



THE 7TH EDITION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
EUROPEAN INTEGRATION
REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

Globalization and Cultural Diversity

Building Trans-Cultural Standards.

On Demolishing the Barriers to Intercultural Communication

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Abstract: The relationship between the individual and intercultural communication becomes clear when we understand culture within the cultural anthropology paradigm. From this point of view, any individual is the bearer of a certain culture (subculture, sub-subculture etc.), and interindividual communication is an intercultural one. That is why the issue of tolerance between individuals and groups becomes *an issue of the efficient communication and mutual understanding between cultures*. My research on demolishing the barriers to intercultural communication aims not only to institutionalized communication (between governments or national organizations), but also to communication between well established cultural communities, with a strong identity (linguistic, ethnic or religious communities): they regard any act of communication, including here the *international* professional one (where the main barriers dwell in the communication between national cultures). I think that in its current shape, based on economic criteria (which *split* rather than *unify*), the European Union does not offer enough “common tasks” in order to give birth to a new *Pan-European civic culture*, as a variety of the third culture. But, a European Federation could offer the political, economical, social and cultural framework necessary for the achievement of what Casmir called “the third culture”.

Key words: culture; identity; civic culture; intercultural communication; the third culture

1. Introduction

The relationship between the individual and intercultural communication becomes clear when we understand culture within the cultural anthropology paradigm – for instance, as defined by E. B. Tylor, T. Parsons and Chombart de Lauwe. In the introductory study to *Images de la Culture* called “Systemes de valeurs et aspirations culturelles”, Paul-Henry Chombart de Lauwe classified the culture approaches as follows: (1) culture as the individual’s development within society, (2) culture as a feature of a particular society or social milieu and (3) the problem of developing a universal culture (Chombart de Lauwe, 1970, pp. 14-21). It is obvious that out of the three approaches, that one that does not involve a previous evaluation and does not lead to a hierarchialisation of cultures (societies, groups and individuals) is the second one. It will also be the privileged referential of the present essay, because it is the one that suits best its objectives. The second approach goes mostly with Anglo-Saxon culturalists. Thus, E. B. Tylor sees culture as “the whole complex incorporating knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs and all the other possibilities and practices acquired by an individual as member of a society” (*ibidem*, p. 17). Another anthropologist, school founder, F. Boas, completes this definition: “the products of human communities determined by their practices” (*idem*).

The largest acceptance (and most proper to my aim) is the one given by T. Parsons, for whom culture is “organized feelings and beliefs”, representing “common values that are essential to a system of action proper to a society” (*ibidem*, p. 18). Parsons puts in practice, in the paradigm of actionalism that

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what Max Weber said: “The concept of culture is a concept of value” (2), in the sense of a tight relation between values and symbols with the material transformations they cause or they are caused by. In this essay I am trying to continue putting them into practice by introducing such concepts as *problematization technique*, *cultural paradigm* and *cultural referential*. Insisting upon the role of infrastructure generating desires and systems of value, Chombart de Lauwe considers that “a culture is marked by a range of models, guiding images and representations affecting the behavior, work, roles and social relations of the members of a certain society” (*ibidem*, p. 19). He calls upon the equal importance of techniques, space organization, production and work or consumption¹.

From this point of view, any individual is the bearer of a certain culture (subculture, sub-subculture etc.), and interindividual communication is an intercultural one. That is why the issue of tolerance between individuals and groups becomes *an issue of the efficient communication and mutual understanding between cultures*. My research on demolishing the barriers to intercultural communication aims not only to institutionalized communication (between governments or national organizations), but also to communication between well established cultural communities, with a strong identity (linguistic, ethnic or religious communities): they regard any act of communication, including here the *international* professional one (where the main barriers dwell in the communication between national cultures).

Now let us take a look at the barriers in intercultural communication.

2. Ways of Thinking

In her book *Philosophy in a New Key* (1942), Susanne K. Langer reached the conclusion that every symbolic system is solid to a certain mental organization by means of which individuals understand their world (3). For Langer, a certain historical époque is characterized by a certain way of problematising – more precisely, by a certain “technique” of people to ask questions about their surrounding world. And this “technique” limits and decides the way the answers are coming – in other words, it predetermines the way the ideas, ideologies and concepts about the world are formulated. Individuals are always aware of the ideas, the questions they answer to – quite seldom, and the problematisation “technique” – almost never (anyway, in what the ordinary individual is concerned – never).

Verbal communication is achieved by *ideas*, and it is exactly this precise level that communication accidents are solved or tried to be solved. Common interlocutors question the nature of the *questions* quite seldom (this is achieved only in the so-called *specialized conversations* – scientific debates, political negotiations – inaccessible to the common senses). *The technique of asking the questions* is not analyzed by anybody (except for the specialists). Let’s just take a look at an example provided by Susanne Langer.

The question “*Who made the world?*” can be answered: “*It was made by mere fortune!*”, or “*Love and hate made it!*” or “*God made it!*”. But if somebody answers “*Nobody made it!*”, they offer an apparent answer, unable to satisfy the one who has asked the question. The way their mind is organized does not lead them to the question “*Who made the world?*”; for them, the question bares a false problem. Around the answers to this question, concepts about this world are created, involving one or several creators (mythologies, polytheist and monotheist religions). All of them are due to the same “technique” of asking questions (and raising problems) and to the same mental organization. Of course, they differ from one époque or culture to another due to the different *problematization*

¹ The acceptance above suits me best, as it allows me to approach ideologies (including nationalism) as *forms of a culture*, and this facilitates methodologically the de-ideologisation of the ideology analysis. Analyzing or interpreting an ideology only as ideology compels us to using new instruments, again, ideological. Any non-cultural approach to ideology is necessarily paradigmatic, that is to say *ideological*. Any approach at the same level (that is ideological) becomes circular; it would not facilitate communication, but instead it would offer dogmatic ideologists new “arguments” for confrontation. The cultural approach favors a decentralization of our vision, generating a neutral language in relation to the languages of the current rival ideologies.

“techniques” on the world and to the different *mental organizations* (intellectual, imaginary, symbolic)¹. The corresponding relationship between the lack of the problematisation “technique” and mental organization generating the question “*Who made the world?*” from a certain life horizon and the fact that that cultural horizon is dominated by atheism is self-understood (cf. Langer, 1942, p. 3-4).

Of great importance to our theme is analyzing how possible is *communication as transfer of aware ideas*. It is obvious that such communication between interlocutors who do not share the same mental organization is not possible, because:

- a) every answer provided by any of the interlocutors will represent for the other *the rejection of his question*;
- b) despite the common vocabulary, *there is no common language*.

The most obvious conclusion is *the impossibility of communication, in the sense of modifying one's interlocutor's way of thinking – aware modification assumed by the latter*. And this is the only assumption we are interested from the perspective of communication between cultures and/or ideologies. Otherwise, communication can only be regarded as a one-way “process”, as manipulation or tame, as a source of alienation, and it can be exercised on undemocratic and anti-humanitarian purposes, the way it has often been practiced in modern times.

The doubts concerning the possibility of an authentic intercultural communication have come into being as a result of spotting some objective limits of the ability of language to function as a universal currency and which make communication either an impossible, or an incomplete act. The fact is despairing as these limits do not belong to interlocutors, but to *language itself*, and spring from the *nature of the act of acquiring knowledge*. What are these limits, how do they take effect and under what circumstances can they be surpassed? These are the questions that we must answer in order to find a rational answer to the fundamental question: *Is an authentic tolerance between individuals and/or groups belonging to different cultures possible?* Because authentic tolerance requires more than an institutionally imposed «political correctness»: it requires an authentic communication that is an *aware transfer*².

3. Cultural Paradigms

A good way to start studying these phenomena is explaining what a “cultural paradigm” is; the term has been widely used over the past four decades in social philosophy, anthropology, psychology and sociology. It has been acquired by “concept translation”, being borrowed from the philosophy of

¹ We have to consider real communication as a transfer *made aware*, because the awareness of the transfer is a *sine qua non* condition for its double univocity. Of course, there is univocal communication, to which the receptor is highly oblivious (political propaganda, commercial advertisements or educational communication in the first school years). But when dealing with intercultural or inter-ideological communication, we must accept the existence of the double univocity, so we must perceive everything in the form of aware transfer.

I do not believe that the imitation of cultural models from another cultures, as it often happens in the Third World, where, by means of *Fashion*, Western ideas and conducts are being imported (but not ideologies and institutions) is an instance of the real intercultural communication (as *bi-directional* transfer of ideas, values, attitudes, even behaviors). Sooner or later, the social inefficiency of this type of unaware transfer will become relevant and its consequences will raise reactions, which generally take the form of anti-western attitudes. The way I see *real communication*, neither as culture “export” or “import”, nor as cultural “aggression” and nor the violent reactions against the “aggressors” represent *efficient* forms of intercultural communication. Such communication not only that has no positive effect (it is inefficient), but it creates greater and more problems than those waiting for a solution. The terrorist attack on September the 11-th 2001 is just one of the effects of the failure in intercultural communication (it is right, one of maximum dramatism and maximum media visibility); it has been “cooked” by the long practice of the univocal cultural communication. If one could calculate the “efficiency” of such communication, in most cases this would be below one!

² For Ferdinand de Saussure, “the linguistic sign does not unify an object to a name, but a *concept* to an acoustic image” (de Saussure, 1998 - *our emphases*, D. B.). The signified is not the object, but the concept, that we know to be a cultural construct, not an (empirically) observed thing. Peirce's three-sided model places the “interpreter” between “representative” and “object”, as we have seen, under the pressure of the social context, as revealed in norms and conventions that differ from one culture to another (Peirce, 1931).

science, where it has been imposed by the American philosopher Thomas S. Kuhn. He has noticed that the theories on the nature of science and the aim of the nature research are not in accordance with the scientific practice, the way it comes out of the history of science.

In practice, he says, scientists' behavior does not respect the canons defining *scientificity* and even *rationality* (canons present both in the philosophy of science and in the current mentality). The positivists, including here K. Popper (enemy of the logic empirism), considered that science differs from speculation by testing – either as a confirmation of the theory (Carnap), or as its declination (“falsifying”) (Popper). For them, the central concept in characterizing the nature and dynamic of science is the “scientific theory”, and the science/non-science separation criterion is *testability*. For Kuhn, the central concept is *paradigm*, and the scientificity criterion is *problem solving*.

Paradigms are models of scientific practice that we come across in the classical scientific works and, especially, in handbooks and treaties; they are the basement of instructing a certain scientific group (physicists, chemists etc.). they are the ones teaching the trainee to create and solve new problems. Thus, paradigms are “exemplary scientific achievements that, during a certain period, offer problems and model solutions to a community of practitioners” (Kuhn, 1976, p. 14).

Unlike the knowledge within the abstract lines of the theory and within the general methodological rules, the knowledge within paradigms is *tacit*. Paradigms guide the members of a certain scientific group in solving the new problems, without their realizing the paradigm step by step. They apply it – sometimes, even in a creative manner –, but they are not able to enclose it in general statements.

The fact that the members of one scientific group share one common paradigm explains that fact they their communication is almost complete and runs without major difficulty; it also explains the unanimity of their professional judgments. This does not hold good with the scientists who use different paradigms, as *paradigms are incommensurable* (they cannot be compared, as there is no common “measure unit”).

The incommensurability of the paradigms is caused by the following facts:

- i) they imply *incompatible presuppositions* on the base entities of the study field and their behavior;
- ii) they require *different criteria* in order to limit the “real” problems and “legitimate” solutions;
- iii) the *conclusions* drawn by researchers on the same reality are *incommensurable* as well.

How can one explain the incommensurability of the observations? Although they aim “in the same direction and at the same point” (Kuhn), although the sensorial apparatus is the same, researchers will perceive different things. This happens because of the tacit knowledge within paradigms; it blocks the route stimuli-perception. This is exactly the situation analyzed by the founders of semiotics, Ferdinand de Saussure and Charls Peirce¹.

This generates a “crack in communication” (Kuhn); the adepts of one paradigm cannot convince the adepts of the rival paradigm of the superiority of their point of view, and they won't be able to understand and accept the others' point of view. The arguments of the two parts will be circular (they can only be understood and accepted by the researchers who *already* work in the same paradigm).

Kuhn's theory buries for good the ideal of the complete communication by means of a universal language and the idea of progress in objectivity as drawing nearer to a pre-existing *Truth*, by means of an *Ideal Language*. This theory reveals the relativity of any communication, generated not by the “communicational incompetence”, but by the nature of language and knowledge itself.

¹ This situation is similar to the one in the United States, where the social roles of males and females are being questioned. Many of the preoccupied ones aim at “equality with males” – equality based on a system of values elaborated by males. None of the females' protests has aimed at the construction of a third culture, as a starting point for emancipation. In my opinion, such an aim would become a serious threat for the “sexist males” and, generally speaking, for all “conservators”, because it would request a *cultural redefinition of the entire society*, equating a change of the existing order, a social revolution.

Enough to replace Kuhn's concept with the concept of "cultural paradigm" in order to realize that the limits in the communication between scientists hold valid for the communication between any human groups – while any group can be considered a cultural or sub-cultural community (ethnic communities, social classes, professional guilds, political parties etc.). Two rival paradigms are enough (in other words, rivaling for *the same domain of reality*), to give birth to obstacles in communication.

I will define cultural paradigm as a *constellation of values, beliefs and methods (including problematisation "techniques") belonging to a certain community at a given moment*.

Now we will prove that Kuhn's observations of "scientific groups" stay valid:

1. the rival paradigm representatives speak about different matters, even when they look "from the same point" and "in the same direction";
2. competition between rival paradigms is not solved by arguments of deeds;
3. the rival paradigm representatives do not agree upon the "really important matters";
4. communication between them is always partial;
5. the rival paradigm representatives are always within different worlds (they see different *things* in a different *correlation*);
6. complete communication is only possible within the same paradigm;
7. the transition from one paradigm to another can take place from different reasons, with no relation to the logical demonstration or to the empirical "proofs".

3. The Third Culture

The surpassing of the communication barriers, inherent to cultural pluralism, in order to achieve an authentic communication has been approached as a practical problem (although solved by theoretical means) by Fred L. Casmir and Nobleza C. Assuncion-Lande. Coming from a *sui generis* life horizon, with an (inter)cultural experience that only the United States could offer, the two authors published in 1990 the study "*Intercultural Communication Revisited: Conceptualization, Paradigm Building and Methodological Approaches*" (Casmir & Assuncion-Lande, 1990, pp. 278-309).

After reviewing the previous efforts in theorizing intercultural communication, Casmir notices he must retain not the successes of these theories, but rather its failures and the uncertainties left behind. The method taken over by Casmir is that of rejection of cultural dominance; he is trying to find the opportunities for a mutual development of some cultures in proximal interaction, like the ones living together within the American society.

The novelty Casmir brings about is the fact that his analytical model is designed within the "both-and" paradigm; thus, he overtakes the obvious limits of *multiculturalism* and *interculturalism*, currents considered by many authors to be the "ultimate word" in post-modern, democratic and de-centered approaches (set free from the traps of ethnocentrism – Euro-centrism, respectively). From my point of view, multiculturalism and interculturalism (that is to say the "swan song" of multiculturalism) are the prisoners of the "either-or" paradigm, which we consider a factor generating identity conflict during the history (including the history of Europe)¹.

So far, a series of approaches have not offered practical solutions for surpassing the barriers in communication and the intercultural communication surrogates (for instance, the "dialogue of the

¹ With Casmir we come across another approach of intercultural communication: an "spatial" and not a "flat" approach, as an architect would put it. The "flat" approach is specific to *multiculturalism*, which only takes note of the existence of several cultures and legitimates them. *Interculturalism* was a step forward, as it requires the inter-knowledge and communication between these cultures. In my opinion, this stays an important desire, but unachievable in the current state of the history: we are in full ethnic idealism. In order to realize this, it is enough to read the collective volume *Quelle identité pour l'Europe?* guided by Riva Kastoryano. The volume is a proof of the failure of multiculturalism as a way of approaching intercultural communication: it offer no credible ways to achieving a co-operation policy and neither to constructing a super-national identity without the risk of destroying national identities (see Kastoryano, 1998).

dumb” between NATO and the Slobodan Milosevic Government). Until these approaches themselves are overtaken, many political objectives will remain simple desires. For instance, in the current paradigm, the cultural unification of Europe in democratic terms, that is to say not within the “dominance-serving” frame, seems an absurdity. By “absurdity” I do not mean impossibility, *but the border separating possibility and impossibility*. And, as we have already seen, a change in paradigm can turn the possible into impossible, but also the other way round: *it can turn the impossible into possible*. Such a paradigm transpires out of Casmir’s theory. The main conclusion of his analysis is that, given his synthesis capacity, which is specifically human, the construction of such a concrete historical situation where intercultural communication may become possible and not limit itself to a simple technology export/import is achievable. Such situations are defined by the concept “the third culture”.

Although relying on different, sometimes opposed, perceptions and behaviours, the individuals belonging to two different cultures create, through their interaction, a single framework for this interaction. As a result of the conjunction of the two cultures, a *third culture* comes into being, wider than the former ones and taken over by the both sides (the individuals belonging to these sides).

Within the third culture, the original ones can communicate better than in the case the third culture is missing. Thus, the third culture is not just a result of the fusion of two or more entities, but rather the product of their mutual “harmonizing” and becoming the components of a coherent whole. That is why the individual study of the original cultures will not reveal the base rules of the communication within the third one.

Casmir calls the third culture a “situational subculture”, within which the individuals in interaction can adjust their temporary behavior for as long as they pursue common aims. Within the common efforts of mutual adjustment, individuals *accumulate and experience of their common aspects*, which can later provide them with starting points for new interactions.

