations of the community.

The theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979) defines social identity as the awareness of affiliation to a social group strengthened by the emotional significance and by the significance of the group member status (D. Abrams in G.M. Breakwell (coord), 1992, p.58).

The development of the theory of social identity has been significantly influenced by the research regarding the minimal conditions of intergroup discrimination. The discriminatory effect interpretation relied on the concepts of *categorisation, social comparison* and *social identity* (Turner, 1975; Tajfel şi Turner, 1979; Tajel 1981).

According to this theory, social identification can result from the identification with different groups, with the requirement of categorization of the social in readily perceivable units. While a particular context favours a stronger personal identity, comparison, as process of categorization and differentiation, takes place at the interindividual level. When the social identity is emphasised, comparison is done between groups and the involved persons act as group members. (D. Segrestin in R. Boudon (coord.), 1996, p. 127)

Tajfel (1978) launched the hypothesis that the individuals aspire to a positive social identity, they want to be part of the socially valued groups. The affiliation to less appreciated groups causes indisposition. The individuals tend to modify the existing situation so as to get a positive picture of self. These objectives "can be reached through strategies of action which target the individual or the whole group."(Tajfel, 1981, in R.Y. Bourhis, J. Ph. Leyens, 1997, p. 26)

According to the theory of social identity, discrimination contributes to social identity which, in turn, can influence favourably the self esteem of the individuals. This basic hypothesis of the theory of social identity is supported by different laboratory and field studies (Bourhis & Hill, 1982; Brewer & Kramer, 1985; Brown, 1988; Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Lemyre & Smith, 1985; Sachdev & Bourhis, 1985, 1987; Tajfel, 1982; Turner & Giles, 1981). The results of these studies confirm the premises of social identity theory that intergroup discrimination is associated to the reason of attaining and preserving a positive social identity.

1.4. Theory of equity

The psychologist J. Stacey Adams (1963, 1965) is the author of the theory of equity. He started from the premises that the source of motivation resides in the way in which the efforts and rewards of a person compare with the efforts and rewards of another person or group.

The theory of equity says that, in most situations, the individuals attempt to reach a specific justice in their relations with the other people and that they feel uncomfortable when they are confronted with social injustice. According to this theory, we evaluate the justice of a given situation function of the individual contribution to attain a goal and function of the specific outcomes. When we speak of contributions we refer to effort and time, competency and abilities or to obstacles such as exhausting work conditions, tough assignments, psychological harassment due to race, gender etc. The outcomes can include material benefits such as remuneration or promotion, or symbolic benefits such as reputation and social status. (Walster, Walster & Bersheid, 1978 in R.Y.Bourhis, A. Gagnon, L.C.Moise, 1997, p. 142-145, p. 228)

The theory ofequity starts from the premises that the perception of social injustice generates a state of psychological discomfort which drives the will to restore equity. According to Walster *et al.*(1978), social justice can be restored materially or psychologically.

Because inequity can lead to conflicting situations, weakening the motivation, J.S.Adams suggested several possibilities to alleviate injustice and to promote equity: change the individual perception on own efforts and rewards; change the perception on the efforts and rewards of the individual or group of reference; selection of a different element, person or group of reference; change the personal rewards and efforts. (A. Azzi in R.Y. Bourhis, J.P.Leyens (coord.), 1997, p.228)

Generally, according to this theory, the intergroup conflicts appear when the individuals belonging to the disadvantaged group perceive the distribution as being unfair or when the groups do not agree on the rules of distribution.

A fair distribution of the material resources would be enough to eliminate the intergroup prejudices, discrimination and conflict. (Austin, 1986 in A.Azzi, 1997, p.229)

The characteristic of J. Stacey Adams' theory is that it relates the inequity to the reward, that it correlates the effort and the reward. The inequity due to over-rewarding can be alleviated behaviourally by increasing the efforts or by decreasing the rewards.

1.5. The theory of relative privation

The theory of relative privation is the theory that explains best the behaviour of the disadvantaged groups. According to Guimond and Tougas (apud R.Y.Bourhis, A.Gagnon, L.C.Moise in J.Ph. Leyens, 1997, p.144-145), the relative privation between groups is felt when the components of the disfavoured group notice the contradiction between the current state of the group and the one they consider to be entitled to, like the rest of the people. They consider that the violent or non-violent vindicatory movements are the outcome of the feeling of relative privation felt at intergroup level rather than at intra- or interpersonal level. (R.Y.Bourhis, A.Gagnon, L.C.Moise in J.Ph. Leyens, 1997, p.144-145).

The theory of relative privation completes the theory of equity. Both theories underline the importance of the processes of cognitive distortion, which explains why the disadvantaged groups don't always mobilise to stop the discriminating process. The theory of relative privation explains the extreme intergroup behaviours such as the collective marches, the violence against institutions or groups.

Lysiane Gagnon (in S.Guimond, F. Tougas, 1997, p. 156) presents the essential elements of the theory of relative privation, which relies on the following principles:

(1) The relative privation is a feeling of dissatisfaction, injustice or frustration

(2) This feeling is not a mere reflection of the existing objective conditions; rather, it depends on social comparisons

(3) This feeling makes the individuals prone to revolt

In other words, the theory of relative privation suggests that the people protest and revolt when they feel "deprived" in comparison with other people, groups or situations.

There is *interpersonal relative* privation (in which the individuals compare with themselves) and *intergroup relative* privation, also called collective privation (Tougas, Dube &Veilleux, 1987) which aims the feeling of dissatisfaction caused by the way in which are perceived the inequalities and inequities for the group of affiliation and for an out-group, regarded are wealthier. (Runciman, 1966; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984 in S.Guimond, F.Tougas, 1997).

The difference between the intergroup relative privation and the interpersonal relative privation focuses initially on the compared object and then on the object of reference.

The relative privation might advantage the emergence of behaviours or attitudes aiming to change the situation of the group of affiliation, and this pertains to the field of social change.

According the researchers, not all types of relative privation are associated to social action. The intrapersonal and interpersonal privation determines behaviours which ameliorate the situation of the individual, not of the group of affiliation.

1.6. Theory of the behavioural interaction

The theory of behavioural interaction was developed by Rabbie (apud. Bourhis, Turner, Gagnon), who shows that discrimination in favour of the own group is a rational, instrumental and economic thing. The individuals have the trend to favour the members of the group of affiliation and to disfavour the members of other groups, in order to maximize own gain. By assigning more resources to the members of the group of affiliation, the individuals expect them to return the favours, according to the norms of mutuality. Some of the groups most often discriminated are the ethnic minorities, the racial minorities, the religious minorities, the groups of immigrants, the women (within the professional environment), the people with disabilities, the old people.[1]

2. Age discrimination at the workplace

Social discrimination at the workplace due to age involves the differentiated treatment of the employees belonging to different age groups. This is in opposition to the desideratum of equal work opportunity for all, irrespective of age.

The forms of social discrimination at the workplace due to age are as follows:

Professional discrimination of the old and young people

The professional discrimination of the old and young people relies on the context and prejudices regarding this categories of age.

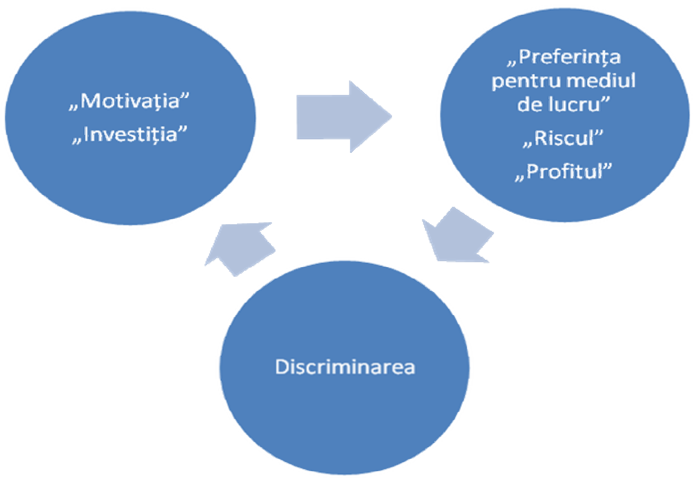

Figure 1. Causal cycle of the professional discrimination of the old people

1 Mălina Voicu, Poverty dictionary, *Discrimination* http://www.iccv.ro/node/112, accessed on March 1st, 2011.

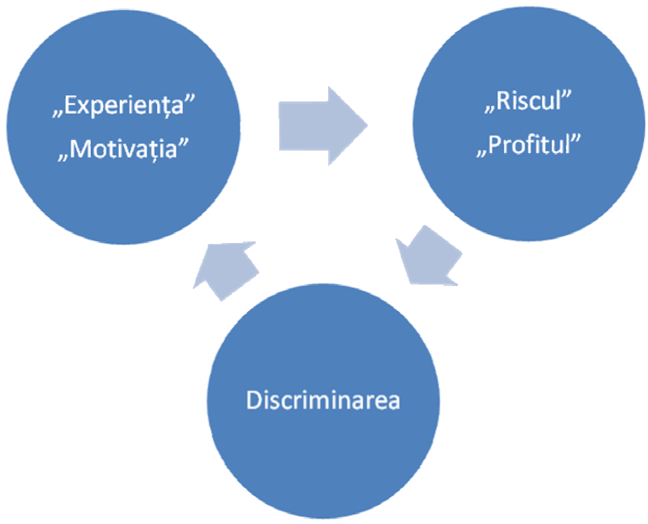

Figure 2. Causal cycle of the professional discrimination of the young people

Figures 1 and 2, show the causal cycle of the professional discrimination, taking into account both the offer and the demand of workforce (Banton 1998: p. 32-38).

The factors involved in workforce offer modelling are:

- „Experience" – Most of the young people don't have experience in a particular field.
- „Motivation" – In the case of the young people, the reason for finding a workplace is to make money, backed by the will for professional ascension. The average age when the young people start working is higher for the young people who are backed financially by the family or who attend higher education or post-higher education training. The reason of the old people tends to become narrower sometimes because of the professional marginalization or because the will for professional ascension diminishes.
- „Investment" – There is a stereotype according to which the old people invest no more in training because they are no longer capable to accumulate information and abilities and are no longer interested to perfect. Furthermore, they are said not to cope with the changes, remaining the adepts of the old ideas. The old people have the advantage of the life and work experience.

The factors involved in workforce demand modelling are:

- „Preference for the working environment" – This characteristic refers to the preference of the employer and colleagues to work in a homogenous environment which doesn't yield tensions within the organisation. Performance can increase within an age-homogenous professional environment because of the friendship relations that may establish between the colleagues. The preoccupations and problems specific to each category of age are among the main factors which determine the rapprochement between employees.

- „Risk" – The employers are reticent to train young people for a specific position, considering that the young people will not remain within the organisation. On the other hand, the risk of employing older people are associated to the decay of the health state and to the low level of integration within the groups of younger fellow employees.
- „Profit" – Because of the presented risks, the performance of the older people can decrease, which affects the organisation profit. The same can happen in the case of the young people because of the high staff fluctuation. The current pattern of young people employment involves leaving to organisation for a higher wage and for a higher professional challenge after accumulating new abilities in the previous position.

The discriminatory behaviours towards the older and young people also appear during "staff recruiting and selection, during the professional formation and improvement; regarding the wages, sanctions and layoff" (CPE 2008: p.22).

Discrimination regarding the different access to occupations according the age

This type of discrimination regards the recruiting and selection only of people of a specific age category. This has been revealed by a research of the Centre for Social Development (CEDES) from 2003, which monitored the job offers in the daily newspaper „România Liberă" during the time interval March, 10 – 16 2003.

Table 1. Discriminating situations according to the age criterion

Nr. crt.	Demanded position	Demanded age limit (years)
1.	Real estate agents	Minimum 28
2.	Guardians	21-45, 25-35, 25-40, max 45
3.	Medical assistants	Maximum 36
4.	Barman	Maximum 24 , 18-24
5.	Cook	Maximum 40, maximum 45
6.	Garments worker	Maximum 30
7.	Hair stylist	Maximum 30
8.	Accountant	Maximum 35
9.	Irrigation systems engineer	35-40

Nr. crt.	Demanded position	Demanded age limit (years)
10.	Mechanical design engineer	Maximum 40
11.	Engineers, sales	25-35
12.	Car engineers	35-40
13.	Gypsum cardboard workers	18-35
14.	Car mechanic	Maximum 40
15.	Housekeeper	30-40, 30-48, maximum 35
16.	Doctor	30-40
17.	Unskilled worker, constructions	Maximum 40
18.	Waiter	Maximum 30
19.	Guardian	45-50, maximum 45
20.	Secretary	Minimum 24, maximum 25, maximum 30, maximum 35 *Observation: one advertisement didn't mention any age limit*
21.	Welder	Maximum 45
22.	Show supervisor	Maximum 30
23.	Driver	Maximum 35, maximum 40
24.	Saleswoman	20-30, 18-35, 20-40, maximum 30

Source: *Discriminatory employment* - CEDES, 2003.

3. Occupational segregation by gender criteria

3.1. General perspectives on gender equality

A brief analysis of the contemporary theoretical perspectives on this issue shows two major theoretical perspectives: biological and cultural.

The biological perspective promotes the idea that the gender relies on biology. The biological datum, according to the biological theories, determines the social behaviour and the relations between genders. The most consistent supporters of this approach are the ethologists and the socio-biologists such as: Desmond Morris, Konrad Lorentz and Edward Wilson.

The cultural perspective can be divided in several main directions: psychological, sociological and anthropological. All these perspectives have a common denominator: the idea that the biological is deeply instrumented, at the genus level, by the social aspect.

The gender identity, the gender relations occur "*throughout a continuous and laborious process of communication and social negotiation*" (Balica et. al., 2004). Therefore, the gender is a socio-cultural construct, variable in time and space, which relies on the biological distinction between the two sexes. The gender roles are acquired through primary socialization (school, family) and through secondary socialization (workplace, inter-human relations outside the family). Gender is therefore, from this perspective, a socio-cultural distinction between men and women.

The academic studies on gender have a rather short history. They appeared during the late 1960s, and their development was prompted by the second wave of the feminist current. Once the critique of women-men social (mainly economic and political) inequality developed, the second feminist wave started to draw attention on the way in which the academic disciplines lead to the exclusion of the experiences and interests of the women. Within the context of these critiques, several social disciplines, such as art and culture, started to pay increasing attention to the gender. Thus, in the sociology of the 1970s, the differences and inequalities between men and women were regarded as problems that have to be investigated and explained.

The principle of gender equality claims the protection, promotion and observation of the human rights of men and women. Gender equality also implies equal opportunity for the men and women in all spheres of life, employment included.

According to the Oxford Dictionary of sociology: *„gender equality refers to the equity of men and women; the freedom to develop and make choices undetermined by the gender stereotypes, by roles or prejudices; the different behaviours of the men and women, their aspirations and needs are considered, valued and treated as being equal. This doesn't mean that the women and men are alike, rather that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities don't depend on the fact that they were born women or men"* (Marshall, 2003).

It is generally accepted by the community of sociologists that the difference between men and women results from attitudes and prejudices regarding the different roles assigned to men and women within the society. The gender roles are acquired through primary and secondary socialisation.

3.2. Gender occupational segregation

The gender relations within society can be characterised according to how much power they have on the resources and according to the mechanisms of social mobility used within the power structure specific to that particular society (Pasti 2003). In time, the privileges usually granted to the men, due to their dominant position within the society, were replaced by a rising trend of the equitable distribution between men and women. For instance, the voting right of women and pay rise are two measures adopted with the purpose to attain equal opportunity for men and women. However, the adopted measures didn't succeed to cover completely the differences, the men still holding a dominant position in many organisations/institutions through the monopoly on the criteria used to select the choices for the evolution of the society/institutions.

Gender discrimination on the labour market affects mainly the "access to the labour market (recruiting and selection); professional formation and training; promotion, wage setting, maternity, raising and caring the children; sanctioning and layoff" (Aninoşanu, Marțiş and Sorescu 2008: p.22).

The gender policies aim to increase the equal opportunity of men and women with the purpose to equalise the level of "visibility, autonomy, responsibility and participation of the two sexes in all the spheres of the public and private life" (Grünberg (coord.) et al. 2006: p.25). Both the man and the woman must have equal rights, equal responsibilities and opportunities concerning the household chores, child raising, access to the labour market and involvement in the community, cultural and political space.

The occupational segregation is the focus of the gender inequity debates. The level of segregation is considered to be accountable for the discrepancy between men and women incomes and for the constraints on the career. High levels of gender segregation are synonymous with high levels of social inequity. This subject raises problems pertaining to social justice, the efficient use of human resources, to wider social problems regarding the work and family life.

The gender occupational segregation is an unwanted characteristic of the labour markets because of several reasons. First, the fact that part of the population has difficulties to get access to some occupations may rigidify the labour market and, therefore, it may reduce the capacity of an economy to adapt to change. Second, the occupational segregation wastes abilities of the population which may go unused. Third, gender occupational segregation supports the perpetuation of gender stereotypes, with adverse impact on some economic and social variables such as poverty and income inequality (MacPherson et Hirsch, 1995).

Sociologically, segregation is the social separation of a category of people from another, which usually results in social inequities (Johnson, 2000). By extension, the concept of segregation acquires, in the acceptation of some researchers, the same connotation as the concept of discrimination, naming practices, institutionalised or not, which limit the access of some social groups to employment, income resources, status, social standing; this yields phenomena of social inequity based on practices of social inequity.

The gender segregation on the labour market is influenced by several factors which participate in the appearance and perpetuation of the phenomenon: the characteristics of the demand and offer of work, the welfare level offered through social policies, the level of economic development, the development of the tertiary sector, etc. (Polch, 2010)

Part of the studies of professional development by gender criteria focused on the attitudinal differences between men and women regarding the career routes and the pace of promotion in career. (Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990). The gender analysis must take into consideration, however, within a broader context, the differences between the roles, responsibilities, the barriers and opportunities of the men and women in the social, economic and politic life, within a specific social context, under the influence of the social class, religion, culture, age, ethnic group etc. Thus, the gender roles can act in a flexible or rigid way, identical or different, complementary or conflicting manner. These gender differentiations can be modified and shaped because they depend on space and time.

Two types of segregation between men and women on the labour market are mentioned by the field literature: the horizontal segregation and the vertical segregation.

- The *vertical segregation* describes the grouping of men in the upper part of the occupational hierarchies and the grouping of women in the lower part;
- The *horizontal segregation* (Marshall, 2003) refers to the fact that at the same occupational level (or at the level of an occupational class or even regarding a specific occupation), the men and women have different tasks and/or incomes.

Reskin (Reskin, 1993) shows that the horizontal segregation can be defined as a high concentration of men and women within a specific sector of the labour market in general, or for a specific occupation. A labour market which shows a strong horizontal segregation is characterized by a multitude of sectors or occupations traditionally considered feminine or masculine.

The vertical segregation (Core, 1999 apud Valentova, Krizova and Katrnak, 2007) is characterized by a disproportional participation of the women or men at different levels of the professional hierarchy; for instance, monitoring and management positions which require a specific level of responsibility and the existence of subordinated staff. In most European countries, women have lower standings on the scale of jobs and they occupy less frequently than men monitoring positions.

Other empirical studies (Charles,1992; Core, 1999; Bettio, 2002; Esping-Andersen, 2002) confirm that women are over-represented in the services sector, in the public sector, where the wages are lower than in the private sector. Another study (Rubery, 1998) shows that in many countries of the world, women are involved in less qualified professional activities, thus with lower wages. It is not an accident that the average wage of the women is lower than the average wage of men.

The people speak of a phenomenon of work division by gender. The sociological theories show that this phenomenon relies in the tradition and culture of each individual country. In other words, we expect to see higher (or lower) levels of occupational segregation in countries whose population adopts more (or less) traditional views on the gender roles.

The women joining the labour market are recruited for sectors and tasks which are already defined as "traditionally feminine jobs": health care services, caring, education and other.

The literature shows the main reasons for women discrimination by the employers:

- The employer displays preconceived attitudes when employing women, considering them a lower work force (equal opportunity at employment); this attitude of the employees is an obstacle hindering the professional promotion of women (equal opportunity at professional promotion).
- The men employers prefer male workers due to reasons of socialisation or male solidarity; they prefer to work with men rather than with women and they consider that a male leader is more efficient.
- The employer forecasts the probable productivity of the women candidate because its activity can be disrupted by marriage, birth and care or children. This is why the male candidates are given priority or, when a woman is eventually employed, she is paid less. Some institutions have strong informal rules "un-supporting" the young women for marriage and birth.

Economically, the occupational segregation may entail long-time risks and expenditures. Thus, if the prejudices of an employer condition the employment of less productive workers, the profit will be lower and those workers might not cope with on-the-job situation.

A social reality of the developed countries is that the women become increasingly competitive and viable on the labour market because of their higher level of education, because they attend high quality studies, which provide them the opportunity to be employed in better positions. Thus, the cancellation of prejudices, the social protection from the state and the higher level of training can establish new perspectives for the consolidation of the equal opportunity between men and women on the labour market.

The occupational segregation is as important as it is difficult to measure. A multitude of measures are used to monitor the changes in the gender division of the work force over the past several decades, but n indicator can include all these dimensions of interest, particularly those regarding the vertical segregation, which explains much of the difference of income between sexes.

3.2.1. Structure of occupation by gender criteria in Romania

The current trend is to increase the access of women to paid work, but this doesn't involve balancing the household work of the men and women. Consequently, misbalances appear between the opportunities of the men and women to join, evolve and maintain on the labour market.

According to the Statistical research on the household workforce (AMIGO), the employment rate in 2008 in Romania was 65.7% for men and 52.5% for women (Table 2). The employment rate for women increased from 52% in 2002 to 52.5% in 2008.

Table 2. Employment rate in Romania, for the population of working age, by gender

Employment rate for the population of working age (15-64)	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total	58.0	57.8	57.9	57.7	58,8	58,8	59,0
Males	64.1	64.1	63.6	63.9	64,7	64,8	65,7
Females	52.0	51.5	52.1	51.5	53,0	52,8	52,5

Sources: Statistic Yearbook of Romania 2009 – INS, 2009

The women don't participate on the labour market due to their household work to raise the children, care for the old family members, for the household in general. Although these household activities should be performed both by the men and women, usually the women bear the whole burden. On the other hand, from the perspective of the traditional pattern, the men is in charge with providing the money, which determines the relation of financial dependence of the woman on the man.

Even if the access of women on the labour market increased, the decision power in many organisations is not entrusted to women. The women do in Romania jobs such as administrative officer (70.22% of the state officials), operative worker in services, trade and assimilated (76.75%) and technician (61.66%) (Table 3). The ratio of the women acting in the occupational elite (40.71%) to the men (59.29%) is negative, with a value of 0.68.

The incapacity of the women to undertake entrepreneurial activities in Romania is caused by the lack of the necessary initial capital, by the lack of support from the society, of women empowerment. The private initiatives need a huge effort of the entrepreneurial women to become profitable: overtime, managing tensed situations etc.

Table 3. Structure of the occupied population, by working age group, by groups of occupations and by gender in 2008, in Romania

Groups of occupations	Total employed population. of working age (thousands persons)	Females		Males	
		Total female population. of working age (thousands persons)	% employed female population. of working age (thousands persons)	Total male population. of working age (thousands persons)	% employed male population. of working age (thousands persons)
Members of the legislative body, of the executive, high officials of the public administration, leaders and officials from the economic-social and political units	232	69	29.74%	163	70.26%
Specialists with intellectual and scientific occupations	946	489	51.69%	457	48.31%
Technicians, foremen and assimilated	858	529	61.66%	329	38.34%
Administration officials	450	316	70.22%	134	29.78%
Operative workers in services, trade and assimilated	943	620	65.75%	323	34.25%
Agricultural workers and skilled workers in agriculture, forestry and fisheries	1804	880	48.78%	924	51.22%
Craftsmen and skilled workers in artisan crafts, in machinery and installation maintenance	1526	349	22.87%	1177	77.13%
Other categories of occupations	2122	706	33.27%	1418	66.82%
Of which: Unskilled workers	1000	408	40.8%	592	59.2%
Total	8882	3958	44.56%	4924	55.44%

Source Own calculation using raw INS data on the Labour force market from the Statistical research on the household work force (AMIGO), 2008.

The second form of segregation is income segregation: the women have lower incomes than the men, from similar sources of income. Income inequality by gender is shown by the GDP per capita at the purchasing power parity. In this case, the GDP per capita at PPP, in 2005, was 7,643 ROM for the women and 10,518 ROM for the men. Also, income inequality is also revealed by the average annual income by economic activity (Table 4). In the feminised industries, the income is lower for the women than for the men.

Table 4. Average annual gross income (expressed at the standard purchasing parity SPP), byeconomic activity, function of the gender and full-time/part-time program of the employees, in 2009

Economic activity	Full - time		Part-time	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Extractive industry	15,311	15,850	5,664	6,650
Processing industry	6,450	8,376	2,215	3,479
Production and supply of electrical and thermal energy, gases, hot water and conditioned air	16,284	17,700	6,212	7,409
Water distribution; salubrity, waste management, decontamination activities	7,947	8,196	3,136	3,434
Constructions	8,306	6,902	3,189	2,473
Wholesale and retail trade, car and motorcycle repair	6,230	7,708	2,549	3,070
Transportation and storage	9,664	10,250	4,965	4,386
Hotels and restaurants	4,986	5,634	2,223	2,567
Information and communication	15,970	16,634	6,075	7,139
Financial intermediation and insurances	19,215	25,005	8,028	11,036
Real estate	7,923	7,930	2,998	3,048
Professional, scientific and technical activities	12,417	12,843	4,508	5,351
Administrative services and support services	6,535	5,373	2,902	2,297
Public administration and defence; public social insurances	15,042	13,677	6,994	6,122
Education	10,359	11,884	4,712	5,227
Health care and social assistance	8,638	9,773	3,736	4,322
Shows, cultural and recreational activities	8,147	8,608	3,056	3,068
Other activities and services	4,677	6,426	1,980	2,799

Source: Work force research – Eurostat, 2009.

The wages and pensions are the most important sources of income. The women have a higher access in the economic branches with lower pay (Table 5) such as health care and social assistance, education; public administration, services, while the men dominate the sector of constructions, transportation, industry, agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

The income from wages and pensions differ with the gender because the women hold/held poorly paid occupations in the state administration, health care, education, more than the men, or because their work history is shorter than that of the men.

Table 5. Number of employees, by activities of the national economy, at the level of CAEN section and by gender, on December 31, 2008

Activity (CAEN section Revision 2)	Total employees (thousands persons)		
	Total	Females	Males
Agriculture, forestry and fisheries	104	26	78
Industry	1618	708	910
• Extractive industry	81	12	69
• Processing industry	1352	646	706
• Production and supply of electrical and thermal energy, gases, hot water and conditioned air	82	21	61
• Water distribution; salubrity, waste management, decontamination activities	103	29	74
Constructions	460	59	401
Wholesale and retail trade, car and motorcycle repair	902	454	448
Transportation and storage	299	81	218
Hotels and restaurants	122	76	46
Information and communication	128	50	78
Financial intermediation and insurances	116	81	35
Real estate	33	15	18
Professional, scientific and technical activities	145	68	77
Administrative services and support services	211	65	146
Public administration and defence; public social insurances	220	122	98
Education	412	284	128
Health care and social assistance	377	299	78
Shows, cultural and recreational activities	43	25	18
Other activities and services	43	24	19
Total	5233	2437	2796

Source: Statistic Yearbook of Romania 2009 - INS, 2009; Statistic research on the workforce cost - 2008.

3.2.2. Factors influencing gender occupational segregation

The research show that there are several factors influencing gender occupational segregation between men and women. Among them are:

- Influence of state intervention (equal opportunity policies, anti-discrimination policies, policies reconciling family life with professional life),
- Factors related to the demand for workforce (demand for female workforce, employer preference),
- Factors related to offer of workforce (employer preference and the human capital).

Penn, Rose and Rubery (1994) claim that the gender difference on the labour market also appear because there are more women than men with part-time jobs and because the women get employed in sectors of activity which seem more appropriate for women because of their particular abilities (better relations with the other people, better communication, better care etc.)

They say that the women should learn how to capitalise on their abilities and skills so that they can negotiate better their incomes. The same goes, however, for the part-time jobs. The people on part-time jobs tend to self-marginalise, associating the part-time jobs with a lower status than the one associated to the full-time jobs. The part-time jobs demand specific professional training and abilities, which is why the employees should not assign a lower status to these jobs and they should learn to place themselves higher in the hierarchy of jobs (Penn, Rose and Rubery, 1994).

The gender occupational segregation is influenced by the attitudes regarding the gender roles. These concern the beliefs regarding the behaviours, responsibilities and activities specific to men and women (Eagly, 1987; Williams and Best, 1990). The men and women differ in terms of the gender roles and behaviours related to the paid work and family life. The traditional perspective is that the role of the woman is of household keeper and that the role of the man is of family provider.

The people with egalitarian views consider that women should contribute to the financial support of the family and that men should contribute to taking care of the children and to other activities traditionally considered as feminine household activities. The opinions of the society regarding the role of the women turned egalitarian as the women were more active on the labour market (Bolzendahl and Myers 2004; Loo and Thorpe, 1998; Spence and Hahn. 1997; Twenge 1997).

In the households run by single or divorced mothers (the number is increasing), the women were forced to contribute to the welfare of the family by paid work, while the married women too increased their participation on the labour market (Hayghe and Bianchi, 1994) and contribute with a substantial part to family incomes, more than in the past. (Raley et. al., 2006). Brewster and Padavic (2000) studied the changes which occurred in the gender ideology between 1977-1996 and found out that the succession of the cohorts contributed to the liberalization of the attitudes regarding the gender roles. The two authors have noticed that the higher flow of mothers on the labour market in the 1960s and 1970s was crucial in modelling the attitude of the cohorts which turned adult people in 1985-1996.