For Casmir, the third culture is not to be achieved by spiritual perfection or by mere education (although education can support this process, and its final outcome can be regarded as spiritual perfection). The third culture is to be achieved *only* under the pressure of an *objective and constraining* situation: when culturally non-similar persons are forced to co-operate in fulfilling some tasks that they have all agreed upon as compulsory. Casmir proposes some of the characteristics of the third culture:

- 1) *it is open*: it is able to incorporate new elements and thus to develop;
- 2) *it is expansive*: it can enlarge its contextual limits, being able to include new situations of communication (individual, organizational, institutional or mediating);
- 3) *it is sensitive to provocation*: it responds to the new requests generated by the continuous adjustments and re-adjustments, necessary in order to alienate the participants’ perceptions and expectations (in regard to one another or to the situation that forces them to intercultural co-operation and communication);
- 4) *it is future-oriented*: the third culture is the beginning and not the end of a common enterprise. This orientation causes anticipation attitudes (in relation to a possible situation and an increased communication).

I consider that the close analysis of the third culture and its reason to be is very important to the development of mankind in the globalization era. It has become a pressing problem just because of the fact that people have become aware of the major importance of the cultural import/export. On the one hand, this process is regarded as a “cultural rape” (see the Walt Disney movies), on the other hand, the reaction caused by this perception can generate major conflicts (see the Gulf War, the NATO involvement in Yugoslavia, the USA actions in Afghanistan), or insane strategies, inspired by the fear of the “cultural imperialism” (see Mao’s “cultural revolution” or Ceausescu’s old-fashioned nationalism). From my point of view, these effects are the result of the collision between a presence and an absence: the presence of the “cultural determinism” idea and the absence of the “third culture” idea – and with it, the constructive effort that this idea generates and presupposes.

All these experiences lead to the conclusion that the *replacement strategies* are not productive, they cause failures in cultural communication, rejection and even conflicts. The Catholic Church experience, the UNO experiences (see Magee, 9) are not to be overlooked in studying the obstacles to communication and can constitute the basement of the third culture theory.

Casmir's developments and analyses have generated not only conclusions, but also questions:

1. Is a *new ethic code* of intercultural communication possible or even necessary?
2. What are the *aims of the researches* on intercultural communication?
3. How should we *practically* approach intercultural communication, keeping in mind the fact that an ethic and efficient communication depends on all the participants of a certain culture (not just its representatives)?
4. Does anybody have the right to impose its own *communicational behavior standards*, baring in mind that fact that changing one's communicational behavior means cultural change (and equates a "cultural rape")?

The questions above are vital for a possible theory of the intercultural tolerance or, in other words, a possible *unified theory of tolerance*, which can outline the conditions to *efficient*, and *ethic* communication and co-operation. In the framework of the post-positivist epistemology, of cultural pluralism and the relativism generated by the incommensurability of the cultural paradigms, the answers to the questions above depend on the solution to the fundamental dilemma: *Is the construction of trans-cultural communicational standards, of a trans-cultural code of the communicational behavior possible?*

Thus, the pessimism towards the possibility of an authentic intercultural communication and an authentic intercultural tolerance justified only by the classical paradigm, where cultures are regarded in their objectivity, as exterior, immuable and out of the communicational context. The *third culture* idea brings about a new paradigm, which constraints the participants to communication to take part in the fulfillment of certain common tasks, being forced to adapt their references mutually and progressively, in the process of communication. The flat and contemplative descriptionism of "multiculturalism" and the idealist and utopic activism of "interculturalism" are overcome by a new point of view in which the human subject (individual or collective) can build a new trans-cultural vision, a "common house" where communication can be efficient. In such a paradigm, none of the subjects is to elaborate a communicational code, so that one culture or another can impose its own communicational standards. This becomes a false problem!

In the constraining situation of a "common task", the codes and standards appear by themselves, during the process of communication. The role of the specialists in communication (academicians, researchers or workers in social communication) is to facilitate the mutual adjustments of the cultures within the "common task" situation (Casmir), to keep a record of the progress and to make the participants aware of them. The willing assumption of the new standards is the starting point for new mutual adjustments – and so on, in a process where communication has been unblocked. Are we not living in an era where more and more cultures are brought in the "common task" situation? What is, for instance, the European Union? I think that in its current shape, based on economic criteria (which *split* rather than *unify*), the European Union does not offer enough "common tasks" in order to give birth to a new *Pan-European civic culture*, as a variety of the third culture. But, a European Federation could offer the political, economical, social and cultural framework necessary for the achievement of what Casmir called "the third culture" (see Gabriel Andreescu & Adrian Severin, 2001, pp. 3-42)

Under the virtual conditions of a European Federation, the “common tasks” will inevitably multiply, but their cultural imperatives would seem more and more obvious for the Europeans. Realizing them faster could be substantially achieved by social communication, standardized in the social engineering terms (such engineering already exists and it is called *Public Relations*).

From within the new paradigm, the questions are different – less theoretical and their answers are easier to be found:

1. In a more and more interdependent world, how do we define *competence in intercultural communication*?
2. Which are the *instruction methods* that need to be developed in order to achieve this competence?
3. How can *communication and collaboration* between researchers, practitioners and intercultural communication subjects be facilitated?
4. How can *collaboration* be enlarged, so it can incorporate new cultures?
5. What *research types* should be supported for their usefulness for other cultures?
6. What *institutions* should we design in order to be able to use the products of the research work – not merely communicational, but also communicative institutions?

These questions are not theoretical, but practical and immediate. They address researchers and schoolmasters, experts and councilors, politicians and us all, those involved more or less from the professional point of view to social communication in general, but especially to the intercultural and inter-ideological one.

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The New Phase of the Global Policy on Climate Change

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Abstract: Climate change, a phenomenon that occurs worldwide, is one of the great challenges of our times. The scientific community has repeatedly drawn policy makers attention to the imperative need to adopt of preventive, mitigation and adaptation measures to what constitutes a threat to the normal course of life on Earth. Adoption and entry into force of the Kyoto Protocol, with its ratification by Russia, in February 2005 represented a major step forward in the global struggle against climate change. In this moment, however, the conclusion in 2012 of the commitment period for reducing emissions of greenhouse gases provided by the Protocol, and the brokenness of this period, put in front of the international community the need for further policy measures to prevent and combating climate change and its effects.

Keywords: climate changes; greenhouse gases; emissions; policies

1. Introduction

Since the early 70's of last century the phenomenon of climate change and its main effect, the global warming became more present at the planetary level.

Climate change is expected to result in decreasing precipitation in arid and semi-arid areas, thus aggravating land degradation, in turn reducing livelihoods and increasing the threats of hunger and famine. Other projected impacts of climate change include shifts in climatic zones, sea level rise that could lead of millions of people displacement from low-lying delta areas and small island states. It Climate change could also increase risks of some extreme weather events such as cyclones, drought and floods.

The continuous growth of the environmental impact of human activities caused more and more severe reactions both from the environmental organizations and the population, and generally directed to the adoption of restriction measures.

In this respect, a series of preparatory events took place, namely: in 1979 the First and in 1990 the Second World Conference on Climate held in Geneva, Switzerland. Meanwhile, a series of actions were initiated such as World Climate Programme (1980), the Global Conservation Strategy (1980), the Inter-governmental Panel for Climate Change - IPCC (1988), the Global Climate Observation System - GCOS (1989), and the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) (1991).

2. Milestones in Climate Change Combat

2.1. United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) elaborated in 1992, has set an overall framework for global efforts to tackle the challenge posed by climate change. The Convention, which entered into force in 1994, recognises that the climate system is a shared resource whose stability can be affected by industrial and other emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases.

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The main objective of the Convention is: “stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Such a level should be achieved within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner..”

There are now 195 Parties to the Convention. According to the provisions of the Convention, Parties are required to:

- gather and share information on greenhouse gas emissions, national policies and best practices;
- launch national strategies for addressing greenhouse gas emissions and adapting to expected impacts, including the provision of financial and technological support to developing countries;
- cooperate in preparing for adaptation to the impacts of climate change.

2.2 Kyoto Protocol

Research on climate change indicate the need for more stringent measures to reduce GHG emissions, stronger than stabilizing GHG emissions under the UNFCCC.

At the Third Conference of the Parties (COP 3) held in December 1997 in Kyoto, Japan, was decided to sign a protocol to establish measures, targets and clear periods to reduce emissions of greenhouse gases.

The Kyoto Protocol (KP) entered into force internationally on February 16th 2005, once ratified by Russia, and sets binding objectives for the countries listed in Annex B, for reducing GHG emissions with an average of approx 5%, generally compared to the 1990 level, during the 5 years commitment period (2008 – 2012).

The major difference between the two acts is that, unlike the Convention, which encourages the Parties to maintain emissions level, KP imposes their commitment to reduce GHG emissions.

The Kyoto Protocol established three flexible mechanisms to be used by the Parties to the Protocol, namely: Joint Implementation (JI, Article 6), Clean Development Mechanism (CDM, Article 12), and International Emissions Trading (IET, Article 17). These financial mechanisms come to support the parties included in Annex B of the Protocol in reducing the costs of achieving emission reduction target values, based on GHG emissions reductions in other countries or increasing GHG removals (natural reservoirs), with lower costs than in its territory.

2.3 The Bali Action Plan

Due to the fact that KP established a first commitment period, which ends in 2012, the international community called for an effective and sustained implementation of the UNFCCC through long-term cooperative action up to and beyond 2012 by addressing:

- A shared vision for long-term cooperative action, including a long-term global goal for emission reductions.
- Enhanced national/international action on mitigation of climate change.
- Enhanced action on adaptation.
- Enhanced action on technology development and transfer to support action on mitigation and adaptation.
- Enhanced action on the provision of financial resources and investment to support action on mitigation and adaptation and technology cooperation.

The Bali Action Plan was agreed upon at COP 13 of the Convention, held in Bali in December 2007. The Conference adopted the Bali Road Map, which consists of a number of forward-looking decisions that represent the various tracks that are essential to reaching a secure climate future.

2.4. Cancun Agreements

The 16th of the Convention was held in Cancún, Mexico in 2010 and adopted important agreements consisting in some significant decisions

- The international community agreed to address the long-term challenge of climate change collectively and comprehensively over time and to take concrete action now to speed up the global response.
- The agreements represent key steps forward in capturing plans to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and to help developing nations protect themselves from climate impacts and build their own sustainable futures.

Parties agreed:

- to commit to a maximum temperature rise of 2 degrees Celsius above pre-Industrial levels, and to consider lowering that maximum to 1.5 degrees in the near future.
- to make fully operational by 2012 a technology mechanism to boost the innovation, development and spread of new climate-friendly technologies;
- to establish a Green Climate Fund to provide financing to projects, programmes, policies and other activities in developing countries via thematic funding windows;

on the Cancun Adaptation Framework, which included setting up an Adaptation Committee to promote the implementation of stronger, cohesive action on adaptation.

2.5. The 2011 United Nations Climate Change Conference

The Conference representing the COP 17 of the Convention, held in December 2011 in Durban, South Africa., was accompanied by big expectation of the international community:

- agreement of a roadmap for a future global deal on reducing carbon emissions;
- further pledge on emission cuts under the Kyoto Protocol for the rich countries;
- speeding up the roll-out of clean technology to developing nations...;
- a system for managing the Green Climate Fund, scheduled to gather and distribute billions of dollars per year to developing countries;
- Progress on funding forest protection.

But despite agreement on a deal to cut emissions previously being expected by 2013, rich countries are now understood to be pushing for a deal to be agreed no earlier than 2015 or 2016, to come into force by 2020. At the end of 2012, the first phase of the Kyoto protocol will expire, leaving the world with no legally binding international deal to cut emissions.

In this moment, however, the conclusion in 2012 of the commitment period for reducing emissions of greenhouse gases provided by the Protocol, and the brokenness of this period put in front of the international community the need for further policy measures to prevent and combating climate change and its effects.

2.6. EU mainstreaming in climate change

General policy on climate change is a high priority in the EU and includes a number of measures aimed at reducing GHG emissions.

European Climate Change Programme (ECCP) is the EU policies and regulations that contribute directly or indirectly, to achieving the EU's commitment to reduce GHG emissions by 8% compared with base year 1990. This program led to the establishment of a permit trading scheme of GHG emissions within the European Community.

The next phase will be a period of eight years, from 1 January 2013 till 31 December 2020. This long period of marketing will contribute to a greater predictability, necessary for encouraging long-term investments in reducing emissions. The EU ETS will be expanded and strengthened substantially starting in 2013, which will allow it to play a central role in achieving the EU objectives on climate and energy for 2020.

For the following period the European Council has set two key objectives:

- Reduction of at least 20% of the GHG emissions by 2020 compared to 1990, and with 30% if an international agreement is reached;
- A 20% share of renewable energy sources in final energy consumption in the EU by 2020, including in it the 10% target bio fuels in total consumption used in transport.

To achieve the objectives in terms of climate change, it is necessary to reduce carbon dioxide emissions much faster in the next decade than in the previous decade and maximise the exploitation of the potential of new technologies, as well as possibilities of capture and storage of carbon dioxide. A more efficient use of resources would contribute significantly to reducing emissions, to the achievement of economies and would stimulate economic growth.

3. Conclusions

The closing in 2012 of the commitment period for reducing emissions of greenhouse gases provided by the Kyoto Protocol, and the brokenness of this period, put in front of the international community the need for further policy measures to prevent and combating climate change and its effects. It is important to resolve the future of the Kyoto Protocol, which is fundamental and critical for at least two reasons:

- it contains the key rules to quantify and monitor the mitigation efforts of countries;
- it also contains important market based mechanisms that allows those countries to reach their mitigation levels in a cost effective manner.

The international community has to go towards a new post Kyoto agreement in 2012 and to pay special attention to economic arguments in order to reach sustainable solutions.

For emerging economies, a way forward would be to invest in lower emitting technologies, such as those associated with the use of renewable energies, in order to deal with the growing costs of fossil fuel use. Also, focus on specific objectives of environmental protection, such as improved performance on emissions from vehicles or industrial equipment, would constitute measures aimed both at energy efficiency and atmosphere protection.

Appropriate climate action will stimulate meanwhile the international competitiveness building, will transform the economy and society by creating new economic infrastructure, sectors and activities. This will contribute to the increase of prosperity due to the creation of new jobs and not last, by the improvement of health and quality of life for all.

4. Acknowledgments

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REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

The Bicycle – Future’s Solution for an Eco-friendly Urban Transport

Cristina Ciovică¹, Cristian Florea², Alexandra Gălbează³

Abstract: Even though more and more cities across the globe impose restrictive measures regarding the use of cars and offer instead incentives in order to choose alternative means of transport, they do not slow down their economic growth, but on the contrary they prove their skills towards providing citizens a better life. Under these circumstances, the bicycle appears as a viable solution for most of us, and the public programs that support its use have started to develop globally, at European level, and in Romania as well. The current paper wishes to point out the stimulating perspectives brought by the slight increase in the number of bicycles sold in our country in recent years towards the future of urban transport.

Keywords: means of transport; ecology; public programs

1. Introduction

In cities or areas with mixed traffic, where we can find from motor cars, trucks, busses, to bicycles, motorbikes, scooters and, of course, pedestrians, bicycles begin to have a more and more important role among all the other types of vehicles, whether they are motor-powered or not. Under these circumstances, it is widely accepted that cycling brings a lot of benefits to the human organism, reducing first of all the appearance of cancer, heart diseases or obesity.

In what concerns the transport sector and the part in which cycling contributes to the reduction in the number of cars used, various authors provide favourable arguments such as improving the quality of air, reducing greenhouse gases, reducing pollution, improving life in general and also maintaining a certain social connection between citizens, these aspect being universally valid for all countries and not only for those ones within which the studies were conducted (Bauman, Merom and Rissel, 2012).

2. Implementing Public Programs and the Usage of Bicycles Worldwide

Such as Brent Ritchie underlines in his article (1998), studies show that bicycles have lately began to develop into a favourite option of spending free time and recreation. In some countries such as the United States of America, Great Britain, France, Holland, Switzerland or New Zealand it seems that the usage of this means of transport has become a real tourism branch. And those who deal with this field have gone so far that they managed to transform disabled railways into genuine cycling runways. The reason for which more and more people take part in cycling is based on a worldwide growth in bicycle sales, especially those which are “mountain bikes”. Ritchie divides the motivations of people who choose the bicycle into seven main categories within which we can find arguments ranging from social escapes and physical challenges to the desire to explore, to prove certain skills and to search for a certain stimulus. In addition, as a consequence of the potential that this type of tourism has from a

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social, economic and ecologic point of view, the infrastructure designed for cycling is in a continuous development in most countries with the purpose of stimulating demand.

At global level, public programs that encourage the use of bicycles have grown in magnitude lately, people being able to overcome misconceptions such as “the bicycle, poor’s car” and to discover their true utility. A series of Canadian authors (Fuller et al., 2011) have pointed out the advantages brought by the implementation of BIXI program (name which comes from the juxtaposition of the first two letters of the word “bicycle” and the last two of the word “taxi”) in Canada. The public program, which belongs to the bike-sharing type, focused in its first year of implementation on attracting a number of people at least equal to those that already use a bicycle as a means of transport in Montreal, the objective being successfully met by the 8.2% of the adult population that has chosen to use BIXI. Moreover, it seems that approximately 14% of those that live near bicycle renting stations have used the program at least once. Nevertheless, taking into consideration only those that have answered positively to the question “Have you used the BIXIs at least once?”, the study reveals the fact that two thirds of them were living in less BIXI renting populated areas.

At the same time, we need to evaluate the factors that determine people to cycle or on the contrary those that hold them back. Wishing to examine people’s behaviour regarding cycling to work, Heinen et al. (2011) have noticed that both on small (under 5 km) and medium distances (between 5 and 10 km), as well as on long distances (over 10 km) people tend to be effected by the “direct benefit” agent, within which we can find characteristics such as saving time and comfort, flexibility and pleasure. Still, on the other hand, factors such as “safety” (social or from the point of view of the traffic) and “awareness” (ecological, health and mental relaxation benefits) are representative for those persons that are used to resort to the bicycle for small and long distances. Anyway, we need to underline the fact that this research has been conducted in Holland, country in which infrastructure and policies related to this field are very developed, so there might be some differences in what concerns that last two factors between other European countries and that one in which the study was conducted (for example, in Holland, cycling is generally considered safe or is seen as a means of transport and not one used for recreation).