Hakim (2002) suggested that the changes which took place in the industrialized societies (for instance, the laws regarding the equal opportunity on the labour market, availability of the contraceptive means and the larger number of part-time jobs among the white collars) increased the capacity of the women to fulfil their own preferences when mixing the family life with the professional life. Therefore, the differences between women in their attitude regarding the gender roles on the labour market should have a stronger predictive character than in the past, when labour force market analyses are performed. The attitudes regarding the gender roles have a high probability to affect the time spent in remunerated and non-remunerated activities. The women with traditional attitudes tend to focus their time and energy on household responsibilities and on household work. (Hakim, 2000)

Furthermore, if the financial resources from other sources of the family are enough, there is a rather strong, there is a rather high probability that the women with attitudes closer to the traditional pattern give up or reduce the time allotted for remunerated work, so that they can fulfil their household duties. On the other hand, the egalitarian women are more likely to give up working in the family and to negotiate for a better distribution of the family responsibilities with their husbands, or they seem more likely to externalize the household care services so that they have more time for paid work. (Hakim, 2000)

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, we may say that discrimination is the different treatment applied to a person or group of persons due to its/their affiliation to a specific social group. The phenomenon of discrimination can be explained using several theories among which the theory of real conflicts, of the social identity, of the equity, of the behavioural interaction, of the preference for discrimination and of the relative privation.

According to the theory of real conflicts, discrimination appears in the situations of crisis, when the resources are limited and the fight for resources is fierce. In such situations group solidarity acts to favour the members of one's group at the expense of the members of the other groups. The theory of social identity continues the previous theory, claiming that group solidarity is strengthened by the consolidation of own group identity. Identity is defined by the group conscience, the emotional and value significance of the member quality (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; D. Abrams in G.M. Breakwell (coord), 1992, p. 58).

The theory of equity shows that the discriminated person or group interiorizes the social injustice regarding the contradiction between the current situation within the group and the situation in which the discriminated person or group considers that it/they have the right collectively, just like the others. In order to balance the current situation and the hypothetical one, the discriminated person or group behaves in a violent manner.

The theory of behavioural interaction shows that the person/group which discriminates tends to favour the members of own group and to disfavour the others, trying thus to maximize the benefits. This theory relies on the social norm of reciprocity.

The article also approaches gender and age discrimination at work, one of the most usual forms of discrimination. The social discrimination due to age at the work place involves the differential treatment of the persons belonging to specific age categories. The phenomenon refers to the inequality applied to the young and old people during the process of recruiting, selection, formation, professional betterment, promotion, wage, sanctioning and laying off and to limiting the access to different professional occupations depending on age.

There are two major theoretical perspectives regarding gender discrimination: the biological perspective and the cultural perspective. We have also detailed the occupational segregation by limiting the access to specific occupations and to income as forms of gender discrimination. The occupational segregation between men and women actually includes two basic types of segregation: horizontal and vertical segregation. The vertical segregation describes a social manipulation of the occupational hierarchies so that men are at the upper side, while women are at the lower side of the hierarchies. This form actually represent limiting the access to specific occupations, which causes social and economic damages such as rigidization of the labour force market; lower capacity of the economy to adapt to change; inefficient utilization of the human potential; human dignity distortion by perpetuating stereotypes and prejudices. The horizontal segregation shows that at the same hierarchic level and sometimes for the same position, the women receive different tasks and/or incomes than the men. The motivation of the employees who have discriminatory attitudes comes from stereotypes and prejudices regarding the quality of the work performed by women and the professional productivity of the woman, considered to be lower due to events such as marriage, birth of a child and child care.

Gender discrimination displayed a decreasing trend lately because an increasing number of women joined actively the public life. They attempt to achieve a balanced distribution of the household and child raising responsibilities with their partners. The women who are professionally active in urban areas externalize the household care activities or child care, in order to achieve a balance of the family life with the professional life.

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LABOR MARKET INTEGRATION OF VULNERABLE GROUPS

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Abstract: *The concept of vulnerable group doesn't have a unique definition and appears in the specialty papers as part of a larger family of terms: disadvantaged, excluded, marginalized or risk group, all these being related with the larger concepts of poverty and social exclusion. There are included in the vulnerable category the persons that are in a given difficult situation such as: unemployed or persons that have an uncertain place of work, victims of the natural catastrophes, migrants, refugees but also persons whose socio-demographical characteristics are a stop for the access to the resources or some benefits: disabled persons, women that have problems, old persons, abandoned children, etc. The present article presents the vulnerable situation from the occupational point of view and the behaviors for the reintegration in the work field. In the first part there is dealt with the problem of the persons that do not have anything to work, the behaviors and the reintegration strategies on the work market. In the second part, the attention is drawn towards the persons that are especially in occupational situations. The analyses from this article use mainly the obtained data from the research for the regions Bucharest-Ilfov, South-East and at the level of the National sample.*

Keywords: *vulnerable, unemployment, labor, poverty, social exclusion*

The economical crisis that is present at a national level lately determined a fragile situation having consequences on the work market but also weakened the social protection system that should create an equilibrium and to reduce its negative effects. In Romania, the unemployment rate doubled between 2008 and 2010 (from 4,2% to 8,4% in 2010) and lowered to 6,6% (in February 2011), The situation is a lot different among the evolving regions of the country, Bucharest-Ilfov, the capital's

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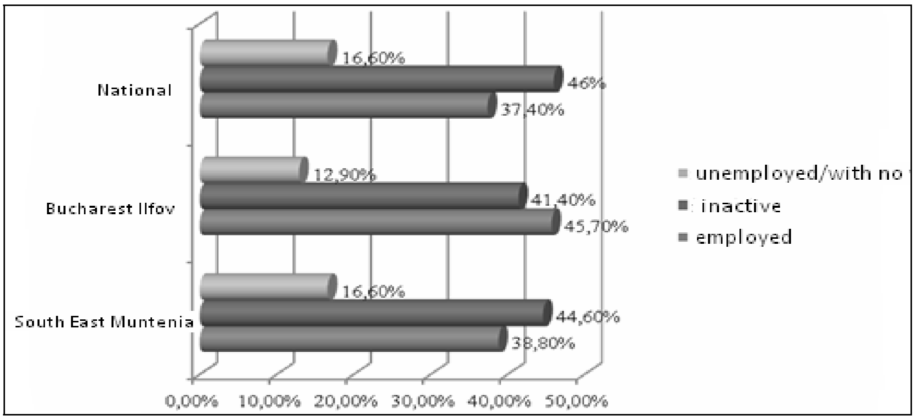
region has one of the lowest level of unemployment (2,2%) and Ilfov 2,6%[1]. The other studied evolving region is the South – Est with a medium of the unemployment rate of 7,9% (Constanta 5,7%, Vrancea 7,2%, Tulcea 7,5%, Braila 7,7%, Galati 9,4%, Buzau 9,9%). One of the social economy's objectives is represented by the social integration (even on the work market) of the vulnerable groups, that have difficulties in finding a place of work in conditions of free competitivity. The ES entities are an important solution for the employment of the disadvantaged persons and their creation is part of the inclusion and social cohesion measures.

The present article talks about the vulnerable situation from the occupational point of view and the behaviors for the reintegration in the work field. We started from the idea that the vulnerable population from the perspective of the inclusion on the work market isn't made only by persons that say that they do not have a place of work but includes many other categories that are to the limit of a work level.

1. Employment, unemployment, inactivity and vulnerability

The comparative evolving analysis of the two regions and of the situation at the national level shows that the occupational structure the way it reflects from the research is different: in the Bucharest-Ilfov region, the number of the unemployed persons is lower comparing with the national rate while the South-East region is the same with the national one.

Graphic 1: Occupational status on evolution regions %



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

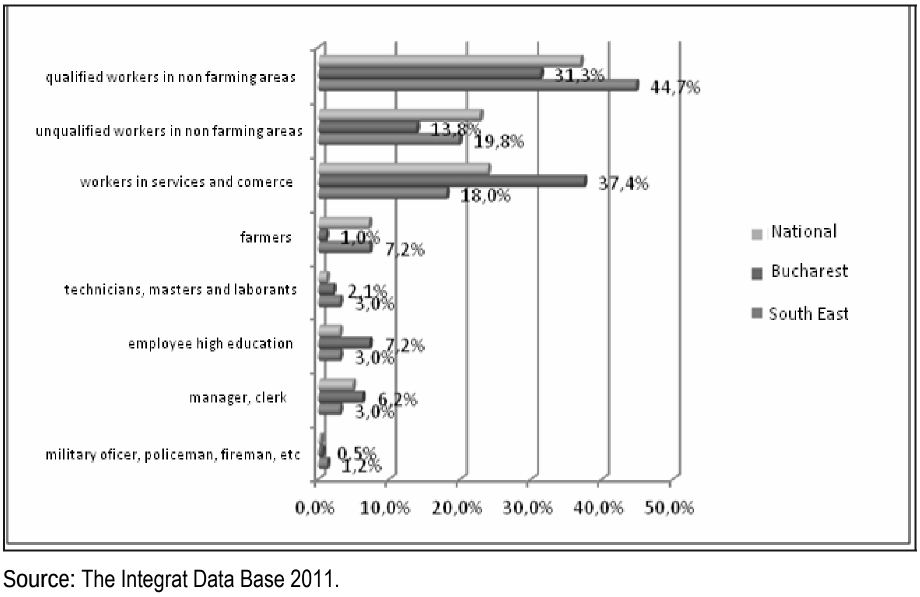
[1] *The February month 2011, ANOMF www.anomf.ro*

The unemployed concept/a person with no occupation was operationalized by two categories: registered unemployed (the persons that are in the ANOMF evidence no matter if they get any unemployment financial help or not) and unregistered unemployed. The largest category is the one of the unregistered unemployed persons (13,7% South-East, 11,3% Bucharest-Ilfov and 12% Nationally), the registered unemployed persons are of 2,9% in the South-East, 1, 63% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 4,6% at the National level.

The differences between the two regions as evolution are given by the region's characteristics which include Bucharest and it is characterized by urbanization and by the implicit phenomenon (modernization and change of the social roles comparing with the traditional models). In the rural areas there is still maintained the positive valorization of the role of the housework woman who is involved in the housework choirs and in the growth and education of the children (Popescu 2007, p.198). In the urban area (especially in the big towns), the industrialization and evolution of the services field and commerce led to a bigger offer for places of work and implicitly to the raise of the degree of occupation.

The occupation had before losing the place of work shows us a picture of the qualifications where there prevails a qualified and unqualified worker but also the workers in services and in trade (available for all the three types).

Graphic 2: The previous occupation



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

There are to be noticed a few differences: in the region Bucharest-Ilfov the unemployed ones come from services and trade mostly, than all the other two types, a situation perfectly explainable by means of the regional characteristics.

Another defining element for the unemployed population is represented by the educational level which is relatively reduced, most of the unemployed subjects having no more than the first level high school. In the evolving region Bucharest-Ilfov the situaton is a little different, the persons that have a higher level of studies being bigger (approximately 54% have at least the high school). And comparing with the employed persons, the level of education of the persons without a place of work is lower (there are significant differences in all the three types). The gender parting, shows that, in the South-East regions there are more men that declare themselves as being in this situation while in Bucharest-Ilfov the situation is different, a situation which may be explained by a reverse situation of the housemades. The rural – urban density takes into account the distribution from the samples.

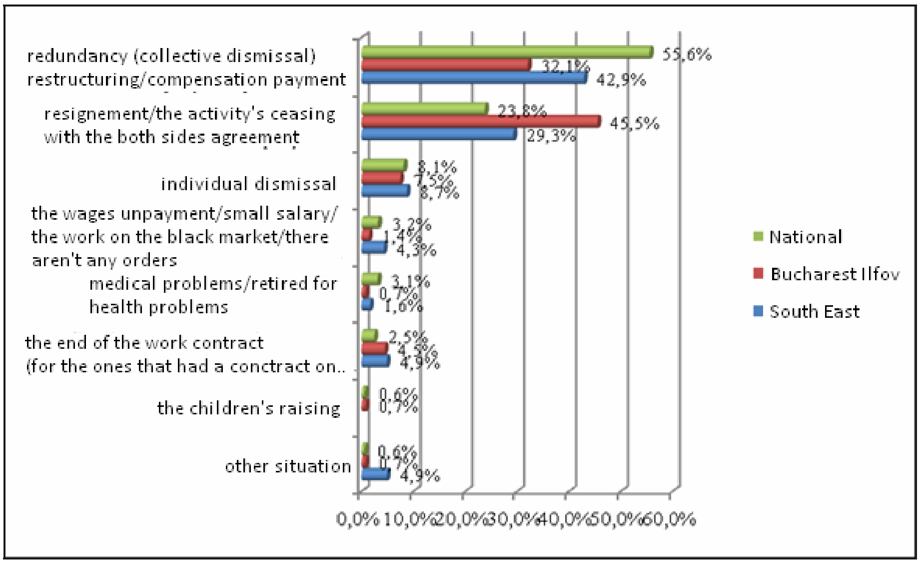
Table 1. Socio-demographic – unemployed characteristics

		The South-East region	The Bucharest-Ilfov region	National sample
The respondent's sex	masculine	67,4%	40,7%	61,8%
	feminine	32,6%	59,3%	38,2%
The last graduated school	The primary school or less	6,2%	5,9%	6%
	The secondary school	24,4%	17,9%	18,1%
	The vocational school or the first high school level	32,6%	22,5%	35,2%
	The high school	27,1%	38,4%	29,1%
	The vocational or technical school	3,5%	4,0%	3,5%
	The long term university and post university studies	4,3%	10,6%	5,0%
Age categories	18-24 years old	17,1%	19,3%	16,1%
	25-34 years old	27,6%	22,7%	21,6%
	35-44 years old	30,0%	27,3%	35,2%
	45-54 years old	17,5%	24,0%	19,6%
	55-64 years old	7,0%	5,3%	7,5%
	More than 65 years old	0,8%	1,3%	0
The rezidence environment	rural	54,7%	15,3%	51,8%
	urban	45,3%	84,7%	48,2%

Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

Interesting information was obtained with reference to the main reasons for which the unemployed persons do not work. Firstly there were mentioned the collective redundancy suggesting this way a term unemployment situation generated both by the crisis situation (43% in the South-East, 61, 5% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 39.2% at the National level) and a big part of it by the economical transition period from the last 20 years (57% in the South-East, 38, 5% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 60, 8% at the National level). In the same time, the differences between the two evolving regions prove that in the South-East region we may talk about a structured and regional unemployment generated by its characteristics having a high presence of the population that lives in the rural area and that has low competences and implicitly lower chances for employment. The individual reasons of personal orientation are on the last place for all the three types.

Graphic 3: Reasons for stopping the activity

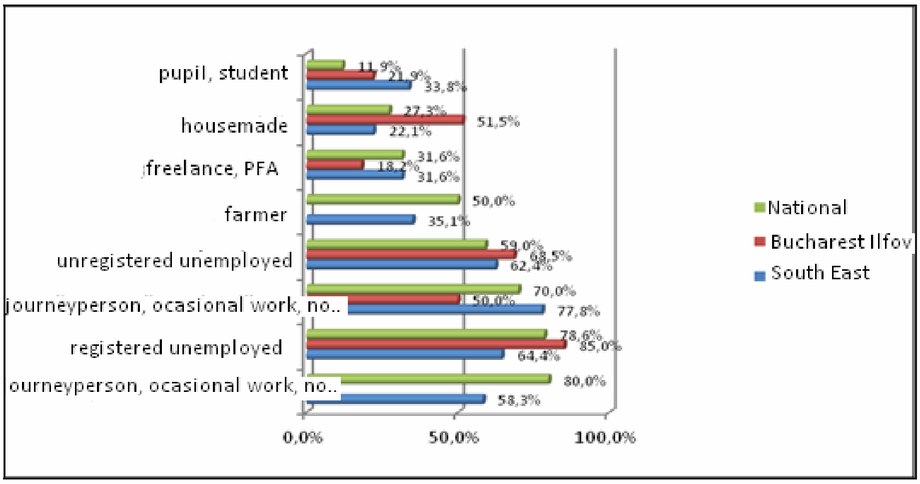


Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

Active behaviours

Data referring to the work places finding in the last year (2010) shows that not only the unemployed population has an active searching behavior for a place of work. There were excluded from this situation the journeypersons who, by definition are in a permanent situation of searching a place of work and, by their characteristic are part of a highly vulnerable economical category. After the unemployed persons the farmers are the ones that declare that they were looking for a place of work in the last year, a situation that underlines the occupational instability, the seasonal or subsistence character of the farmer occupation.

Graphic 4: occupational categories that looked for a place of work in the last year (% from the category)



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011[1].

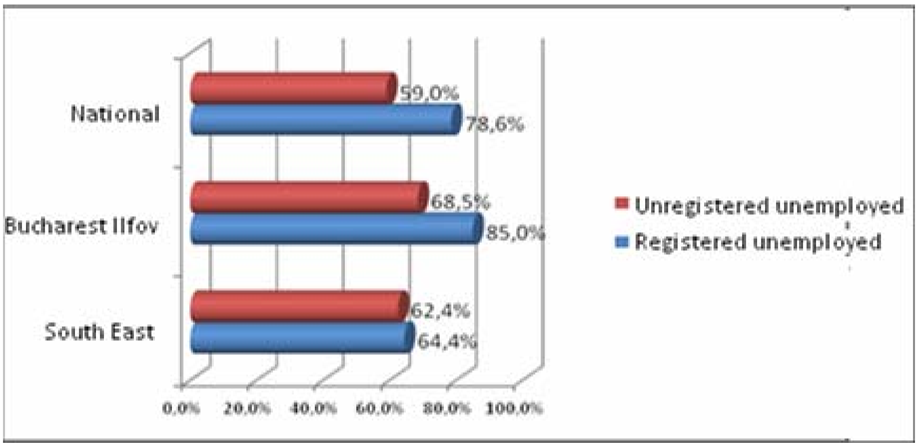
There is also an important rate of the housework persons that declare that they looked for a place of work especially in the evolving region Bucharest-Ilfov where most probably the housework status is not a personal option but a situation accepted as a momentary solution. At the national level and in the South-East region where the housework persons' number is bigger the number of the ones that declare that they are looking for a place of work is of 27% and respectively 23%. The pupils and the students are a different category who although inactive by definition are looking for a flexible place of work or a part-time job having as objective an economical strategy of supplementing their incomes, for maintenance or even for paying the school's costs.

The unregistered unemployed have a less active behavior for looking a place of work comparing with the registered ones, a situation that can be explained by including the last ones in a system that supposes the binding for looking now and then for a place

[1] *In Bucharest – Ilfov the group of persons included a little number of employed farmers and journeypersons from the agricultural field*

of work. The evolving region from the Bucharest-Ilfov area has a different situation where both categories of unemployed have a relatively similar behavior (aproximatively 63% from this category declared that they looked actively for a place of work). The data also show that the unemployed women looked for a place of work lesser than the men (in the South-East 57% comparing with 65,5% for the men, in Bucharest and Ilfov 62,5% comparing with 82,3%, at the national level 55, 8% comparing with 69,9%). In Bucharest-Ilfov, the interest for finding a place of work decreases altogether with the age growth while in the South-East the situation is the opposite, the younger persons being less interested in employing. The persons with a lower level of education are less interested in finding a place of work (the situation is present in all the three categories).

Graphic 5: the numerical level of the persons that looked for a place of work (from the total of the category)



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

The main way of looking for a place of work was by the direct movement to the employers, a method specifically for the persons with a low level of education, followed by the watching of the publicized announcements in the press and on the internet. Between the two evolving regions there are clear evolution differences which depend probably by characteristics of the work offers from the region but also by the professional and occupational profiles of the ones that are unemployed. The ONGs are mentioned in the last place as a solution for helping the employment.

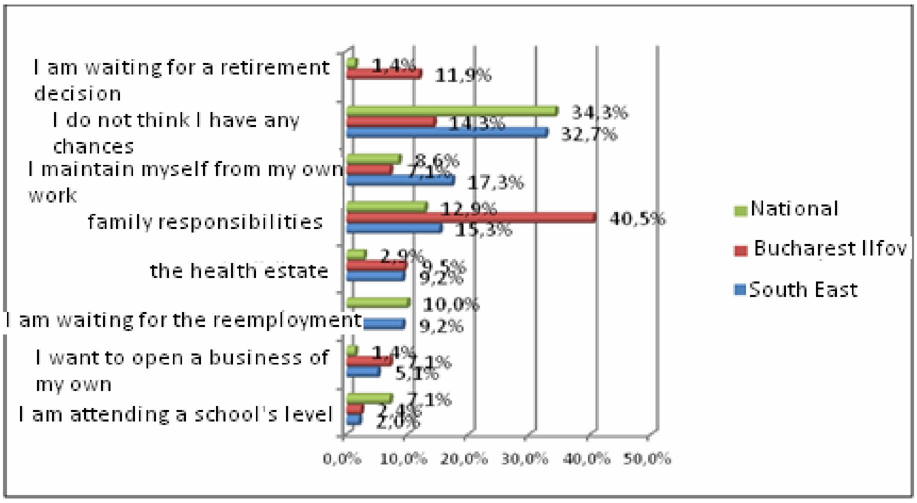
Table 2: Ways of looking for a place of work

	South - East	Bucharest-Ilfov Region	National
AJOFM, ALOFM	23,7%	6,9%	30,7%
By an ONG	1,2%	1,4%	0,0%
Press announcements	49,2%	64,5%	40,7%
Direct movement to the employer	58,2%	80,7%	66,4%
By the help of the relatives or friends	24,8%	40,9%	24,4%
On the internet	38,4%	10,2%	41,9%
Human resources firms	4,0%	1,4%	2,2%

Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

The ones that declared that they didn't look for a place of work although they are in an unemployment situation explained their passive position in different personal problems that do not allow them to work 9familiary responsibilities, their health) by an individual decision that come from discouragement but also by the pension or entrepreneurship alternative.

Graphic 6: The reasons why they didn't look for a place of work

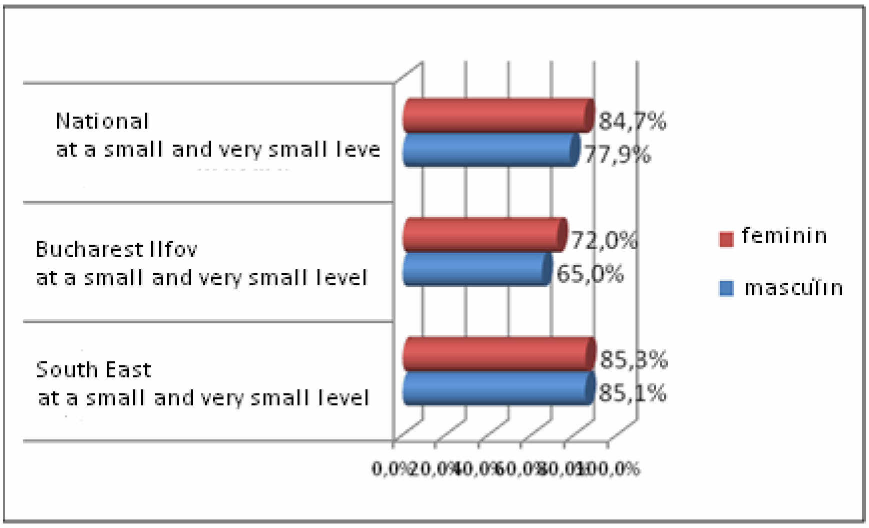


Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

The subjective explanations for the fact that they didn't find a place of work are mainly term situation, a consequence of the economical crisis followed by explanations of professional or personal type (age, qualification, and training) but also reasons that show an obvious discouragement of the ones that are confronted with an unemployment situation. There are differences between the cited reasons between the two categories of unemployed: the ones that are registered to the AJOFM consider that the economical situation may be an explanation for the difficulties in finding a place of work while the persons that do not have anything to work are considering that they do not have sufficient training or characteristics for the existent jobs.

The subjects' optimistic state of mind concerning the finding of a work place in the near future was measured by a scale with four intensity levels from "at a very low level" to "at a very big level". The most optimistic ones are the persons from the region Bucharest-Ilfov with significant differences from the region of the South-East but also in comparison with the national category. The women consider that they have lower chances of employment than the men in the close future.

Graphic 7: Chances for finding a place of work in the near future



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

Comparing the subjects' optimism depending on their occupational status there is to be noticed a significant difference between the registered unemployed and the unregistered ones only at the level of the national sample. In the two studied regions

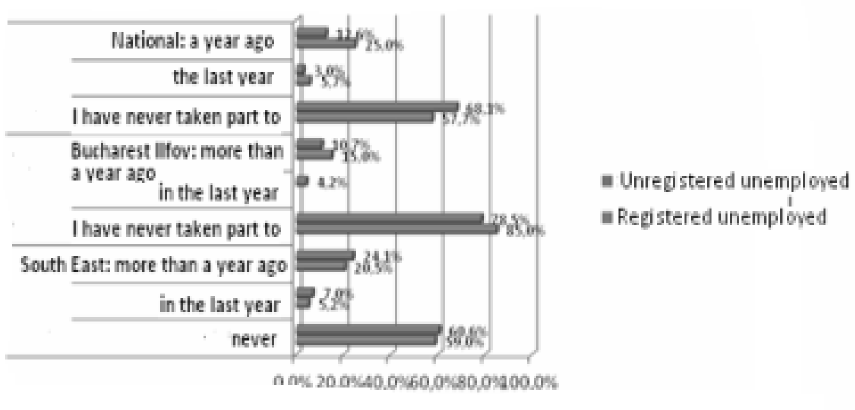
(South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov) the results are very close for the two occupational categories not being significant differences.

The age analysis shows significant differences between the two regions: in the South-East most of the population that is over 35 years old declares itself as pessimistic while in Bucharest-Ilfov there aren't any differences between the age categories. The differences between the two subscribe to the differentiated specific of the capital's region and of the South-East region.

2. The continuous learning

It is known that the role of the continuous training (lifelong learning) is essential for the evolution of the human resources for better chances in finding a place of work (employability[1]). At the national level, the attendance to the lifelong training classes is low comparing with the European level data. The last year brought by the FSE POSDRU Program (The Sectorial Functional Program for the Human Resources Evolution) the chance to develop the offer for the training classes but also to facilitate the access of the employees' access to the lifelong training.

Graphic 8: The attendance to the training classes



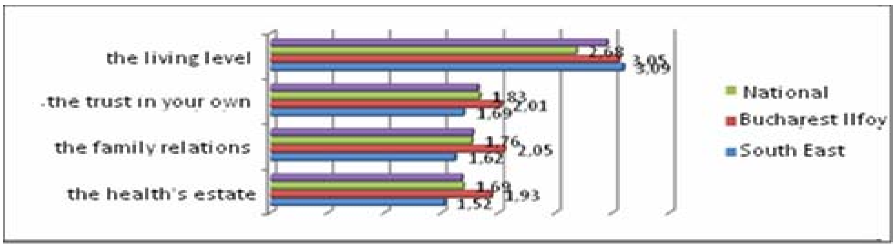
1 *The concept refers to tan individual's capacity to obtain and maintain a place of work. It represents one of the four situations of the European Strategy for Employment.*

Most part of the included persons in the three situations didn't ever attend the classes for the lifelong training. In the Bucharest-Ilfov region 80% from the subjects declared that they haven't ever attended these kind of classes and only 3,5% were included into the training schedules in the last year, a situation that is explainable by the unemployment's reduced characteristic in Bucharest-Ilfov. In the South-East region, the number of the persons that took part to the classes in the last year is bigger (4,6% and only 60% from the subjects declare that they didn't attend any training programs). The comparison registered/unregistered unemployed show that there aren't any significant differences concerning the access to training of the two categories.

Aproximatively half of the interviewed unemployed population expressed its wish to attend the training classes in the future period of time (53% South-East region, 41% Bucharest-Ilfov and 49% the National area). Most of them are persons with a high training level equally men and women from the urban and the rural area. From the ones that do not have a place of work a small part (11,9% the South-East area, 13,6% Bucharest-Ilfov and 13,5% the National area) have received work offers in the period since they are unemployed. These offers were refused in the first place because of the fact that they didn't offer the minimum conditions asked by the unemployed (wages and the benefits). As alternative strategies for finding the wished place of work there are mentioned the most frequently the giving up to the initial conditions 9they accept a place of work far from home, a place of work with lower training qualification, worse paid…), in a smaller rate and the tendency for staying as an unemployed or for retirement. The subjects expressed they financial preference: in the South-East region the average wage is of 1012 lei in Bucharest-Ilfov 1222 lei and at the national level it is of 868 lei.

The most affected side of the unemployed persons life is the living level, a clear consequence of the incomes' lowering by loosing the place of work in all the three regions. The other three dimensions are appreciated in an equal way as being affected by the unemployment status.

Graphic 9: The negative influence of the lack of a place of work in some of the life's aspects (medium)



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

3. Categories of vulnerable population

The analysis of the occupational structure from the two evolution areas as well as a national level determined the identification of some occupational categories that were at the social risk limit: forcedly inactive persons (anticipatory retired or because of medical problems as a second choice for the unemployment) housemen/women, journeymen or farmers (for subsistence), long term unemployed.

Taking into account the characteristics of the main occupational groups they were still considered their characteristics. In the table below there are summarized the main occupational types that are subject to the social risk, taking into consideration both the declared living level and the characteristics of the occupation that is at the limit of the social security.

Table 3: Vulnerable groups

0 occupation	Sub-occupation	Inactivity
Long term unemployed (≥1 year)	Journeypersons Pat time employees No contract employees "on the black market"	Medically and anticipated retired
Unregistered unemployed		Housemen/women

a. The housemen/women – unpaid workers in their own household

The category of the inactive persons is between the limit of unemployment and inactivity, the ones that declare themselves housekeepers are in the situation of working without any payment in their own household. Between the two studied regions there are important differences. The concept of wousemen/woman is something almost unexistant as a term in the Bucharest-Ilfov area (2,8%) while in the South-East the number of the persons that declare themselves as part of this kind of occupation is four times bigger.

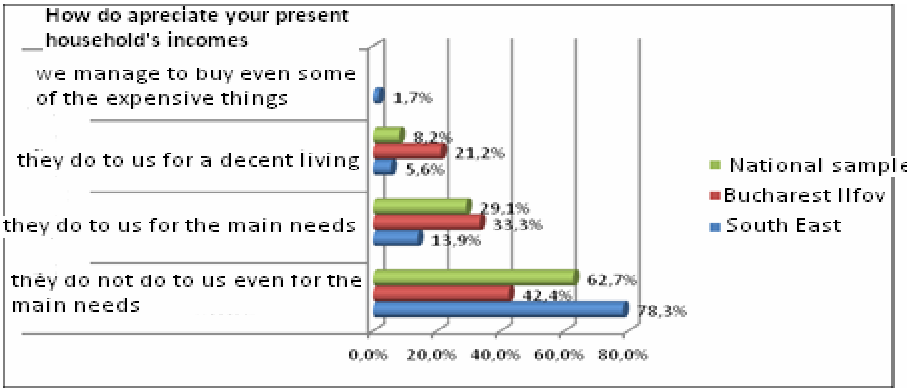
The level of the housekeepers from Bucharest-Ilfov is small (33 persons) and the analysis of this category has only an approximate value.

Aproximatively 50% among the persons that declare themselves as being housekeepers at a national level and in the South-East region and also the Bucharest-Ilfov region 82% worked as employees before they had the status of housekeepers. The previous occupations supposed a minimum qualification (qualified workers, commerce and services workers) or the lack of a qualification (unqualified workers or journeypersons). The housekeepers from the Bucharest-Ilfov area have a higher qualification level (11% had jobs with faculty studies, 30% workers in services and commerce and 19% qualified workers). The socio-demographical analysis of the housekeepers show us that over 90% of them (in all the three types) are women and their age is between 18 and 44 years old and generally live in the rural field (62% at the national level and 55% in the South-East area). Between the housekeepers from the two regions there are differences as concerning the educational level: the majority of the ones from Bucharest-Ilfov have at least the high school studies while at the South-East and National region level most of them have a lower educational level.

The explanations why they lost their place of work are generally classical unemployment reasons (redundancy), but a small number gave up work for the family's benefit (15% Bucharest-Ilfov, 10% South-East and 11% Nationally). Aproximatively 20% from the housekeepers that had a place of work from Bucharest-Ilfov gave up because of health reasons, 14% in the South-East and 11% in the National area. These data show us that the option of house working is just an optional one, a situation of hidden unemployment accepted in the absence of some other opportunities. For supporting this idea comes the fact that most of the house workers declare that they looked for a workplace (22% in the South-East area, 50% in Bucharest-Ilfov).

As it may be noticed in the following table, most of the housekeepers appreciate modestly their incomes' level thinking that they do not do even for the essential things. The situation of the Bucharest-Ilfov housekeepers appears to be different having better appreciations than the other two samples.

Graphic 10: The incomes'/ housekeepers/regions appreciation



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

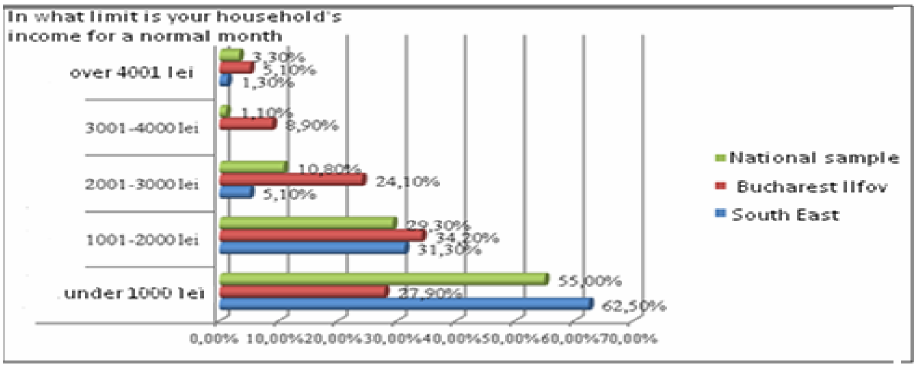
Also the analysis of income's intervals show significant differences between the two regions and the National level. In the South-East region 83% among the housekeepers have household incomes smaller than 1000 lei monthly, at the National level 73,6% and in the Bucharest-Ilfov region 29,1%. In the category of the incomes of over 2500 lei are placed about 12,5% from the housekeepers from Bucharest-Ilfov, 1,2% in the South-East and 1,9% at the National level. The economical differences between the incomes are fit with the limits of the differences from the samples' level. Generally, in the Bucharest-Ilfov region the population's incomes are bigger.

The comparison between the two developing regions show that only for the South-East region this phenomenon of the unpaid work inside the household is important having a relatively big share at the level of the interviewed population. The traditional family model with the man that works outside the household and the woman takes care of the household is mostly predominant here (in the rural area especially).

b. The medically and anticipated retired persons

The category of the persons that declare themselves as retired and have the age under the retirement level vary as level between the total of the retired persons in all the three samples (21% in the South-East, 30,6% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 28,7% at the National level). The most part of the retired persons before the necessary age have the age between 45 and 59 (92,6% in the South-East, 96,5% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 28,7% at the National level). In the Bucharest-Ilfov region the women are the majority from this category (62, 6% comparing with 37,4% for the men), in the other two samples there aren't any significant differences between the sexes. As concerning the educational level in the South-East region the anticipated retired have a lower educational level comparing with Bucharest-Ilfov and the National region.

Graphic 11: Incomes classes/anticipated or medically retired persons/regions



Source: The Integrate Data Base 2011.

The economical situation of the anticipated retired ones is above the sample's level, 62, 5% from the South-East subjects and 55,5% from the National area live in a modest way having incomes smaller than 1000 a household. In Bucharest-Ilfov only 27,9% among the subjects from this category are subscribing to the same income class.

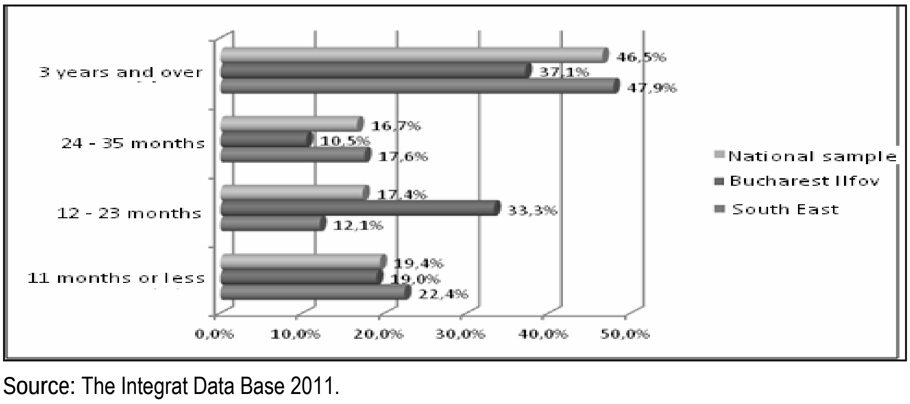
In all the three samples this category of the population appreciate modestly its household incomes: approximately 50% of the subjects declare that the incomes do not do to them not even for the essential and 30-35% that they are enough for the essentials.

The analysis on resistance levels shows that the anticipated retirement is specifically for the urban area (58,5% in the South-East and 67% at the National level[1]). The majority of the persons that are in an anticipated retirement situation declare that they suffer of a chronic illness or a disability (60,3% in the South-East region, 56,8% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 67, 7% at the National level). So there can be talked about a vulnerable population of an active age but who chose the anticipated retirement either as a result of a reduced possibility of work or as another solution for the unemployment one.

c. The persons that are unemployed for a long period of time

The most part of the persons that do not have a place of work (approximately 77% in the South-East, 81% in Bucharest-Ilfov) are in an unemployment situation for a long time (for over a year), similarly to the National level (80%).

Graphic 12: The unemployment period/regions



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

[1] *In the Bucharest – Ilfov region 85% from the subjects come from the urban area.*

With this situation of long term unemployment are confronted especially the persons with seniority at work which is less than three years. The unemployed are mostly persons with an age over 35 (77% in Bucharest-Ilfov, 85% in the South-East and 81% in the National area) having the age limit between 41-42 (41 years old Bucharest-Ilfov, 42 years old South-East and 42 the National area). As concerning the gender of the persons that do not have a place of work there are differences between the two regions: in the Bucharest's area are mostly women (68,4%) while the South-East region is characterized by the men's presence as unemployed persons for long periods of time (67,5%). At the national level the situation is more equilibrated (46,3% for women and 53,7% for the men).

As concerning the incomes problem the situation of the households of the persons that are unemployed for a long time is difficult: they earn under 1000 monthly 79,8% in the South-East and 68, 3% at the National level while in Bucharest –Ilfov only 36% are in the same situation.

The subjective appreciation of the incomes of this vulnerable population confirms: 77% (in the South-East), 73% at the National level and 48,2% (Bucharest-Ilfov), they declare that their incomes aren't enough even for the essentials. Only 7,9% in the South-East, 15, 3% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 3,5% from the National area consider that they can have a decent living.

d. Subsistence farmers

The South-East region is characterized by the presence of the farmers who, although they are low numerically talking, they have a level of living very low situated at the survival limit (625 live in households where the monthly income does not go over 500 lei). The occupational history show us that most of them worked in the past (58,3% in the South-East and 76, 7% in the National area). A part of the persons involved in this activity say that they have been looking for a place of work in the last year (35,1% in the South-East and 50% at the national level) which proves that this occupation is considered a momentary one.

The medium age of the farmers is relatively high: 45,5 years old in the South-East and 40,5 years old in the National area, they are mostly men (75% both in the South-East and the National area) and have a low educational level towards the medium one (70% in the South-East and 75% in the National area have the vocational school or less).

e. Underemployed persons

The underemployed concept is one with multiple senses and we will refer to the special situations of the classical occupation of the work places taking into consideration the situations that create vulnerability: low incomes, the lack of the social security, low social status and the lowering of the professional capacity. We included in this category taking into consideration both the time factor and the contractual relationship: the journeypersons, the part-time employed ones but also the persons that work in the informal economy. The average age of the persons that are in this situation shows that it is about the young persons: 32,3 years old in the South-East, 30,2 in Bucharest-Ilfov and 36,7 at the National level. In Bucharest-Ilfov, 80% of the persons that are in this occupational situation have the age between 18 and 29 years old while in the South-Eastern region and at the National level persists the ones with ages over 30.

We included here all the persons that declared themselves journey workers or the persons that work part time or with some other contractual form than the usual work contract.

Most of the persons from this category are women (78,3% in the South-East, 66,7% in Bucharest-Ilfov and 54, 6% in the National area) and they leave equally in the rural and urban area.

The unemployed persons represent by definition an economically vulnerable category that do not have stable incomes and aren't included in the system of the social and medical assurances. The data from the two regions show that among this category, a part of the inactive persons try to find a place of work.

The Bucharest-Ilfov region is characterized by a low rate of unemployment, being under the national level and the persons that do not work generally come from the field of the services and commerce and have a medium educational level. The main reasons that they lost their work places are linked by the economical situation at the National level.

In the South-East region appears the structural unemployment owing to the weak qualification of the unemployed ones and of a significant presence of the persons that declare themselves housekeepers. Most of the unemployed from here are men and have a low educational level.

The behaviors for looking for a place of work are characterized by an informal type, asking help first of all to friends or directly to the employer (specifically to the population with a reduced qualification). The most part of the persons that look for a place of work didn't take part ot the training or improvement classes (only the registered unemployed persons took part mostly).

The analysis of the main occupationally vulnerable categories limited firstly the situation of the persons that were unemployed for a long time, of the persons that did not work with an age of over 50 and of the housekeepers.

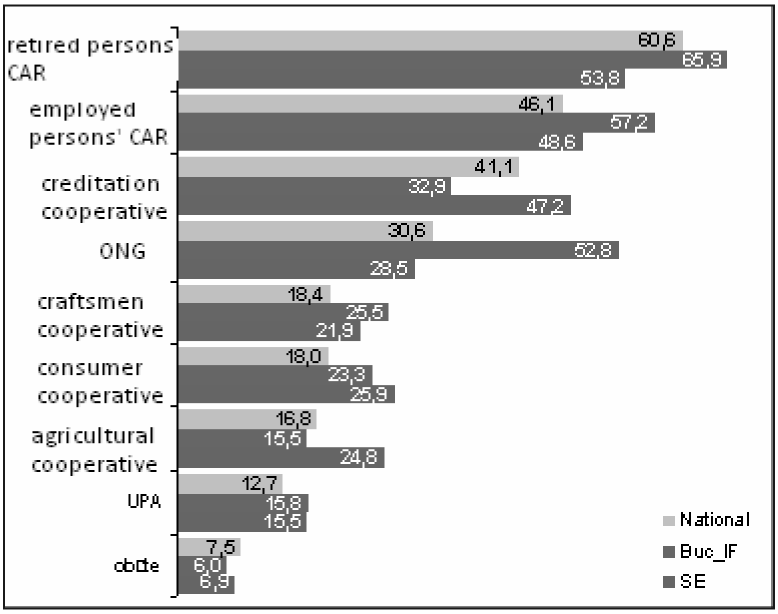
4. *The social economy – resource and social need*

Notoriety and the need of the ES services

The presence of the ES institutions is generally perceived in a low way especially the ones that train the productive activity. A high notoriety have the financial support institutions, especially the CARs for the retired persons. Although they were highly present in the communist period, the craft cooperatives and the farming ones benefit presently of a weak recognition at the level of the two regions but also nationally talking. The indicator doesn't reflect exclusively the notoriety of the different institutions but also their presence in the field: the regional differences concerning the ONGs respectively of the agricultural cooperatives which are very significant from this point of view.

Graphic 13: The notoriety of the ES institutions

(% to the ones that know they exist in their village or district)



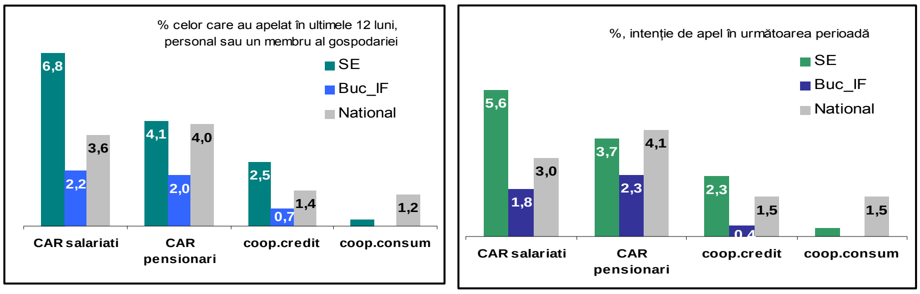
Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011

The use of he support forms and implicitly the participation in associative forms of support is under 1% to all the types with non-financial profile. At the national level there are considered an exception the consumer cooperatives that implies the participation of 2.7% of the population, respectively the ONGs that train the population's participation a little over this level (1,3%).

Obviously bigger, is the participation of the population to the financial type institutions which are of about 45 of the population, less the consumer and credit cooperatives, that go a little over 1% at the national level. The regional criterion shows strong disorders between the two Southern regions: much more present in the associative forms of financial support are the ones from the South-East region which is explainable by the much lower living level from the region. As a support of this hypothesis come answers of the active ones from this kind of institutions that remember between the acquired benefits by the activity inside of them and of the fact that "I helped the child with the faculty", "I have helped the child with the wedding" , "I bought the furniture in a more beneficial way" , "I finished the banc credit" or "I solved my own problems". Although it is comparable with the credit cooperative, the consumption ones are specifically to the two noticed Southern regions.

Graphic 14: The appeal and the intention to appeal to the support offered by the ES institutions

(% for the persons that appealed in the last 12 months personally or another member of the household)



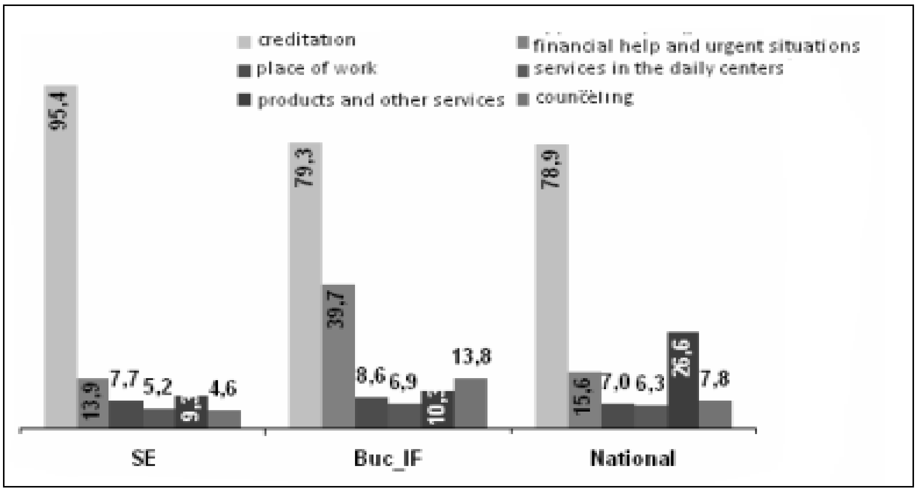
Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

The explanation of a comparatively bigger appeal to the employed CARs than to the retired persons ones in spite of a much more extended notoriety of the later ones is a result of a bigger need of consumption in the case of lower ages.

If they live in households that have more young persons, do the old ones live more lonely so they do not need endowment?

The motivation of the appeal to the ES institutions is on the other hand the financial loan for present needs or emergency situations. The work places or the daytime centre services are equally solicited in the two regions but also at the national level. The conciliation services are more appealed in the Bucharest-Ilfov region as well as the appeal for products and services are comparatively more spread in the rest of the country by the consumption cooperatives. Apparently, the conciliation is the ONGs attribute as well as the support by non-financial products and services of the cooperative forms. Actually the retired persons CARs but also the ones for the employees try to enlarge their main activity by small offered services to the members (hairdresser's, tailor's, domestic services, telecommunications, etc.) in their own networks to some better prices.

Graphic 15: the reason of the appeal to the institutions of the social economy
(% to the ones that appealed to a support form)



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011.

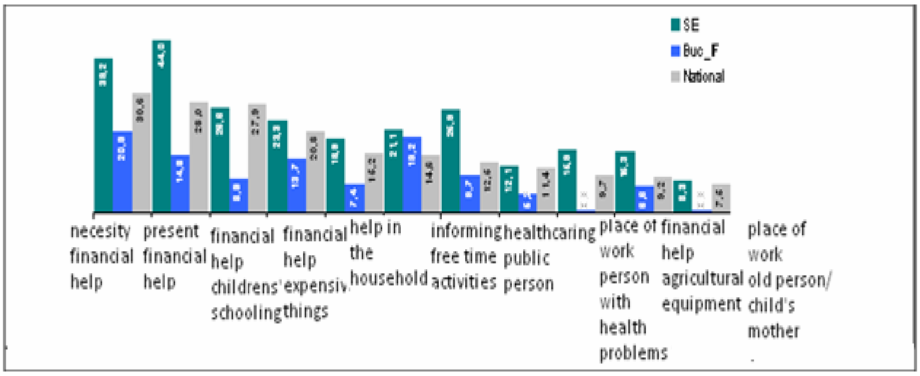
The data concerning the appeal intention tend to show a lowering of the population's propensity for the support of the market economy a thing that beyond the lower levels of the indicatives must also be treated with the reserve of being questioned only the respondents' intentions not of the other members of the family. We can summon that the orientation towards the market economy stayed unchanged in the last year, the lowering of the solicitations of he employed persons CARs in the South-East regions being explainable by the rise of the uncertainty of the salaried jobs as well as by solving the problems by the loans already obtained.

Noticed by the sight of the specifically needs we can find among the first ones the financial help of necessity and present consumption. The exception is the help for the education system in the primary studies. The residency's impact on regions is also important to remember. The lower level of living in the South-East of the country is to be reflected in a demand for present social help and of necessity for about 40 – 45% of he population. These are followed by the need of support for important needs from the perspective of a minimum decent living level: long time consumption for useful objects (more expensive), the sending to school of he children from the primary study level and the care of the persons with health problems. The Bucharest Ilfov region has a different priority of the potential needs and also on a lower level. The main necessities to be covered are financial help for necessity situations at a level under the national need altogether with the information concerning the free time possibilities for the old persons (20%). This last type of appeal is the only one that get close the two studied regions.

The rural residency makes that the need for financial help to be felt more accentuated while the informing need for the free time kind activities to be visibly lowered.

Graphic 16: The potential need of social support

(% for the ones that feel the need of appealing to these kind of services from the population with specifically problems; ex: the need of helping the old persons was noticed only in the households where there are old persons)



Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011

The availability in social actions involvement

The communitarian interest activities draw attention to a quarter and a third of the population an exception being for the environment's protection and the support directed to the "problem persons" where the involvement can get to about 45%. The infrastructure problems, the support of the young persons and the caring of the old ones are equally important destinations as a potential communitarian involvement that appeal to a third of the national level population.

The voluntary participation structures easily different the social intervention destinations being different altogether with the potentially commercial character of the activity. To some low levels in comparison with the European one (Voicu, 2010) the Romanian voluntary tendency vibrates at the difficulty situations but not also to the common communitarian interest. It is correct to conclude this way that the volunteering in Romanian is expected only from 11% of the population, meaning for the fields that do not sensitize by their personal difficulty situation (where the intervention may be explained as the moral responsibility activation), it doesn't involve the general communitarian purpose (where there is involved any citizen in the indirect way) and much more, they are commercial by their nature.

The prioritary remunerated attention fields are the infrastructure and the environment, public interest objectives for a long term.

Graphic 17: What are the activities that you are willing to involve in % nationally

Source: The Integrat Data Base 2011

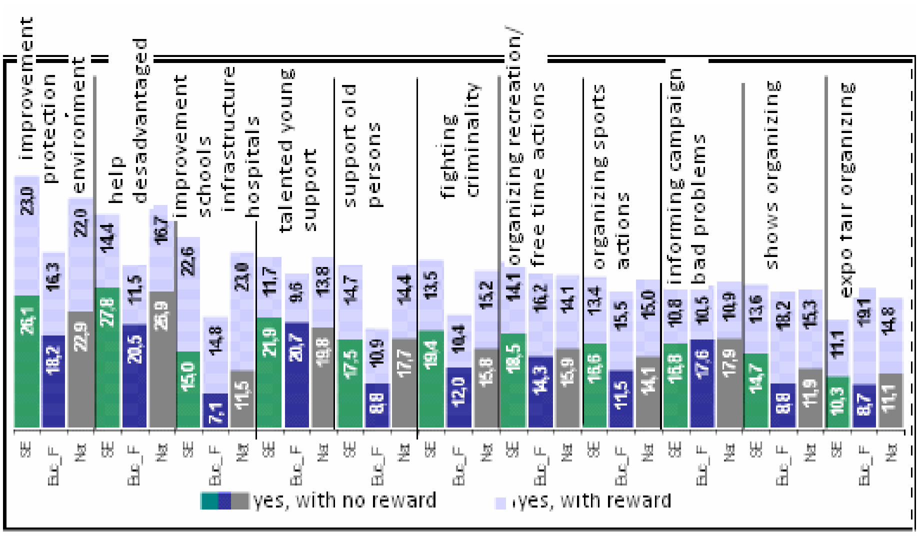
Studied depending on the residence region as well as according to the occupational status the level of volunteering and the community's involvement varies notably. The Bucharest-Ilfov region has the most reduced availability of taking part to social –

communitarian activities, the receptivity lack manifesting in the case of the activities that sensitize most nationally except the talented young (table 6). In this case, not only the receptivity lack is smaller comparing with the national status but it is also the activity with the biggest availability for volunteering to a similar level with the tendency of helping the disadvantaged persons (20%).

In the situation of the South-East region, the long term public interest objectives are more attractive than to the national level, the difference coming from the declared availability for volunteering. Except the exhibition organizing or local fairs for which the participation interest is relatively lower, the other action directions are of the same national interest level. To this we add a part of 15% persons that the remuneration would make them interested in this kind of activities.

The volunteering is the attribute of the busy persons, the remunerated applicability of the not busy ones and the refuse of involvement of the retired persons.

Graphic 18: Regional differences concerning the involvement availability in social actions, %



Source: The IQLR Data Base 2011

There is also defined clearly the age's influence concerning the declared participation tendency, the over 64 years old persons being at least receptive to such actions that are paid or not. The volunteering is most probably for the young while the intention for remunerated participation is found at the middle ages too (35 – 44 years old). The gender and the residency environment do not influence with the same clarity the participation availability. The women look less interested than the men but to a closer look the result is that the receptivity is manifested for activities of building or commercial. The fact that the masculine participation is in a rewarded form strengthens the hypothesis of being open to such activities with the hope of integrating on the work market but not because of social communitarian consciousness.

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THE LOCAL COMMUNITY-SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP IN THE CONTEXT OF DECENTRALIZATION

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Abstract: *The decentralization means in its essence a management option of the social institutions, the transfer of decision and responsibility from the central institutions and authorities level to the local ones.*

Decentralization does not represent an universal antidote as the analysis of the management ways of the social institutions from many countries show to us that there is no country where the institutions function completely autonomous; on an axis centralization-decentralization, the states are either closer to centralization and the decision's concentration at a central level or closer to decentralization and local autonomy.

The analysis of the legal rules and the regulations adopted in the reform process at the level of the social system from Romania, shows us the fact that, at least formally the decentralization is the chosen solution.

The preuniversitary teaching decentralization represents the authority, responsibility and resources transfer as concerning the decisions' taking and of the general and financial management towards the teaching units and the local community

The work below talks about the teaching system decentralization's problem analyzing the decentralization's objectives, principles, advantages but also the risks and the stops that may appear in the decentralization's process at the level of the school and of the local community.

Key words: *decentralization, school, local community partnership, principles, advantages of the decentralization.*

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Introduction

The school is an institution that functions in a community that is formed of many educational factors: family, authorities, governmental and nongovernmental organizations, economical agents, church, police, sanitary units etc. For the adequate functioning of the school-local community partnership, the decentralization is absolutely necessary and unavoidable. The experience of the last years proved that the decisions that were taken at the central level can't take into account all the situations and especially all the real needs and interests of the different institutions and persons. A democratic society supposes the getting closer of the decision process by the application place, the citizens having the possibility to participate in decision taking that affect them directly or indirectly.

In all, the preuniversitary teaching decentralization represent the authority transfer, responsibility and resources as concerning the decision making and of the financial and general management towards the teaching units and the local community.

To be able to solve the new regulations and the social pressures, the school has to enrich its activities and performances, to adopt multiple changes in the options for a certain educational policy in its structures, in the instructive-educational process in the scholar management system etc.

The modern theories concerning the teaching's coordination pledge for the adoption of the decentralization measures and of the participative strategies. Plenty of countries that have educational problems adopted these strategies. The reforming projects initiated the application of some different and nuanced decentralization models depending on the social and educational situation that characterized that area. The adopted solutions situate the educational systems on a continuous line from the moderated centralism to the wide decentralization. These projects that were initiated in the last two decades by countless countries have as a common objective the arrangement o f the educational systems on the efficiency-efficacy-quality axis and the social relevance by the real joining of the school to the community and by the effective involvement of the beneficiaries of the educational effort in the support of the teaching system (Fiszbein, A., 2001).

The chosen direction for the educational policy from the Romanian system is the one of the decentralization. The analysis of the legal regulations and of the measures adopted inside the reform process shows to us that at least formally, the decentralization is the chosen form.

The educational decentralization supposes:

- The redistribution of the responsibilities, of the decision authorities and of the public obligations for the specifically educational functions, from the central level to the local one;

- The participation of the non-administrative factors, of the representatives of the civil society to the process for taking decisions (parents, ONGs, business areas, professional associations, social partners, etc.)
- The transfer of the decisional competencies from the central levels to the local ones and/or organizational nests, just to get closer the decision to the beneficiaries of the public educational system.

The decentralization isn't a purpose itself, it is actually an option of educational policy that subscribes itself in the national method of decentralization.

The clear, equilibrated and well limited dividing of the decision power between the representative organisms and institutions of the regional and local communities on one side and the ones at the national level (The Educational Ministry, The Public Finances Ministry, The Administrative and Internal Ministry) on the other side will contribute to the avoiding of the disorders and distortions in the organization, leading and supporting at the national level of the teaching system. The decentralization's success is based mainly on the equilibrium between the authority and responsibility on the other side as well as the capacity of the human resources and the informational streams on the other hand (Paun, E., 1999).

In the managerial field, the decision's decentralization involves ***the evolving of the monitoring system, control and evaluation***, altogether from the local community but also of the institutions and special governmental organisms.

There is taking place a transfer from the school's model as "consumer" of resources at the national level, to the representative school for the community, where the latter invest local resources but also has responsibilities of control and evaluation.

The decentralization offers the school the part of a ***main decision factor*** assuring the participation and the audition of all the social actors that are interested from the perspective of a long term evolution of the community it activates into, on one side and on the other side from the perspective of the education's globalization.

The decentralization is an interdistrictual policy that takes into account the other components of the social part (political, economical, cultural and administrative).