Other specialists have focused on the substantial difference between the number of bicycles sold and that one of cyclists, the two claiming that the simple custody of a bicycle does not mean that the latter is also used (Foster & Cavill, 2012). The reasons for which we encounter these situations are various: either we do not know how to fix our own broken bicycle and the specialized places are very few and that is why we prefer to buy a new one, either we wish to have the most fashionable bike. Nonetheless, The British Cycling Economy Report brings into the foreground the remarkable contribution that bicycles have for the British economy, accounting revenues for approximately 2.9 billion pounds a year and showing strong signs of growth on the long term as well. Still, the conclusion that Foster and Cavill have drawn is that those who are involved in the cycling industry should be more preoccupied with encouraging the population to effectively use bikes and not to design new types, one more sophisticated than other, or to sell as much bicycles as possible. In order to convert the quite large bicycle demand into a change in people’s behaviour it is necessary to invest in mixed programmes that combine, on one hand, infrastructure improvements and, on the other hand, population education towards changing attitudes.

3. Romania and Its Bicycle Industry

If in the western countries cycling is a well-known practice and most of these nations are worldwide known for their implemented programs, in Romania it is hard to speak about experience in this field or about fulminating successes of this type of projects, but it seems things are starting to get shaped and more and more people to become aware of the benefits the bicycle brings as an alternative means of transport compared to the car.

As its promoters (Raiffeisen Bank and the Green Revolution Association) claim, the I'Velo project is probably the most important bike-sharing program in Romania, making its debut in May 2010 and providing to all cycling lovers, regardless of their age or social status, 1,100 bicycles, at first in Bucharest and then, as a result of its success in the first trimester, in Târgu-Mureş, Cluj-Napoca, Iaşi and Constanţa (Green Revolution Association, 2012a). Last year, the hiring centre from Târgu-Mureş has been moved to Braşov. We should also mention the fact that the present program is being realized under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Environment and Forests, and with the help of the city halls of Bucharest, Braşov, Cluj-Napoca, Iaşi and Constanţa, as well as with the support of Bucharest Lakes, Parks and Leisure Administration (ALPAB).

Fortunately, the management of the Green Revolution Association wasn't happy only with that achievement and succeeded to initiate other related projects. In the same time with the above mentioned program another one has been put forward, known as the "Bicycles with ties" Program, the first free bike-sharing program from Romania dedicated to business centres, namely those companies that wish to provide personal bikes for their personnel. The 156 bicycles were used by more than 500 employees coming from the partner companies, sources from the Green Revolution claiming that in 2011 the number of people who used the bicycle as a means of transport has tripled compared to the previous year (Green Revolution Association, 2012b). Actually, these programs were based on a much smaller one called "On pedals", which has been enjoying exceptional results for the last three years, but just in the perimeter of the Kiseleff Park from Bucharest (Jeles, 2011). Moreover, as a consequence to the success I'Velo had, Green Revolution decided to organize the project "StudentOBike" dedicated exclusively to students from five national academic centres, more exactly from Bucharest, Braşov, Cluj-Napoca and Iaşi (Green Revolution Association, 2012b). Those 500 bicycles that were made available for students and that have as purpose to make them responsible towards the environment were purchased with the help of the Ministry of Environment and Forests, the Bucharest City Hall, and the city halls from Braşov, Cluj-Napoca and Iaşi, as well as with the support of the partner universities.

Bicycle producers from Romania also benefit from an increase in the number of persons that use bicycles and from the development of public programs, the DHS Group, the one that provided the equipment for the I'Velo project, being one of the top companies and achieving in 2009 a turnover of 21 million Euros. In addition, Rom-Eurotrade general manager, a valuable bicycle importer, declared that the Romanian market has an "amazing" development trend, in a shorter period than normal. Furthermore, he added that our country cannot be compared to the western countries, but it is capable of catching up with most of the western markets (Muresan, 2010).

Although the crisis brought only turbulences in most sectors, the automobile market registering even 70% drops, in what concerns the bicycles, the trend is an optimistic one, which attracted new companies to the Romanian market (Moş Ion Roată, Velorbis) and which makes approximately 300,000 Romanians to save at least one hundred Euros for a bike (Rosca, 2010). And if some believe that the new arrived companies is the best thing that could happen to our country than they are wrong because the electronic revolution of bikes is knocking at the door. Even though magnesium and carbon or the folding technologies have already pushed their way among the new bicycle types, it seems that we are witnessing some unseen inventions (Popan, 2011). Thus, microcomputers that show your speed and heartbeat in each moment while you're cycling, global positioning systems incorporated in a Smartphone which is installed on the handlebars or bicycles than cannot be set in motion without a security code will be part of our everyday life. Actually, we are talking about e-bikes or pedelecs, types which are well-known in Western Europe, especially in Germany and Holland, but which are rarely seen in our country, specialized companies reporting the sell of just couple of dozens of them.

Table 1 The number of bicycles sold (2004 – 2010) *

Year	Ball bearing bicycles (EU 27)	Ball bearing bicycles (Romania)	Bicycles without ball bearings (EU 27)	Bicycles without ball bearings (Romania)	Total bicycles in the EU (with or without ball bearings)
2004	11830	75	3391	0	15221
2005	10981	96	1873	0	12854
2006	10470	85	2785	0	13255
2007	10289	251	3583	0	13872
2008	11176	283	2850	0	14026
2009	9611	397	3713	0	13324
2010	9501	789	3006	0	12507

* Data is in thousands of units

Source: Eurostat

At Romania's level it is hard to state how many persons use bikes because there is no statistical data for this aspect, but with the help of the Eurostat (2009/2012) data we have managed to analyze the number of bicycles sold between 2004 and 2010. According to the information found, there are two types of bicycles, the ones that have ball bearings and the ones without ball bearings. The table above wishes to show the situation of these non-motorized vehicles in Romania in comparison with the number registered in the European Union.

In what concerns the ball bearing bicycle domain a backwards relation between our country and the level of the European Union can be seen (figure 1). Consequently, although we have shown so far that in the western countries people mainly tend to use the bicycle as a means of transport within the city regardless of their destination, it seems that from 2004 till 2010 the trend of the European Union has been a decreasing one, with a slight upswing during 2008, while in Romania the evolution has been positive, with a shy but firm starting point (only 75,000 bicycles were sold in 2004 compared to 12 million in the European Union). Moreover, we must point out the fact that in the last two years (namely 2009 and 2010) the level in our country was a bit higher than the average of the European Union, which is encouraging for our market.

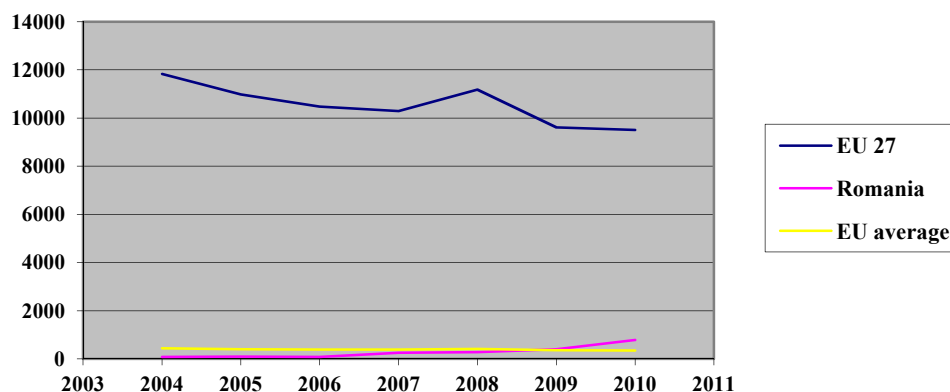


Figure 1 Ball bearing bicycles sold in the European Union and in Romania

Taking into consideration both categories of bicycles introduced by the European statistical organism, figure 2 presents the same backwards relation between the number of bicycles sold in the European Union and in Romania, although the variations from year to year are relatively small at the Union's level, the first expressions of the financial-economic crisis sticking out at the beginning of 2009.

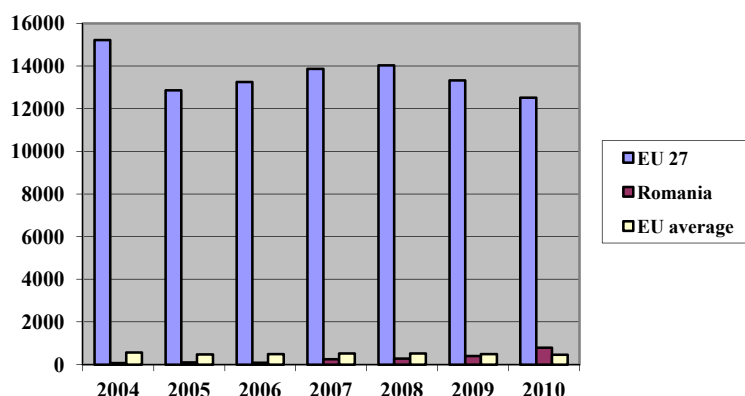


Figure 2 Bicycles sold (with or without ball bearings) in the EU and in Romania

As a result of the fact that in Romania bicycles without ball bearings are not produced, we have chosen to analyze in detail only part of the data provided by Eurostat (column 2 of table 1). We have thus resorted to the Microsoft Office Programme Excel and more precisely to the descriptive statistics function.

Table 2 The statistical output (The European Union)*

Mean	10551.14286
Median	10470
Standard Deviation	843.8671753
Minimum	9501
Maximum	11830
Sum	73858
Count	7

* Data is in thousands of units

Source: author's own computation using Eurostat data

Table 2 shows the results obtained in the case of the European Union, results that incorporate both bicycle categories. Consequently, it seems that during the seven years that were analyzed the average number of bicycles sold was approximately 10,551.142 per year. Likewise, applying the formula

Equation 1 Formula for Relative Amplitude

$$A\% = [(Maximum - Minimum) / Mean] * 100,$$

we get a percentage of the relative amplitude of 22.07% which means that the average calculated is representative for the community (as the amplitude does not exceed the value of 100%). The standard deviation is approximately 843,867 units; this means that the average distance between the number of bicycles sold each year is represented by 843,867 units. Nevertheless, with the help of the standard deviation we can calculate the variation coefficient whose formula is the following:

Equation 2 Formula for Variation Coefficient

$$v = (Standard deviation / Mean) * 100.$$

Thus, the percentage of almost 8% in the case of the variation coefficient shows that the average is representative for the whole community, the later being a homogenous one.

4. Conclusion

Cycling used as a means of transport has a lot of benefits, from those ecological or social to those which are related to the community where we live or to our health. That is why it is very important to pay a great attention to this remarkable invention of the XIXth century and to follow the example of the other European states in order to implement public programs aimed at encouraging people to use the bicycle. Although our country is just starting out, the potential that it has will certainly help in order to line up with the other prosperous nations. And until this will happen, there are some aspects that need to be taken into consideration by the officials of big cities:

- Promoting alternative means of transport with a focus on the motorbike sector;
- Developing and expanding the cycling infrastructure;
- Broadening bicycle renting networks and creating bicycle repairing units close to the bicycle runways;
- Setting informing panels dedicated to cyclists regarding the traffic on the routes designed for them;
- Educating citizens in what concerns the benefits brought by using a bicycle;
- Offering free classes to children aged under 18 with the purpose of leaning how to ride a bike.

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The Importance of the Organizational Cultural Research and Its Factors, within the Management

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Abstract: The culture of a society reflects the well-developed interaction of the values that describes it, of the attitudes and behaviors showed by its members. Models of individual and group behaviors are permanently changing, having an impact at their turn on the culture of the society, which creates a continuing changing cycle. The necessity of researching on the **organizational culture** in management is given by the fact that this one has a powerful impact on the performances of the company and becomes more and more emphasized in the conditions of the dynamism of the external environment. The managers are ought to identify those **cultural elements** that stop the development and turn it into **values, behaviors, attitudes that give the most likely outcome to the new objectives and improving of the company**. Culture is a determination factor of the behavior, of the line of thought and feeling of the individual, which guides it in its actions, towards achieving the goals and objectives of the organization. Culture is seen as an orientation factor of the actions of the individual according to the goal of the organization and its own system of values. **Values**, common beliefs of the organizational culture are taken into consideration, formed under the influence of the managerial practices, but also of the socio-cultural environment, where the members of the organization have lived and have been formed. In this way, people come with a line of values that they report to those companies, aligning in this manner the actions not only with the purposes and objectives of the organization, but also with the personal professional ones.

Key words: organizational culture; value; behavior rule

1. Definition and Attributes of the Organizational Culture

For the management science, culture has become an important study object in the '80s. **Geert Hofstede, Thomas Peter and Richard Waterman, Terence Deal and Allan Kenedy**, are just a few of the authors that had pieces that have determined the next explosion about the research on organizational culture.

The concept of **organizational culture** is fundamental in order to explain some phenomena as creating an hierarchy of values that depends on the strategic guiding of the system, in establishing the pragmatic lines of the interhuman relations, interpreting the time and space, defining the international system or to determinate the attitude towards the internal or external organizational environment. Every organization no matter its activity domain or its size, has its own culture, attached to her history, in the modality of practicing the activities and in the managing practices.

The term of **organizational culture** is used by some as a synonym for **the culture of the organization**. The Explaining Dictionary of the Romanian Language, defines the term of "organizational" by a notion regarding the organization (working tasks, organigrama), from where one can conclude that, the organizational culture refers to a formal culture of the organization. From my perspective culture can be defined under her formal aspect but also under its informal one.

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From a **formal** point of view this represents the totality of values, beliefs, behavior rules shared by the members of the organization. This functions according to the rules, politics and procedures within the organization.

From an **informal** perspective, culture can be understood as **the style or personality of one organization**. It is developing in a spontaneous way, it is dynamic and involves interactions that are not officially preformed. (Isac, 2006).

The mixt between formal-informal makes the delimitation organizational culture-culture of the organization not to have a sense anymore. In the anglo-saxone speciality literature, for instance, one also finds the term of “**corporate culture**”, a holistic concept which associated to the consequences it can bring to the organization.

There are many definitions given to the culture, so that we will select a part of them, that presents an interest for the theoretical approach of the culture:

- **T.I. Peters** (Ionescu, 2008) – organizational culture responds to the satisfaction of some primarily human needs such as the necessity of *positive feed-back, the need of signification, control, the need to feel secure and stable, or ideological needs that design the purpose, the direction, the meaning of the organization and the action according to it.*
- **G. Hofstede** (1997), defines culture as being “*a mental collective programming, that makes the difference between the members of a group or a certain social category from the members of other groups or social categories*”. He emphasizes the fact that the line of thought of the usual members of an organization will be influenced specially by adopted practices and not necessarily by the values of the founding members or of the managers.
- **F. Trompenaars** (in I. Popa and R. Filip, 1999, p. 22), director of the Center for International Business Studies from Holland, adept of the traditional **functionalistic epistemological current**, like Hofstede, sees in culture “the way that people solve their problems.
- **R.W. Griffin** (Nicolescu; Verboncu, 2006, p. 273) was defining organizational culture as being “*that cumulus of values being a part of the organization that helps its members to understand the purpose that it is imposing, the modality of action, and what it is considered to the important.*

Culture is a determination factor of the behavior, of the line of thought and feeling of the individual, which guides it in its actions, towards achieving the goals and objectives of the organization. Culture is seen as an orientation factor of the actions of the individual according to the goal of the organization and its own system of values. Values, common beliefs of the organizational culture are taken into consideration, formed under the influence of the managerial practices, but also of the socio-cultural environment, where the members of the organization have lived and have been formed. In this way, people come with a line of values that they report to those companies, aligning in this manner the actions not only with the purposes and objectives of the organization, but also with the personal professional ones.

No matter the way we would define organizational culture, there are some specific characteristics that can be considered as identification elements of the culture:

- From a **formal** point of view this represents the totality of values, beliefs, behavior rules shared by the members of the organization;
- Culture involves the existence of an integrated model of human behavior;
- This behavior is organically integrated to a social system which is the organization;
- The model of behavior has a certain stability in time and is learned once with the socialization.

Hofstede made the difference between a small meaning of the culture (“**mind finesse**”), and a large meaning, according to the concept from the cultural anthropology (“**standards of thinking, feeling and action**”). The organizational culture, in his vision is, **holistic** (representing more than the sum of the component parts), **historically determined** (so that it reflects the evolution in the of the organization), **connected to anthropological nature elements** (symbols, rituals, etc), **socially**

fundamental (because it is created and kept by the group that founded the organization) and **hard to modify** (Hofstede, 1995.).

2. The Importance of Research in Organizational Culture in Management

The necessity of researching on the organizational culture in management is given by the fact that this one has a powerful impact on the performances of the company and becomes more and more emphasized in the conditions of the dynamism of the external environment. The managers are ought to identify those cultural elements that stop the development and turn it into values, behaviors, attitudes that give the most likely outcome to the new objectives and improving of the company.

The interest towards culture in the contemporary society can also be explained by the fact that the changes that have place involve new ways and methods of organization, a new values system, attitudes and human behaviors that are fully reflected in and through the organizational culture.

Of course, the changes in the systems of values is the essential condition for the success of the modernization, but can not be done at once, because it would involve fundamental changes at the level of the conscience of the individuals which would vanish their stabilization and would create confusion, stress, panic or incertitude. All these have to be put together somehow, first of all by a good managing of **the organizational culture changing**. In charge of the giving the new values, norms of behavior at an organizational level, in a manner that make the adaptation to the new easier and without stress.

Culture by its component elements plays an extremely important role on the knowledge by the staff, of the rules, norms, informal procedures which draw some lines in the technological line. The totality of the values, procedures and norms of behavior accepted in one organization, as a common base of action of the employs, arrives at a moment a dominant of the collective line of thought, that contributes to solve the adaptation problems of the organization and its members to the internal and external environment.