We have to mention the fact that none of the two policy types (centralization/ descentralization) do not represent main values. The centralization and the decentralization are means of enriching the managerial activity based on a general social conception of a philosophical, political, cultural, economical type. The decentralization began to be perceived as a value itself, as a democratic condition. Actually it is a type of coordination, a way of deliberating.

The establishment of an optimum of decentralization in a national particular context, supposes the adoption of an equilibrated attitude in report with some essential coordinates such as: the report tradition-innovation, past-future, stability-change, national-global (Frege, X., 1991)

The option for a management system and for an educational policy is counting on a values system socially accepted, on the cultural traditions, it takes into account the existing managerial type. The management is a thinking wave, based on a certain philosophy and on a certain culture. This is why there is to be applied the accountability between the managerial conception and the basis culture of the society where it is to be applied. There are cultural premises of the managerial models that if they are ignored may constitute a problem in the way of all kinds of changes. So, the managerial changes can not be asked this way only by theoretical models and elaborated strategies, but there has to be analyzed the cultural models and the mentalities and then they have to be adopted depending on these.

From this perspective, in the Romanian teaching there is taken into account the problem of the relationship between centralization and decentralization.

The Romanian school that applied for years the centralized managerial model with obvious roots in our culture and mentality can't be changed over night. This is why the Romanian teaching has to keep equilibrium between the centralized managerial system and the decentralization measures. The step by step introduction of the decentralization's measures is taking into account the functional equilibrium of the system. The decentralization process is for a long term and takes into account the changing and the replacing of the previous practices.

The decentralization's objectives

The decentralization is a way by which there can be accomplished **objectives** of a nature:

1. *Political* – the democratization of the teaching system, the raising number of the participation to the education of different social actors;
2. *Economic – financial* – the more efficient distribution of the resources, the evolution of the economical efficiency, the new material and financial resources gathering;
3. *Pedagogical* – a better quality of teaching by promoting the innovation inside the teaching system, the motivation by participation of all the active factors in the training-educational process;
4. *Organizational-administrative* – a better coordination and a better administration of the teaching, etc.

In the National Strategy concerning the Preuniversitary Teaching Sytem's Decentralization for the 2007-2010 period, there are mentioned the following objectives that take into account the realization of the school-community partnership:

a. The enriching of the activity and the rising of the performances of the educational institutions

- At the central level – by depriving the central institutions by the current administrative choirs and the concentration on the elaboration and monitoring on the implementing of the educational policies;
- At the local level – by the rise of the responsibility degree of the local community and of the school;
- At the level of the teaching unit – by the consolidation of the autonomy and of the capacity of coordinating the financial and human resources.

b. The democratization of the educational system by consulting/implying the community and the other beneficiaries of the educational act in taking decisions and the support of the quality that is based on auto evaluation, external evaluation and public responsibility. The decision and consulting mechanisms will involve both the educational system's structures and the external partners or the beneficiaries of the educational services (parents, pupils, patronages, syndicates, local public authorities, the non-profit sector, professional associations).

c. The support of the transparency in taking decisions and in the coordination of the pubic funds for the education by: the support of the public access at the data concerning the teaching units' budgets, the statistics concerning the pupils' results, the decisions of the administrative councils of the schools, the periodical reports of the schools.

d. The support of the access and equity in education on one side by giving the basis funds for each pupil spending and on the other side, by financing the oriented schedules towards the covering of the different educational needs of the pupils determined by the cultural and ethnical diversity, a bigger level of participation, the inclusive actions, the socio-economical differences. The new financing system will allow equal funds for the pupils with the same needs no matter the geographical area or the financial possibility of the localities the pupils are learning in.

e. The raise of the relevance of the offer of educational services for all the pupils categories, by supporting a better suitability with the local needs, with the different situations and problems of the community with the needs and the individual interests of the pupils. The support of the access and the equity in the education system will realized by relevant educational offers for the vulnerable segments of the population – the Roma children and population from social and economical environments that are disadvantaged, children and pupils with special needs – taking account especially by a bigger participation of themselves to education.

f. The support of innovation and professional responsibility and of the public responsibility too at the level of the teaching offices, of the teaching managers and of the pupils, by the transfer at school level of the decision power as concerning the budgetary execution and the personnel policies but also by a bigger power of the curriculum as concerning the school's decision. The gathering of the financial, administrative, educational (curricular) decisions, as well as the ones concerning the human resources, by the needs and the interests of the beneficiaries that will lead to a better dividing of the resources, to the support of the partnership in education and to a bigger variety of the school's educational positions.

The principles of the decentralization process

a. The public responsibility

All the institutions and organizations that take part at the accomplishment of the educational services, no matter their judicial status, will be responsible in a public way for the quality of the offered educational services in comparison with the functions and responsibilities that are for each of them.

b. The institutional autonomy

The decentralization will have as a central point the development of the school's institutional autonomy, of its capacity of taking responsibly coherent decisions.

c. The gathering of the educational centre close to the educational act just to offer consistency to the decision and to make the local active persons more responsible.

d. The transparency of the decisional act that is based both on the citizens' access to the public information and also on their participation on taking decisions.

The value of the human resource

The human resource and especially the didactical profession have to be recognized as essential factor of the communitarian evolution, a reason why there will be granted a special attention to the initial and continuous training as well as to the continuous developing of the teaching staff. The educational management at the level of the school's institution has to be professionalized in a progressive way just to be able to undertake and efficiently apply the functions that are its own.

a. The subsidiarity that suggests complementarity and the assumption of the decision responsibility at the local level just to get closer the decision by the ones that are directly influenced/interested by this. According to this principle at the decision level, there are taken only those decisions that can't be taken at its inferior levels.

b. The cultural and ethnical diversity

At the level of the educational institutions, there will be expressed the identity elements of the different socio-cultural groups that are part of that community.

c. The ethical approach of the educational service by adopting and applying the deontological codes for the teaching staff as well as for the ones from the control systems, the support of the quality and management.

The descentralization – a chance or a risk

The analysis of the advantages and the disadvantages offered by the teaching system's decentralization lowers the arrow towards this one an answer to its needs of assuring the functional equilibrium of the system. The support of the equilibrium between the centralization and decentralization inside the Romanian teaching has to be maintained, the changes of the practices and of the centralized conceptions needing a vast and long term process. The descentralization's practices have to be adopted only in the measure that they produce qualitative changes and optimize the scholar activities on all the areas.

Advantages of the decentralization:

1. The teaching will be a more democratic one by a bigger number in participating to the decisions concerning the education of many factors;
2. The responsibilities of different educational actors offer the schools a strong communitarian support; the transforming of the schools in a communitarian link and a better social relevance of the education;
3. The enrichment of the resources' utility inside the teaching system and the economical efficiency of the school;
4. A better management of the teaching system by:
    - The exclusion from the central level by a series of routine choirs (it allows the concentration on the general strategies in the educational field);
    - A better mobility, flexibility and the capacity to adapt to changes;

- The participative planning that involves the effective support of all the educational agents to the decisive process rises the degree of motivation for them, etc.

5. A better quality of the teaching by individualizing the training and by supporting the creativity and the capacity of self evolving of the educational agents;
6. The flexibility to the change supported by projecting and applying the evolution measurements that were emitted and coordinated from and to the basis of the teaching system;
7. It gives the possibility of matching the central, regional, local initiatives. Each of these levels may evolve the specifically objective from inside a coherent strategy
8. It reacts simultaneously and correlated to the global, particular and individual demands. So the school may become a pillar of the civil society, a communitarian link, a reason of the mutual understanding inside the pluralist society;
9. A more important part of the main "clients" of the school, pupils and children, as taking decisions for the education;
10. The restructuring of the cooperation on the horizontal between the school that are in a certain geographical area, etc.

The autonomy, the participation, the initiative, the motivation, the pluralism are on short the most important advantages offered by decentralization in the capacity estate that can be activated by a coherent managerial strategy.

The risks of the decentralization may be identified in:

1. A bigger number of the decision centers, the bureaucratization of the decentralized structures and the useless and continuous doubling of the centralized structures that manage to preserve themselves
2. The unsuitability of the decisions, the contradictions and incoherence's interdiction inside the teaching system;
3. Incompatibilities between the existent resources and the measures suggested for the decentralization;
4. The maintaining of the mentalities, of the thinking type, of the attitudes and behaviors by the persons that are kept in the decisional centers;
5. The underlining of the differences between the regions, between the "central" areas and the "peripheral" ones;

6. In the conditions of some wronged options, the decentralization may create differences between the general strategies and the particular objectives;
7. Under the reason of decentralization, the central level may pass to the inferior level choirs that it can't or doesn't want to accomplish;
8. There may appear contradictions between the levels, incoherence between he strategies, tensions, difficulties in evaluating, situations of promoting the particular interests, artificiality;
9. The maintaining of the centers helps to the stopping of the autonomy and fairness tendencies of the teaching systems (the case of the national minorities);
10. There is the risk of giving up to some functioning fields such as: the research, the evolution and the enriching of the teaching staff, etc;
11. The appearance of the recentralization phenomenon as a pervert phenomenon that represent actually the descentralizaton.

The teaching managers that insufficiently oriented and motivated to adopt the decisions that they have to take account of in an decentralized system, will have the tendency to appeal to the superior structures to solve a local problem. (to provide schools means of transportation for the pupils that live in remote areas from school – a lot of directors and mayors are waiting for money for the fuel and the driver's payment from the Districtual Council and the Districtual Scholar Inspectorate. This is a local problem that from our point of view they have to find a solution for also in the local area by the collaboration of the school with the Mairy and the local Council). The decision also supposes the assumption of the responsibility for the taken decisions. The recentralization decision may be looked at also as a way of avoiding responsibility from the part of the ones that have attributions in the decision area. Anyway, we just can't make it look as something general. There are local communities that can't afford some social services without any help and this is why there is necessary a new strategy for the way in which there will be coordinated the resources towards the support of some local needs.

The adoption of a contextual and situational management, the keeping of an equilibrium between the measures of decentralization and centralization also, the adequate preparing and the responsiveness of the school managers are measures that reduce the decentralization's risks (Iosifescu, S., 2006).

Blockings of the descentralization in the Romanian teaching

The decentralization's blockings may appear from three directions:

1. The lack of the institutional capacity;

2. The lack of training of the implied ones, cultural barriers – individual, group and community;
3. The non suiting of the policies and strategies to the situations and the real needs.

We may this way mention the following *stops:*

1. The persistence of the centralized and paternal mentalities manifested by the will of keeping the decisional power and the refuse of the local administrative centers to sum their responsibility;
2. The absence of some adequate constitutional and legislative regulations;
3. The Romanian teaching tradition. The history show to us that the orientation of the teaching system is a centralized one along the time. The Romanian teaching till the end of the Second World War (1948) characterized itself by a moderated centralism; the local communities were implied especially in the primary and the secondary teaching. After 1948 there was produced an elimination of the autonomous decision centers and the concentration of the decisional competencies to the level of the central organisms (ministry);
4. The involvement in the decisional process from the educational sector, of the factors of the local community that was weakly represented. The structures of the civil society are still weak, there isn't any solidarity between the communities members, the underlining of some common interests;
5. The strict rules of the activities from inside the schools;
6. The power resources at the local level are insufficiently developed;
7. There is also the possibility of giving up the incompetent schools to project and coordinate their autonomy and their own evolution. The school has to be prepared for autonomy by granting a certain level of financial independence, the rise of the managerial competences, the schools' responsibility for the obtained results, etc;
8. The lack of interest of the people for the represented institution's progress;
9. The insufficient training and the explanation of the measurements and the decentralization so as to be understood and applied by the supposed main educational agents (informational and cognitive stop);
10. The strategic importance that the public opinion and the political decision factors grant for the decentralization;

11. The financial stop, the acute lack of resources goes to the postponing or inappropriate appliance of the decentralized measures, the incoherence of their application, etc.

Conclusions

To provide a good school – local community partnership, the decentralization in the educational management field and its democratization are absolutely necessary.

But, no matter the number of the legislative regulations (the law decentralization), the real decentralization will be produced in time. There is needed time for the changes to take place, to explain and realize the advantages and disadvantages of such a system. The adequate training of the school managers and of he teachers, the initial and continuous training is demanding.

Also, there will be needed a correlation of all the social system's competences, at the macro social level and an efficient partnership between the school and the local community's representatives at the micro social level.

The school may become this way the educational and cultural centre of the community that may offer to it educational offers based on local real needs.

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SOCIAL ECONOMY: CONTRIBUTIONS TO LABOUR MARKET DEVELOPMENT

*Iulian STĂNESCU**

Abstract: *The article offers an analyze at the national level and on two Romanian regions, South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov concerning the functioning and the work market's structure, the work force occupation as well as the effects over the present situation and of the employment perspectives in specifically activities of the social economy. The theoretical contributions concerning the functioning of his work market represent an interdisciplinary space between economy and sociology. Inside this article are presented very shortly the most important theoretical contributions concerning the functioning of the work market in the context of the different themes of interest and perspective between the two sciences.*

Keywords*: labor, employment, social economy, work, services*

A theoretical frame concerning the functioning of the work market

In economy, the interest for the work market is concentrated mainly on two themes: the unemployment and the wages level. In explaining the functioning of he work market, the economical explanations, both at a systemic level or macroeconomic, and both at a micro economical level has a series of specifically characteristics 9Fine, 1998, pg. 21 – 57). First of all, the concept of equilibrium is at the base of the analyze. The work market is perceived as having as a result an optimum level of occupational, wages and productivity equilibrium. At the basis of the functioning explanations for the economy and the work market in general and especially for the second one we may find the aggregate behavior of some atomized individuals

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(methodological individualism). A clear differentiation is introduced between the short term functioning and the long term one of the work market as well as between the endogenous and exogenous factors that influence it. In the same time, work markets from separate countries are perceived as functioning relatively similar, the problem of their heterogeneousness staying open.

From this theoretical point of view, the explaining of the unemployment as economical phenomenon was revolutionized by John Maynard Keynes on the basis of the big world economical crisis between 1929-1933. Till Keynes the unemployment was perceived as a frictional phenomenon or a voluntary one. The first refers to the time period of the passing from a work place to another, allowing an explanation only for the short unemployment periods. The voluntary unemployment appears only in the refusal or incapacity situation because of different reasons of persons of accepting a wages at the level of the marginal productivity. So to say, the occupation was perceived as being whole, except the persons that are passing from a place of work to another or he or she assumes the unemployment estate. To explain the mass unemployment and the low level of occupation during the big crisis Keynes (2009) chose an analysis at a systemic level introducing the involuntary unemployment concept. He involves the moment when the demand for the workplaces is exciding the existent occupation volume. To get to a full employment of the work force means the exclusion of the involuntary unemployment, a situation that can be touched according to Keynes by the management of the aggregated demand. The theoretical and methodological advances of the economical science allowed the introduction of some other concepts such s the structured unemployment, discouraged unemployed, the natural unemployment level (NRU) or the non- inflation rate of the unemployment (NAIRU) (Mankiw, 2003, Blanchard, 2003).

In the classical sociology, the study of the occupational structure is in relation with the social stratification. Both Marx as well as, later, Weber, gives importance to the occupational structure. Marx (1960) identified five factors in the differentiation of the salary work force:

- The work's supervision position of the other employees;
- The difference between and in economical sectors: the employed are *socially* differentiated depending on the economical sector where they are activating but also *inside* of it, respectively the position in the production process;
- the work's division in the firm with two tendencies: the specialization in a certain action as part of the production part or the assumption of much many parallel actions or sequential along the production process;
- the endowment and intensity of using the equipments and machines in the represented work;

- The team nature of the work: how much the work supposes the integration more or less intense in a group?

As for Max Weber (1978, 140), "the structure of the occupational differences and the one of the incomes achievement opportunities are tightly associated." The positioning of a person on the work market is counting on individual resources such as the knowledge, competences, the skills that the individual got during his/her life but also on the life chances. Weber's chance life concept (*Lebenschansen*) describes as probable it may be for a person to fulfill his/her targets towards the improvement of the life quality. The life chances come from the social position of a person representing parts of the life's direction over which the individual can't get control (Weber, 1978, 927 – 928).

The economical post-belie development from Occident underlined major differentiations inside the workforce as concerning the wages and the life standard. The theory of the work market segmentation (SLM) appeared as an interdisciplinary field between economy and sociology in the 70s because of the need to explain the new relations and social structures. In 1971, Doeringer and Piore (1971) gave to study the existence thesis of a dual work market formed by a primary sector where we can find the great enterprises and industrial concerns specifically t the 60s, with qualified industrial workers, big wages, a big safety of the workplace, advanced division of the work, advanced division of the work and of the hierarchical positioning, massive management and investments of capital and a secondary sector with small firms, little number of employees, undercapitalization and reduced safety of the jobs. The work market's duality reflects the structure of the goods' and services' production. On one side, the ones with a big added value produced in monopolist organizations and on the other the ones wit the reduced added value much more vulnerable at the market's shocks. The dichotomy vision centre – periphery is similar to the addiction theories explaining this way the radical image for a medium level theory.

The crossing from a dual model of the work market based on the socio – economical structures of the industrial type to one of a market with many other segments of post – industrial type, creates problems of theoretical coherence (Fine, 1998). Methodological speaking, the analyzes that count on the work market's segmentation induce three actions (1) the delimitation of an economical structure in terms of monopolized and competitive sectors to which usually there is added the public sector; (2) the structuring on this account of the work market in primary and secondary; (3) the relationship formation between the economy and the society through a series of variables such as education, ethnic, the gender, the union subscription, migration, etc. The relations between these factors are subject to the factorial and cluster analysis. At this level there are to be noticed the model's problems because this type of analyze makes correlation relations not of results.

When there lacks a clear theoretical model of the cause, the researcher defines arbitrary the parts of the work market depending on the identified correlations, the general result being as many segmentation types as many analyses.

Because of all these reasons, the segmentation theory of the work market passed through a hybridization process by which it was integrated in the dominant neoclassical trend of the economy taking over also the methodological individualism. The role of the work market segmentation theory appears in offering an explanation for the establishment of a salary on different markets, in the context of the reappearance of the equilibrium notion in terms of a result on the work market. Methodologically, this implies an analysis of the relation between three types of factors: (1) individual variables such as the gender, ethnic, or social and individual capital, (2) the membership to different economical structures such as economical sectors and (3) social processes meaning long term activities such as the attendance to training classes. The weakness of such things in this case consist in the derived hypothesis from the previous organization of the empirical material and less from the theory about the social production and reproduction of the differentiation factors.

For Ben Fine (1998) not any social differentiation between the occupied persons even of salary income is a proof of the presence of interpretable segments as structures of the work market. The specificity elements in the functioning of the work market are rather about some general theoretical sentences:

- the work market can't be analyzed in terms of the situation's equilibrium;
- between them, the work markets are differentiated, resulting empirically recognizable segments or structures;
- these segments or structures come from horizontal factors that can be found in all the economy such as the gender or educational differentiations and from vertical factors from the inside of different sectors such as the work's productivity and the consume standards;
- the structures of the work market are subject to some historical contingencies;
- the analyze of the work market structure implies a cause model having as factors the relation between work and capital as well as its associated tendencies (the work's productivity dynamics, the engrossment, the degradation of the professional qualification, etc.)

In the Romanian sociology, the first studies concerning the work market belonged to the industrial sociology. These studies didn't include only the analysis of the social relations from inside the enterprises, of the life's satisfaction, of the employees from the big industrial centrals of the 80s (Zamfir and Filipescu, 1982) but it also offered a reason of analyses for the organizations (Zamfir, 1980).

After the revolution from 1989 and the work market's liberalization, the analysis of the occupation problem was framed in the thematically transaction sociology area. The low occupational level and the malfunctions in the functioning of the work market appear as part of the multiple social problems induced by the transaction strategy (Zamfir, 2004). In this context the Romanian sociology tried to contribute to the delimitation of some solutions by the analysis and the evaluation of the active occupational politics (Cace, 2001) with a special care for vulnerable groups (Cace and Ionescu, 2006)

On the work market, the transition meant segmentation in the raise and the differentiation between the losers and the winners. The first category included the qualified workers (the blue collars) from industries and decline regions. The winners are especially superior studies employees from the services (the white collars) that take benefit of the biggest salaries (Rutkowski, 2006).

2. *Concepts concerning the employment*

In Romania, the official data concerning the occupation and the work force are reported by the National Statistics Institute on the basis of many sources: the demographical statistics, the statistical enquiry concerning the work force in the households (AMIGO) and administrative sources such as the monthly reports of the National Agency for the Work Force Occupation (ANOMF) concerning the unemployed number. Using data from these sources, INS makes the balance of the work force.

The standard classification from the economical theory after the occupational situation holds three categories (Mankiw, 2003):

- busy person;
- unemployed;
- Economically inactive (isn't part of the workforce).

The occupied person is defined as being the one that made an economical activity that created goods and services for at least an hour a week with the purpose of getting some incomes.

The unemployed is the person that doesn't have a place of work presently, looks for a place of work or is waiting for the beginning date of the activity to a new place of work. More authors underline the fact that the unemployment measurement is only apparently easy (Mankiw, 2003, Blanchard, 2003). The difficulty is about the persons' identification that is looking for a place of work but is not registered in the social official registers as unemployed. The unemployed persons are people that wish to work but are too discouraged to look for a place of work because of some repeated failures in finding a place of work. They do not appear in the official statistics being usually classified either outside the active work force or as being busy inside their own household. The heterogeneity between the busy persons and the unemployed as well as the later ones measurement depends also by the ideological factors of the politics. In the Great Britain the methodology of the unemployed evidence was modified for no less than 32 times between 1979 and 1989, most of the reviews leading to the lowering with over one million persons of the unemployed total (Bartholomew et al., 1995).In Romania, the statistics concerning the persons that "look for a place of work" refer to the persons' number that choose in a month time one of the models of getting a place of work: the AJOFM subscription or to particular agencies for placement on the work market, actions for the start of an action on their own, the announcements' publication, asking the friends, relatives, colleagues, etc.

The category of the *economical inactive persons* holds the persons that do not gather in the other two categories such as the pupils and the students, the housemaids and he retired persons.

In Romania, the statistics concerning the work market are structured with the following coordination:

- *the active population* or *the work resources*, that include the old age population of 15 -64 years old that can be caught in activities for goods producing and services delivery;
- *the busy population* meaning all the persons that offer the work force for the goods and services production so to say all the persons that made an activity that brought goods: employed, employers, farmers or members of some agricultural associations, freelancers, self – employed etc.:
- *the unemployment rate* counted as the unemployed level comparing with the active population;
- *the activity rate* as a percentage report expressed from the active population (employed and unemployed) and the total population of 15 – 64 years old;
- *the occupational level* counted as percentage report between the occupied population and the total of the population or only the age working population, respectively 15 – 64 years old, from Romania.

3. The work market and the social economy

The understanding of the functioning way of the work market from Romania is relevant for appreciating the situation and the perspective of the social economical sector. The work force includes two categories of "beneficiaries" of ES (ES): the internal ones such as the employed persons or the present or future possible members among which the persons with social risks and the external ones, in quality of services' consumers and of the offered products by the ES entities without which their economical sustainability would be a problem.

The basis hypothesis of the analyze of this article is that the individuals' positioning on the work market is influenced by many factors:

- of a personal nature respectively of decisions that derive from and in the same time build life experiences of the individual;
- horizontal positioning factors such as education, the gender and the resistance environment, noticeable at the level of the activity/profession sector;
- positioning factors on the vertical, that hold the social and material resources defined as different access life chances to the social status;
- Structural nature factors that depend on the long term tendencies in the configuration of the economical structure; these are significantly influencing the raising or the decline perspectives of the activity field appropriate with the individual's work force.

The present chapter intends to analyze the way in which the above mentioned factors are found on the work market differentiations. So, the analysis of the gathered data by the questionnaire banquette inside of this project will have as objectives:

- the identification of the resources and favorable life chances for occupation;
- the identification of the parting of the work market and of the main employed profiles at the level of the 2011 springtime;
- the making of the poor profile that work, as vulnerable persons that may represent a target group for the ES activities' development;
- the main ES services presently accessed to the employed persons;
- the occupational dynamics in the ES activities.

4. Methodology

To get to the targeted analyses objectives we made a primary analysis on the data gathered by a social banquettes on questioners. There were interviewed over 3.700 subjects from the all eight regions of development being obtained three types. The South-Eastern sample was of 1.554 subjects with an error level of 2,5% at a trust degree of 95%. In the case of the developing region Bucharest-Ilfov the number of the interviewed persons was of 1.162 with an error level of 2,87% at a trust degree of 95%. Finally, the representative sample at the national level included 1.202 subjects with an error level of 2, 8% at a trust degree of 95%.

The analysis' objectives involved the creation of some social profiles on the work market's segments from among the occupied population. For the realization of these social profiles we chose the using of some homogeneity tests. These tests allow us to determine in what way different subcategories of population show the same levels of specifically characteristics as the rest of the population. The testing process of the populations' homogeneity is going on by means of the statistical signification test on the square – chi distribution (×2) of two variable categories.

The profiles making was made by the matching of some variables of socio demographical type variables, factual such as the gender, age, professional studies, the residence environment, with category variables representing the work market positioning such as the employment type, the activity sector, the work seniority, the interval of the wages' level, the work schedule, etc.

5. The Romanian work market: general characteristics

The population's structure depending on the status on the work market of three samples (national, South -East, Bucharest-Ilfov) presents the following categories: (1) active population, with two subcategories, occupied and unoccupied and (2) inactive population.

The occupied population is formed of employees, patrons, free lancers, farmers, journey farm workers and non farm workers. In the all three samples, the employed persons form the biggest part of the busy persons – about 80% at the national level and in the South – West development region, going up to even 90% in the Bucharest-Ilfov region. As it is expected, the persons that declared themselves patrons or firm administrators aren't too many: less than 2% in the national area, almost 3% in the evolution section from South-East and a little over 3% in the Bucharest-Ilfov development area. In the category of the free workers we may find the persons that have liberal and artistically professions, the free workers in non farming activities and the ones that are registered as authorized physical persons, in which status they get to themselves the main income source. Their number is also very low, the respondents that declared themselves in this category representing between 1% and 1,6% from the three samples. The number of the persons that declared themselves farmers, inclusively in their own household, is also low respectively of 2,5% at the national level and 2,3% in the development region from the South-East. The journey persons and respectively the persons that accept a daily paid occasional work represent under 2% in the three samples, even 0,2% for Bucharest-Ilfov.

Table 4: The population's relative structure after the occupational status at the national level in the evolution regions from the South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov

Occupational status		National (%)	South-East (%)	Bucharest-Ilfov (%)
occupied	employed	30,4	30,4	41,0
	patron, firm administrator	1,7	2,9	3,2
	Free lancer, PFA	1,6	1,2	1,0
	farmer	2,5	2,3	0,2
	Journey person, occasional non farming work	0,8	1,1	0,2
	Journey person, occasional farming work	0,4	0,8	0,0
unemployed	Registered unemployed	4,6	2,9	1,6
	Unregistered unemployed	12,0	13,7	11,2
inactive	Retired person	33,4	journey person, occasional non farming work 28,8	32,4
	housewife	9,1	11,6	2,8
	Pupil, student	3,5	4,2	6,2
total		100	100	100

Source: the Integrat data base.

The unemployed population holds both the ones that declared themselves registered unemployed, meaning the persons that are in the evidence papers of the District Agencies of the Work Force, no matter if they get or not any unemployment allowance and the ones that declared themselves unregistered unemployed, respectively persons looking for a place of work. The total level of the unemployed goes to 16,6% on the national area and in the South-East region comparatively with 12,8% in the evolution region Bucharest-Ilfov.

The inactive population is formed of retired persons, housewives, pupils and students gathering a sum of 46% in the national sample, 44, 6% for the South-East region and 41, 4% for the Bucharest-Ilfov region.

Taking into consideration the above data, there are to be drawn two observation categories. The first one refers to the comparison with the official data of the INS and the second one is about the relative structure differences according to the occupational status from the three samples.

The comparison with the INS data for the period when the field data collecting was done, respectively February – March 2011 being impossible to be done for all the reference points excepting the unemployment level because these aren't yet available. As for example, the data concerning the active population and the busy ones are to appear significantly late. The only indicator that appeared in a relatively short period of time is the unemployment level having as orientation point the ANOFM administrative data from the field where there are only the persons registered to the district agencies as unemployed persons with or without any allowance. Another problem is from the building of the sample which is representative for the whole institutionalized adult population of 18 and over this age while the occupational indicators talk about the population with ages between 15 and 64.

The most significant difference comparing with the data concerning the busy farming population from the INS inquests, especially the one concerning the households' work force (AMIGO), comes from the questioner's building. The respondents had the liberty to declare themselves as making part of a certain category depending on the main income source. On the other hand, the INS methodology reallocates the unemployed persons, especially the ones from the rural environment where there is practiced the subsistence agriculture, as workers with no allowance in their own household. This way, there was possible the undeclared unemployed analysis, meaning of the persons that wish a place of work, but they are too discouraged to look for it through official channels and, they can't be found in the occupational registers of the district agencies. Moreover, there is avoided the artificial raise of the occupational level with persons that 1) do not produce goods or services for the change in the real economy but for self consume and (2) do not get any income as consideration for the work made. The equalization of the self consume with goods that were got from the free market is practiced on certain research purposes of the life standards but cannot replace the monetary income just for the alimentary consume and for a certain quantity. Eloquent from this point of view are the methodological differences between the national statistics and the Euro stat one in the account of the relative poorness. The inclusion of the self consume as concerning the national methodology includes a 5 perceptual points difference as concerning the relative poorness comparing with the Euro stat methodology (Zamfir et al., 2010, p. 33). As a result, we consider that the obtained results offer a much closer image to the real one on the work market as concerning the occupied persons. As we have seen above, this category is formed mostly of employed persons as it is naturally normal.

As concerning the differences from the relative structure as concerning the occupational status, the values from the national sample are close to the ones from the

South-East region. Moreover, the occupational structure from the Bucharest-Ilfov development area has significant statistical differences. This fact is explainable by the different socio – demographical structure of this last mentioned area. For the national sample the respondents' division on residence environments is of 51, 9% men and 48, 1% women. The development sample of the South-East region have very similar values such as 56, 6% urban and 43,5% rural, 51,6% men and 48,4% women. As it is expected the Bucharest-Ilfov sample, the most urbanized region of the country has a totally different distribution, over 93% of the respondents being urban residents.

Favorable resources and occupational life chances

The differences between the persons that have a place of work, the unemployed ones and the inactive ones from the working representative population (18-65 years old) can be noticed in comparison with the level of some social resources, the schooling level, the environment and residence place, the age, gender or ethnic.

As concerning the *schooling level*, at the national level at least 80% from the persons that have superior studies even short period ones are busy. In the same time, over 72% at the national level from the employed persons have at least the first high school degree graduated, respectively 71, 5% in the South-East region and almost 86% in the Bucharest-Ilfov development region.

The residence environment influences significantly the chance of having a place of work for the ones that live outside the Bucharest-Ilfov region. From the busy persons, the urban residents represent 65% at the national level and 55, 6% in the South-East development region. At the same time, the probability of getting a place of work is bigger as the place of residence is also bigger. At the national level, in the towns with over 100 000 inhabitants over 50% from the active age ones are busy, their pond being of 56% from the case of the habitats with over 200 000 inhabitants. In the South-East development region, three district residences, each with over 200 000 inhabitants, Constanta, Galati, Braila cumulate almost 40% of the occupied persons. On the other hand, the persons that are resident in the rural region are the most exposed to the risk of being unemployed or inactive.

The age is important for the chance of having a place of work. At the national level about 45% of the busy persons are under 34 years old and almost 39% are between 35 and 49. On the other hand, the persons of and over 50 represent only 16, 3% from the busy ones. This age category is the most vulnerable one as concerning the access to a place of work. Alternative individual options in this situation include the medical or anticipated retirement. In the South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov regions the situation is easily different. In both regions, the age group 35 – 49 years old is over 43% among the busy persons while the over 50 years old represent 19, 5%, respectively 15, 1%.

As concerning the *gender* differences, the number of the busy men is significantly bigger than of the women. At the national level over 52% of the men with active age are busy with a similar value of 53% for the development region of the South-East while in Bucharest-Ilfov region it goes to over63%. The women are much more vulnerable on the work market. Only 40% of the active women declared themselves busy at the national level, their level raising to 43% for the development region from the South-East and to 48,4% for the evolution region from Bucharest-Ilfov.

The ethnic is another factor that raises or lowers the possibility of being an economically occupied person. The Roma ethnic persons are the most vulnerable on the work market having the lowest occupation rate. For example, in the occupational region from the South-East, from the 51 persons that declared themselves as Roma, equivalents of 4,1% from the active age population from the regional sample, less than a third declared themselves busy.

The segmentation of the work market. The employed person's profiles

The segmentation of the work market is visible in the first place by the employed' wages differences. For most of them, the wages' incomes are the firs that highlights. The qualification, occupation are just a few other elements of differentiation. With all these, the differentiations between the employed persons aren't the same with the work market's structure. The work market's segmentation comes out from the structuring of the economical activity. The segmentation's purpose for the segmentation of the work market can be illustrated by the metaphor of the athletic race. All the competitors are on the start line but the competition takes place on different halls. During the race, the competitors stay each on his/her hall. In the same way, on the work market, different employed groups are on different halls or segments, each trying to get a proper place of work for their own aspirations. Differently said, the work market is stratified. A qualified worker from the extraction industry won't compete for a schooling place of work as well as not even a superior studies person won't try to employ in the manufacturing industry.

The main difficulty in the analysis of the work market's segmentation consists of, as we have already said in choosing some theoretically consistent categories. The results of the analysis have to be empirically recognizable, using horizontal factors that can be found all over the economy and vertical factors from the inside the different activity sectors. On the basis of these kinds of conclusions, delimitation criterion of the employed persons profiles used inside the analysis is: (1) the nature of the relation employed – employer and (2) the salary level as horizontal factors, respectively (3) the nature of the work as a vertical factor.

The relation between the employee and the employer differs depending on the employer's type, resulting four categories:

1. employed – employer with patrimonial purpose, including here all the enterprises no matter the capital's type;
2. Employee – public sector, respectively the administration and the public services (teaching, health, public order etc.);
3. free lancers, no matter the judicial registration form of the economical activity that may be found in the section M of CAEN Rev. 2, respectively professional, scientifically and technical (judicial activities, accountability, audit, management consultancy, architecture, specialized design etc.);
4. The employees in the non profit and cooperates sector, including as judicial formation form of the employer, the associations, foundations, cooperatives, mutual societies.

As concerning the wages level, the starting line was made by the medium net wages on the April month 2011 (the after references from the text are exclusively reported to this). The official statistical data referring to the wages have to be taken into consideration in any situation with some error level. In any economy some of the incomes aren't fiscally registered because of multiple causes: fiscal evasion, black or grey market economy, incomplete or inefficient physicality, etc. Also, although the wages type incomes represent the biggest part of the incomes of the physical persons existing also other income sources (renting, annuities, dividends, etc). This is why the medium net wages may be considered a relevant reference point that permits the design of a general image, even though it doesn't mirror perfectly the economical and social reality. Finally, the criteria concerning the work's nature refers to the economical activity fields and their specifically occupations.

Table 5: The segmentation of the work market at the national level: April 2011

Segment	Employee – employer relationship	The medium net wages	Employer's number	Total employed number
		lei	Thousands persons	Percentage (%)
	total	1.498	4.142,7	100
	Employed – employer with patrimonial purpose		3.026,9	73,1
	industry (total)	*1.524*	*1.220,9*	*29,5*
Industry, building and agriculture employed	energy	2.961	71,5	1,7
	extractive industry	2.600	61,2	1,5
	water, sanitation	1.412	94,5	2,3
	The manufacturing industry	1.356	993,7	24,0
	agriculture	1.103	84,2	2,0

Segment	Employee – employer relationship	The medium net wages	Employer's number	Total employed number
		lei	Thousands persons	Percentage (%)
	constructions	1.229	305,6	7,4
	services (total)		*1.416,2*	*34,2*
Services employed	Financial intermediations	3.671	102,9	2,5
	Information and communications	3.116	100,1	2,4
	Transports, storage	1.640	249,6	6,0
	Real estate	1.549	18,3	0,4
	commerce	1.326	679,7	16,4
	Administrative services and support	955	161,5	3,9
	HORECA	850	104,1	2,5
Public sector employed	Public sector employed		925,4	22,3
	Public administration and protection	1.825	200,4	4,8
	schooling	1.321	374,3	9,0
	Health and social assistance	1.188	350,7	8,5
Free lancers	Free lancers			
	Professional, scientifically and technical activities	2.310	100,2	2,4
Employed in the non profit/cooperative sector	consolidative - cooperative	...	90	2,2

Source: INS, Monthly Statistical Bulletin 4/2011.

Industry, building and farming employees

In April 2011, in industry, building and farming activated over 1, 6 million employed persons, most of them being employed in hand made jobs. According to the wages level there are two sub segments that are numerically unequal. The medium gross wages from the energetically sector and from the extractive industry where there worked about 130 persons was of 2.961 lei, respectively 2.600. lei, significantly bigger than the national medium wages. These are the employees of the big companies that have as productivity object the production, the transport and the oil and oil products distribution, of the natural gas and electricity as well as from mining. On the other hand, in the manufacturing industry, facilities (water, sanitation), building and agriculture that have over 1,5 million employees, the medium wages is above the gross medium wages.

The most part of these employees are workers that have different degrees of qualification. As level of formal training, 57% from the industry employed persons have graduated at least the 10 school classes. The qualified workers represent 25%

from the employers at the national level and 29% in the development region from the South-East. In the development area from Bucharest-Ilfov where the industry has a lower intensity, only 15, 5% from the employees total are qualified workers. As concerning the age, the qualified workers have the biggest number (40, 7% at the national level, and 32% in Bucharest-Ilfov) from the 50 years old population. The explanation is in the preponderance of this occupation in the past times when the economy was dominated by the industry. In the development region from the South-East, the qualified workers are mostly younger, over 53% belonging to the age period of 35 – 49. A possible explanation could be the continuation of the activity of the steel mill from Galati, the biggest of this type and one of the greatest employers at the national level. The number of the unqualified workers is of about 9% at the national level, but significantly lower in the South-East (5, 1%) and Bucharest-Ilfov (2,8%). Most of the unqualified workers is to be found in the rural environment.

Table 6: Occupational types of the employed persons at the national level in the South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov regions

Occupation	National (%)	South-East (%)	Bucharest-Ilfov (%)
Qualified worker	25,5	29,4	15,5
Intellectual occupations	25,0	18,2	31,4
A worker in services and commerce	23,1	31,2	25,9
Unqualified worker	9,1	5,1	2,8
clerk	5,6	4,6	2,8
Military, policeman, security guard	3,8	6,7	6,4
manager	3,6	0,9	5,5
technician, foreman	3,0	3,2	8,0
others	1,2	0,7	1,8
	100	100	100

Source: Integrate data base.

The men represent almost 80% from the building employed persons at the national level, the density growing up to even 85% in the Bucharest-Ilfov and South-East regions. The number is also high in the industry field representing a little more over two thirds. The most part (85%) from the industry employed in the industry field work in private companies. The autonomous administrations and the state capital companies having still a big representation from this point of view.

The services employers

The deep structural changes of the economy from a period of about a decade and a half of transition are visible in the new structure of occupation of the activity fields. If in 1990 the industry held about half of the employees' number, after twenty years the services represent the main sector as source for places of work (Zamfir, 2011).

Table 7: Occupation on economical activity fields at the national level in the South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov regions

Field	National (%)	South-East (%)	Buc.-Ilfov (%)
commerce	14,5	16,6	13,0
Other services	13,2	9,2	22,3
Extractive, manufacturing industry, utilities	13,1	13,8	9,3
teaching	10,5	10,0	8,2
health	7,8	7,8	8,9
Protection, public order, guarding	7,8	6,6	6,8
Light industry	7,5	6,2	2,1
constructions	7,3	7,1	6,5
Public administration	5,4	6,2	2,1
transports	4,9	6,9	9,7
informatics	2,0	0,6	2,2
agriculture	1,6	2,5	0,9
telecommunications	1,5	2,9	1,4
media, publicity	1,2	0,4	4,1
Banks, financial intermediations	1,0	2,3	2,1
others	0,7	0,9	0,4
total	100	100	100

Source: Integrate data base.

As an activity field, the services hold a very heterogeneous variation of occupations. According to the wages' level there can be identified three sub segments. The better payee employers from the Romanian economy are the over 200.000 persons that activate in the bank - financial sector, communication (mainly landline phones and mobile one also but also the media) and the software production. The monthly gross medium wages is over 3.100 gross, a similar value with the under 4.000 employees from the air transports. Over all, about 5% of the total number of employed persons is to be found in this area. As it is expected, these are superior studies persons mostly resident in the big urban area.

In the second sub segment there are to be found the employed persons from the sector of services that go too little over the medium wages' level. Most of them are to be found in transports, less the air ones and logistics (almost 250.000 persons). Little less activate in real estate intermediations where, as a result of the economical crisis that began at the end of the 2008 there are left less than 20.000 employed. The third sub segment from the services area holds the ones that are payee under the value of the medium gross wages' level. The commerce employees are the most numerous in this category, almost 680.000 at the national level. The less payee places of work from the services' sector are to be found in the area of the administrative and support services as well as in the hotels, restaurants and sheltering (HORECA).

About a half from the employed persons' number in the services sectors activate in the commerce area. In the South-East development region the commerce has a similar level with the national one of about 16% from the total of the employees, while some other services cumulate less than 10%. In the development region Bucharest-Ilfov, in services – others than the commerce, there activate over 22% of the employed persons, being followed by the commerce area with 13%.

As concerning the schooling level, there is a correlation at a national level between the high school graduates and the employment in services. About half of the employees that have medium studies are to be found in this activity field, except the development region of Bucharest-Ilfov, where 36% of the high school graduates activate in the services. The women represent the majority number of the services workers with 62% at the national level and in the development region Bucharest-Ilfov growing up to even 71,5% in the South-East region.

The occupational types from the services sector are the ones where we find younger persons from the age category to less than 35 years old, especially the ones that formed between the two decades since the revolution. From this age category prevails the intellectual occupations that benefited by the explosion of the faculty graduated number and workers in services and commerce, representative for the reorientation of the economical profile from the one industrially prevalent to the one based on services. The services workers from the same age category represent 28% at the national level, 29, 5% in the evolution area from Bucharest-Ilfov and 40% in the evolution region of the South-East.

The public sector employees

The public instructions, the administration respectively, the public services and the ones from the protection and public order field employ almost 12% from the national employed persons. In the South-East development region, the number of the employed in the public sector is bigger, of about 15% while in Bucharest-Ilfov lowers to about 9, 5%. The relative structure comparing with the employer's type is significantly different in the development region Bucharest-Ilfov comparing with the development national region from the South-East. The private sector holds a significantly bigger level. This doesn't mean that the universal public services and the administration have a too high level outside the big urban agglomeration and that the private sector is less developed. In very precise terms and comparing with the inhabitants' number, the employees from the public sector are sensibly equal as regions' disposal. What is different if the available number of work places in the private sector.

Other enterprises with patrimonial purpose, autonomous administrations, national or commercial societies with state integral or majority capital employ approximately 27% from the national employed persons, a little bit less than a fifth in the development region from the South-East and around 22% in the development region from Bucharest-Ilfov.

Table 8: The employer's type at the national level in the South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov regions

Employer's type	National (%)	South-East (%)	Buc.-Ilfov (%)
Public institution	11,9	14,8	9,4
State company	27,1	19,4	21,7
Private company	59,9	64,9	68,1
non-profit	1,1	0,9	0,8
	100	100	100

Source: Integrate data base.

The teaching and health wages level is under the medium gross wages with 12% respectively 21%. As concerning the administration and protection payment, the bigger wages incomes from the justice, national protection and foreign affairs raise the medium to over 1 800 lei.

From all the work segments, in the public sector is to be met the biggest number of the persons with superior studies, a fact that is to be noticed from the intellectual solicited jobs in the public services, especially the teaching. Among the employees from the public sector, about 30% at the national level, 38% in the South-East region and almost 57% in the development region from Bucharest-Ilfov have superior studies of long or short term.

The women are predominant in the public services (62, 3%. Among those, the most womanized sectors are the health and the teaching, while in the public order and protection are to be found rather men. In the development region from the South-East, the superior studies persons and the colleges graduates represent 57, 5% from the employees of the public sector.

The free lancers

The free lancers' segment which is of about 100.000 persons at the national level holds persons that have superior studies and intellectual occupations, resident in the urban field. As for the numerical point of view, most of them have financial, fiscal or managerial and judicial conciliation consultancy activities. As a fiscal registration form, only a part of them are exclusively registered as authorized experts or in individual cabinets. Another numerically consistent part activate in profile societies with a low number of partners and employees. The medium gross wages in these societies is of over 2.300 lei place the persons from this work market segment in the superior part of the wages' incomes after the better payee from the services and industry.

The consolidative - cooperative segment. The occupation level in the social economy field

Among the work market's segments, the consolidative – cooperative sector is to be distinguished by the atypical situation of the persons that activate in the non profit organizations and the cooperative societies. On a side, the employer is not motivated firstly by the logic of the economical profit as in the private sector, and, on the other side, the level of involvement and decision in the organization is totally different comparing with the public sector. From these points of view we may underline that the persons that activate in ES type entities are part of this segment of the work market.

At the level of the European institutions, the social economy term started to be used since 1989 (Westland, 2003). The General commissariat for Occupancy and Social Business included in this category four types of employers taking into consideration the organization form:

- cooperative;
- mutual organizations or societies;
- associations;
- Foundations.

In the year 2002-2003 these four types of organizations registered as employed over 11 million persons representing 6.7% from the employees from the 15 member states of that period and other candidate states that were to subscribe in 2004. From the 11,2 million employees, 3,6 million activated in the cooperates sector, about 350.000 were employed by the mutual societies and 7, 1 million were employed in associations and foundations. Inside the EU member states, the social economy sector is presented as heterogeneous as to the judicial and organizational and functioning forms, the self identification to the sector's membership and official recognition (CIRIEC, 2007).

As concerning the definition of the ES, there are to be met in the scientifically literature different and various points of view as well as much more convex concepts, such as the third sector, the non profit sector, the social sector and the solitary economy (Westland, 2003). One of the debated themes is addition of the social enterprise at the admitted list of the European official represented (Cace, 2010, pg. 38 – 41). Considered as being an emerging phenomenon at the level of the evolved economies, with different acknowledges in the USA and Europe, the social enterprise "is perceived in the general way as an innovative business model that fulfills both social and economical objectives, contributing to the integration on the work market, social inclusion and economical development" (Noya, 2009, pg.14).

In Romania, the ES concept is relatively new, introduced altogether with the European integration process. One of the Social European Fund axes for the period 2007 – 2013 is dedicated to the social economy. Anyway, the cooperates or mutual type organizations have a long lasting tradition while the foundations and the associations met a spectacular numerical raise after the revolution from 1989. A present research concerning the social economy of Romania identified the following types of entities that can be framed in the sector of the social economy (Arpinte et al., 2010, pg. 53 -3 67):

- ONGs (of different types);
- Special regime companies (protected workshops);
- Mutual help houses (of the employed or the retired);
- Cooperatives (for accreditation, consume, crafts, for praising, farming, buildings, fishing, transports, forest);
- Retired person's associations.

Starting from this classification, the primary analysis from the data of the three samples and the secondary analysis of the INS data underlines an occupational level in the social economy much lower in Romania comparing with the rest of the European states, even comparing with some other central European states.

According to the CIRIEC study, at the moment of the EU enlargement in 2004 there was to be registered a difference between the 10 new member states where the level of the persons employed in the social economy area was of about 4,2% from the total of the employed comparing with a medium level of 7% from the 15 member states from that time. In the national sample only 1,1% from the employed declared as employer a non governmental organization (ONG), respectively 0,9% from the developing region of the South-East and 0,8% in the development region from the Bucharest-Ilfov region.

Table 9: The number of the employed from the cooperates sector and their number from the total employed persons at the national level, in the development regions from the South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov

	1993	%	2000	%	2009	%
Total	263.482	3,9	117.857	2,5	48.769	1,0
South-East region	34.365	4,0	10.482	1,9	11.672	2,1
Brăila	4.317	3,6	1.357	1,9	494	0,7
Buzău	7.130	5,3	1.302	1,7	4.967	6,1
Constanța	8.829	3,4	2.930	1,7	3.177	1,7
Galați	7.021	3,6	3.171	2,3	1.437	1,2
Tulcea	3.375	5,0	692	1,4	465	1,1
Vrancea	3.693	4,4	1.030	1,7	1.132	2,0
Buc. – Ilfov Region	25.309	2,6	11.858	1,7	8.470	0,9
Ilfov	-	-	554	1,0	-	-
Bucharest	-	-	11.304	1,7	-	-
Bucharest - incl. SAI	25.309	2,6	-	-	8.470	1,0

Source: INS, Tempo.

The INS data from the work force's investigation in the households (see table 9) offers an image about the occupational decline in the cooperative sector in the last two decades. In 1993, where there were gathered the data on the employed number according to the property form in the territorial profile, there activated in the corporatist sector over 260.000 persons of a national level, representing approximately 4% of the employers' number. A similar level was registered in the districts that were to represent afterwards the South-East region, while for the Bucharest-Ilfov region the level was of 2, 6%. In less than a decade, a period in which Romania went over two severe economical fall periods, the corporatist sector was to loose over half of the employed number, even almost 70% in the South-East development region. In the following years, although the economy had a development on almost all the duration of the decade, the number of employed persons from the corporatist sector continued to lower at the national level in a much bigger rhythm. In 2009, comparing with the beginning of the decade, other 59% of the employed persons left the corporatist sector. In the South-East development region, the tendency was of keeping and even of slow development of the employed number. The Buzau district is to be highlight by the share in the entire region (42%). In the development region Bucharest-Ilfov the employer's number in the corporatist sector lowered in the same period with almost 30%.

As concerning the occupational dynamics in the last two decades in the sector of the social economy, we may say that the transition affected strongly the number of employed persons from the traditional entities from inside the social economy such as the cooperatives. In the same time, new forms appeared such as the ONGs, they didn't redress this lowering so as the sector of the Romanian social economy, as employed number, undersized in comparison with its level in some other European states from the same part of the European continent as Romania.

The work schedule

The work schedule isn't that different between the three samples. The rule being the full time contract, being used in over 95% of the cases. The contract situations of half time job were mentioned by under 4% of the interviewed persons. These, as well as the contracts with limited period of work are some rule exceptions usually used by the persons that have more work contracts in parallel for not exceeding the legal work hours that are accepted a week according to the work legislation.

Table 10: The work schedule at the national level in the South-East developing regions and the Bucharest-Ilfov

The work schedule	National (%)	South-East (%)	Bucharest-Ilfov (%)
Full time work	97,0	95,1	96,8
Half time work	2,6	4,0	2,9
Limited time work	0,3	0,9	0,3
total	100	100	100

Source: Integrate data base.

Judicial employment forms

The judicial employment form more often used in about 90% of the cases is the full time work contract. The limited time work contract was declared by about 8% of the employed from the national sample and the one from the South-East development region and by only 6.2% from the ones from the Bucharest-Ilfov region. Other judicial employment forms such as the civil collaboration convention, the copyright contract and the providing services contract on PFA or firm weren't reported. The weak reporting of some other employment forms except the work contract may have many more causes; either there was declared only the main work place, nor the subjects have full trust in the reported data confidentiality, or some other incomes except the ones from the work place are not perceived as being employment forms.

Table 11: the type of the employment form at the national level, in the South-Eastern development regions and Bucharest-Ilfov

Type of contract	National (%)	South-East (%)	Bucharet-Ilfov (%)
Work contract, undetermined period	89,1	88,8	90,5
Work contract, determined period	7,9	8,3	6,2
Civil collaboration convention	1,4	0,9	2,5
Services performance contract (firm, PFA)	0	0	0
Copyright contract	0	0	0
No kind of contract	1,6	2,1	0,9
Total	100	100	100

Source: The Integrate data base.

As concerning the "black work" market, with no work contract, only 1,6% from the employed of the national sample, 2.1% from the South-East development region and 0.9% from the Bucharest-Ilfov development region reported such situations. Especially in this case there is the possibility that some of the persons not to have declared because of the uncertainty of the declared data.

The governess among the persons that work

The governess affect even he persons that get a monetary consideration for the performed work[1], this representing a special category of vulnerable persons.

[1] *In the Occidental scientifically literature is used the term of working poor from the English language; in the Romanian language, the term refers to the persons that get a precarious remuneration for the work they do and, although they work they are poor; the term doesn't refer to the poor person in general that work whatever they find*

Although a place of work is perceived as a way of avoiding poorness, the income some persons get from their work, isn't sufficient to assure a level of living outside the poorness. The analyze of the poor persons that work supposes first the defining of (1) what we understand by working persons and (2) which is the poorness limit.

As we have seen above, the persons that work are the busy and active ones formally or informally that belong to the following categories: employed, patrons/ administrators, free lancers, farmers, agricultural and non agricultural journey workers.

In Romania, there are used many definitions and methodologies of counting the poorness, the most important from al these being the ones concerning the absolute poorness and the relative poorness. In the situation of the absolute poorness there are to be found the persons from the households where the consume spending per adult person are lower than the limit of the absolute poorness, which represent the monetary equivalent of a minimum alimentary basket and of base non alimentary goods and services. The minimum alimentary basket is estimated to assure minimum necessary calories a day. In the relative poorness we may find the persons from the households where the available equivalent income an adult is under the established limit of 60% from the median value at the national level.

The consume or the equivalent adult's income is counted to compare the situation of the persons from different types of household depending on the number and the type of members (children, active or inactive adult persons). Obviously, a child or old persons consume less than an active age person. The equalization is to be realized using the OECD scales, existing two ways, the "original" one and the "modified one". The last one is the most often used one in the last years (OECD, 2008). The head of the household is equalized with 1, any other adult member with 0, 5% and the children with 0,3% each. The value of the limits at the beginning of the 2011 was established to 258, 9 for the absolute poorness and 512, 5 lei for the relative poorness (MMFPS, 2011). Specifically for Romania is the inclusion of the auto consumption in the value of these limits because of the high level of the resident population from the rural environment and who practices the subsistence farming. The auto consumption is equalized with the market value of the cultivated and consumed farming products inside their own households.

The comparisons at the European level concerning the number of the poor persons that work is made using the relative poorness limit. According to the most present data from 2009, the governess risk of the ones that work is the highest from Europe, respectively 17,9% in comparison with the European limit of 8,4% (Zamfir, 2011, 59). In 2006, the number of the poor that were working was estimated at about 1 million persons and the number of the persons from the households that had poor persons that work was of 2, 3 million. In the same time almost a third from the persons near the absolute poorness limit was poor people that were working. Their number at the territorial level was higher in the North – East South-East and South – West regions (Stanculescu, 2008).

The empirical analysis that is going to follow is trying to identify the level of the poor that work from the total of the busy population, meaning busy persons that are in the households where the available equivalent income per adult person is under the absolute poorness level established officially in 2011 at 258, 9 lei. The precision of the exposed data is unavoidably subject to some limitations that derive from the respondents' tendency of not declaring the exact value of the formal or informal incomes and the underestimated of the most poor segments and of the most prosperous of the population. Also, the data do not contain the equalization of the self consumption but only data about the income, the subjects having the freedom of selecting from different income intervals. The size of the samples is the standard one from the social research, but inferior to the samples of thousands do hundred thousands used by the National Statistics Institute. According to the results of the analysis on the INS samples, the Roma are confronting with a disproportionate risk of being poor although they work (Stanculescu, 2008). In the case of the available samples for analyses, the very reduced number of persons that declared themselves of Roma ethnic didn't allow an analysis of this kind.

So, we consider that it is possible the drawing of a general image concerning the situation of the poor that work on three levels: national, the development region of South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov. The profile of the poor that work is realized by comparison with the busy persons that are outside the level of the absolute poorness.

The density of the poor that are working from the total of the busy persons is of 16,9% at the national level, 18,6% in the development area from the South-East and under 1% in the region Bucharest-Ilfov. These values underline the general economical evolving level on regions.

The poor that work are mostly in the *rural area* (71% at the national level and 70% in the development region from the South-East). The urban environment does not form an homogenous category. The risk of being poor and working is going down proportionally with the size of the urban area. The men are confronted with a bigger risk of poorness from working than the women. The level of the poor that work among the men was double than to the women (68% at the national level and 65% in the development region from South-East for men, comparing with 32% respectively 35% for women).

Inside the family, the civil positioning does not represent a factor to influence the risk of poorness from work. On the other hand, *the number of children* is an important factor. At the national level, 36% from the poor than are working are from households with three or more children although it doesn't represent even 12% from the total of he households having at least an active person. In the developing region of the South-East almost a quarter of the poor that work come from households that have 3 or more children, representing less than 9% from the total of the households of this kind.

The persons with a low *educational level* are the most part of the poor that work: 79% at the national level and 75% in the South-East region have no more than ten classes as studies. *The new entered on the work market* represent a much higher risk of being poor. More than one from five persons with a total age in the work field of about 5 years is under the poorness level, the risk being three times lower for the ones with a bigger age.

As from the occupational status, the groups with the highest risk are *the farmers and the journey workers*. The farmers represent almost a third of the poor that work at the national level and about 20% in the development region from the South-East. The journey workers employed with no contract form the category with the highest risk although the number of the respondents that declared themselves in this situation isn't too high.

In conclusion, the most part of the poor that work, both at the national level and the evolution region from the South-East are men, resident in the rural environment with a reduced qualification level, without attending the high school, with a short period on the work market. From these, the poorness risk is even higher from the ones from the households with at least three children that work as farmers or journey workers without legal papers.

6. ES services accessed by the employed

The ES services that the employed go to the more often are for the lawns given by the mutual helping houses of the employed. Over 8% from the legal workers at the national level declared that a person from their own household looked for these kind of services in 2010 – 2011. In the developing region Bucharest-Ilfov, their number is very low, of only 3,3% while in the developing region South-East it goes up to 16%. The difference between the two development regions is explainable by the general level of economical development and the characteristics of the local economy. In Bucharest, the wages incomes are bigger and the access to the bank accreditation, of consume or mortgage is much easier to be done.

For the legal workers from the region South-East the accreditation system by saving such as the CARs borrowings are more accessible than the banking accreditation. This fact is to be noticed from the number of the persons that declare themselves content and very content with the conditions of borrowing from CARs, respectively almost 90%. As concerning the profile of he persons that make CAR lawns, almost half of them have high school studies and a third work in the industry field. The legal workers that need CAR lawns aren't only the ones with small incomes, but they belong to all income categories.

The CARs notoriety isn't to be reflected in the degree of accessing its financial offered services. At the national level, 57% of the employee declared that they have made at least one CAR lawn and form these ones, 14% have already accessed in the last year a lawn. In the developing region Bucharest-Ilfov almost two thirds of the employee respondents know at least a CAR but only 4,9% of all these needed its services. Finally, 61% of the employee respondents in the South-East region know about the existence of at leas one CAR and over a quarter of them have accessed a lawn in the last year.