Nowadays, due to the **internalization** process of business and **globalization**, the relationships between institutions, states, regional organisms, firms, suppose the interaction and interconnection between some different cultures. In business relationships, for instance, the culture of the organization enters in contact with other cultures, so that the management activity is made in a environment with **cultural diversity**, where one has to take into consideration all important factors of each culture.

Organizational culture represents a life style at the firm level, **the way of being of an organization**, that provides us with information regarding the attitudes, the behaviors, the way of acting at an organizational level, the management style, the promoted values, the own climate, the managerial visions, etc. The organizational culture characterizes the way that activities are structured, the relationships between the members of the organization so as the relationships between its members and third parties. From the dressing style of the staff, to the way that conflicts are being managed, everything should be an unitary strategy.

Practically, the culture can be a key factor for the members of one organization, in achieving the personal and professional equilibrium. It helps the employs to get closed to a certain lines of values, to be aware of the purpose and objectives of the organization, to act according to the mission and vision of the organization. A well defined culture, a powerful culture, based in the realities of the new economical and social-cultural context is able to properly motivate the employs, guiding them towards performance and efficiency in their job, towards the correct appreciation of the value itself and touching the professional equilibrium, that has positive impact on the relationships between colleagues, but in the family as well.

3. Forms of Manifestation of the Organizational Culture in the Management

There are many approaches regarding the delimitation of the components of the organizational culture, ones being more general, that stop to the delimitation of cultural components, others more to the subject, that detail the inner aspects.

The knowledge and the analysis of the component factors of an organizational culture help us to know about that culture, in establishing the main orientations of values of the firm and the staff, in knowing about the behavior and mentalities of the employs, of the motivating systems, performance criteria, managing style, life style and the organizational level, etc. The analysis of these elements can offer important information about weaknesses and strong points of an organizational culture in the context of a cultural diagnose. Based on these factors, one can make the difference between organizational cultures, establishing the main ides from each of them, etc.

Schein (1985), **Hofstede** (1980), **Denison D.R.** (1990), **Hall E.T.** (1989), consider that **cultural space** conserves and hides the key and intimate functioning elements, rather than to show it. It is creating a cultural fundament of a **hidden culture** (unanimous accepted norms, common elements of the collective inner mind, beliefs) and a **surface one**, as a base of the manifestation of the culture (Huțu, 2007, p. 82).

Ones of those components **are visible**, others can be seen only at a closer analysis (values for instance). In this way, components as main ideas, symbols, myths and heroes, language, etc, are easily visible outside the organization, and other components, such as **values** or **staff socialization** are harder to be observed.

The most visible component of a mature culture is the **symbol** (the architecture of the building, they way the interior design is realized, the representative colors and the main idea of the company). Sometimes, one can observe the **values** (invisible components) showed in the **main idea** of the organization: for instance, "Our client, our boss". A valid analysis of the main idea of a firm is enough to understand which is the type of desired people and which style is not received by that organization.

Kotter and **Heskett** (Huțu, 2007, p. 87) describe two cultural lever that influence each other, being in a permanent correlation: on one hand the **invisible level**, hard to change, that has **values shared by the members of the organization** and that want to shape the behavior norms which are given to the new employs and are relied to a system of recompenses or sanctions that function according to the system of values accepted by the members of the organization.

In a synthesis made by **A. Burciu** about the components of the organizational culture, he was including the next factors: **main ideas, symbols, artifacts** (furniture, cloths, instruments, etc), the **used language** within the company, myths and heroes from the past history or the recent one of the firm, periodical present rituals in the activity of the company, **values, the relation of the company with the environment** and **the staff socialization**, which derives from the formal/informal relationships (which are being constructed in time within the divers teams or work groups).

Schein (Schein, 1992), find the next elements that delimitate culture by the behavior:

The philosophy that is the base of the politics of the organization towards the employs and customers:

- Rules of behavior and language;
- Norms that develop within the work teams;
- Dominant values adopted by the organization about the products;
- Static rules in the organization for an efficient functioning;
- The climate present in the firm.

Knowing the basis elements of the culture, the members of the organization can orient their behavior, they can know the **rights** and **duties** they have within the organization, the style and way of internal communication, dressing style, they way the manager defines and operate his decisions, the level of internal formalism, the staff politic or the level of creativity of the organizational culture, etc.

3.1. The Role of Values in Guiding the Organizational Behavior

Among with beliefs and behavior norms, values ensure the basis in the perception by the staff of what is happening in the firm.

The ideology of the philosophy of the firm are frequently used by authors or those that practice the management in order to directly describe the values and beliefs at the organizational level. The ideology of an organization has references regarding the correctitude of some actions and connects, if one can express it this way, these actions and the conscience of the employs at the ethical social principles, or it pushes them to act in this way. **A strong ideology has a strong motivating role of the employs behavior.**

Values, among with beliefs, have an determinant role in the lining of the leader's vision and the organizational one. The founding members come from the beginning with a line of own values, which we will find later in the vision of defining of the mission and formulating its objectives.

Rampersad (Rampersad, 2005, pp.42-43) was appreciating about values, that they represent **critical factors of success**, being an integrating part of the **vision of the firm**, based on a line of values shared by the members of the organization and used to enforce the devotement and their total implication. He relies the values of the organizational culture with the mission and vision of the firm and the vision of the employs. The values determinate the way someone has to act to achieve the vision of the firm. They are like guiding principles of people of the work place.

Fundamental values in a company indicate how we treat each other, but expresses, at the same time, the way we see customers, employs, people that detain actions, providers and the community. When principles, norms and staff values resolve with those of the firm, they implications are good.

The fundamental values of an organization have to be always ethical, and each person has to act according to the principles and moral standards of the firm. Values in which the company believes are in a strong connection with the firm's conception regarding the business ethic.

Values, principles and standards are a part of the vision of the firm that indicates what the organization wants to obtain and what is essential for success. A well formulated vision guides the personal purposes and creativity, establishes a proper climate for the change en enforces the trust in the future of the organization, releasing in this manner the creative energy of people. The mission and the vision of the firm, next to the fundamental values help to establish the purpose of the organization.

T. Peters and R. Waterman (Peters; Waterman, 1992), have revealed in their paper In search of Excellence, connecting the managerial culture and the organizational one, a line of dominant beliefs and values, that have contributed to obtaining great results by the firms:

- The belief to be the best;
- The belief in quality – quality of the work, of the products, service superior;
- The belief in the importance of the details for the execution;
- The belief that the majority of the members of the organization have to be innovators, etc.

One can observe that the two have expressed the values through the beliefs. This may also be because, in essence, values, as Hofstede was saying, are some general beliefs that specify the general preferences and that influence the option regarding the means, the modalities and the finalities of actual actions.

Values, at an organizational level, are ought to be explained and achieved by the employs continuously. That is why they must be clearly defined, brought to a common subject, to be at the same time realistic, to stimulate motivation, etc.

Here is a selection of some organizational values promoted by managers, within the companies, made after a presentation of **H. Davidson** in The Commitet Enterprise (Davidson, 2001):

- Treating with respect and dignity every individual;
- Respecting the rights of every employee;

- Accent on the quality;
- Keeping the work environment safe;
- Supporting creativity and innovation;
- Accent on the human resource;
- Relationships with customers based on honesty and ethics in business;
- Excellent through leadership and common participation, etc.

Psychologists that have researched the source of the value have resolved that values are generated by the will and also about the affectivity of people. **Hedonic theories** associate values with the lack of suffering, the volunteer ones consider value as being created by the will of the individual, and the **synthetic theories** plea for the contribution of the will and the affectivity.

3.2. The Concrete Reflection of the Values in Factors Regarding the Organizational Management

After a synthesis realized by **E. Radu**, one can find the values of the organizational culture reflected through some factors of the organizational management, in this manner (Radu, 2004.):

- **The mission and the image of the organization** – can reflect in a valuable manner the high quality, the high technology, the will of keeping a high standard of services and of the interhuman relationships at the organizational level, the power to innovate, etc.
- **Long-term work and the authority** – can reflect the importance one gives to the authority within the organization, which results from the application of some function or from the experience in that function;
- **The importance given to the divers functions and to the managing ones** – can provide us with clues regarding the importance of the divers leaders, bosses, departments, etc.
- **The manner people are being treated** – helps us to draw a line between the right behavior or favoritism, to evaluate the respect towards the individual rights, the attention given to people and their needs, securing their jobs, the way people are motivated, the way they are remunerated, the possibility of development, instruction, etc.
- **The role of the woman in the leadership and in other functions** – it is a factor from which one can deduce the acceptance of women in leadership, their rejection from some functions, the proper treatment and the respect towards leader women from that organization.
- **Selection criteria for leadership and surveillance functions** – indicates the priority given to some selection criteria: for instance the selection based on ethnic criteria, religious ones, nationality, long-term work, professional competence, the influence of non-official relationships and the “cycles”.
- **From the way of programming the work and its discipline**, one can deduce is the organization is characterized by flexibility in establishing the program of work, the discipline freely consented in contrast with the imposed one, the leading style, punctuality.
- **The leading and administrating style** – can be a totalitarian one, a consultative one or participative one, fact from where one can deduce the flexibility and the level of adaptation of the general style and of the leaders.
- **Processes of decision-making** – helps us to find out who decides, who has to be consulted, how necessary if the individual or collective consensus in the decision-making.
- **Social contacts** - help us to establish what contacts are being realized during and after the schedule, special facilities at buffets or reserved clubs, barriers, inhibition ways.
- **The manner of approaching the conflicts** – shows the preference for unofficial or official modalities of avoiding the conflict, the implication of the superior leadership in solving the conflict, the will to avoid a conflict and arrive to a compromise.
- **Evaluation of the performance** – who realizes it, if it is public or confidential, the manner the results are being used.
- **The identification with the organization** – results from the objectives and politics of the organization, the integrity and loyalty and can provide us with information about the measure

in which the leadership and the staff are getting to the results, the team spirit, the measure in which it is or not pleasant to work within a certain unity.

3.3. Behavioral Norms at the Organizational Level

Norms are being reflected in the uses, beliefs, rituals and ceremonies of the organization, as its unwritten rules, but also as officially-written legislations. They define the aptitudes and behaviors asked inside and outside the company. They can have symbols through which some messages are being decrypted. Norms allow the manifestation of the consensus, the need to belong to a group or the need of security.

These norms have the purpose to guide the behavior in the organization, help the employs to deduce the behavior they have to adopt at a organizational level towards the colleagues and superiors, encourage a certain attitude towards work (by the knowledge of rights and obligations at the collective level), towards the customers, providers, etc.

- **Informal norms** are being orally sent, by the power of the example, with the help of stories about the heroes of the organization, about the results of the employs and of the firm, about solving some critical situations in the history of the organization. These can refer at relationships with leaders, high records, power, managerial transparency, the seen status, manner of communication, formalism level within the company, to be open towards innovation and change.
- **Formal norms** (official legislations) – functioning inner rules, scheduling book, the description of the function 0 represents that category of norms that guide the job behavior and refers to rights and duties of the employs, security of the work, relationships with customers, evaluating the performances, the sanctions system, the presence, the confidentiality, etc.

In the daily activity of an organization, these norms are not delimited some by others, there is rather a continuous connection among them.

4. Conclusions

As one can remark, the concept of **organizational culture** is fundamental in order to explain some phenomena as, creating a hierarchy of values from which depends the strategic guiding of the system, the configuration of the international system or the determination of the attitude towards the inside or outside organizational environment. Every organization, no matters its activity domain and its size, has its own culture, kept in her history, in the manner of practicing the activities and the leadership actions.

The knowledge and the analysis of the component factors of an organizational culture helps us to understand that organization, to establish the primarily valuable orientations of the firm and of the employs, to know the behavior and mentality of the staff, of the systems of motivation, performance criteria, leadership style, life style at the organizational level, etc. At the same time, analyzing these elements can provide important information about the weaknesses and strong aspects of an organizational culture in the context of a cultural diagnose.

Among the most important factor of an organizational culture, one counts the values, hard to observe elements, which next to the beliefs and behavior norms ensure the basis for the employs to perceive what is happening in the firm.

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Deforestation – a Necessary Imperative or the Paradox of our Times

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Abstract: The green space, the forests, is a precious space of our planet. The “lung” that we really need, stretches across mountains, hills, plains and water banks. It covers almost one third of land’s surface. Globally, the widest green spaces can be found in Russia and South America. From this proportion, more than two thirds of the total extent of forests is occupied by deciduous trees and about half is represented by tropical forests. Earth is hedging at the beginning of the third millennium, moment in which globalization and its effects, the food crisis but, also, the reducing of green space become fingerprints harder to hide. The current article aims at emphasizing the present global, regional and national situation regarding forestry.

Keywords: green space; deforestation; desertification; climate change

1. Introduction

Earth's population recorded a figure of 7 billion people in the 4th quarter of 2011. An impressive increasing pressure from the growing global population is being experienced, fact demonstrated through a growing food and energy necessary. The current context has forced the nations to shift the volumes of available natural resources, transforming technology into a true asset, especially through renewable energy: wind, solar, geothermal, biomass and water energy. Therefore, we are facing a growing tendency to use these resources more often.

2. The Forest – Limiting Factor of Anthropogenic Pollution

Among its many roles, the forest is aimed at reducing the pollution that the human being has accumulated and still accumulates nowadays. Experts say that the “Forest is an environmental protection factor and an ecological balance retention one, by performing functions such as water, land and soil, atmosphere and biodiversity protection” (Bran & Ioan, 2004).

Also, it should be explained that the forest ecosystem functions are represented by (Candea & Bran, 2001):

- the production function - containing timber and secondary products;
- the protection function – presenting a protective role of soil erosion, of water regime, but which also offers a protection against climatic factors;
- the health function - in this case one can speak of forests as climate modeller;
- the recreational and leisure function – the forest seen as hunting or tourist fund, offering the possibility of camping and emphasizing in the same time the recreational function;
- the aesthetic function – last but not least, it offers a great background scenery for both viewers and specialists, photographers, etc.

Therefore, forests, in general, have a beneficial role for the planet, but, especially, for humans and

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various creatures. First of all, forests are a source of oxygen and it is known that two-thirds of the oxygen consumed by creatures, vehicles or industry is offered by forests. Secondly, the forest is a natural filter because fine dust or ashes are retained by the crowns of the trees. Forests also prevent soil erosion and stabilize local climate, preventing the aridity and drought phenomenon. Last but not least, the forest is the source of wood for human consumption and a source of drugs made from a series of natural plants.

3. The Global Forest Situation

In 2005 there were less than 4 billion hectares of forests across the globe. These provide food, herbs, heating sources and many other needs for a population of approximately 1.6 billion people. It is said that more than two thirds of primary terrestrial species are living in the forest. During 2000-2005, the net forest loss rate was 7.3 hectares per year, while the deforestation caused almost 20% of the annual greenhouse gases in the 90's (FAO, 2005; Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005; IPCC, Fourth Assessment Report, 2007 in UNFCCC, 2007). Although deforestation occurs in certain areas using a long-term oriented method with the main goal of allowing forests to regenerate themselves, the deforestation phenomenon reached vast proportions, pulling alarm signals in many areas of the planet. The Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian language (1998) emphasizes the fact that deforestation means a removal of trees by cutting or burning them in order to expand the land for agriculture, grazing or living or to afforest it again. Actually, this is rarely accomplished.

We have noted a deterioration of the habitat, of the climate, a stressed reduction in biodiversity and an emergence of wider arid areas, situation that is allowed through the indifference of people and a bad management application of these natural resources, as well through the existence of a permissive legislation in this field, inadequately rigorous and severe, which led to massive deforestation. The UN reported that Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean are the regions with the highest rate of deforestation, the figures being alarming: 32 million acres of forest disappear each year. However, countries with a GDP per capita equal or more than 4,600 American dollars showed that net deforestation rates have ceased to grow. China stands out positively, because after the year 2000, has reported an increase in the forested areas, while investments in planting trees managed to fight the huge exploitation forest tendency from the Mekong Delta region.

We can currently mention only three large existing forests on our planet: the Brazilian Amazon, the boreal forests of Russia and those from Canada.

Regarding the rainforests, these are found between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Tropic of Cancer. Areas such as Central and South America (the Amazon Basin), West and Central Africa (the Zaire River Basin), Isle of Madagascar, South-East Asia and Pacific islands have tropical forests, as it can be seen in the picture below:

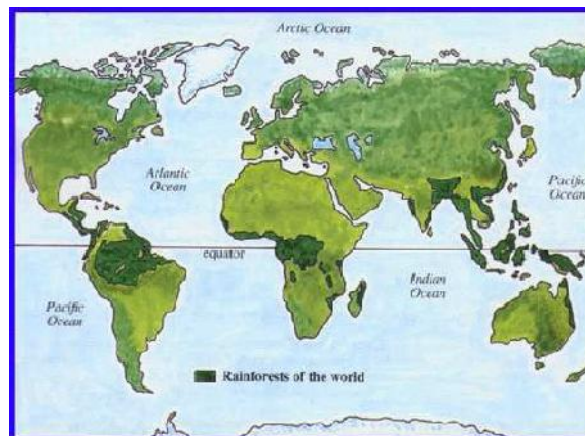


Figure 1 Location of tropical forests

Source: <http://www.srl.caltech.edu/personnel/krubal/rainforest/Edit560s6/www/where.html> (Anon., n.d.)

A special place is occupied by the mangrove forests because these live in the wet tropical shores, only there where significant oscillations of the sea level can be recorded during the ebb and flow. The tropical climate brings along hot and wet weather, with a lot of rainfall during the monsoon (from May to October). The largest mangrove forest in the world, Sudarbans, is found in India and Bangladesh, covering 56 islands. Within this space there were recorded more than 110 species of fish and 270 species of birds. Today, the Bangladesh saltwater crocodiles count less than 200 individuals and, still here, there is one of the most endangered species in the world, the Bengalese tiger. For this reason, in 1987 the Sudarbans mangrove forest was registered on the World Heritage List because of its importance.



Figure 2 Mangrove forests

Source: http://forestry.about.com/od/rainforests/ss/mangrove_forest.htm (Nix, n.d.)