The services offered by other ES forms, such as craft cooperatives, of accreditation, of consume, ONGs, etc, are not generally accessed by the employees. Very rarely, the employee respondents' number that accessed this kind of services is over 1%. In the ONGs situation there is to be noticed a big difference concerning their notoriety. In the evolution region Bucharest-Ilfov, almost two thirds of the employee respondents know about at least one ONG. On the other hand, only 47,8% from the employee respondents of the national sample and 39% from the one of the developing region South-East know an ONG.

7. Conclusions

The success of a person on the work market is strongly influenced by his or her education, age, residency environment and gender. Especially the educational level represents a strong predictor of the occupational status. Over 80% form the active age persons that have university studies are busy. The chance of life of being born or living in the urban area raises significantly the probability of a person to be busy. This is even bigger for the residents of the big urban agglomerations, of the towns with over 200.00 inhabitants. Over 56% from the active age population of these districts is busy. The age and the gender represent two factors that promote parts of the active age population in some others detriment. So, over 84% of the busy persons are under 50 years old. In the context of the extension of retirement age's delay to 65 year for men and 63 year for women, this tendency accentuates a social problem. As concerning the gender, the men have a higher probability of getting a job than the women. 56% of the men with active age are busy comparing with 40% of the women. The Roma ethnic persons go on to have low probability of success on the work market.

As concerning the segmentation of the work market, this derives from the structure of the Romanian economy, respectively from the lowering of the industrial activity and a bigger number of services, although, the most part of the work places from this sector are counting on a reduced added value, a thing that is to be noticed in the wages level. From the legal workers' profile, there is to be noticed the continuous tendency of masculinizing of some occupations and activity fields, respectively to womanize some others. The industry, building and protection, the public order and guarding are masculinizing while the public services, especially the teaching and the health are womanized. At the level of the occupations, the women are predominant in the intellectual occupations that need a superior preparing but also in the category of the commerce and services workers, that need only a medium training. On the other hand, the men category dominates the qualified workers category. In the public sector, both the state companies and the public services on one side and the private sector on the other, there is to be noticed a difference as concerning the need of work force. There is to be manifested in the public sector a need for the personal with high qualifications, with intellectual occupations that need university and post university studies, but where the wages are low. The private sector employers especially the persons that have medium studies, representing a need for the persons that have low or at least medium know ledges, competencies and skills. Such a structuring of the work force go to serious questions concerning the perspective development of the Romanian economy.

The poor that work represent a significant number among the busy persons: 16.9% at the national level, 18.6% in the South-East development region and under 1% in the developing region of Bucharest-Ilfov. As concerning the profile of these persons, most of them are men, residents in the rural area with a low qualification level that didn't graduate the high school and have a low experience on the work field. The poverty risk is rising for the ones from the households that have at least three children and work without any work contract as farmers or journey workers. For these persons the getting out of poverty means the access to a place of work better payee, but which is improbable to happen for the actual training level. These would be allowed for the projecting the services offer by the ES entities towards this group of vulnerable persons.

How do the ES entities situate themselves on the work market in Romania? Presently, the social economy services that are most frequently accessed by the employees are the lawns offered by the mutual helping houses. On the other hand, the transition meant a massive loss of work places especially for the entities from the corporatist system that had a tradition in Romania. So, the social economical sector from Romania is undersized as employee's number comparing with its level in other European states from the same area.

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INVOLVEMENT IN SOCIAL ECONOMY. GENDER APPROACHES AND CHARACTERISTICS

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Abstract: *The analysis included in this study started from two questions: how much is the involvement of vulnerable women in social economy organisations an alternative to reduce their risk of social exclusion? Can we speak of a "feminization" of the social economy in Romania? This study approaches the problem of women protection at the international and national level and analyses the data collected during the sociological survey from the project „INTEGRAT – resources for the socially excluded Roma women and groups". We analysed both the potential of women participation, and their involvement in the surveyed social economy organisations.*

Keywords: *social economy, gender, women, vulnerable groups, social exclusion*

1. Regulations regarding the improvement of women situation

Immediately after World War Two ended, the freshly established United Nations organisation (UN) paid particular attention to the international promotion of human rights. The establishment of the Commission for Human Rights supported this action. The new framework used to approach the human rights allowed the adoption of measures improving the situation of women.

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The priority given to the observance of the political rights for women was largely due to the specific context existing after World War Two, in which just a handful of countries acknowledged and conformed to these rights. A first step towards solving this situation was the establishment in 1946 of a subcommission dedicated exclusively to the status of women. Initially organised within the UN Commission for Human Rights, the main goal of the subcommission was to develop a chart of women rights. The proposal forwarded in 1946 was rejected by the mother body, the UN organisation. The evaluation of the potential impact of the cold war on the proper functioning of the UN, lead to the conclusion that the activity of the subcommission might be paralysed. On these grounds, the two structures were separated as of 1946 and remained subordinated to the same international organisation.

The first notable success was the modification of the preamble to the Universal Declaration of the Human Rights. The text adopted in 1948 changed from "all men and brothers" to "all human beings are born free and with equal dignity and rights". The activity of the Commission resulted in the adoption in 1952 of the Convention on the Political rights for the Women".

One of the main documents which regulates the situation of women is the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) ratified starting with 1980. The signatory countries were: Sweden, Cuba, Guyana, Poland, Portugal, Laos, Dominica, Barbados, China, Cape Verde and Hungary. Romania ratified the convention in 1982 in the third wave of signatory countries: Columbia, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Vietnam, Austria, Congo, Guinea, Guatemala, Dominica Republic, Peru and Santa Lucia. A total of 164 states from Europa, Asia, Africa and Latin America ratified CEDAW Convention until 1997.

At the European level, the fight against social exclusion is a joint preoccupation of then member states. While the risk of poverty deepens for those who already are vulnerable, under the impact of the socio-economic environment, the policy of minimal guaranteed income must be improved in agreement with the needs and in correlation with the active policies for inclusion on the labour market (Popescu, 2009, p. 175). The recommendations regarding the measures to balance the family life with the professional life include the regulation of vacations and of the children rising facilities, as well as the equal opportunities for men and women (Segalen, 2011, p. 401-402).

At the national level, the concern to improve the situation of women and the elimination of discrimination against women is a constant preoccupation being mentioned among the governance goals (Parlamentul României, 2009, p. 16).

The main regulations whose purpose is to protect women or to improve their situation are: Law 48/2002 approving the Governmental Decision 137/2000 regarding the prevention and sanctioning of all forms of discrimination and Law 217/2003 regarding the prevention and control of family violence.

In terms of institutions, in 2006 the National Agency for Equal Opportunity of Men and Women (ANES) and the National Agency for Women Protection were established. With the view to improve the situation of the vulnerable groups, women particularly, ANES concluded in 2008 collaboration protocols with ANOFM and ANR (MMFPS, 2010, p. 4). Both institutions were thereafter discontinued and their attributions taken over by MMFPS according to art. 2 from OUG 68/2010b, regarding some measures for MMFPS reorganisation and for the reorganisation of the institutions in its subordination, coordination or authority.

2. *Profile of the women potentially involved in social economy organisations*

This subchapter analyses the main characteristics of the women respondents from the samples regarding the demand for social economy.

Table. 1 Occupational structure of the respondents[1]

	South-ast region		Bucharest-Ilfov region		National sample	
	male	female	male	female	male	female
	col %	***col %***	***col %***	***col %***	***col %***	***col %***
1 Employee	32%	29%	46%	37%	32%	29%
2 Company owner, administrator	3%	3%	5%	2%	2%	1%
3 Freelancer, licensed private person	2%	1%	2%	0%	3%	0%
4 Agricultural worker	4%	1%	0%	0%	4%	1%
5 Casual worker, non-agriculture	2%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%
6 Casual worker, agriculture	2%	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%
7 Registered unemployed	4%	2%	2%	1%	5%	4%
8 Unregistered unemployed	19%	8%	9%	13%	16%	8%
9 Pensioner	26%	31%	27%	37%	29%	37%
10 Housewife	2%	21%	1%	5%	1%	16%
11 Pupil, student	4%	4%	7%	5%	4%	3%
Total N	752	802	536	626	578	624

Source: Integrated, IQLR, 2011

[1] % of total men/women

No significant differences can be noticed regarding the employees between the national level and the South-East region, the figure being around 30% for both genders. Differences exist in Bucharest-Ilfov region, with 46% employed men and just 37% employed women, but this is under the conditions in which there are more retired women. The company owners, the freelancers, the agricultural workers and the casual workers are categories where men and more numerous than women. Overall, there are more men than women working (44% of the men and 32-34% of the women at the national level and in the South-East region, and 53% of the men and 39% of the women in Bucharest-Ilfov region). The differences between the rural and urban areas are rather small when analysing the same educational categories.

Table 2. Factors influencing the employment opportunity

	Employment opportunity		
	South East region	Bucharest-Ilfov region	National sample
Is woman	---	--	---
Is middle aged	+++++	+++++	+++++
Number of school years	++++	++++	++++
Is Roma ethnic	-		
Has a large family		-	
Has chronic disease	--	--	---
Lives in urban areas	++		

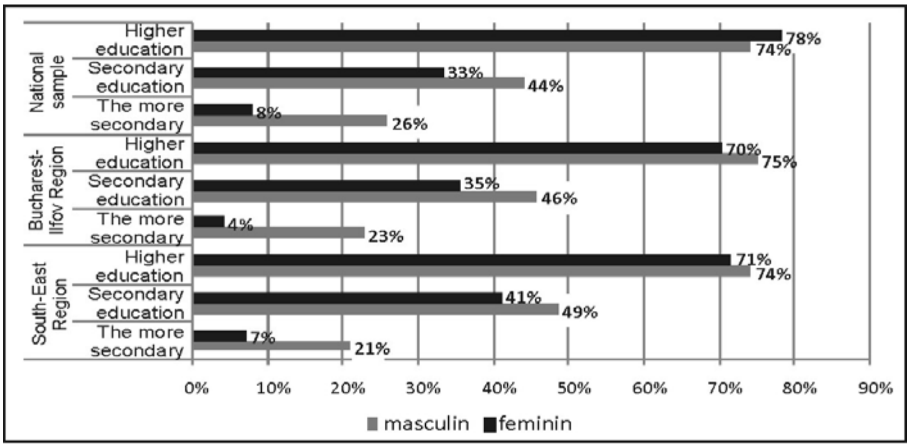
Source: Integrated, IQLR, 2011.

Logistic regression. *The symbols in the table show positive or negative influences of the characteristic from that line on the opportunity of getting a job. The higher is the number of "+" or "-", the stronger is the relation.*

The differences remain when we refer to the residence, age, education, ethnic group, size of the household and health state, as can be seen from the above table; however, they have a less important role in explaining the participation on the labour market than age and education. I can be noticed that the male persons who are not too young, not too old, who have a higher level of education, have no chronic disease, have the highest odds to get employed. Separating by educational level, we notice that the difference between men and women is very large for the people who graduated at most the middle school (4% of the women with middle school from the South-East region are employed, compared to 23% of the men with middle school education). The differences are lower for the people with medium education and not significant for the people with higher education: 70-80% of the men and women with higher education degrees have a job, thus confirming the data from World Bank Report (Diaconu M., 2004).

From the perspective of the level of education, we notice the existence of a common trend among the three samples (South-Eastern region, Bucharest-Ilfov and the national sample): preponderance of the properly educated women, followed by the women with medium education, the graduates of middle school at most being on the last position. Except for the national sample (category with higher education), we notice that at all levels of education analysed, women account for lower proportions than men. If at the level of the higher education the differences are small (75% women graduates compared to 75% men graduates in Bucharest-Ilfov and 71% women graduates compared to 74% men graduates in South-East), the differences increase proportionally with the decrease of the level of education. Practically, at the level of the graduates of the middle school at most, the number of men exceeds at least three times that of women. The largest differences were recorded in Bucharest-Ilfov, with 4% women who graduated no more than the middle school compared to 23% men with similar educational level.

Chart 1: Participation on the labour market depending on the education and gender[1]



Source: Integrated, IQLR, 2011.

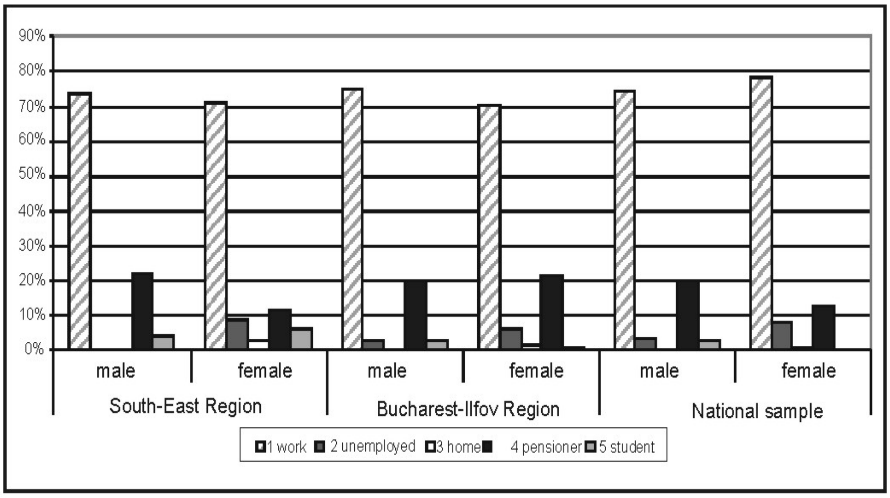
1 % of men/women with no more than middle school education, men/women with medium education, men/women with higher education

A first conclusion of the analysis is that the feminine population has a higher level of education, which increases the opportunities for insertion in economic activities in general, including in social economy organisations.

To nuance this conclusion, we analysed thoroughly the data related to the status on the labour market. Following are the results of intersecting each category presented above with the status of employee, unemployed, housewife, pensioner or pupil.

The women graduates of higher education are preponderantly active persons working in a job. At a significant difference are the pensioned women followed by the unemployed women. From the perspective of insertion on the labour market, the women graduates of higher education have a high potential for insertion.

Chart 2: Status of the higher education graduates on the labour market [1]

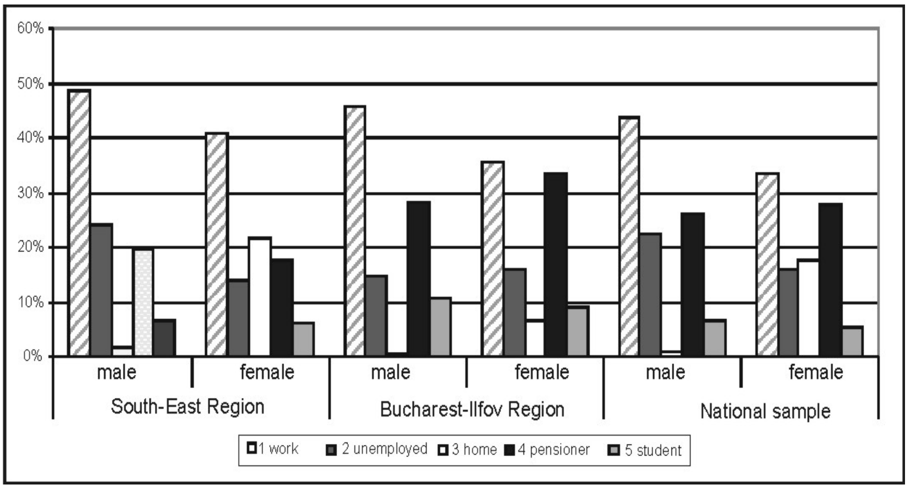


Source: Integrated, IQLR, 2011

The pattern shown above holds in the case of the women graduates of medium education, except the lower difference between the employed and unemployed or pensioned persons. Otherwise said, the proportion of pensioned women and of the unemployed women is higher than that of employed women.

[1] % of men/women with no more than middle school education, men/women with medium education, men/women with higher education

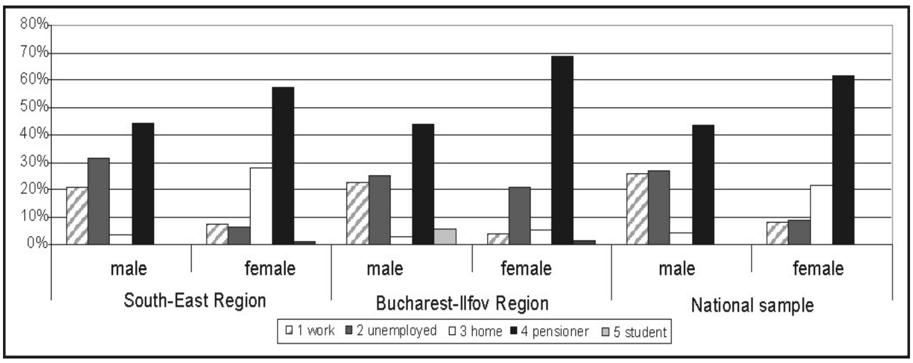
Chart 3: Status of the medium education graduates on the labour market



Source: Integrated, IQLR, 2011.

The pattern of distribution of the graduates depending on their status on the labour market changes significantly for the people who graduated no more than the middle school. The number of retired persons is the highest, followed by the unemployed persons. The employed persons are on the third position.

Chart 4: Status of the middle education graduates on the labour market



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011

In conclusion, we may say that the pattern of workforce employment by level of education differs with the graduated level of education. The higher is the educational level, the higher is the employment rate.

Since the subsample of employed people is not large enough, we cannot supply percentages for the employment of men and women, but we can notice that at the national and regional levels men are more often skilled workers, while women work more in services and commerce, data consistent with World Bank report (BM, 2008c). Of the people with higher education, women work more in areas such as health care and education, while men work more in the army or police. Except for Bucharest-Ilfov region, women represent the majority in the public administration.

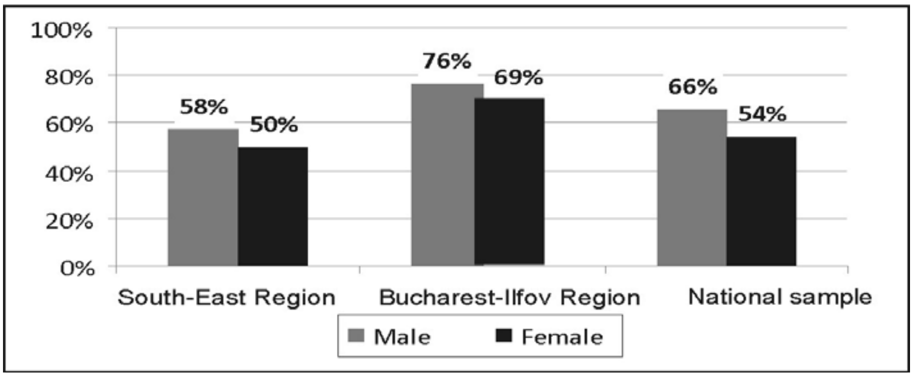
The average work history is 12-15 years in all surveyed regions. Women have a smaller work history in South-East and at the national level, but not in Bucharest-Ilfov region. The average length of the work history in the last job is 7-9 years, small differences between men and women being noticed in the South-East region.

About 90% of the working men and women have a work contract on undetermined period, and about 95% of them work full time. The part-time jobs for women, phenomenon observed in some EU countries (BM, 2008c) is not noticeable in Romania. In Bucharest-Ilfov and South-East regions, about 65% of the employees work in private companies and 35% in public institutions or state companies; more men are working in the private companies and slightly more women work in the public environment. We could not observe here the 10-20% differences in the income of men and women noticed by other studies (BM, 2008c).

Of the unemployed people, there are more retired women than men (37% vs. 27% at the national level and in Bucharest-Ilfov, 31% vs. 26% in South-East region). 16% of the women in Romania and 21% of the women in South-East region stated to be housewives (the percentage for men can be disregarded). In Bucharest the percentage of housewives is 5%, the unoccupied women preferring to declare the state of unregistered unemployed person.

Of the jobless persons, more than half worked in the past, particularly the people from Bucharest, where the percentage rises to about three quarters. A slightly higher percentage of men than women worked in the past, as seen in Figure 1. The reason they are no longer working is collective sacking for 40-50% of the men and 28-33% of the women from South-East and at the national level, while the reasons are more varied in Bucharest-Ilfov. The women particularly mentioned medical reasons or child raising (about 10-15%, and en extremely low percentage for the men).

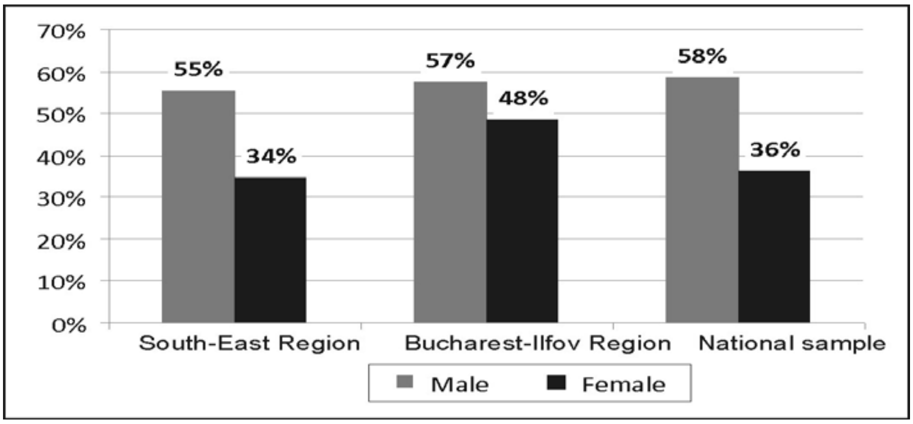
Chart 5: Work experience depending on the gender[1]



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

At the national level and in South-East, half of the men and more than a third of the women looked for a job, while in Bucharest the gender differences are not significant: 50-60% of the men and women had this initiative. On the other hand, just 10% of the men and women (slightly mode in Bucharest-Ilfov) declared that they received a job offer.

Chart 6: Proportion of the people who sought a job during the past year[2]



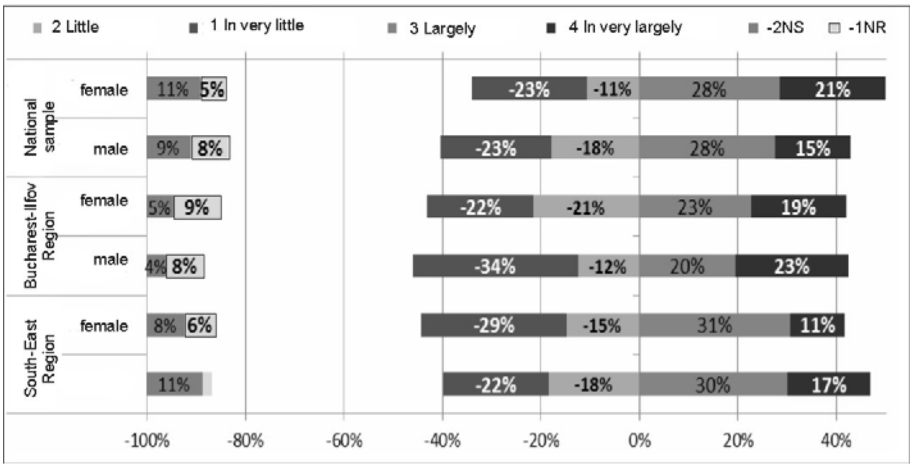
Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

[1] % proportion of the formerly employed, currently unemployed, of active age
[2] % proportion of the unemployed of active age who sought a job.

As reasons for not seeking a job, women claim especially the household responsibilities (about a third of the respondents), while the men mentioned resignation, self-consumption and continuing to study.

In close connection with the labour market experience, people estimate their odds for a job in the near future. The pessimism or optimism influence, in turn, the willingness to look for a job, so that the perception regarding the possibility to get a job in the future may be as important as the availability of jobs. Chart 7 shows that in Bucharest, the level of optimism is higher among women, about 23% of them considering that they will find a job, while just 19% of the men from Bucharest and less than 15% of the men and women from South-East region of development and at the national level consider this. Just 22% of the men from Bucharest are strongly pessimistic, compared to 34% of the women from Bucharest and about half of the inhabitants from South-East region of development and from the other regions. At the national level, women evaluate poorer their odds to get a job than men do.

Chart 7. Evaluation of the possibility to get a job in the future[1]



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011

There are many factors influencing optimism. The fact of having recently received a job offer, refused because of various reasons increases decisively the trust in the possibility to get a job in all regions. Then, the period which elapsed from the last job is an important factor in South-East region of development and in the country in

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[1] % of the men and women of active age who don't have a job

general: the people who had recently lost their job are more optimistic than those who had never worked or than the long-term unemployed. Age also is a factor in the two regions, the younger people being more optimistic, but this influence is not observed at the national level. The level of training is more important in Bucharest. The more educated people from Bucharest-Ilfov region of development also are trustier; the attendance of training courses has influence, but rather low (Table 3).

Briefly, the younger people, more trained, who left more recently the labour market and who had the opportunity to enter again the labour market are trustier in their odds to get a job. Taking these factors into account, gender matters at the national level, women being more resigned that they will not find a job, either because they don't want it, or because they considered they have little chances.

Table 3. Evaluation of the possibilities to get a job for the future

	South-East region		Bucharest-Ilfov region		National sample	
	Moderate	*Optimist*	*Moderate*	*Optimist*	*Moderate*	*Optimist*
Age	↘↘↘↘↘	↘↘↘↘	↘↘↘	↘↘↘↘	↘	
Years of school			↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗		↗↗
Number of children in the household			↘			
Is a women		↘		↘↘↘	↘↘↘↘	↘↘↘↘
Liver in urban area	↗		↗↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗	
Recently unemployed vs. didn't work before	↗↗↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗↗	↗	↗↗	↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗↗
Medium-term unemployed vs. didn't work before		↗↗↗↗				↗
Long-term unemployed vs. didn't work before	↗↗↗					
Attended training courses		↗		↗	↗	
Received job offer		↗↗↗↗	↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗	↗↗↗↗
Strength of explanation	27%		41%		25%	

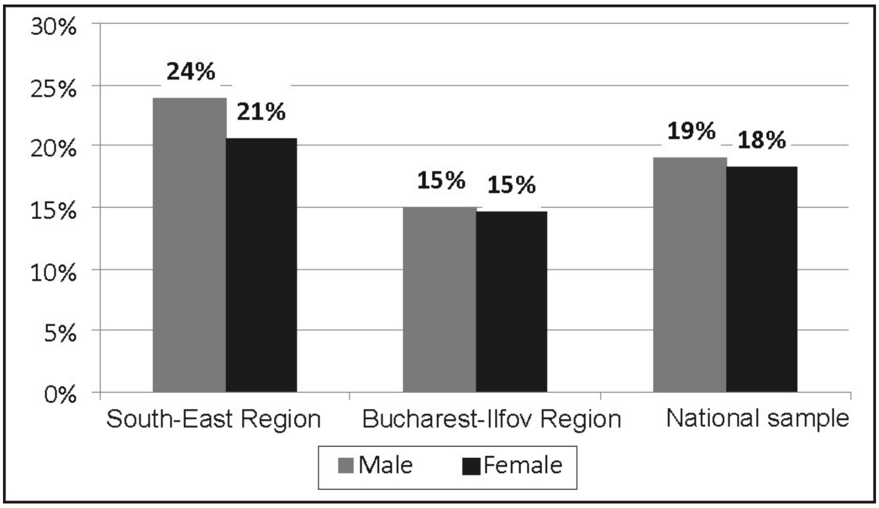
Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

Multinomial logistic regression. *The upward-pointing arrows show a positive influence of the characteristics from that line on optimism, while the downward-pointing arrows show a negative influence. The number of arrows shows the intensity. The moderate column shows the effects the effects on the odds to be "little" confident versus "very little", while the "optimist" column shows the effects of the odds to be "much or very much" compared to "very little".*

Reading example: *in South-East region of development there is a higher probability for the people who got a job offer to state that they will find a job in the future, than to state that they will certainly not find a job in the future, compared to the people who didn't get a job offer. However, there is not a higher probability that they state they are "little" confident that they will get a job than that they state they are "very little" confident that they will get a job, compared to the people who didn't get a job offer.*

An active strategy to increase the odds for employment of the people who passed the school age and who want to work is the attendance of training courses. There are not significant differences between men and women regarding the continuous formation. About 15-20% of the unemployed attended training courses for continuous formation.

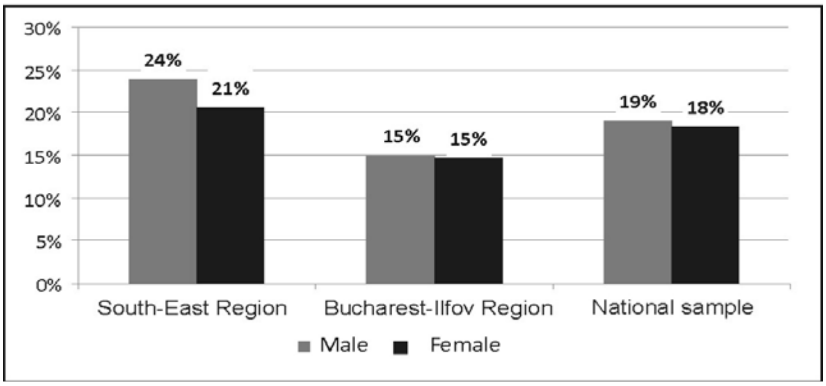
Chart 8: Participation in training courses[1] %



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

[1] % of unemployed persons of active age who attended training courses.