Because within the boundaries of mangroves soils are saturated with water, the air is hard to breathe, situation caused by the sulphur compounds released during decomposition of organic substance from the soil which is deprived of oxygen. If these mangroves are cut down, acid soils will be formed and acid spills will occur in streams as well. In this case, the pH of water decreases a lot, which affects the life of fish, fact also reinforced by the appearance of some toxic solid elements such as heavy metals, or aluminium (Anon., 2002).

Globally, there is a small number of species of trees known as mangroves, but these are characterized by great diversity and can be compared with rainforest biodiversity (Messina & Conner, 1998).

Currently, a comprehensive project for forestation with mangroves is being developed in Indonesia. In numbers, it aims to plant 115 hectares, which means 4500 of trees per hectare. It is intended that in 30 years from project implementation 100 million tons of carbon dioxide to be absorbed (YL Invest Co., Ltd., 2011).

4. The European Situation of Forests

Europe was known as a green continent, with various forests, with more than 80% green land. Nowadays, we cannot talk at all about such a thing, because Europe has gone through a period of massive deforestation and now it owns only 44% of that forested area. This is why I considered it necessary to review some of the most important forests in terms of biodiversity.

□ Trillemarka and Rollagsfjell forests in Norway

These forests have a total area of 205 square kilometres. Although they can be found at a small distance from the Oslo capital, the old characteristics of the Norwegian forests are maintained, here existing the largest population of lynx and gluttons from Norway. According to Eurostat, Norway had in 2010 a total of 12,768 thousand hectares of forested areas, with only 768 thousand hectares more than in 1990. But the wood volume increased from 736,649 thousand m³ in 1990 to 1,001,920 thousand m³ in 2010.

□ *Brothwood Corpse Forest* from the UK

Great Britain has a more negative situation, because the only forests that can be found are on the Isle of Wight. For this reason, only 2,901 thousand hectares are forested areas, with less than 300 thousand hectares more than in 1990. At the end of 2010, Great Britain's wood volume amounted to 379,110 thousand m³.

□ *Beloveja Forest* in Poland and Belarus

Although it doesn't have such a large forested area as in Norway (9,337 thousand hectares compared to 12,768 thousand hectares), Poland currently has a wood volume two times bigger than the first country (2,049,000 thousand m³). Forests cover today about 1,771 square kilometres, being part of the Mazurieni Forests.

□ *Pyha Hakki Forests*, Finland

In Finland, we can find a forested area of 23,269 thousand hectares of which 13 square kilometres are represented by the Pyha Hakki National Park, strictly protected since 1952. The total wood volume in Finland amounts a value of 2,195,138 thousand m³.

□ *Deciduous forests of the Apennines*, Italy

The Apennine Mountains own as heritage one of the most special European forests. Nevertheless, at Italian level, forests occupy an area of 10,916 thousand hectares, while the available wood volume gets to 1,393,753 thousand m³.

The chart below shows the forested area of some European countries, figures being expressed in hectares:

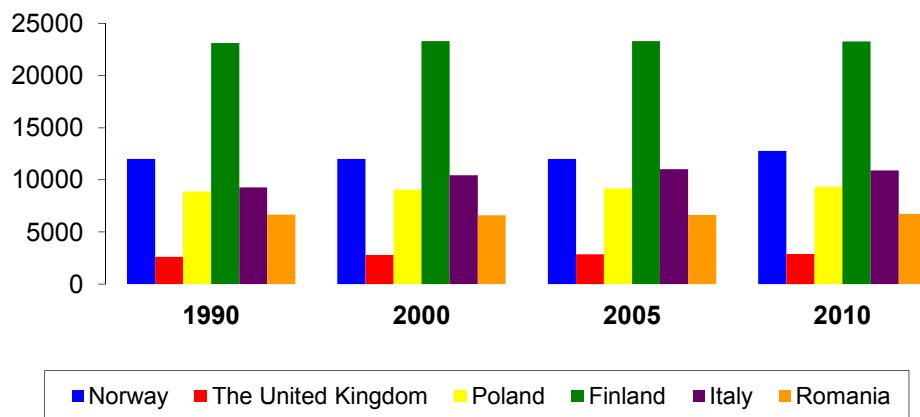


Figure 3 Forest areas (hectares)

Source: author's interpretation using Eurostat data (2011a)

Figure 4 expresses the available wood volume of some European countries (the volume is expressed in thousand cubic meters).

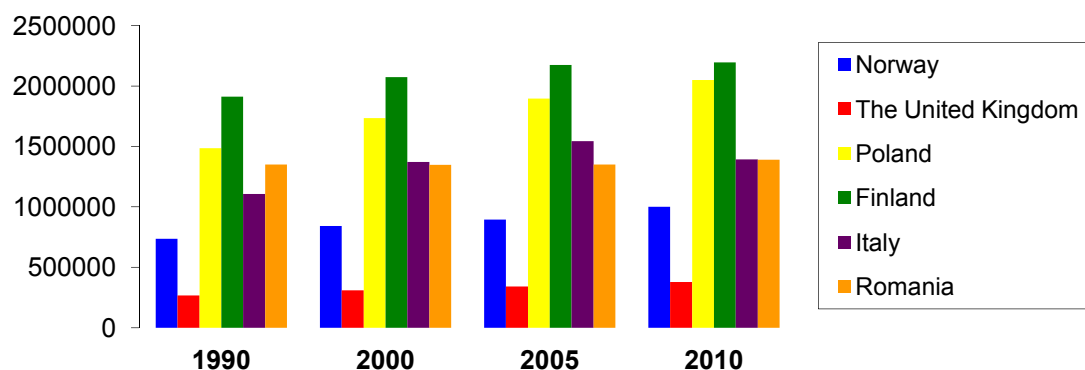


Figure 4 The available wood volume (thousand m³)
 Source: author's interpretation using Eurostat data (2011b)

We can notice therefore a trend towards improvement of the existing green space in each analyzed country, both in terms of forest area and available wood volume.

5. Forest Situation in Romania

At national level, the Romanian forests occupy at the end of 2010 a total area of 6,515 thousand hectares, according to the statistics reported by SILV1. Compared to 2009, an increase can be seen in 2010 with 20 thousand hectares (approximately 0.3%) of green spaces, because of the intervention of NGOs and the media in this case.

Taking into consideration the property categories, the national forest area can be presented as follows:

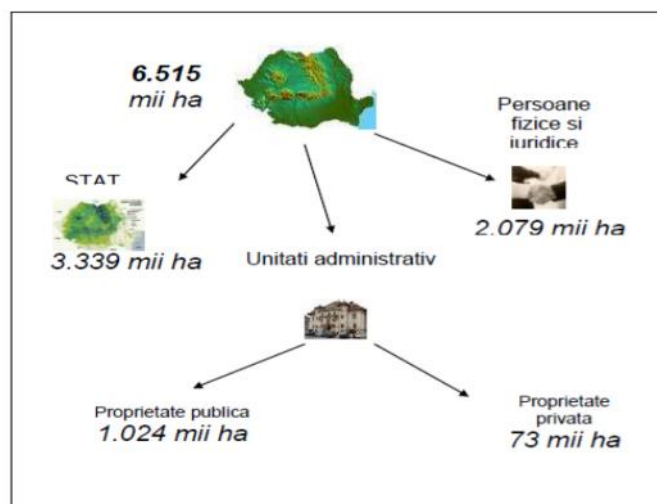


Figure 5 Forest areas in Romania
 Source: The Ministry of Environment and Forests, 2010

Romania has become increasingly interested in this subject as it began to face some problems such as soil erosion, flooding in the region of Moldova and desertification especially in the Oltenia region and, for the future, Dobrogea, the Southern of the Romanian Plain and Moldavia were identified as high risk areas of desertification.

Numerous studies concerning the impact of global warming in Europe place Romania next to countries such as Spain, Italy or Greece, nations which have a high risk of desertification. The most affected county, which outperforms all the other areas, *Dolj*, has been recording desertification for 756

several years as a result of drought and more and more sandy soil. Cities like Calafat, Bechet or the village of Dabuleni have recorded the most arid soils in Romania, as a consequence of deforestation and climate change.

6. Conclusion

Among the top threats of the 21st century there is the food crisis, the pollution and, its reverse, the climate change.

Already, uncontrolled human actions make their presence known globally through unimaginable consequences. The irrational cuts of the last century have led to desertification, destruction of many terrestrial and aquatic species, global warming, as well as to a higher pollution rate despite the different conventions and treaties signed with the purpose of reducing the harm caused by deforestation. For this reason, Thailand has lost in the last 20 years more than three quarters of the forest area (Gore, 1995).

In a fully joint effort, countries all over the world will have to find viable ways of solving these problems, creating for future generations an air, a planet and an environment at least as clean as it is today.

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THE 7TH EDITION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
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 REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES**

**Culture Shock Triggered
 by More or Less Cultural Actants**

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Abstract: Culture shock results from losing our familiar signs and symbols. These signs include so many ways to approach (to) the situations of daily life: when to shake hands, when and how to give tips, (...), how to make purchases, when to accept or refuse invitations, when to take statements seriously and when not. That may be words, gestures, facial expressions, customs or norms acquired during our growing up and are part of our culture. Our success and efficiency depend on it. As one who travelled a lot across Europe, I observed some cultural shocks who affected me directly, that is why I present and analyze them here, in order to avoid any inconveniences of the kind to my students or colleagues.

Keywords: multiculturalism; interculturalism; background; globalization

Ayant roulé notre bosse et ayant vu du pays (voire des pays...), nous avons été confronté à pas mal de situations spécifiques du choc culturel, dont nous allons (partiellement) traiter ici, vu les mobilités étudiante et enseignante qui nous sont offertes ces derniers temps. Cette modeste étude ambitionne d'offrir tant aux bénéficiaires des mobilités mentionnées qu'à leurs chers hôtes, la chance de ne pas tomber de tout leur long devant une situation relevant d'un choc culturel !

D'entrée de jeu, nous ferons appel à une étymologie populaire possible pour le vocable *choc*, si bien défini par l'anthropologue **Kalvero Oberg** en 1954, (et qui se réfère au sentiment d'anxiété provoqué par le fait de se retrouver plongé dans un contexte à la fois étranger et étrange). Eh bien, en tant que latin qui se respecte, je pense qu'il faut penser au vocable italien *sciocco* (*scemmo*, syn.), qui signifie – ni plus ni moins – bête, stupide, imbécile etc. Le dénotatif choc culturel devient, dans ce cas, un connotatif, que l'on peut décrypter comme: « se retrouver tout bête/stupide devant des réalités autres, dont on n'est pas familier, que l'on trouve à la fois étranges et étrangères ». Certes, cela veut dire, perdre le nord ou son latin dans un premier temps, avant de reprendre ses esprits et se ressaisir...

Et comme la théorie ne sert à rien lorsqu'elle n'est pas appuyée et soutenue par la pratique, donnons quelques exemples, certes, sans donner les noms propres des personnages incriminés. En 1993, je me trouvais dans Maramures, à l'occasion des Journées d'une revue littéraire. J'y avais invité, au nom du directeur de la revue, un grand poète français et un haut fonctionnaire d'une institution européenne. Le soir de la réception, on avait *aggloméré* leur table de bouteilles de Pepsi Cola et Coca Cola, dont on raffolait à l'époque chez nous. Premier choc: ils ont refusé tout jus genre Cola et ont demandé de l'eau minérale roumaine, célèbre même chez eux... A nous voir confus et interrogatifs, ils se sont expliqués: chez nous, personne ne boit des cochonneries pareilles, c'est bon tout juste pour les peuples d'Afrique, peut-être, qui ne savent pas à quoi s'en tenir quant à ces boissons empoisonnées... Mais un jour, même ces *people* se réveilleront et les refuseront eux aussi !

Deuxième choc: on leur a acheté de très belles boîtes en bois sculpté main et laqué, que l'on a garnies de bouteilles de Palinka... Cela les a choqués, d'abord parce qu'ils considéraient que les boîtes en bois étaient de véritables œuvres d'art qu'il n'aurait pas fallu remplir de bouteilles... Secondo: ils étaient apparemment agréablement surpris, ils n'avaient jamais reçu tant de cadeaux avant de venir en

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Roumanie, ils ont donc été très flatteurs à l'adresse de la générosité roumaine. Ce qui ne veut pas dire qu'ils ont été généreux à leur tour, loin de là...

Troisième choc: le dernier numéro de la revue respective avait été imprimé sur un papier d'une qualité douteuse, pareil à du papier mâché (mais non utilisé, quand même). Moi et les autres, on avait tellement honte, qu'on essayait de ne pas leur offrir la revue, tellement elle avait l'air idiot ! Mais ils ont réalisé qu'on leur cachait quelque chose, et ils ont tant insisté qu'on a fini par leur offrir, d'un air coupable et très gêné, un exemplaire, prêt à nous épandre en excuses de tout genre. A voir ce chiffon-là imprimé, d'un très mauvais goût à notre... goût, ils sont tombés les quatre fers en l'air, tombés en extase et en adoration devant ce journal à la noix, à cause duquel on était nous autres très, très gênés...

Ils étaient si heureux et agréablement surpris, qu'ils en ont redemandé pour leurs amis, familles et bibliothèques, car ce journal-là était à leurs yeux d'une qualité incroyable, unique au monde, probablement... Nous autres, on n'en revenait pas, voire on revenait de loin, de fort loin et les bras nous en tombaient. Leur explication: une seule revue française pouvait se payer le luxe de se faire imprimer sur un tel papier, qui coûtait une fortune (on aura tout vu et entendu ce jour-là... !). En plus, une seule typographie, située à Paris, pouvait imprimer de la sorte, et cela coûtait les yeux de la tête, parce que le travail y était effectué manuellement... Dans un premier temps, nous autres Roumains, on pensait que les deux Français nous prenaient par dessus la jambe, nous mettaient en boîte et nous menaient en barque à la fois... Mais non, ils étaient spontanés et sincères, ils disaient vrai, c'était la pure vérité à leur yeux... Mon Dieu !

Ils avouèrent avoir eu du mal à quitter les leurs et leur pays, parce que leurs meilleurs amis les déconseillaient vivement de venir en Roumanie, un pays où les gens, grimpés sur les arbres, sautent au cou des passants et les mordent le nez... Le moment de leur aveu se situait bien après minuit, lors d'une longue et agréable promenade à pied, qui durait déjà depuis au moins deux heures, mais personne, dans l'intervalle, ne leur était sauté dessus des arbres, et ils en étaient fort surpris... Ils nous promirent, la main sur le cœur, de dire à tous leurs amis que la Roumanie est un pays très sûr, que tous les ragots qui circulent sur le compte des Roumains sont des sornettes et des mensonges, voire ils ont promis de conseiller lesdits amis de visiter notre pays, ce qui nous honora outre mesure...

En fin de soirée, quand d'autres ronflaient déjà, je reçus la visite intempestive du poète français – notre Invité d'honneur. Il avait reçu des mains du directeur de la revue organisatrice du festival, un exemplaire de l'anthologie poétique Mihai Eminescu, traduite en français par Elisabeta Isanos, parue aux éditions Litera en 1991, si je ne me trompe, en édition de luxe (tirage, attention amis occidentaux: 10. 000 exemplaires !). Les Roumains présents étaient très fiers de ce que le maître de céans avait offert ce livre aux invités français. Qu'est-ce que cet ami français avait à me dire et de quel ton me le dit-il ? Eh bien, il avait perdu le sommeil, ce qui le faisait piquer une colère noire, et crier comme un putois, tout en jetant par terre le livre mentionné et en partant sans le réclamer: « C'est cela donc votre poète national, c'est cela le grand Mihai Eminescu ? Ce que je vois là, est un tout petit poète, bête et idiot à la fois, mais il se peut que ce soit la faute à la traductrice... N'offrez plus jamais cette antho à un Français, c'est honteux ! Quelle honte, m'offrir cela à moi, un poète ! C'est d'un non-poète, ce truc-ci ! » En partant, il prit soin de claquer ma porte, soigneusement donc - à toute volée... Le lendemain, on ne se parlait plus, pendant toute une bonne journée...

Mais le dernier choc eut le don de provoquer la rupture définitive d'avec les deux amis: un jour, je les avais invités en ville, pour une promenade par un beau soleil. On est entrés dans un resto coquet et on a commandé du café et le reste. Les langues se sont déliées et l'on a entrepris d'aborder un sujet plutôt délicat, que je ne vais pas détailler ici, par discrétion. La discussion mua en tons et tonalités des plus contradictoires et, lorsqu'ils sont restés à court d'arguments, d'un air pas culturel du tout, ce qui me causa à moi un choc tout à fait culturel, le poète, le plus bavard et libre d'expression, me lança, telle une invective: « Cher Ami, quoi que tu dises, c'est toujours nous qui avons raisons, car nous sommes des Occidentaux ! » « Tu plaisantes, probablement, ai-je glissé prudemment ». « Ben non, c'est nous qui avons raison, les Occidentaux, et non pas toi, qui es (un) Roumain de l'Europe de l'Est ! » Sur ce, j'ai payé l'addition, ai fait venir deux taxis, on s'est séparés et on est revenus chacun séparément. Je ne les ai plus revus depuis et ne tiens absolument pas à les revoir un jour... ! Pour un choc culturel, c'en

fut un ! Qu'en penserait Kalvero Oberg, s'il vivait encore ? Penserait-il des fois à changer la définition de son concept ? Qui sait...

Un ami plus jeune devait opter pour une ville espagnole en vue de son stage pratique, et il avait pensée à Barcelone. Il devait rédiger une lettre d'intention, où il devait motiver son choix et ses attentes/expectations, il était sur le point d'écrire: J'aime beaucoup l'Espagne et la langue espagnole, comme quoi j'ai pensé à la ville de Barcelone... La veille de la date butoir pour l'envoi des documents, il apprit, grâce à son petit poste de radio portable, que Barcelone fait des efforts inouïs pour obtenir son indépendance par rapport à l'Espagne. Qu'une fois à Barcelone, il ne faut jamais parler de l'Espagne ou de son amour pour ce pays, d'autant moins de l'amour de la langue espagnole: il faut dire que l'on aime la Catalogne et que l'on trouve très intéressant le catalan, la langue qu'on parle à Barcelone. Si l'on mentionne la moindre référence à l'Espagne, la demande de stage ne sera jamais acceptée ! Peut-on parler d'un choc culturel avant-coureur ? D'un pré-choc ? Frustration d'une province annexée de force, rêve de liberté d'une région qui ne se sent nullement espagnole ? Parti-pris ou simplement préjugé, mentalité vindicative, qui peut dire ce dont il s'agit exactement dans ce cas précis ? Si choc culturel il y a, voilà que, pour une fois, la culture peut mener, indirectement, à l'échec...

En 1995, j'étais à Bruxelles avec un ami poète roumain, invité par les organisateurs d'un festival de poésie. Le soir du banquet final, j'ai lu des impressions de voyage, de mon séjour belgo-bruxellois, voire j'ai lu quelques haïkus dédiés à mes hôtes et à leurs charmantes épouses. On me regardait d'un air incrédule, en fronçant les sourcils, même ils devinrent soupçonneux, affichant une certaine confusion, sinon contrariété, alors que moi, je m'attendais à une toute autre réaction, normale au fond. Ils m'ont demandé si je croyais à ce que j'avais écrit, si j'étais sincère et spontané ou si j'ai écrit ça simplement pour leur faire plaisir, en guise de remerciement poétique... Je leur ai dit que j'écris ce que je sens, je mets sentiments et sensations sur le papier et que je n'ai aucune raison de mentir ou d'improviser, pour la bonne raison que nous avons été accueillis très chaleureusement, que l'atmosphère avait été très, très agréable, etc. Ils m'ont dit qu'ils ne pensent plus en des termes pareils, ils ne sont plus ni émotifs ni sentimentaux, comme quoi tout ce qui a trait aux sentiments, leur met la puce à l'oreille. Une question des moins délicates me vient alors aux lèvres: pourquoi organisez-vous encore des Festivals de poésie, si vous ne croyez pas aux sentiments exprimés par la poésie, par les poètes ? Leur réponse: eh bien, il faut rester une nation culturelle, tout de même... Ma conclusion, que je ne leur ai jamais partagée: on fait donc cela pour sauver les apparences, pour s'acquitter d'une autre dette de reconnaissance et d'honneur à son patrimoine littéraire, artistique et culturel, tout pour la frime et la façade. Et puis, les maisons d'édition doivent continuer à fonctionner, à recevoir des subventions de l'Etat etc.

Et à propos des maisons d'édition, il faut vous dire ce qu'il en est des tirages de poésie en Occidents, dans les pays francophones au moins: 50 (cinquante) exemplaires pour les poètes contemporains, 100 exemplaires pour les grandes figures régionales de la poésie, 150 (vous lisez bien: cent cinquante !) exemplaires pour les grands classiques de la littérature respective... Alors que les essais historiques ou politiques peuvent dépasser largement 100, voire 200 mille exemplaires ! Il en va de même des romans historiques et des livres primés par Femina, Goncourt etc. Pour le reste, les tirages sont confidentiels, parfois même très, très discrets, comme si de rien n'était quand on parle de littérature en général... Alors là, si vous cherchez un certain auteur, vous risquez fort de ne jamais en trouver un exemplaire, car il est des fois où, même si la demande est importante, l'offre éditoriale reste faible. Si un poète veut publier un recueil de poésie, il devra défaire les cordons de sa bourse et payer de sa poche, alors que les essayistes et romanciers seront payés et, parfois, largement... N'est-ce pas là une discrimination flagrante et frustrante ? Exercée par les maisons d'éditions, mais aussi et surtout – parfois – par les lecteurs eux-mêmes, influencés, certes, par les médias et parfois même par les dictionnaires. Voilà une définition du mot « poète » donnée par *Le Petit Dictionnaire de la Langue Française*, publié par les éditions Larousse en 1988: « Poète, sens péjoratif: Celui qui n'a guère le sens des réalités, qui manque d'ordre, de logique, etc. », p. 786. On aura tout vu, n'est-ce pas ?

Nous avons été d'accord pour le premier choc, et avons retenu leur préoccupation pour la nourriture et les boissons naturelles, ce que nos dirigeants et conseillers en santé ne nous conseillent pas du tout, voire ils n'en soufflent pas mot. Voir cet Initium qu'on nous sert à 165 peuples de par le monde, parce que c'est la volonté de certains personnages haut placés qui s'imaginent diriger la Planète, y faire la pluie et le beau temps ! Bravo à ceux qui prennent conscience des dangers d'une alimentation farcie de toutes sortes de poisons. Ils ont la culture de la santé, voire ils ont le culte d'une vie saine, et là, nous devrions en prendre de la graine... Le fait est que les sources roumaines d'eau minérale ont été achetées par des étrangers, dont on ignore s'ils respectent ou non la pureté desdites eaux, s'ils n'opèrent pas de changements dans le cas des bouteilles destinées à l'exportation, ou si la qualité n'est pas inférieure dans le cas du marché interne roumain... Dans ce dernier cas, boire du Pepsi ou une eau minérale modifiée, équivaldrait au même ! Sans parler de ce que sur notre marché, il y a plein d'eaux minérales qui ne sont que de l'eau de robinet, parfois pis encore...

Je vous ai parlé de leur choc à voir notre revue sur un papier qui n'existe plus en France ou qui coûte très cher, si on en trouve encore par ci, par là... Et qui avait été typographiée dans des conditions déplorables – de notre point de vue, mais qui a eu le don de ravir les Français au septième ciel. Il faut vous dire que leur revue paraissait en conditions de grand luxe, et que, pour nous, c'était un vrai plaisir de regarder, de lire et de caresser une telle revue... Ce qui fait le bonheur des uns, fait le malheur des autres... On soupire toujours après ce que l'on n'a pas... Et j'en profite pour citer un poète luxembourgeois, qui avait déclaré, lors d'un festival de poésie: « Nous autres Occidentaux, nous avons tout, mais nous n'avons rien ! Vous n'avez rien, mais vous avez tout: des enfants qui raflent les prix des Olympiades de maths, de physique, de langues, les concours de dessin et de peinture sont gagnés par vos enfants, qui sont très doués, ce qui fait la richesse de votre nation, alors que les nôtres ne veulent même plus entendre parler d'étudier, de lire, d'apprendre, de faire des études... Vous avez l'avenir devant vous, le nôtre, on ignore ce que l'on deviendra... ».

Ce même ami luxembourgeois (un très bon poète) m'a prié de trouver une école dont les élèves ne soient pas des fils à papa (de parents très riches), car il allait venir avec des aides et des cadeaux. J'ai trouvé une telle école, comme de juste, les enfants étaient très soigneusement habillés – comme pour recevoir de la visite, cela faisait plaisir à les regarder. Eh bien, notre poète est monté sur ses grands chevaux, en jetant feu et flammes, en voulant chercher une autre école, car les élèves de celle que nous avions choisie, étaient trop bien habillés, lavés et parfumés ! Il s'attendait à trouver des enfants en loques, puant terriblement, morts de faim, éventuellement. Je dus faire un gros effort pour lui expliquer et le persuader de ce que, pour pauvres qu'ils soient, les parents les envoient convenablement habillés à l'école – du reste, le règlement ne permettait pas une tenue désordonnée ou sale, misérable... C'était incroyable comme choc culturel, à voir un étranger mécontent de ce que les enfants de l'école le reçussent le mieux de leur possible, en honorant ainsi sa présence, sa personne – et les dialogues qui s'ensuivirent, prouvèrent l'intelligence de nos élèves...

Je profite toujours pour faire des liens et des connexions possibles. La fille d'une amie a eu une bourse d'études en France. Un jour (l'année dernière), les camarades français demandèrent à sa copine roumaine pourquoi sa peau était blanche, si tant est que les Roumains soient des Roms... de plus, ils étaient intrigués que la peau de sa petite amie fût plus blanche que la leur... A qui la faute ? Aux médias, probablement, aux politiciens, à coup sûr, à la culture insuffisante d'aucuns, qui oublient trop vite que le nom de Roumanie est en roumain Romania, le noyau, la racine si l'on préfère étant Roma, la capitale de l'Italie. La Roumanie est le pays le plus latin et sa langue la plus latine des langues romanes, alors que la France est la moins latine de tous les pays formant ce groupe ! Mais plus les historiens prouvent, preuves à l'appui, que notre pays fut le berceau de la civilisation européenne (et non seulement, paraît-il), plus certains idiots (mots qui n'a rien à voir avec le mot idéologues) s'acharnent à démontrer que la Roumanie est la source de tous les maux en Europe et dans le monde. Et si l'on reprenait les livres d'histoire, si on feuilletait un peu les encyclopédies avant de blâmer un pays, dans notre cas précis - la Roumanie ?!

Pour revenir aux amis ayant reçu ces splendides boîtes en bois sculpté, ils trouvaient que c'était impie d'utiliser un tel objet d'art pour un but si basement domestique, parce que les bouteilles risquaient

d'endommager, voire de détériorer les boîtes, puis elles puaien déjà le raki qui s'était imbibé dans le bois après que les bouteilles se sont renversées là-dedans et puis, c'était trop lourd à porter, ce qui posait problème pour les bagages et le transport... Et pour eux, l'art culinaire – au cas où l'on peut en parler – n'a rien à voir avec l'art tout court... La leçon à tirer par nous autres Roumains: faire un cadeau est un art, et attention surtout aux objets d'art offerts en cadeau... C'est le ton qui fait la musique, c'est l'air qui fait la chanson. Pour nous, cela pourrait être un choc de les voir culturellement choqués et mécontents du cadeau que nous leur avons fait, malgré nos bonnes intentions qui, voilà, n'ont fait que paver l'enfer présent... Pourquoi le choc devant la revue imprimée sur un papier d'une qualité douteuse, pour nous, excellente s'il en était pour eux autres ? Tout ce qui est beau, régulier, réglé comme du papier à musique, ne leur plaît pas ; au contraire, ce qui se fait remarquer tout de suite par son irrégularité, sa laideur, son étrangeté leur plaît (à la plupart, non pas à tous, heureusement) et les attire tout de suite, comme un aimant. J'étais à Bruxelles en 1991, j'ai vu une boutique où l'on vendait les grandes marques de geans ? J'y suis entré pour regarder – une veste coûtait 3000 francs belges, plus que je n'avais reçu de la part du Ministère de la Culture pour ce déplacement... Une fille accompagnée de deux garçons, s'est achetée des geans splendides dernier cri, est sortie devant la boutique, a sorti une lame à raser de sa poche et a déchiré son pantalon battant neuf sous les fesses et à l'endroit des genoux, comme quoi, dans mon opinion, ledit pantalon n'était plus ni mettable ni portable, mais cette fille-là était d'autant plus fière et heureuse... Elle voulait attirer l'attention sur elle, faire figure de non conformiste, se faire remarquer par un geste d'une bêtise incroyable, le fait est qu'elle n'a pas accepté (ni conçu, paraît-il) de marcher dans les rues de Bruxelles vêtue d'un geans neuf de grande marque, à moins de l'avoir rendu méconnaissable, à peine encore portable, et très peu mettable... Elle n'en savait rien de la théorie du ridicule, elle trouvait que se rendre ridicule de la sorte, était un geste d'une grande bravoure... Qu'elle était à la mode, dans le vent et dans le train...

J'attire votre attention sur le fait qu'ignorer certains aspects relatifs à la civilisation d'un peuple, peut vous valoir un qualificatif de culture déficitaire... Descendu d'avion sur l'aéroport de Bruxelles, je voulais rejoindre tout de suite mes hôtes, comme quoi ai pensé à prendre un taxi. L'honoraire demandé par les chauffeurs de taxi était de 3.000 francs belges, l'équivalent de la somme que j'avais reçue pour faire la Belgique et la France, répartie sur deux semaines. Heureusement, je n'étais monté au bord d'aucun taxi, ce fut la responsable de la Maison Mémoire qui vint me chercher en bagnole au bout d'une demi-heure. Ce fut mon premier choc à l'étranger (je n'avais pas quitté la Roumanie avant décembre 1989). Le second choc: le soir, au resto, elle m'a demandé à moi d'abord ce que je prenais – je n'ai reconnu que le mot *rôti* et demandé cela, elle s'est commandé une *marmite* d'environ 3 kilos de boustifaille, moi j'ai crevé de faim toute la soirée et puis toute la nuit, elle était repue et ronflait à ne pas me laisser fermer l'œil de la nuit... Culturel ou pas, ce fut un choc – j'aurais dû lui dire: je prendrai ce que vous prendrez... Ce que je vous conseille vivement de faire, lorsqu'on vous met la carte sous les yeux – vous n'y verrez que du feu, hélas ! Ce n'est plus du français, cette langue-là...

Le poète luxembourgeois a eu un choc terrible, en fut même fort déçu – et je mettrais cela sur le compte de sa naïveté ou son manque de pragmatisme. Il tenait absolument à sauver 14 enfants de la rue de la ville de Galati, qu'il avait découverts dans un égout. Il a acheté 14 sets d'habillement pour l'été, l'automne, l'hiver et le printemps, a dépensé une fortune, est allé à l'égout respectif, leur a tout offert, ils se sont embrassés et ont pris des photos ensemble. Le lendemain, les petits étaient encore en haillons, mais ils s'étaient achetés, avec l'argent obtenu pour les frasques respectives, du café, des cigarettes et de la drogue (Aurolac), ils étaient tellement heureux, alors que le Luxembourgeois écumait de rage... Ils lui faisaient des pieds de nique, en plus... Il avait jeté des perles aux pourceaux, c'est-à-dire, il avait jeté son argent par la fenêtre, tout bonnement ! Nous aurions encore des tas d'histoires pareilles à conter et à commenter, seulement, une conclusion s'impose: avant de se rendre dans certain pays, il faut tout lire (si possible) sur le pays respectif, ses us et coutumes, ses traditions anciennes et plus récentes, quels sont les traits de caractère les plus évidents chez les habitants, etc. Il faut lire et consulter les sites Internet, demander des détails aux amis qu'on a dans le pays respectif, se mettre au courant des dernières tendances dans le pays où l'on va. Dresser une liste à deux colonnes: à faire et à ne pas faire. Et ne jamais oublier qu'un homme avisé en vaut deux...



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Sustainable Development Towards Globalization within Romania

Alexandra Gălbează¹, Cristina Ciovică², Cristian Florea³

Abstract: Sustainable development was first developed in order to offer a clear picture of progress in terms of ecological policies so as to harmonize both present and long-term objectives. It takes a change in the way of thinking and an active involvement of society towards public policies as far as sustainability is concerned. The relation between globalization and sustainable development is a very close one taking into consideration that activities of national markets have led to their homogeneity. On the other hand, sustainability became an important element in European economy, namely for Romania. Authorities started to pay attention to changes existent with the new environmental and economic priorities. Sustainable development within Romania requires a deep analysis upon the development indicators in order to know what the present situation is and what it may happen in the near future. Therefore, it is high time to evaluate the real situation that will influence the growth of the economy sector in the next decade. The conclusion drawn is that the strategic indicators revealed a hard path that Romania has been trying to pass recent years concerning sustainability requirements.

Keywords: sustainability; environment; ecology; strategic investment

1. Introduction

Sustainable development has become an issue brought to attention both in literature and practice. The social – economic and geopolitical development led humanity upon a huge question: how mankind can evolve in the next future without jeopardizing the planetary balance? Nowadays, the global community passes through some rough times characterized by hunger, poverty, the great gap between the poor and the rich, accelerating environmental degradation – all these being an ecological threaten for humanity. At the very beginning, sustainable development was first supposed to be the solution to ecological crisis caused by intense exploitation regarding resources and the environment deterioration. Today, this concept expanded upon life quality from economically and socially point of view. Thus, the present paper will emphasize on how this issue has become a major priority for the European Union even since 1997, starting with its inclusion in the Maastricht Treaty.

In order to watch the dynamics of sustainable development, a set of indicators were proposed to be used while sustainable development strategies were defined under United Nation Organization, namely, European Union.

2. Problem Statement

The European Union Strategy regarding Sustainable Development

In 2001, The European Council from Goteborg adopted the Strategy for Sustainable Development. Unfortunately, the document was powerfully criticized by the European Commission. After a deep research upon the problems that would affect the Union's future development: the disappearance of

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natural resources, biodiversity erosion, climate change, threats towards public health, the EU Council adopted in 2006 a renewed Strategy for the enlarged Europe.

The present strategy that is brought to attention aims to be a model for those who develop public policy so as to change the behavior of European civil society and its permanent involvement concerning the development, implementation and monitoring the main objectives (Our Common Future, Chapter 2: Towards Sustainable Development)

3. Concept and Terms

The indicators set regarding sustainable development

Achieving a common set of environmental and social indicators is a matter of primary concern for Eurostat, The Economic Commission UNO of Europe and the Organization of Cooperation and Economic Development. Therefore, the indicators developed by Eurostat are structured as follows: to each strategic area is associated an important indicator (level one), a set of indicators for operational objectives subordinated (level 2) and descriptive indicators of the necessary fields for the associated policies (level 3).

It is particularly important to take into consideration the fact that the EU member states are obliged to create and maintain a national system of indicators in order to keep a close eye on the existent situation. This procedure must be entirely in terms of EU level. Thus, it can easily be observed that there is a continuous process in which evaluation of national strategies and the one of the EU reduces the possible errors concerning the resources needed to fulfill the initial objectives.

According to the report that points out the progress within EU strategy for Sustainable Development it was confirmed that EU policies have faced with many positive developments in all seven priority areas, among the most important: energy-climate sector in 2008, the activities for greening transport, the creation of a suitable framework for an integrated maritime policy. Areas such as: health, education, research were also successful. Despite these positive developments, there are still some shortcomings: the demand for resources increases, biodiversity decreases and transport continues to consume even more energy as ever.