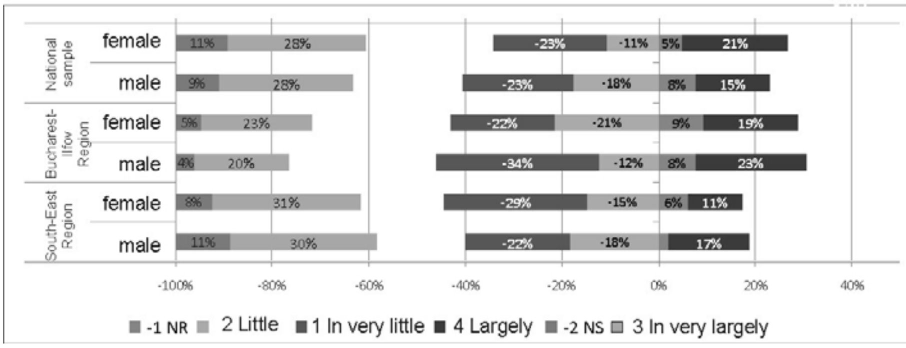
Chart 9: Proportion of the people who had a job offer which they turned down, %



Source: Integrated, IQLR, 2011.

The demand for training courses is much higher, because about half of the men and women who don't have a job are willing to attend formation courses, with no significant differences between regions or genders (Figure 6). Thus, the accessibility of this type of courses must be enhanced in order to include the people willing to get instruction, but who don't have this possibility because of financial reasons or because of the too long distance.

Chart 10: Willingness to attend formation/improvement courses during the subsequent period, %?[1]



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

[1] % of unemployed persons of active age

Another variant to work is to accept a job at a long distance from their home or to accept an unsafe job, solutions which are mentioned more often by the men. Regarding the financial aspirations, men would demand a higher job than the women (1200 compared to 1000 RON in Bucharest, 1000 compared to 850 at the national level; the differences were not significant in South-East region of development).

The perceived effects of the unemployment on the standard of living are strong (70-80% of the men and women consider that they were affected). The health state, the family relations and the trust in self are life aspects who affected about 20-30% of the men and women who don't have a job. The women from Bucharest-Ilfov region are slightly more affected than men, particularly regarding the self-esteem (35% vs. 22%). Otherwise, the gender differences are not significant.

3. Profile of the women involved in social economy organisations

Social economy usefulness for the women may take two forms: supplier of goods and services or employer. First, from the perspective of beneficiary, women can take loans from CAR units, the single mothers can ask assistance from the NGOs providing day care social services for their children, so that the mothers can participate in the labour market. In order to do that, the neighbouring social economy units must be known, first of all.

The INTEGRATED data show that there are not too large differences in terms of CAR, cooperative societies and NGOs visibility to the two genders. At the national level, men are more familiar with the employee CAR, with the credit cooperatives and with the consumption cooperatives, but the differences are not larger than 10%. In the regions of development these differences disappear, CAR visibility being higher to women.

Table 4. Visibility of social economy organisations among the men and women

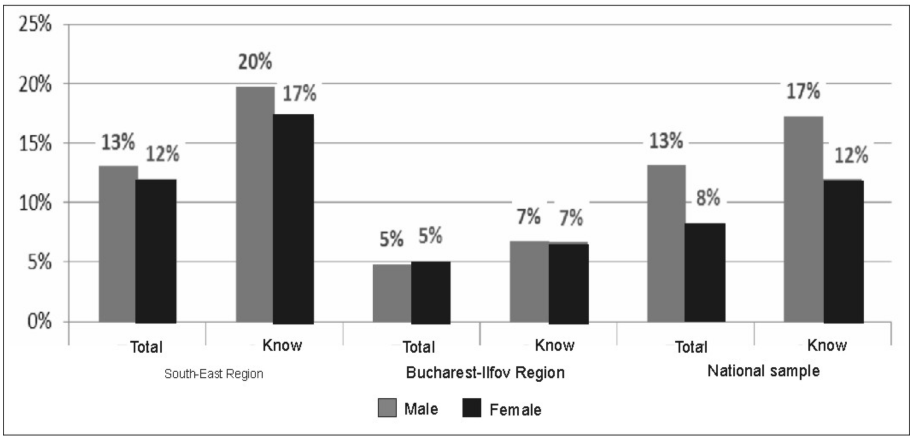
	South-East region		Bucharest-Ilfov region		National sample	
	Male	Female	M	F	M	F
	col %	***col %***	***col %***	***col %***	***col %***	***col %***
CARS	48%	49%	57%	57%	49%	43%
CARP	51%	56%	62%	69%	63%	58%
Credit COOP	47%	47%	34%	32%	45%	37%
Agric. COOP	23%	26%	15%	16%	17%	17%
SCM	21%	23%	25%	26%	18%	19%
Consumption	25%	27%	23%	23%	20%	16%

	South-East region		Bucharest-Ilfov region		National sample	
	Male	Female	M	F	M	F
	col %	*col %*	*col %*	*col %*	*col %*	*col %*
COOP						
UPA	15%	16%	15%	17%	13%	12%
NGO	25%	32%	51%	55%	30%	31%
Commons	7%	7%	6%	6%	8%	7%

Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

There are no significant differences between men and women in South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov regions of development regarding the use of the services provided by these organisations. At the national level, men use more often the services of these social economy organisations than women do (17% of the men knowing at least one organisation, compared to 12% of the women knowing at least one social economy organisation). Increasing the trust of women in these organisations might be a solution to equalise their utilization.

Chart 11. Use of social economy organisations services[1], %



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

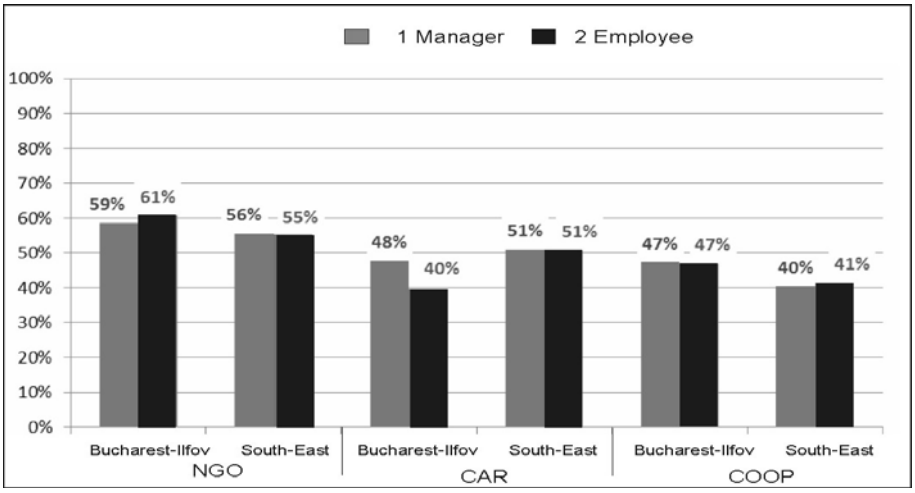
1 % of the total number of men/women and % of the men/women knowing at least one social economy organisation

We saw above that women are more often employed by the state than by the private companies and more in services than in industry or constructions, as well as in social, medical and educational services (INS, 2009). The women who graduated higher education are equally employed as the men, but the men have more often managing positions (*idem*).

How much is social economy a solution for the unemployed women or for the women aspiring to managing positions? The following analyses are made using the data from INTEGRATED survey regarding the offer of the social economy, which shows the answer of the managers and employees of the CAR units, cooperatives and NGOs from South-East and Bucharest-Ilfov regions of development.

The gender distribution is almost symmetrical. The low number of cases doesn't allow a more detailed analysis, but it seems that there are more women employed in NGOs than in CAR units or cooperatives, and their number may even be higher than that of men. Unlike the general situation, one cannot say that there is a clearly lower proportion of manager-women heading these organisations. 50-60% of NGOs managers are women, as well as 40-50% of CAR or cooperatives managers. NGO employees are the youngest, with an average age of 35, followed by NGO managers with an average age of 44. In the CAR units and in the cooperatives, the average age of the managers is about 55 (men are older), while that of the employees is 45-50.

Chart 12: Percentage of women, among the employees and managers, by type of organisation and region, %



Source: Integrat, IQLR, 2011.

The social workers from the NGOs included in the database represent the dominant profession, most of them being women. In the case of cooperatives, most women belong to the technical-administrative staff, while most men belong to the execution staff.

The employees of the social economy organisations are satisfied with their job, up to 80-90% for the NGOs. The women from the CAR units and from the cooperative societies are slightly more satisfied than the men from the same organisations, but the differences are not large.

4. Conclusions

Romania adopted several regulations which contribute to the improvement of women's situation, particularly in terms of fighting against discrimination and family violence and to promote the equal opportunity of the men and women. One cannot speak of an integrated approach of the specific problems of the women, although such initiative was forwarded by the National Agency for Family Protection.

Progresses have been made at the institutional level since 2006, by the establishment of the National Agency for Family Protection and of the Agency for the Equal Opportunity of the Men and Women. The discontinuation of these institutions in 2010 will probably cause, on the short-term, a stagnation of the current situation, while on the long-term it might intensify the situations of women vulnerability.

Although one cannot speak of exclusion, there still are differences in the access of the men and women to the labour market, particularly among the graduates of tertiary education. The women who are not employed have a lower level of education and less work experience than the unemployed men. They allocate less energy to seek a job, partially because of the household duties which they feel as being more important than their partners do, but also because of the widely-spread belief that they have no change to get a job. The longer periods of absence from the labour market fuel this idea. The social economy entities might provide services to the women, aiding them to work, by running nurseries or kindergartens for the small children, as well as by providing training courses.

Women want as much as men do to participate in such forms of professional training. To this purpose, we consider it would be useful to run, for the general population, an information and awareness raising campaign regarding the social economy organisations. This might help improving social economy organisations' visibility among the women and might implicitly open the way to the goods and services they provide. We consider that the profile of the respondent women allows their insertion on the labour market provided they get help with the family duties. From this point of view, the activity of the social economy organisations might be of help by providing specialised services for children rising and care, domestic activities or sick persons care.

The employed women work mostly in services and commerce or in the public administration. The women who graduated higher education work in fields such as healthcare, education or social assistance. However, for equal qualification there still are wage differences, and women have lower access to managerial positions in the private environment. The social economy organisations (particularly the mutual and non-mutual organisations and the foundations) may be an opportunity for a better integration of the women on the labour market. The results of the analysis have shown that we cannot speak of the feminisation of the social economy organisations in the two regions of development that were surveyed. The surveyed social economy organisations from the two regions of development have a balanced proportion of men and women among their employees, including at the managing level. Women satisfaction with their job in NGOs, cooperative societies and CAR is very high, particularly due to non-financial reasons. The women share the perception that working in a social economy organisation has results at the social level and that they can really help people. At the personal level, the women consider that such a job provides professional development, acknowledgement, success and financial satisfactions.

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FORMATION OF THE NEW ROMANIAN COMMUNITIES

Victor NICOLĂESCU[1]

Abstract: *Within the context in which the international migration is a rather new phenomenon within the contemporary societies, the emigration from Romania reveals deep implications. The relation between the demographic changes and the policies on migration, including the migration of highly-skilled people, will be an important problem in the near future; some member states are expected to prefer the migration of specialists and to develop regulations and procedures which facilitate it. The paper shows the five great migratory periods from Romania and the trends revealed by the post-December period in terms of emigration. The low employment opportunities on the labour force market in Romania and the consistent discrimination of the wage income lead to new forms of emigrants and the Romanian communities from abroad aggregate organically by preserving some specific traits of the national identity. The paper launches the challenge to make a comprehensive analysis by organising the indicators specific to the demographical, social-economic, cultural-educational and religious dimensions; this will be an important approach for the knowledge of the Romanian identity resources in a period of strong globalization crisis.*

Keywords: *communities, migration, population, crisis, labour market*

1. Introduction

The total movement of a population consists of the natural movement and the migratory movement. The population of a country or of an administrative-territorial unit changes its number not just due to the ups and downs due to births and deaths, but also due to immigration and emigration. The movement can be outside a locality,

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between countries, they may be shorter or permanent, which requires a detailed classification of the different types of migration. Being part of the total movement of a population, migration is of interest not just for demography, but also for sociology, which studies phenomena of adaptation or acculturation of the migrating persons, the influence of migration on the structure of population, on the social institutions, etc. (Roșca, D, 2009, pg. 96).

The migration of the population is the main form of the geographic (spatial) mobility of the population, which consists in the permanent change of the stable residence between two properly defined administrative-territorial units. It is also called residential migration because the person involved in such movement changes its residential status. Therefore, the notion of migration of the population doesn't include trips, seasonal movements, the different forms of commuting etc. Hence, it is important to define correctly the geographical or territorial-administrative units and the types of population movements (Roșca, D, 2009, pg. 97-98).

From the perspective of the contemporary sociological theory, the effects of migration are analysed from three angles: effects of migration on the country of origin, on the population of the target country and on the migrants. It is therefore necessary to investigate the small communities which the immigrants left and the communities where the immigrants enter, particularly within the current global economic-financial crisis.

2. Migratory flows within the context of globalization

To understand better the phenomenon of migration interconnected with the process of globalization we need a conceptual delimitation of the notions of migration, geographical mobility, populations.

The international migration is a rather new phenomenon for contemporary Romania, its specific trends being revealed hardly after 1998 (Sandu et al, 2004).

In a broad meaning, migration is defined as the "mass displacement of tribes or populations from one territory to another, determined by economic, social, political or natural factors". At the level of the social sciences we may retain the opinion of Professor V. Miftode who considers that "migration is a spatial expression of the social mobility" (Miftode, 1984, pg.154). Migration is not a mere displacement in the territory and the process is not just a physical one presuming only the change of the natural setting: this is a complex process with social effects. A classical definition of migration is given by the sociologist Jan Szczepanski, who defines the social mobility as the "series of phenomena which presume the displacement of the individuals or groups from place to place in the social space" (Szczepanski, 1972, pg. 402). Of great actuality too, are the approaches regarding migration as a *life strategy*, a "perspective of the sustainable relation between assumed goals and the means. They are rational structures of action, rather sustainable at the level of the agent adopting them" (Sandu, 2000, pg. 6) or a form of protest „against the changes and of abandonment of a society where they don't find the place they would like" (Voicu, 2004, pg. 2).

In relation with the official borders of a country, migration can be: a. Internal migration – totality of the movements, accompanied by the permanent change of the usual residence within a country, between the territorial-administrative units; b. International (external) migration - totality of the movements, accompanied by the permanent change of the usual residence, between two countries.

In terms of the international security, migration is of interest particularly under its external aspect. The international migration takes place currently under several forms (Sarcinschi, A, 2008, pg. 9): migration of the ethnic minorities towards the countries of origin; labour force migration; family migration (migration of the families towards the workers who migrated previously) according to the right to the family reunion which is guaranteed by the international legislation; migration forced by natural disasters, by political, religious persecution, by war etc.

These types of migration can be further classified according to the following criteria: legality – legal (it is done observing the applicable norms) and clandestine (it is done breaching the applicable norms, which makes it difficult to evaluate; motivation – voluntary and involuntary, forced; duration of stay in the country of destination: temporary, long-term, permanent.

Other types of migration are (Sarcinschi, A, 2008, pg. 9-10): migration based on ethnic affiliation – the state has the right to decide whom it accepts and to whom it grants the right to stay; post-colonial migration, in the case of the colonizing countries which set strict rules for the immigrants from their former colonies; economic migration which is one of the most frequently forms observed during the past decades. It is motivated by the differences between countries in terms of access to resources and jobs and by the crisis of some professions. Thus, many of the developed countries "recruited" assiduously immigrants and continue to encourage the migration of the high skilled workforce from the poorly developed countries; asylum seekers and refugees, which are the second largest group of legal immigrants, after the labour force. Like the family migration, this type of migration is protected by the international legislation; these people have the right to remain on the territory of a country, where they are not national citizens only if their only alternative is to go back in an area where they are afraid of inhuman or degrading treatment or of properly defined penalties.

Migration has two flows: *emigration* – movement towards the exterior, and *immigration* – movement towards or within the specific unit; these terms are small innovations of the Romanian language for more precision (Rotariu, T, 2009, pg. 15).

The literature gives several causes determining the migratory movement of the population (Roșca, D, 2009, pg. 99-100), among which:

- An essential case resides in the processes of overpopulation featuring a break between the size of the population and the resources whose effects are the decrease in income and the impossibility to meet the consumption. Overpopulation can be determined by the excess of births which dominate the index of mortality, aspect specific particularly to the less developed countries. Such increase characterised the Western Europe in the 19th century, when the reduction of mortality compensated the lower fertility rate.
- In some countries, the intensive rearing of animals favoured the unemployment of the workforce, which emigrated afterwards.
- In other situations, the development of the communication routes facilitated the dispersion of industries, which needs work force drawing thus part of the population within the migrating flow. The maritime transportation and the railways transportation, to a smaller extent, favoured the intercontinental migration.
- The migratory movements can also be determined by historical, religious or political reasons, which can be considered accidental and actual causes. The cataclysms and maladies also can be accidental, and they may determine massive and sudden emigrations.
- The psychological causes regard the fascination of specific places, forms of relief or landscapes. Thus, the locations chosen by a group of population can be attractive for compatriots, such as Barcelonette – colony in Mexico – became a classical case, same as the colony-districts from the USA and Western Europe.
- The ecologic causes determine the so-called ecological migration. This presumes movement of population from the areas affected by environmental or anthropic transformations towards other regions. Thus, Mexico City, Milan and Athens are cities extremely affected by pollution and they may be centres of discomfort and migration of the population.

The migratory movements have deep implications for the contemporary societies; there are three levels (Vlăsceanu, L., Zamfir, C., 1996) at which the migrations cause important effects: effects of the migration on the population of origin, on the population of destination and on the immigrants themselves. According to the sociological studies there are numerous consequences which the migrations produce at these three levels of the society, but it is difficult to identify the most important and relevant ones regarding emigration.

A migration which draws a large number of people, young people generally, may cause in the population of origin a deficit of workforce, thus weaker activities, lower birth rates, demographic ageing.

Globalization opened widely the framework of the international collaboration, providing opportunities not existing until now for the circulation of people, goods, capitals and services. "*Emigration is a dynamic phenomenon which includes a large number of actors. All the countries have the common interest to approach multilaterally the problems regarding the direction of the migrating processes, which will ensure the security and dignity of the immigrants. They contribute in a positive way to changing the face of the society at the global level. The key is not preventing the mobility, rather directing it as efficient as possible"* said Brunson McKinley, General Director of the International Organisation for Migration (IOM).

Because the migratory flows can affect particular groups of people in terms of age and gender, migration modifies not just the size of the population, but its gender and age structure too. After the end of World War Two, the European countries experienced four main periods of migration (Garson, Loizillon, OCDE, 2003 in Tudorache, C., 2006) which coincided with the changes in the European architecture: ***1. Migration of the labour force and reconstruction of Europe: 1950-1970; 2. Period of the economic crises: 1970 – first half of the 1980 decade;*** 3. ***Diversification of the host and origin countries and increase of the asylum seekers, refugees and ethnic minorities – 1980 decade; d) Migration of the "preferential" workforce, after 1989.***

The link between the demographic and political changes regarding immigration, including the immigration of the highly skilled people will be an important problem in the near future. Some member states are expected to prefer the migration of specialists and develop regulations and procedures facilitating it. However, as Marc Verwilghen, the Belgian ministry of cooperation and development noticed (2004), the European Union will also have to identify the solutions to limit the adverse effects produced by the "brain drain" on the development of the countries of origin.

According to Eurostat data (2011), Spain was the country which received the largest number of immigrants in 2008 (726.000), while Germany, the Great Britain and Italy also scored half million immigrants each in 2008 (these four state receive 67% of the total EU immigrants).

A significant aspect refers to the fact that most EU member states reported that immigration was higher than emigration, except for Germany, Poland, Romania, Bulgaria and the three Baltic States (Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia). 15% of the total immigrants in EU member states are citizens of own countries (for instance, emigrants who return home of citizens born abroad who immigrate for the first time) and 85% are not nationals of the country of immigration.

Table 1 - Immigration by groups of citizens, EU 27, EFTA and the candidate countries, 2008

Country	Total	National people Own citizens		Non-national people Not own citizens					
						Of which			
						EU citizens		Non-EU citizens	
	thousands	thousands	%	thousands	%	thou-sands	%	thou-sands	%
EU-27	3.800	600	15	3.200	85	1.400	43	1.800	57
Island	10.3	2.8	27	7.5	73	6,4	86	1,1	14
Lichtenstein	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Norway	58,1	6,4	11	51,7	89	32,2	62	19,5	38
Croatia	14,5	12,5	86	2,0	14	0,5	27	1,5	73
Macedonia	1,1	0,2	21	0,8	79	0,1	15	0,7	85
Turkey	:	:	:	19,7	:	6,0	30	13,7	70

Source: Eurostat (2011)

3. Recent migration of the Romanians

Historically, the Romanian emigration displays five large migratory periods:

1. ***The first wave of emigrants*** (1848-1928) is of the people who went to America; most of them were peasants, with no education, going for the new opportunities from the land of promise.
2. ***The second wave of emigrants (1929-1945)*** consisted mainly of relatives or friends of those who had been living in America for a long period.
3. ***The third wave of emigrants (1945-1965) had political motivation*** and belonged to the social categories which were in opposition with the communist ideology.
4. ***The fourth wave of emigrants (1965- 1989) were people who took refuge from the repressive measures centred on a nationalism fuelled by the communist regime.***
5. ***The fifth wave of emigrants (1989-present) consists of Romanian citizens in a state of economic, social and cultural deprivation or who are seeking opportunities for professional accomplishment within the context of a transition packed with domestic crises.***

In the post-December period the point of inflexion of the foreign emigration appeared with the free circulation of the Romanian people to other countries, to EU member states (Sandu D., Radu C., Constantinescu M., Ciobanu O., 2004, p. 6).

New Romanian communities formed abroad depending on the level of similitude of the country of destination (language, social behaviour, socio-economic conditions etc.); however, one cannot know, and it is impossible to determine accurately the number of Romanians living abroad scattered in different countries, closer or farther. After having left some generations ahead in far-away countries, many Romanians obtained the citizenship of the country of adoption so that they are no longer registered distinctly in the statistics of those countries as minorities. According to IOM research report for the preparation of a national-scale campaign of information "Risks of illegal migration in EU member states 2003-2005: What changed?" (IOM, 2005), released in March 2005, almost 15% of the adult population of Romania worked abroad at a particular moment after 1990. Of them, about 50% were working on the basis of an informal contract, gentlemen's agreement or with no contract at all. The same source mentioned the destinations for work: Italy (25% of the total of the Romanian people working abroad in 2003 and 19% in 2005), Germany (18% of the total of the Romanian people working abroad in 2003 and 13% in 2005), Spain (12% of the total of the Romanian people working abroad in 2003 and 10% in 2005). In this classification, in 2005, Hungary, new EU member state, was on the fourth position with 14% in 2005, compared to just 5% in 2003. The average duration of the stay abroad was 23 months. In 2005, most of the potential migrants, the most interested in migration, continued to be the people with no experience of migration. The opinion of the general public is that in 2005 one could use quite successfully the illegal migration. Presently, over two million Romanians work abroad. The population of Romania decreased by 1.6 million people between 1992 and 2006. The main countries in which the Romanians work are Italy, Spain, Israel, Germany and the Great Britain.

In the attempt to supply valid data on the Romanian citizens living abroad we take into consideration the evidence of the Office of IT registration of the people in order to measure the migrating flows using the "mirror" procedure (Ciocănescu E. A., 2011a) (Table 2)

Table 2. Flows of Romanian emigrants, 1998-2009

Year	Number of emigrants
1998	33.861
1999	43.726
2000	49.332
2001	58.617
2002	105.839
2003	190.742
2004	215.646
2005	194.176
2006	215.605

Year	Number of emigrants
2007	553.162
2008	325.121
2009	164.757
Total	2.150.584

Source: Ciocănescu E. A., 2011a.

The distribution of the Romanian emigrants by gender shows a prevalent male migration in 1998-2004, a relative balance in 2006 and a predominant feminine migration in 2009 (54.5%) (Ciocănescu E. A.a, 2011b). (Table 3).

Table 3. Dynamics of the Romanian emigrants by gender, 1998-2009

Year	% Males	% Females
1998	51.4	48.6
1999	51.9	48.1
2000	55.2	44.8
2001	55.4	44.6
2002	52.4	47.6
2003	51.6	48.4
2004	52.7	47.3
2005	49.6	50.4
2006	50.0	50.0
2007	51.7	48.3
2008	49.9	50.1
2009	45.5	54.5

Source: Ciocănescu E. A., 2011b.

This trend of balancing of the migratory flows by gender shows a trend of family reunion abroad by the emigration of women during the last year of the survey.

The recent Eurostat data (2011) show that the Romanians are the largest group of immigrants from the European Union, followed by Polish and Germans, the same classification resulting if the own citizens (national citizens) are excluded from the analysis. Thus, the EU member states received more than 384,000 Romanians, followed by 266,000 Polish citizens and 91,000 Bulgarians.

Table 4.Top 10 immigrants of the EU member states, 2008

EU citizens (including the national, own citizens)		EU citizens (excluding the national, own citizens)		Non-EU citizens	
Country (citizenship)	thousands	Country (citizenship)	thousands	Country (citizenship)	thousands
Romania	384	Romania	384	Morocco	157
Poland	302	Poland	266	China	97
Germany	196	Bulgaria	91	India	93
Great Britain	146	Germany	88	Albania	81
France	126	Italy	67	Ukraine	80
Italy	105	France	62	Brasilia	62
Bulgaria	92	Great Britain	61	USA	61
The Netherlands	81	Hungary	44	Turkey	51
Spain	61	The Netherlands	40	Russian Federation	50
Belgium	48	Portugal	38	Columbia	49

Source: Eurostat (2011).

In terms of the destination countries, 65% of the Romanian went to Italy (46%) and Spain (19%) (Eurostat, 2011). A survey was conducted in March-April 2008 among the Romanian communities from Spain which aimed to identify the social conditions, the values and expectations characterizing the Romanian immigrants from Spain. The survey completes the results of another survey of the Romanian community from Italy, conducted in November-December 2007. The comparative analysis of the two sociological surveys shows significant differences in the socio-demographic profile and in the social condition characterizing the Romanian emigration in Spain and Italy.

The emigrants working on EU territory sent, in 2006, to their countries of origin, 26 billion euro, 13% than the previous year, the most important source of cash remittances being Spain. However, 2009 was the first year when the remittances of the migrating workers in the EU decreased.

Table 4. Remittances of the migrating workers within the EU (billion Euro)

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total remittances	19.4	23.7	28.4	31.3	31.8	29.6
Intra-EU flows	7.9	10.2	11.6	11.3	9.3	8.1
Extra-EU flows	11.5	13.4	16.8	20.0	22.5	21.5

Source: Eurostat (2011).

The tear 2008 was a record year for the remittances of the Romanians working abroad, while in 2009 the value of remittances was lower than in 2005 (before the accession of Romania to the EU).

Table 5. Net financial flows,
billion Euro

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Romania	1316	3031	4337	4780	4921	2852

Source: Eurostat (2010).

An analysis by De Zwaeger N., Petrescu G. (2011) shows that at an estimated 2,910,000 Romanian emigrants (or about 1,329,000 households), the total estimated level of the savings during 12 months, calculated up to September 2010, was 11.981 million euro, which show the effects of the financial crisis, as well as a trend to use the resources in the new states of emigration, where the Romanian communities crystallize on different social, economic, cultural and religious coordinates.

4. Romanian communities formed during the post-December period

A correct analysis of the migration monitors the effects which it has both in the area of origin of the migrants, in the destination area and on the migrants themselves. Depending on a specific context and on a complex of factors which intervene during the process, the effects if migration can be evaluated as positive or negative and they affect very different fields of the economic, political, cultural, social areas of the society, which shows the utility of aggregating the existing data along the demographic, social, economic, cultural-educational and religious dimensions.

The ***demographic dimension*** – in terms of demography, in the opinion of many researchers, the most important and visible effects of migration characterising the Romanian space after 1989 are represented by the demographic ageing because the migrating population consisted mainly of young people (aged 20-24), professionally active; changes in the evolution of wedding, fertility; changes in the structure by gender which reflect a slow, yet continuous process of demographic ageing; changes in family dimension; overcrowding of the receiving areas and depopulation of the emitting areas.

The ***social dimension*** – the interpretation of some changes in the social life of a community as result of migration may also start from the effects which the urbanization, due to the migration of the rural population, imposed in the communities.

The ***economic dimension*** – in terms of the economic effects, migration may contribute to the increase of the incomes available to the population, providing jobs, improving the standard of living, decreasing the unemployment rate in some areas of activity, orientation of the migrants towards specific economic sectors with deficient stock of labour force at a particular moment. On the other hand, there also are negative effects (situations observed in Romania too, particularly after 1990), such as the "brain drain" – migration of the educated and qualified workforce from the poor countries towards the wealthy countries, where these people seek professional acknowledgement and higher pay, these conditions being satisfied in the developed countries (S. Stănică, 2007, pg. 110).

The ***cultural and educational dimension*** – the cultural influence over the family, acquired by migration, can also be noticed in the reconsideration of the family size of the relations between the family members, of the roles assumed by each member of the family, of the personal values and creeds.

The ***religious dimension*** – there is a close connection between the influence of religion and the control which it exerts on the parishioners and the effects which migration has on them. One must not understand that the migration of the population determines changes in the religious fundaments, dogma and rituals of the different confessions. The migration will influence, however, the attitude of the people towards the religious communities in which they want to integrate (temporarily or permanently), particularly if they are different from the communities to which they belong and in which they grew influencing the participation in the religious life of the new community (not just by the presence at religious services and church events, but by keeping the relation with the divinity). An important role in migration is played by the migration networks organised through churches, their activity presuming destinations different from those from the country of origin.

Deciphering the migration from this perspective is a preferred and actual trend of many researches and the phenomenon has a dynamic character; almost any individual included in the circuit increases the possibility for the future occurrence of a similar event. The community networks ensure the access to information for the migrants, provide assistance in finding a job, a dwelling, means of living in other places than the native ones, also facilitating the connection between the migrants and their families.