That is why, European Union calls member states to reflect on harmonizing national strategies and the one from Lisbon in order not only to help to an economic increase but also to a growth of an employment labor.

4. Solution Approach

The sustainable development indicators in Romania

Indicators for sustainable development in Romania are mentioned in the National Development Strategy. The document sets goals for a development model performance during a reasonable and realistic period of time. This may concern the people's quality life and their relationships in full harmony with natural environment. In this case, goals are for a: short term (2013) so as to embrace the principles and practices specific to sustainable development, medium term (2020): aligning key indicators of the current average of member countries and long term (2030): a significant closure towards the average performance of the EU countries in terms of sustainable development indicators (The National Strategy regarding Sustainable Development within Romania. Perspectives 2013 – 2020 – 2030, Bucharest, 2008).

For an objective analysis of the present situation, studies (European Human Capital Index, Lisbon Council 2007) take into account important elements such as human capital, its use (employment rate, unemployment rate), etc.

Climate change is considered to be an urgent issue, especially that Romania obligations upon this subject after 2012 are very important, namely, the greenhouse gas emissions reduction by 2020 with 20% and increasing renewable energy with 20% at the same time as well as achieving a minimum consumption level of biofuel by 10% in total consumption of transport. In this case, an indicator that has a great impact on this objective appears to be the energy intensity of economy (Data base – Sustainable Development Indicators within Romania).

As it can be seen in the table below, Romania records an improvement from 2006 to 2009 as far as the energy consumption in relation to the national economy is concerned. Thus, it is the second country on the top seven EU states with the highest intensity within EU, followed by Slovakia.

Table 1 The energy intensity of economy

	2006	2007	2008	2009
UE 27	175.5	168.7	167.4	165.2
Bulgaria	1057.63	977.62	910.39	842.54
Cehia	587.05	552.62	525.58	514.09
Ungaria	425.73	414.3	408.1	413.48
Polonia	425.38	396.84	384.01	363.72
România	704.78	659.09	612.76	576.9
Slovenia	269.65	252.55	257.31	252.28
Slovenia	622.67	532.93	517.89	496.57

By implementing policies in order to increase energy efficiency, a reduction of energy consumption by 14% is supposed to happen by 2016. Sustainable development means ensuring the energy efficiency, upgrading the technology and restructuring the economy.

Transport is perceived as a priority, thing that is proved by its close relation with other branches of the national economy, as well as the impact that transport has upon environment. Road, rail, sea river and air service are taken into consideration so as to develop this sector. As a consequence, this area may be represented by the real value regarding the investments in transport infrastructure: according to official statistics, in 2007 the total amount allocated to this sector was about 12088 billion Euro, in 2009 the number grew to 19542 billion Euro. It is imperative to know that the largest share of this amount was directed to traffic services (roads, streets) followed immediately by investments in modernizing waterway and port construction and other hydro structures.

Table 2 Investments in transport infrastructure

	2007	2008	2009
Total	12088.2	20418.5	19541.9
Road infrastrucure	9358.6	14330.1	13165.1
Rail infrastructure	1037.2	1165.3	752.1
Airport infrastructure	139.6	33.6	26
Bridges, roads, tunnels and underground infrastructure	356.2	3084.9	3325.3
Waterways, harbor and hydro construction	1196.6	1804.6	2273.4

These investments have a positive impact on people's quality life leading to a decrease of car accidents and to a reduction of people killed in accidents, as it can be observed in the figure. Thus, the number has been reduced significantly from 3063 persons in 2008 to 2377 persons in 2010.

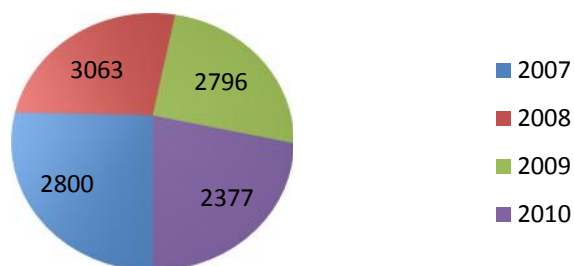


Figure 2 People killed in car accidents

In terms of investment policy, more funds are likely to be found so as to assure diversification of funding sources. Therefore, it appears that Romania has reached to the maximum level regarding direct foreign investments, the value in 2009 (49984 billion Euro) being much higher than the total amount registered in 2006 amounted to 34512 billion Euro.

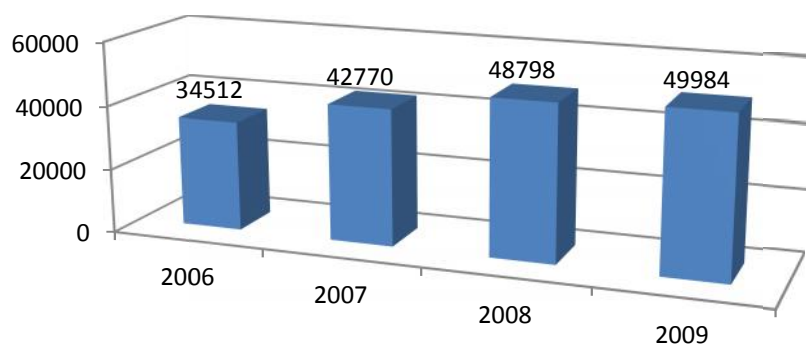


Figure 2 Direct foreign investments

In order to act effectively on the strategic direction regarding sustainability, society and the foreign partners need to get a clear picture on the road, on the real assets of the country and also upon the great potential that Romania seems to have.

5. Conclusions

Sustainable development requires a long term process in solving environmental and economic problems. Some of them are generally met in each country and others are specific. Indicators represent a great project so as to align to European Union requirements and the developed countries level. After a deep analysis, we can reach the conclusion that Romania still has a rigid economy whose process is very shy in its development, facing many difficulties in becoming significantly sustainable. However, this project is a preliminary stage in building a more elaborate quantification system regarding the three areas of sustainable development. Last but not least, the current situation may be also a challenge for a wide debate and for a real action with stakeholders in order to assure a successful development within globalization.

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Accession to the Schengen Area – a Further Delay for Romania

Florinel Iftode¹

Abstract: In this paper we make a complex presentation of Schengen area means in the European area and we will establish exactly the steps that Romania has to take in its attempt to join this area. Important for us is to argue, with specific examples, why Romania, in the European integration process, has failed to join this space. We shall proceed in showing the paths, according to some experts, towards the accomplishment of this objective. In the first of the paper, we have presented a history about the Schengen Area, which is the Romania's stage in the process of accession and the main reactions of European officials and Romanian politicians on postponing the accession to the Schengen area. We addressed this issue through the method of observation on the Romania's path in its attempt to join the Schengen area, focusing on the reactions of certain political figures and representatives of EU member countries and from our country towards this issue. The result of our observations has a direct impact to the university community, on the way of perceiving the main reasons for which Romania is postponed the accession to the Schengen Area. Our work is well documented and contains the latest reactions of political analysts and European and Romanian politicians in relation to the chosen theme.

Keywords: freedom of movement; free borders; integration; verification mechanism

1. Introduction

In the early 80s, it started at European level, a discussion about the importance of the freedom term. In 1984, former German Chancellor Helmut Kohl met President of France, François Mitterrand, at the border crossing "Goldene Brenn" near Saarbrücken. Here they decided to eliminate border controls between Germany and France. None of them had any idea the visionary meaning will have for the future this gesture for a Europe without internal borders without border controls between states. Their vision has resulted in a first phase agreement between Germany, France, the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg, signed in 1985 on ship the "Astrid" on the Mosel River, near the small border towns of Schengen in Luxembourg.

It followed the signing of the Implementing Convention of the Schengen Agreement, on June 19, 1990. In moment of its coming into force in 1995, it has eliminated internal border controls of the signatory states and created a single external border where controls are carried out according to a strict set of rules.

They also established common rules on visas, migration, asylum, and measures relating to police, judicial, and customs cooperation. All these measures, together with the Schengen Agreement, the Convention of implementing the Schengen Agreement, the decisions and declarations adopted by the Schengen Executive Committee established in 1990 and the accession protocols and agreements that followed represent the Schengen acquis. Initially, the Schengen acquis was not part of the Community legislation framework.

This changed however with the Treaty of Amsterdam, on October 2, 1997, entered into force on May 1, 1999. A protocol attached to the Treaty of Amsterdam incorporated the Schengen acquis in the EU

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legislative and institutional framework. From this moment, the Schengen acquis¹ is part of Community law and it was transferred to the new Title IV-Visas, asylum, immigration and other policies related to free movement of persons, of TEU.²

2. What is Schengen Agreement?

In the early 80s, it started at European level, a discussion about the importance of the term freedom of movement. After long discussions, France, Luxembourg, Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands decided to create an area without internal frontiers. The agreement between these countries was signed on June 14, 1985, in the village Schengen, in Luxembourg. It followed the signing of the Convention of Implementing the Schengen Agreement, on June 19, 1990. In the coming into force in 1995, there were eliminated the internal border controls of the signatory states and it was created a single external border where the controls are carried out according to a strict set of rules. They also established common rules on visas, migration, asylum, and measures relating to police, judicial and customs cooperation.

Among the most important measures adopted by the Schengen States there were:

- elimination of internal border controls and establishing a set of rules for crossing external borders;
- separation of passenger flows in ports and airports;
- harmonization of rules concerning the conditions for granting visas;
- establishing rules for asylum seekers;
- introduction of rules on the surveillance and cross-border pursuit for police forces in the Schengen states;
- strengthening judicial cooperation through a faster extradition system and implementation of court decisions;
- create Schengen Information System.

Initially, the Schengen Agreement and the Implementing Convention were not part of the Community legislation framework. This changed however with the Treaty of Amsterdam, on October 2, 1997, entered into force on May 1, 1999. A protocol attached to the Treaty of Amsterdam incorporated the Schengen acquis in the EU legislative and institutional framework. From this moment, the Schengen acquis is part of Community law and it was transferred to the new Title IV-Visas, asylum, immigration and other policies related to free movement of persons.

Also, as evolution of institutional order, according to the Amsterdam Treaty, the Council took the place of Schengen Executive Committee, established by the Schengen Agreement and as of May 1, 1999, the Schengen Secretariat was built within the General Secretariat of the Council. Also, new working groups were created in order to assist the Council in its activities.

*Accession to Schengen Area means the adherence to a place where the internal border controls between Member States were eliminated. This is the big difference between Schengen state statute and the European Union member state, in terms of internal border controls.*³

¹ One of the most important tasks of the Council in incorporating the Schengen Area was to choose those provisions and measures taken by signatory states that constituted a genuine acquis, i.e. a body of laws, and could provide a basis for future cooperation. According to Decisions 1999/435/EC and 1999/436/EC of 20 May 1999 it was adopted a list of elements making up the acquis, setting the appropriate legal basis according to each treaties (Ec Treaty or the Treaty on European Union). Most of these papers were published in the Official Journal. Since then, the Schengen legislation continued to be developed. For example, some articles of the Schengen Convention were replaced by new EU legislative documents (e.g. Schengen Borders Code),
http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/justice_freedom_security/free_movement_of_persons_asylum_immigration/133020_ro.htm

² <http://www.schengen.mai.gov.ro/index01.htm>

³ <http://www.schengen.mai.gov.ro/Documente/utile/infoutil/intrebari%20frecvente.pdf>

2.1. The Schengen Area Enlargement

The Schengen Area is an area of freedom of movement where controls at national borders of the member states have been abolished and there was created a single external border where controls are carried out according to a strict set of rules.

In the paper titled – *The Schengen exam. In the search of European public area*, Professor Bârgăoanu Alina shows that “*Europe needs a new vision, a social innovation of the sort launched by the EU's founding fathers, that of creating de facto solidarity between Member States and between their peoples. Equally, Europe needs leaders to follow that vision.*”

The Schengen accession is an obligation assumed in the Accession Treaty (Article 4 of the Protocol on the conditions and arrangements referring to the admission of Bulgaria and Romania in the European Union annexed to the Accession Treaty of Romania and Bulgaria), Romania desiring to participate in all forms of cooperation intended to deepen the European integration. Abolition of checks at internal borders of the European Union is one of the most visible and important effects of European integration.

“*Without unnecessarily increase the importance of the subject, we believe that joining the Schengen area was the first exam undergone by Romania after accession in 2007.*”

Membership adherence of the EU's Schengen Member State has an important dimension of training and technical evaluation in terms of full implementation of the Schengen's acquis provisions. The evaluation missions for Romania took place during March 2009 - December 2010 and they have involved the examination by teams of experts from Member States and EU institutions to prepare Romania to fair and full implementation of Schengen acquis, in areas related to police cooperation, data protection, visas, maritime borders, land, air, use of SIS / SIRENE systems. As the successive evaluation missions have concluded, Romania meets all criteria of the legislation governing the accession to the Schengen area and its operation.

At the meeting of Justice and Home Affairs Council on 9 June 2011, in Luxembourg, EU interior ministers welcome the successful completion of technical evaluation process of Romania and Bulgaria and decided that the formal decision on the accession of both countries to the Schengen area to be discussed at the EU Justice and Home Affairs Council in September 2011. A political message of support was delivered and the European Parliament, which gave in June 8, 2011, a majority vote in favor of Romania and Bulgaria ascension to Schengen.

Justice and Home Affairs Council of 22 September 2011 did not end with the decision on Romania's (and Bulgaria) ascension to the Schengen area because of political opposition of Netherlands and Finland. The context presented, however, the picture of support that Romania and Bulgaria benefit from, for joining the Schengen area by a large majority of Member States.

The European Council of December 9th, 2011 has reconfirmed the meeting of all conditions for a decision on Romania and Bulgaria ascension to the Schengen area and invited the Council to finalize the process. The issue of accession of Romania (and Bulgaria) to the Schengen area, in two stages (the first stage stopping the internal controls at air and sea borders and then the abolition of checks at internal land borders) was discussed at the European Council in March 2012.

Ministry of Administration and Interns - the institution coordinating the process of accession to the Schengen area.

Accession to the Schengen area is the primary objective of the *Ministry of Administration and Interns* (MAI) after January 1, 2007. The preparations for achieving this purpose started, under the Ministry of Administration and Interior coordination, along with the launch of the negotiation process on Chapter 24-Justice and Home Affairs on 30 November 2001, which included activities of drafting some strategic policy documents, of institutional construction, the implementation of the provisions of Class I and monitoring the commitments. In this context, a need of utmost importance was a strong and coordinated establishment of mechanisms in order to achieve the objectives and measures for

accession to the Schengen area. *“Joining the Schengen area is considered a measure of true integration, true and deep integration in the EU”*. (Bârgăoanu, 2011, p. 175)

At MIA’s level, as the coordinating institution of the accession process to the Schengen area it was established the framework for a unified approach at all levels (legislative, institutional, financial and training) of the matter. It was also started a process of reflection on the steps that Romania would follow in order to initiate the internal process of Schengen self-evaluation process, so as to determine the current stage of preparation for accession to Schengen.

Statements on the theme of Intermediary Report on the European Commission: Cătălin Predoiu *“The European Commission Report is, overall, positive for Romania, according to two positive technical reports and a positive country report, the one from summer of 2011. Therefore, Romania continues the positive trend in the European Commission reports within the Cooperation and Verification Mechanism. Among the institutions evaluated, the Romanian government is positively appreciated. Also, along with the government, there are also appreciated the General Prosecutor, the National Anticorruption Department and National Integrity Agency. Also the Parliament received positive feedback for enacting justice. It is noted progress in the courts and the Superior Council of Magistracy, with recommendations”*.

*“The main minus noted in the report is related to **“legal system management's ability to respond appropriately to integrity and accountability issues within the system.”** More specifically, it is transmitted a message directly to the Judicial Inspection efficiency, and in this context, we would point out that the Romanian government and Parliament had anticipated and already answered to this concern by adopting the law on disciplinary responsibility of judges. We urge the authorities regarded by the recommendations, particularly the Superior Council of Magistracy, to mobilize more intensely in the future and take appropriate action. Specifically, we need to strictly apply the law on the magistrates’ disciplinary responsibility. Therefore we welcome this report and receive it with openness and maturity.”¹*

*“During summer we will have an assessment of five years implementation of the Cooperation and Verification Mechanism. This evaluation should prove the irreversibility of reforms. Therefore, **we must continue this trend and demonstrate a very wide political support for reforms, because the irreversibility stands for the continuity of political support for justice and, as we are in an election year, it is obvious to put more acutely this problem of continuity and irreversibility – at the level of principle. In particular, we think that it is the case that at the level of Superior Council of Magistracy to overcome a previous logic of limited cooperation between groups of ideas, guidance, within the Superior Council of Magistracy and to pass on a logic of total cooperation between these groups in order to push forward the agenda of the Superior Council of Magistrates”***

The Justice Minister Cătălin Predoiu, was satisfied with the European Commission report and declared that from now on the Superior Council of Magistracy should prove its effectiveness. *“The main message that we should convey, in view of the report, is that it is on positive balance for Romania”*, said the Predoiu Minister. The official indicated that between the appreciated institutions positively assessed in the report are the Government, the General Prosecutor, DNA, ANI, and the Parliament. *“Now the weight of reform process was transferred on the shoulders of SCM and on the judiciary system in general,”* Predoiu said.

Liberal MEP Norica Nicolai claims that the EC report does not make an absolutely accurate analysis of the situation of justice in Romania. *“I look forward for an effective justice, a professionally managed one, with evidence to be reviewed, analyzed and evaluated by the courts and then we can talk about a serious report on the state of justice in Romania, and MCV,”* declared Norica Nicolai.

Social Democrat MEP Victor Boștinăru believes that the EC report's conclusions there are partial and they do not explain why the quality of justice in Romania has not improved. *“If it were truly objective,*

¹http://www.gov.ro/catalin-predoiu-romania-continua-trendul-pozitiv-in-rapoartele-comisiei-europene-in-cadrul-mecanismului-de-cooperare-si-verificare-alaturi-de__11a115898.html

the European Commission should have noted that enormous political pressure, starting even from the president, to the justice there were brought dysfunctions including at the SCM level or other structures,” said Boștinăru for Agerpres.