6. Conclusions

On the background of the economic crisis, one can notice a interesting flow of the Romanian migration: the emigration from Romania after December is determined mainly by the economic, social, political and cultural deprivation which appeared due to the changes in the Romanian society; the Romanian communities from abroad form function of the level of similitude of the country of destination (language, social behaviour, socio-economic conditions, etc.). Within the context of the low employment opportunities in Romania and of the consistent decrease of the wages, migration displays increasing trends and the Romanian communities from abroad aggregate organically by preserving some specific characteristics of the national identity. The accomplishment of a comprehensive analysis by organising the specific demographic, social-economic, cultural-educational and religious indicators will be an important approach for the knowledge of the Romanian resources of identity in a period of dramatic globalization crisis.

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CONCEPTUALIZING THE SOCIAL BEST PRACTICES AT THE INTERNATIONAL AND EUROPEAN LEVEL

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***Abstract**: The development of Best Practices is not an isolated set of policies/ entity that can be just copied and then reproduced. Researchers have argued that there are different levels of good practice. Creating or finding good practice is about plotting, mapping and reflecting on who were the key players, the structures and the situation that made practice work. There is, however, no practice that is best for everyone or in every situation, and no Best Practice remains best for very long as people keep on finding better ways of doing things. Article provides an analytical overview of the identification of good practice in general and particularly in the field of Social Economy.*

***Keywords:** social economy, best practices, indicators, innovation, criteria*

1. What does "Best Practice" mean?

There are numerous definitions of the term "Best Practice". Nevertheless all definitions examined are sharing the common principle that a Best Practice is a method, process, activity, incentive, or reward and techniques that have consistently shown results superior to those achieved with other means. A Best Practice is believed to be more effective at delivering a particular outcome than any other technique, when applied to a particular condition or circumstance. Thus, Best Practices could be examples of field-based activities, operational procedures or capacity building approaches that are successful and sustainable in social, economic and environmental terms and can be adopted by other organizations. Good Practice

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outcomes include innovative approaches or models to solve a problem or to respond to a need as well as practical tools such as training materials and checklists.

The Peer Review Programme for the European Employment Strategy states that[1]:

- Good Practice should be relevant to current and emerging policy priorities;
- Good Practice should bring concrete responses to problems targeted by current and emerging policy;
- Good Practice is declared 'good' on the basis of demonstrated and reliable results;
- Good Practice is assessed as 'good', if potential users judge that they could take it up so there is an assessment of the transfer potential by those who want to adopt it.

In its 2002 paper for an EQUAL conference in Barcelona on Networking for Inclusion, the European Commission suggests that the following requirements, ideally, should be met to qualify as good Practice:

- Innovative – it provides new, creative solutions to common problems of social exclusion, discrimination and inequality in the labour market;
- Effective – it makes a difference, and has a positive, tangible impact on the life of socially disadvantaged individuals, groups or communities;
- Efficient – it delivers value for money;
- Sustainable – it produces lasting benefits for participants and the community at large;
- Reproduced – it has the potential to be reproduced in similar contexts, serving as a model for generating initiatives and policies elsewhere;
- Transferable – it has the potential for transfer in different contexts and/or for different problems;
- Policy relevant – it addresses real issues and responds to the needs of policy-makers.

In the next section the main focus is to describe related criteria and structures previously elaborated in social policy contexts and hence to examine useful ways in which one might identify and analyse the good practice in the social economy field.

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[1] European Commission, (2005), Employment and social affairs, EQUAL, Making Change Possible: A Practical Guide to Mainstreaming, http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/equal/data/document/mainstreamguide_en.pdf.

For achieving this aim a number of relative socio-economic networks initiatives and organisations are being examined. Therefore there were selected and described the most applicable cases to the field under consideration.

2. *Criteria of "Best Practices" applied by The Local Economic and Employment Development Programme (LEED, OECD)*

A qualified source in the field is the Local Economic and Employment Development (LEED) Programme[1] of the Organisation of Economic Development and Co-operation (OECD). LEED is a Co-operative Action Programme that, since 1982, has been dedicated to the identification, analysis and dissemination of innovative approaches and good practices in stimulating local economic growth, creating more and better jobs, enhancing social inclusion, and fostering good governance at local level. It is one of few OECD bodies that are open to both Member and Non-Member economies as well as international organisations. To increase collaboration with initiatives locally, the LEED Programme established a Partners Network in 1990. It's LEED's worldwide network of regional and local governments, development agencies, business and non-profit organisations, private sector and foundations that work towards achieving sustainable economic and employment development. In this context, LEED runs an intensive capacity development programme at its Trento Centre in Italy, including specialised seminars, workshops and "active" policy reviews.

The OECD LEED Trento Centre for Local Development[2] was established by the OECD, the Italian Government and the Autonomous Province of Trento (Italy) in 2003. The Centre is an integral part of the OECD LEED Programme. The mission of the Trento Centre is to build capacities for local development in OECD Member and Non-Member countries.

Among other objectives Trento Centre for Local Development aims to strengthen the relationship between policy makers, local development practitioners and the scientific community and to facilitate the transfer of expertise and exchange of experience between OECD Member and Non-Member economies. In this regard the Trento Centre focuses on the area of social innovation, social inclusion, and social economy and aims to contribute to improving social cohesion through the identification and dissemination of local innovations; it identifies and analyses the role of the social economy in giving rise to new economic activity and creating new mechanisms of social inclusion.

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[1] Local Economic and Employment Development (LEED) Programme: www.oecd.org/cfe/leed
[2] OECD LEED Trento Centre for Local Development: www.trento.oecd.org

An extensive desk research throughout the LEED program studies, reports and other working papers shows that OECD has created a typology for identifying what is a Best Practice in each particular subject. That means that in respect to each specific area of study a series of criteria and principles have been formulated and the Best Practices were being ranked accordingly. Note should be made of the fact that the most OECD working papers examined concerned mostly business and employment development vis-à-vis a particular group of population (youth, women etc). In view of that and in accordance with the project objectives the following cases are pulled out and described:

A. Criteria Of Good Practice In University Entrepreneurship Support

This report[1] presents the results of a 2008-2009 collaboration with the Federal German Ministry for Transport, Building and Urban Affairs on university entrepreneurship support in the Eastern German Länder. It includes a list of criteria of good practice directed at those who are designing strategies and infrastructure for academic entrepreneurship support. The criteria list of good practice was an attempt to define what constitutes good practice in university entrepreneurship support. The analysis indicated that "The criteria list can be read as a 'tool'", which allows universities to self-assess and re-orient (i) their strategy in supporting entrepreneurship, (ii) their pool of financial and human resources, (iii) the support structures they have established, (iv) their current approaches in entrepreneurship education and start-up support, and (v) their evaluation practices. It will also advise those involved in the design of public policy interventions.

Accordingly the list of criteria and principles are the following:

Criterion 1: Strategy

Principles:

1. A broad understanding of entrepreneurship is a strategic objective of the university, and there is top-down support for it.
2. Objectives of entrepreneurship education and start-up support include generating entrepreneurial attitudes, behaviour and skills, as well as enhancing growth entrepreneurship (both high-tech and low-tech).
3. There are clear incentives and rewards for entrepreneurship educators, professors and researchers, who actively support graduate entrepreneurship (mentoring, sharing of research results, etc.).

[1] OECD (2009), Universities, Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Criteria and Examples of Good Practice, www.oecd.org/dataoecd/0/8/43201452.pdf.

4. Recruitment and career development of academic staff take into account entrepreneurial attitudes, behaviour and experience as well as entrepreneurship support activities.

Criterion 2: Resources

Principles:

1. A minimum long-term financing of staff costs and overheads for graduate entrepreneurship is agreed as part of the university's budget.
2. Self-sufficiency of university internal entrepreneurship support is a goal.
3. Human resource development for entrepreneurship educators and staff involved in entrepreneurship start-up support is in place.

Criterion 3: Support Infrastructure

Principles:

1. An entrepreneurship dedicated structure within the university (chair, department, support centre) is in place, which closely collaborates, co-ordinates and integrates faculty-internal entrepreneurship support and ensures viable cross-faculty collaboration.
2. Facilities for business incubation either exist on the campus or assistance is offered to gain access to external facilities.
3. There is close co-operation and referral between university-internal and external business start-up and entrepreneurship support organisations; roles are clearly defined.

Criterion 4: Entrepreneurship education

Principles:

1. Entrepreneurship education is progressively integrated into curricula and the use of entrepreneurial pedagogies is advocated across faculties.
2. The entrepreneurship education offer is widely communicated, and measures are undertaken to increase the rate and capacity of take-up.
3. A suite of courses exists, which uses creative teaching methods and is tailored to the needs of undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate students.

4. The suite of courses has a differentiated offer that covers the pre-start-up phase, the start-up phase and the growth phase. For certain courses active recruitment is practiced.
5. Out-reach to Alumni, business support organisations and firms are a key component of entrepreneurship education.
6. Results of entrepreneurship research are integrated into entrepreneurship education messages.

Criterion 5: Start-up support

Principles:

1. Entrepreneurship education activities and start-up support are closely integrated.
2. Team building is actively facilitated by university staff.
3. Access to private financing is facilitated through networking and dedicated events.
4. Mentoring by professors and entrepreneurs is offered.
5. Entrepreneurship support in universities is closely integrated into external business support partnerships and networks, and maintains close relationships with firms and Alumni.

Criterion 6: Evaluation

Principles:

1. Regular stock-taking and performance checking of entrepreneurship activities is undertaken.
2. Evaluation of entrepreneurship activities is formalised and includes immediate (post-course), mid-term (graduation), and long-term (Alumni and post-start-up) monitoring of the impact.

B. Shooting for the Moon: Good Practices in Local Youth Entrepreneurship Support

This handbook[1] takes the discussion of what constitutes successful local entrepreneurship support frameworks further and seeks to provide a gateway for

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1 OECD LEED Trento Centre, Italy, (2010), Shooting for the Moon: Good Practices in Local Youth Entrepreneurship Support, http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/industry-and-services/shooting-for-the-moon-good-practices-in-local-youth-entrepreneurship-support_5km7rq0k8h9q-en

further exchange of good practices on this topic. It presents a criteria list that has emerged from LEED work on youth entrepreneurship, the academic debate and the work of practitioners. Its three dimensions are: opportunity creation, entrepreneurship education and start-up support. The criteria list can be read as a 'tool' to self-assess and re-orient current strategies, structures and practices in youth entrepreneurship support. The selected good practice initiatives – ranging from Oresund Entrepreneurship and its extensive use of Facebook for student recruitment, to Finnish business succession courses that involve young entrepreneurs in 'real-life' incubation – offer inspiration, but also pressure, to adapt and go beyond the prevailing paradigms that some policy makers and practitioners may have with regard to youth entrepreneurship.

The criteria list can be read as a tool to self-assess and re-orient strategies, structures and practices in youth entrepreneurship support and they are grouped into the following three dimensions:

Dimension 1: Opportunity creation

Making places conducive to youth entrepreneurship. The higher the recognition and appreciation for entrepreneurship in a place is and the deeper entrepreneurial behaviour is embedded in society, the greater the public support for creating the necessary framework conditions, such as availability of financial, human and physical resources and information, the 'easier' it is to recognise opportunities and to turn them into business ventures.

Dimension 2: Entrepreneurship education

It aims at generating motivation, attitudes and competencies for entrepreneurship. Assisting the establishment of new firms is a key objective for entrepreneurship education, but not its only one. Creating entrepreneurial mindsets that drive innovation in existing firms is of equal importance, yet success is much more difficult to measure.

Dimension 3: Start-up support

Providing a helping hand in business start-up without taking away the 'do it on your own'. It is all about making entrepreneurship support systems accessible and attractive for young future entrepreneurs, and about rectifying market and system failures in financing and premises.

To conclude, it is also noteworthy to mention that all OECD-LEED studies have exactly the same structure and they demonstrated and analysed the selected Best Practices by using the following ten common features, independently of the subject: Rationale and general information (of the organization, program, practice or activity); Timeframe; Budget and financing sources; Human resources; Activities; Partners; Success factors; Achievements; Website; Contact.

3. Criteria of "Best Practices" applied by UN-Habitat: The Best Practices and Local Leadership Programme (BLP)

The Best Practices and Local Leadership Programme[1] (BLP) is a global network of institutions dedicated to the identification and exchange of successful solutions for sustainable development.

The BLP partners' network identifies initiatives in such areas as housing, urban development and governance, the environment, economic development, social inclusion, crime prevention, poverty reduction, women, youth, infrastructure and social services.

Best Practices are outstanding contributions to improving the living environment. They are defined by the United Nations and the international community at large as successful initiatives which:

- Have a demonstrable and tangible impact on improving people's quality of life;
- Are the result of effective partnerships between the public, private and civic sectors of society;
- Are socially, culturally, economically and environmentally sustainable.

Best Practices are promoted and used by the United Nations and the international community as a means of:

- Improving public policy based on what works;
- Raising awareness in decision-makers at all levels and in the public of potential solutions to common social, economic and environmental problems;
- Sharing and transferring knowledge, expertise and experience through networking and peer-to-peer learning.

The original call for Best Practices was launched in 1996 during preparations for the Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) as a means of identifying what works in improving living conditions on a sustainable basis.

An International Conference on Best Practices was held in Dubai in November 1995. The Conference adopted the Dubai Declaration and established the Dubai International Award for Best Practices to Improve the Living Environment in 1995.

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[1] The Best Practices and Local Leadership Programme (BLP): http://www.bestpractices. org/ blpnet/BLP/index.html, http://www.unhabitat.org/categories.asp?catid=1

As a result of six successive Award cycles in 1996, 1998, 2000, 2002, 2004 and 2006 there are currently over 2,700 Good and Best Practices from 140 countries featured on the Best Practices database. At each cycle, an independent committee of technical experts (Technical Advisory Committee) identifies Good and Best Practices and prepares a shortlist. An International Jury selects the award winners from the shortlist.

Starting in 2006, the Dubai International Award consists of 12 Awards, the traditional 10 for Best Practices and 2 for Best Practices Transfers.

Every two years, up to 10 outstanding initiatives receive the "Dubai International Award for Best Practices to Improve the Living Environment". Those initiatives meeting the criteria for a Best Practice are included in the Best Practices database. The lessons learned from selected Best Practices are analysed in case studies and guides and transferred to other countries, cities or communities.

The searchable database contains over 3,800 proven solutions from more than 140 countries to the common social, economic and environmental problems of an urbanizing world. It demonstrates the practical ways in which public, private and civil society sectors are working together to improve governance, eradicate poverty, provide access to shelter, land and basic services, protect the environment and support economic development.

The Best Practices database is a joint product of UN-HABITAT, and the Best Practices Partners. The Best Practices included in the database have made outstanding contributions to improving the quality of life in cities and communities.

They applied seven broad and inter-linked criteria, namely:

Criteria and Considerations for a Best Practice

The major criteria for a Best Practice to be considered a candidate for the Award include[1]:

1.1 Impact: A Best Practice should demonstrate a positive and tangible impact on improving the living environment of people particularly the poor and disadvantaged.

a. Sustainable Shelter and Community Development:

i. Extension of safe water supply and sanitation;

ii. Affordable housing, services and community facilities;

iii. Access to land, secure tenure and finance;

[1] Source: Dubai International Award http://www.dubaiaward.ae/

iv. Community-based planning and participation in decision making and resource allocation;

v. Inner-city core, neighbourhood and settlement revival and rehabilitation;

vi. Safe and healthy building materials and technologies.

b. Sustainable Urban and Regional Development:

i. Job creation and eradication of poverty;

ii. Reduction of pollution and improvement of environmental health;

iii. Improved access to public transport and communication;

iv. Improved waste collection, recycling and reuse;

v. Greening of the city and effective use of public space;

vi. Improved production and consumption cycles, including replacement/reduction of non-renewable resources.

vii. Protection and conservation of natural resources and of the environment;

viii. More efficient energy use and production;

ix. Preservation of historically/culturally important sites;

x. Formulation and implementation of integrated and comprehensive urban development strategies.

c. Sustainable, Efficient, Accountable and Transparent Settlements Management:

i. More effective and efficient administrative, management and information systems;

ii. Gender equality and equity in decision-making, resource-allocation and programme design and implementation;

iii. Crime reduction and prevention;

iv. Improved disaster preparedness, mitigation and reconstruction;

v. Social integration and reduction of exclusion;

vi. Leadership in inspiring action and change, including change in public policy;

vii. Promotion of accountability and transparency;

viii. Promotion of social equality and equity;

ix. Improvement of inter-agency co-ordination.

1.2 Partnership: Best Practices should be based on a partnership between at least two of the actors mentioned in item 4.

1.3 Sustainability: Best Practices should result in lasting changes in at least one of the areas listed below:

(i) Legislation, regulatory frameworks, by-laws or standards formally recognising the issues and problems that have been addressed;

(ii) Social policies and/or sectoral strategies at the (sub) national level that have a potential for replication elsewhere;

(iii) Institutional frameworks and decision-making processes that assign clear roles and responsibilities to various levels and groups of actors, such as central and local governmental organisations and community-based organisations;

(iv) Efficient, transparent and accountable management systems that make more effective use of human, technical, financial and natural resources.

Additional Criteria and Considerations:

The following criteria will be used by the Technical Advisory Committee and Jury for differentiating between good, best and award winning practices.

1.4 Leadership & Community Empowerment:

(i) Leadership in inspiring action and change, including change in public policy;

(ii) Empowerment of people, neighbourhoods and communities and incorporation of their contributions;

(iii) Acceptance of and responsiveness to social and cultural diversity;

(iv) Potential for transferability, adaptability and replicability;

(v) Appropriateness to local conditions and levels of developments.

1.5 Gender Equality and social inclusion:

Initiatives which: accept and respond to social and cultural diversity; promote social equality and equity, for example on the basis of income, gender, age and physical/ mental condition; and recognise and value different abilities.

1.6 Innovation within local context and transferability:

(i) How others have learnt or benefited from the initiative.

(ii) Means used for sharing or transferring knowledge, expertise and lessons learnt.

1.7 Transfers:

(i) Tangible impact resulting from the transfer of one or more of the following: ideas, skills, processes, knowledge or expertise, and technology;

(ii) Changes in policies or practices.

(iii) Sustainability of the transfer as part of a continuous process of learning and change.

Best Practices Partner Network: The Best Practices and Local Leadership Programme works with a decentralized network of organisations committed to the identification, analysis and dissemination of lessons learned from Best Practices. Each partner brings its own expertise and geographic coverage to the programme, creating a world-wide network of organisations. Partners incorporate Best Practices into their ongoing activities such as education, research, training, capacity-building and advocacy.

Best Practices Steering Committee (BPSC): The BLP is governed by and reports to a Steering Committee comprised of its partners. The Steering Committee establishes the policies and procedures which guide the substantive work and activities of the BLP and its partners. The regulations and procedures governing the Steering Committee are elaborated in its Terms of Reference.

4. Criteria of "Best Practices" applied by EQUAL Community Initiative - Sharing Good Practice

EQUAL[1] was the Community Initiative under the ESF. It was implemented by all Member States, following common guidelines established by the Commission. EQUAL had been the largest programme to support social innovation in the fields of social inclusion and employment ever. It allowed accumulating and sharing good practice throughout its six years of its operation, starting in 2002.

EQUAL has provided evidence for innovative and adaptable policy strategies and delivery mechanisms that bring greater inclusiveness to Europe's diverse labour markets, based on the efforts and achievements of 3,480 development partnerships with more than 20,000 partners, reaching over 200,000 persons in Europe[2]. The learning experience under EQUAL focused on investigating and testing more effective ways of overcoming social exclusion and tackling discrimination in

[1] The EQUAL programme was not continued in the form of a separate Community action after 2006, but mainstreamed into all ESF Operational Programmes, by capitalising on and integrating the principles that contributed to its success: partnership approach; privileged support for innovation; priority given to equal opportunities and to non-discrimination as well as the emphasis placed on transnational co-operation.

[2] European Commission, (2009), EQUAL opportunities for all Delivering the Lisbon Strategy through social innovation and transnational cooperation http://ec.europa. eu/social/main.j sp?catId=738&langId=en&pubId=141&type=2&furtherPubs=no

employment and the job market, and on sharing examples of the resulting good practice across borders, with the intention of influencing policy and general practice.

EQUAL gave ample space to experimentation, which has been understood as an opportunity for organisational learning, based on experience and testing, under real conditions, of what works and what does not. This was brought about through systematic evaluation and using sound evidence for assessing and implementing policy and practice alternatives whilst also learning from peers and taking full account of national and European experience.

Successful experimentation under EQUAL, for a broad range of employment and social inclusion issues, has generated:

- Insight into, and knowledge of, the nature and forms of discrimination, inequality, and labour market exclusion shared by strategic stakeholders (What are the key problems to address?);
- Confidence in the advantages of innovative solutions in terms of cost-effectiveness, quality or additional features (Why is their transfer and incorporation into regular practice suitable and feasible?);
- Understanding the conditions for, and advantages of, improved strategies and actions, also in the light of experience in other Member States (How to tackle the key problems?);
- Acceptance, mobilisation and commitment of key stakeholders for implementing the innovative solution, based on the credibility of the partnerships (Who will use the innovations?).

Organised Transfer and Mainstreaming

As mentioned in the report "*EQUAL opportunities for all: Delivering the Lisbon Strategy through social innovation and transnational cooperation*[1]" the innovative solutions are not implemented automatically, and the innovators need to be nurtured and encouraged throughout the innovation process. A key milestone in the innovation process is the validation of results meaning that these have to provide evidence and are able to demonstrate that they are:

- suitable; i.e. show advantages over current practice and other innovative options, generate additional value and are relevant.

1 European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, (2008), Making Change Possible A Practical Guide to Mainstreaming, http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/equal/data/document/mainstreamguide_en

- feasible; i.e. are realistic, can be used as models, and can be implemented elsewhere.
- Acceptable to the disadvantaged and excluded groups, to administrations and stakeholders.

EQUAL has proven the advantages of innovative solutions in two ways. It has produced a large body of evidence of the benefits of the thoroughly validated good practices, the most relevant of which are presented in the following sections. Moreover it has involved stakeholders in the development and validation processes and can therefore call on testimonies from opinion leaders and decision makers.

Social innovations tested and validated under EQUAL have been successfully integrated into policy and practice across a broad range of fields. These include:

- reaching out to integrate disadvantaged groups into the labour market, such as migrants or people with disabilities;
- developing effective links between social inclusion and labour market actors and institutions;
- improving the quality of the work environment through more flexible working time arrangements or work organisation that benefit both employers and employees;
- supporting emerging trends and partnership models in the fields of social economy and business creation;
- creating synergies at local, regional ad national level ("systems innovations") by establishing new interfaces between organisations;
- new modes of coordination and cooperation between institutions and support organisations; or
- networking and partnerships between stakeholders.

Validation of the policy relevance and evidence at EU level

The overall EQUAL validation process involves two complementary feedback loops:

1. Firstly, the 'evidence of good practice loop' where the evidence of comparative advantage of the promising good practice case is verified, by applying the following common criteria:

- Analysis of the evidence of the advantages of the good practice identified in tackling discrimination and inequality in the field of employment (this may involve having 'credible champions' to present the innovative solution);

- Views of stakeholders/users have been involved in the evaluation of the good practice at Member State level;
- Transparency of the results, and access to the relevant information proving the case (if the proof is difficult to find, the logic of the concept may be sufficient to be persuasive);
- Potential to be transferred to, and applied by, other actors, in other regions, in other contexts, and that it can be applied on a larger scale;
- Demonstration of how the innovation can be embedded into the mainstream policy delivery systems in a sustainable way.

2. Secondly, the 'policy relevance loop' where the relevance of the underlying issue, the proposed solution and the policy arguments presented are checked with policy-makers and key stakeholders, by applying the following common criteria:

- Link to the policy agenda at EU level or in a larger number of Member States, to be assessed against the political agenda of EU policy-makers and key stakeholders at European level, and emerging policy opportunities;
- Specific relevance of the good practice to the thematic focus, or to the policy argument it has to support;
- Adding value to the policy debate, notably by providing convincing evidence for policy arguments, quantified where possible;
- Addressing policy gaps, new policy objectives, or issues cutting across established responsibilities and policy domains.

The "Validation double loop":

Policy Relevance ↔ Evidence of good practice.

EQUAL has produced many successful paradigms regarding the social inclusion of women and Rroma.

For more information and EQUAL examples please visit the library of Communication & Information Resource Centre Administrator (CIRCA): http://circa.europa.eu/Public/irc/empl/equal_etg/library?l=/etg1/04_examples/practice_communities&vm=detailed&sb=Title

5. Criteria of "Best Practices" applied by Leader+ - An European Community Initiative

Another source we can draw lessons for designing a typology of Best Practice is the European Structural fund "LEADER+" [1]. "Leader+" is a European Community initiative for assisting rural communities in improving the quality of life and economic prosperity of their local area, and is co-financed by the Guidance Section of the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF).

Leader+ was designed around four predominant themes:

1. Making the best use of natural and cultural resources, including enhancing the value of Natura 2000 sites.
2. Improving the quality of life in rural areas.
3. Adding value to local products, in particular by facilitating access to markets for small production units via collective actions.
4. The use of new know-how and new technologies to make products and services in rural areas more competitive.

A Leader+ publication called "LEADER+ Best Practices" identified seven criteria make up the Leader approach as follows:

Area-based approach

This entails defining a development policy on the basis of an area's own particular situation, strengths and weaknesses. In Leader, this area is a fairly homogeneous local rural unit, characterised by internal social cohesion, shared history and traditions, a sense of common identity, etc. Awareness of the area-based approach has been growing, with 'prime movers' in the local area recognising the important role of endogenous resources in achieving sustainable development. At LAG level, the area-based approach has contributed to a better identification of rural actors within the territory.

Bottom-up approach

This aims to encourage participatory decision-making at local level for all development policy aspects. Its objective is the involvement of local players, including the community as a whole, economic and social interest groups, and representatives of public and private institutions. The bottom- up approach relies on

[1] "Leader+" ('Links between actions for the development of the rural economy') is a Community initiative launched by the European Commission and coordinated by its Directorate-General for Agriculture and Rural Development.

two major activities — ‘animation’ (facilitation of activities) and training of local communities — and comes into play at different stages of the program. It is important that the project is initiated by local actors and that the public concerned with the action has previously been consulted.

Partnership approach and the ‘local action group’ (LAG)

The LAG is a body of public and private actors, united in a partnership that identifies a joint strategy and a local action plan for developing a Leader+ area. The LAG is one of the most original and strategic features of the Leader approach. Endowed with a team of practitioners, decisionmaking powers and a fairly large budget, the LAG represents a new model of organisation that can considerably influence the institutional and political balance of the area concerned. The LAGs have provided appropriate mechanisms for participation, awareness raising and organisation of local actors in favour of rural development. The allocation of tasks and responsibilities between the partners (programme authorities, LAGs, members of the LAGs) should be clear and transparent.

Innovation

In addition to the Leader concept and its implementation in the field which in itself is innovative, the initiative also demands that the actions are innovative. They may be: actions

to promote local resources in new ways; actions that are of interest to local development but not covered by other development policies; actions providing new answers to the weaknesses and problems of rural areas; or which create a new product, new process, new forms of organisation, or a new market.

Innovation is also embodied in the programme’s pedagogical and networking components: disseminating information to other groups of players wishing to gain inspiration from achievements elsewhere or to carry out joint projects.

Integrated approach

The actions and projects contained in the local action plan are linked and coordinated as a coherent whole. Integration may concern actions conducted within a single sector, all programme actions or specific groups of actions, or, most importantly, links between the different economic, social, cultural, environmental actors and sectors involved in the area.

Networking and cooperation between areas

By facilitating the exchange and circulation of information on rural development policies and the dissemination and transfer of good practice and innovative strategies and actions, the Leader network aims to limit the isolation of LAGs and to create a source of information and analysis of the actions. To complement existing European and national networking, some LAGs have spontaneously organised themselves into informal networks. Another core part of Leader is the cooperation between rural areas. Cooperation between areas can be transnational but may equally take place between areas within the same Member State (interterritorial). In Leader+ a specific budget is allocated for cooperation projects.

Local financing and management

Delegating a large proportion of the decision-making responsibilities for funding and management to the LAG is another key element of the Leader approach. However, the LAG's degree of autonomy varies considerably depending on the Member State's specific mode of organisation and institutional context.

Consequently this criterion is to be considered on a case-by-case basis, in the various administrative contexts.

The demonstration of the Best Practices follows the below structure:

- Brief history of the project
- Main activities
- Concrete outputs and results
- Problems encountered/ lessons learnt
- The 'Leader+ added value' of the project
- Duration
- Budget
- Leader+ Best Practices
- Contact details

Methodology of collection and selection of good and best practices

In an annual exercise, and with the help of the national network units, the Leader+ Contact Point, assisted by experts, collects good practices among the Leader projects in the EU, and selects some of them to be included in the good practices' database on the Leader+ website: http://ec.europa.eu/leaderplus .

The method used was the following: firstly, the Contact Point carried out a SWOT analysis (strengths/weaknesses/ obstacles/threats) in the Member States on the state of good practice. The main partners in the Member States for this exercise were the national network units (NNUs). The result of the respective analysis was that the criteria for finding good practices were everywhere closely linked to the seven Leader+

elements. The Leader+ Observatory added two further European criteria which underline the European aspect of Leader+: transferability and sustainability.

6. Conclusion remarks

To conclude all the organizations and initiatives described in this article are sharing one common view: they identify a list of criteria followed by some selected criteria and then they demonstrate the Best Practices under an almost equivalent formation.

Having concluded an extensive desk research at the ways through which a Best Practice could be identified in similar socio-economic themes, it is more easier to proceed to design the methodology regarding the identification of good practice for the improvement of social inclusion though economy activities.

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