3. Romania Awaits for Schengen

Schengen Area is the free circulation without customs control within the EU countries. Currently, all EU countries are part of the Schengen area, except Romania and Bulgaria. Netherlands opposed the entry of the two countries in the EU's border-free area, arguing that this step would make the area vulnerable because of the corruption and organized crime. By joining Schengen Area, Romania will become a border country of this area, and it required to ensure a tight control of external borders. In the paper entitled - *Schengen Exam. In search of European public sphere* of Professor Bârgăoanu Alina¹ shows that *“Europe needs a new vision, a social innovation of the sort launched by the EU's founding fathers, that is to create de facto solidarity between Member States and between their peoples. Equally, European leaders need to follow that vision.”*

The new report by the European Commission (EC) on combating corruption in Bucharest has not satisfied Netherlands, which is opposing to the accession to Schengen Area. Netherlands has linked the Romania's accession to the Schengen area to the free movement of monitoring reports, although the EC spokesman Mark Gray said that there is no connection between them.

Dutch Minister of European Affairs, Ben Knapen, told RFI: *“The progress is visible in both countries (Romania and Bulgaria), especially in Romania. It is a step forward, but it has to be done more”*. Dutch official noted that before taking a decision in favor of accession to the Schengen area, the country expects two consecutive reports of EC that would note progress in justice domain in Bucharest. EC report in February in the Cooperation and Verification Mechanism in Justice (CVM) has noticed a major improvement of the situation in combating corruption, but also a series of delays. The next EC report is expected in July.

The National Integrity Agency (NIA) and Anticorruption Directorate (DNA) in Romania continue to advance in some important cases, including to a significant number of well-known politicians and officials, the EC report reveals. The document also mentioned in the conclusions that it was developed a comprehensive national anti-corruption strategy. Meanwhile, in the report, the Commission notes that several times the sentences in high-level corruption are minimum required by law, and in 60 % of cases they are suspended. A recent series of criminal investigations in which there were involved in senior judges raised doubts about the determination and capacity of Superior Council of Magistrates to ensure the integrity and accountability, according to the EC report.

As for Bulgaria, the European Commission Report peevd the Bulgarian Prime Minister, Boyko Borisov, who has accused the opposition politicians and NGOs that transmit their critics in Brussels. The European Commission recommends Bulgaria's several efforts to reform the judiciary system and fight more efficiently against corruption and organized crime. The penalties imposed for cases of high level corruption and fraud of EU funds are not sufficient and it did not lead to convincing results to prevent these phenomena, according to the EC report on combating corruption in Bulgaria.

Bulgaria is likely to remain the only EU country subject to humiliating monitoring from Brussels on justice and home affairs, wrote Wednesday the Sophia's newspaper “Sega”. In the report on Bulgaria it is stated that the developments in recent months in this country shows the need for bolder action to implement the Commission's recommendations in a number of areas. The Commission also recommends that the law on illegal asset forfeiture, which is currently discussed in parliament, have a range as wide and is supported by strong institutions, so as to effectively prevent the high-level corruption.

¹ Bârgăoanu Alina – Professor, PhD, at the Faculty of Communication and public relation within National School of Political and Administrative Studies.

3.1 Reactions of European Political Leaders on Romania Joining the Schengen Area

Romania and Bulgaria should receive a decision on the accession to the Schengen area in September this year, the EU leaders decided late Thursday at a summit in Brussels. Netherlands agreed to give a horizon of expectation about the two countries in the space without borders, that being its only concession.

According to the draft final statement, obtained by AFP, because of Netherlands opposition, an adherence cannot be considered at this time and it is anticipated a decision on this matter to be made: *“in September 2012”*. From now on, Europe will help Bucharest and Sofia to identify the measures that must be adopted in order to allow their membership at that time, as specified in the document.

The two countries were expecting a negative answer within the Thursday's summit because of opposition from the Dutch, who appreciated that they have not progressed enough to secure the borders and to fight against corruption. But Romania and Bulgaria hoped to gain at least a guarantee of the approval of accession to the Schengen area this summer. Ultimately, the decision was postponed until September.

“We believe that Bulgaria and Romania have not done what it was necessary. They have registered progress, but not enough to meet the Schengen criteria,” said at Brussels the Dutch Prime Minister Mark Rutte.

“With all the problems that we have today with the borders of Greece, it is the question of knowing if Bulgaria and Romania may apply in useful time on the field the prior conditions of the Schengen's criteria,” Rutte insisted.

European Commission President Jose Barroso said on the same topic that Romania and Bulgaria ascension to Schengen is a matter of “objectivity” and “trust”. *“It is time for all remaining obstacles to be removed. And as soon as possible,”* said Barroso.

The negotiations on the unblocking situation on Schengen were held before the summit between President Traian Basescu, Prime Minister of Bulgaria, Boris Borisov, Dutch Prime Minister Mark Rutte, assisted by the Chairman of the Council, Herman Van Rompuy and Prime Minister Helle Thorning Schmidt representative of the Danish EU Presidency.

“It is a strong political will to solve the Schengen issue”, said the Chairman of the Council.¹ Netherlands is not yet ready, under any circumstances, to accept the accession of Romania and Bulgaria to Schengen. We have to await.²

Following a discussion with the European Parliament Martin Schulz, the Dutch Prime Minister Mark Rutte said that Romania and Bulgaria have not yet made enough progress to get the Netherlands' support on joining in Schengen Area. *“We are against the accession of Romania and Bulgaria to Schengen Area. We want absolute guarantees that the Schengen criteria are applied in the two countries. We need positive reports in the MCV (Cooperation and Verification Mechanism - No), confirming that the two countries do whatever is necessary (...). There is a progress, but just not enough”*, said Rutte, according to reality.

This statement comes from the Dutch Premier although Schulz sustained further that the adherence of the two countries, stressing that they have fulfilled the necessary conditions and it is no longer needed other criteria to be imposed.

¹ <http://www.revista22.ro/articol.php?id=13637>

² <http://www.9am.ro/stiri-revista-presei/International/224127/premierul-olandez-suntem-impotriva-aderarii-romaniei-la-schengen.html>

3.2 What do Political Analysts Say?

Political analyst Cristian Parvulescu said that delaying the decision until the fall of Romania's accession to the Schengen area was “*completely predictable*”. According to Parvulescu, not only the Netherlands is “reluctant” towards Romania and Bulgaria joining the Schengen area, but other countries as well that “*they were not as open as the Netherlands*”.

“It was absolutely predictable the making of such decision as long as Netherlands found, based on the criteria which it assumed, that there were registered no improvements of Romania and Bulgaria. The Romania’s progress has certainly existed, but it seems that Netherlands was not convinced and expected more than that. (...) Although the Netherlands is the spearheading, I personally believe that other states were not so openly expressed, they are rather wary towards Romania and Bulgaria’s ascension. There is a reaction of adversity towards Eastern countries, a disbelief in the ability of these countries to assume European values”, said the political analyst.

He added that the Netherlands is entitled to block Romania's accession to Schengen, because “*nobody can deny the right of a State, which is provided in the Treaties, to block the accession of another state to the Schengen Area.*” Cristian Parvulescu said that, in his opinion, until now, “*Romania failed to approach Netherlands in a convincing manner*”, adding that the authorities in Bucharest, together with relevant parties including the opposition, should think about mechanisms that would ensure Romania's credibility on medium and long term.

The opposition may and should be involved in the process of accession to Schengen. “*I hope in the fall to find a wise solution, in the interest of all. (...) There can be found mechanisms. It must be negotiated and found a solution acceptable to the Dutch government. We do not have many chances. In vain we rely on the support of most Schengen states, if the Netherlands is not convinced. The situation is not very different from Finland. Romania has to come, beyond the examples you give now to fight corruption, with a mechanism that would that would raise the credibility of Romania on medium and long term. (...) The involvement of opposition, from this point of view, would not be a bad idea. I refer to a common support of the policies that give coherence on medium and long term, it could be an argument for the Dutch government*”, said the political analyst.

Asked if in his opinion, is it possible collaboration between government parties and opposition ones for the accession to Schengen, Cristian Parvulescu replied that “*as long as no one tries, we are unaware that being possible or not*”. “*I believe that the national interests are above party interests or alliances and that we can try. In fact, it is a current political practice. So far no one has thought of such formula. I started from what the Westerns asked to Greece - all major parties to undertake reforms and to give continuity. I believe such solution could be convincing in the case of Romania. (...) If possible, together with the opposition, if something can be done, why not? I know that the opposition has declared in favor of Schengen-related policies, criticizing the Netherlands. Maybe it's time for the Power, together with the opposition, to make a collaboration exercise from this point of view.*”¹ he concluded.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, we agree with the idea that Romania was not yet received the Schengen area primarily because of politicians from Bucharest. All the given motivations over power and opposition have no value in the face of the visible reality: Romania has no political maturity to prepare thoroughly for such difficult exam as joining the Schengen Area.

¹<http://www.ziare.com/politica/schengen/cristian-parvulescu-amanarea-deciziei-privind-aderarea-romaniei-la-schengen-previzibila-1154829>.

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THE 7TH EDITION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
**EUROPEAN INTEGRATION
REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES**

**Economic Globalization - a
Phenomenon of Global Business Integration**

Radu-Marcel Joia¹, Alina-Mihaela Babonea²

Abstract: Tumultuous economic life led scientists to seek explanations to the negative economic events, events that take many forms, and to whom it is a must to find a solution or even a mitigating factor. The foundation of the economy has undergone many changes. The recent events manifested in the world economy show that the underlying fundamentals of this science must be revised because they proved to be wrong. It notes several times, mainly due to present economic crisis, that currently the economics have no theoretical and practical means and no tools of analysis and intervention in the economy, proving that the existing ones are exceeded and insufficient, so that the creation of an unifying principle and of some generalizing concepts that could systematize and forecast the current economic phenomena in the microeconomics and macroeconomics, especially in the transnational companies field, those which are the base of the foreign direct investment flows, should become the main objective of the new economic science. Through this paper, we tried to illustrate the important aspects of economic globalization, the challenges that this phenomenon poses to economies and the way in which an economy can become globally competitive, under massive constraints of the global competition, how a national company can become globally integrated, study based on representative references.

Keywords: economic globalization; globalism; investment strategies; global integration; foreign direct investments

1. Introduction

The concept of economic globalization highlights the changes made to the world economy, the changes facing the world economy in recent years. Capital transfers, free movement of capital flows, acquisitions and mergers made between different global multinationals are elements that characterize the concept of "economic globalization".

The literature is very rich on this topic. We will review the main ideas of scientists on this economic phenomenon, just to help us illustrate the evolution and key elements that have stimulated a great expansion of FDI flows over the past decades.

One of the most important ideas identified during the conducted survey is that of Barrie Axford, who in his "The Global System: Politics, Economics and Culture" (Barrie Axford, 1995) book provides a detailed approach of globalization impact in our times. It examines and criticizes the global economic system fundamentals, while developing an original position of his own reflections on the institutions structure. What was novel about Barrie in his study was the analysis performed on various dimensions of globalization. In addition to economic globalization, the book focuses on political and cultural globalization.

The idea guiding the study that Barrie Axford conducted is that economic globalization is a phenomenon where physical distances between countries is not a disturbing factor to achieve cross-

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border economic relations, political or socio-cultural ones. In other words, the geographical area isn't anymore an impediment to create economic links between countries. Current technologies and international investment strategies adopted by businesses worldwide are opportunities that have boosted the economic interconnection between states, regardless of their geographical location. These opportunities have helped the development of a part transfer of capital and hence the expansion of investments.

One thing that Barrie in 1988 noted in his study is that economic globalization has helped to create networks and economic interdependences, social, and cultural policies at various levels, depending on the type of companies. We see that these networks and interdependences have resulted in the economy as direct investments. Barrie's ideas derive from the definition of FDI, which are stimulated by the phenomenon of economic globalization, flows that can be considered even a positive consequence of economic globalization event.

2. Economic Globalization Challenges - Impact on FDI Flows

When referring to foreign direct investments, they may appear at the economy in various forms, from trade to investments, to international transactions, etc. In 2002, Daniel Yergin and Joseph Stanislaw in their book "The Commanding Heights - The battle for the world economy" (Yergin, D., Stanislaw, J., 2002), explain the phenomenon of economic globalization more inclusive, as a development process of trade and investments across national borders. These two authors made for the first time the distinction between the term "globalization" and "globality". Globality includes globalization precisely because the first is configured in a certain state of training of various elements and phenomena, beyond globalization.

According to Richard Lipsey, technology development, the innovation trend in the enterprises and the desire to reduce costs are the items on which the phenomenon of economic globalization has strengthened. In his book, "An Introduction to Positive Economics" (Lipsey, R. G., Chrystal, K. A., 1995), the author shows that the occurrence of these three elements specified above have led in time to companies' internal organizational changes, those becoming more decentralized and flexible. Thus, transnational companies have contributed in an increasingly important part of the globalization of economic development, through their strategies of giving up national borders and to transfer part of their field of activity in so-called host countries.

When we analyze the process of economic globalization we must look at this as a global integration, in which "the economic importance of national political boundaries are in continuous decline and there is an unprecedented intensification of economic relations and interactions until the differences of internal and external transactions become insignificant or even disappear" (Lipsey, Chrystal, 1995). According to Beeman and Frank, the new dimensions of the global economy are likely **technological**, due to the progress of communications and international transport and **economic**, due to barriers reduction or elimination of the international flows of goods, services and capital. All these ideas are presented in the book "New Dynamics in the Global Economy" by William Joseph and Isaiah Frank Beeman (1988).

In terms of local literature, we can mention several authors who have written on the subject of globalization. Among the most important we can mention Ioan Bari, who in his book, "Globalizarea economiei" (2005), tries to clot the approaches on the phenomenon of globalization of economy, because as he mentioned to this phenomenon there have been assigned multiple interpretations sometimes even contradictory.

Based on the desire to open new horizons for the economists to new meanings and new solutions to help our country in the development process, the author summarizes the definition of globalization of world economy as a dynamic process based on a particular increase in the interdependences of nation states, due to expansion and growth of transnational ties in more and more sectors of the economy,

politics and culture. In other words, all issues involved are global rather than national, which can be solved globally and not nationally (Bari, 2005).

In one of his articles, "Globalization as a process of modernity", (Dinu, 2006), Dinu Marin argues that economic globalization is "a new formula to organize the world [...] that could be called simple and significant, Americanization". Also, the same author in another article, "Explanatory model of globalization", is making the difference between the concept of economic globalization, globality and globalism, which are often overlapping terms. Thus, "globalization appears to be something more than globality and globalism, as compared to any other historical form that they have may taken in the pre-global period, form structured on adversity principle [...] Economic globalization is carried beyond post-industrialism and loading the new economy alignments, based on knowledge and ecological trends".

Moving from the epistemological manifestation of globalization to the actual phenomenon, Costea Munteanu, in his book "Transnational Finance", is making the difference between the term "globalization" and "internationalization". He argues that globalization is a process of society evolution, in an advanced growth rate, social sphere becoming effectively borderless. Starting from the ideas expressed in his work, we can say that the "internationalization" involves increasing interdependences between states, but they remain well defined as territorial units separated by national borders. International links, such as international trade, involving the scroll of distances to conduct to such relations, as global connections, and satellite communications, for example, are instant, being decoupled from space. They can propagate simultaneously and instantaneously from one place to another, "outside time", so that may be considered as "super territorial phenomena" (Scholte, 1997). Therefore, currently, international relations coexist with the global ones, contemporary world being in the same time an international world and a globalizing world.

Studying French literature, we can see that it is chiefly used the term "mondialization", as it has a wider coverage area than globalization. Thus, when we say "mondialization", we mean such globalization in various compartments of the economy: "the globalization of markets, globalization of business firms, financial globalization", etc.

This view is supported also by the Anglo-Saxon literature; the definition given in Frank Livesey's dictionary of economic globalization, in his "Dictionary of Economics" (1993) that globalization means the tendency of firms to establish production units in the world, wherever that market is large enough to allow economies of scale. This increases the number and size of multinational companies. The key feature of globalization is that goods, services, capital, labor and ideas are transferred internationally through companies.

In other words, globalization is a trend of expansion of multinational companies on international markets, which constitute the essential factor of worldwide product distribution.

Latin literature, here we refer to Italy, especially to a dictionary of political economy, (De Rosa, Minieri, Verrilli & De Luca, 2006), considers globalization as the global market constitution process. This is achieved by transforming needs in global needs by standardizing products, as well as communications and media development. Incredibly, communications and media power became very important to help leveling needs worldwide. Under the impact of globalization, to be able to become competitive in the global marketplace, companies are forced to have a flexible, dynamic, based on innovation, technology and decentralized production. The absolute need of investment strategies continue to be upgraded so that research development departments inside the companies have become a necessity.

The same elements in the definition of globalization are found in several other studies. Thus, the majority of studies published by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development noted that the most important historically, global expansion was achieved by means of exchange, and after the 80s, through a considerable growth of foreign direct investments and business cooperation. What is innovative in this stage is that companies have turned to new combination of international

investments, exchange and cooperation between them in order to ensure expansion and achieve its goals.

The international investment strategies from the past are based on export and sale of products to the markets of other countries. This time, the new strategies combine the full range of cross-border activities: exports and supply inside/outside, foreign direct investments and international alliances. Those businesses that use these strategies can succeed profits due to a higher level of coordination, operations diversify and to their local implantation.¹

When we discuss about economic globalization we must refer to transnational companies, to interdependence of trade and FDI flows. We see in other words that by this term we mean a process of "internationalization of capital" that attempts capitalization in different geographical regions of the globe, depending on available resources and markets.

Economic globalization has allowed the development of network companies, which have emphasized capital accumulation process and the decentralization of activities, offering at the same time, the penetration of capital in different countries. Flows of international investments made by transnational companies through mergers and acquisitions processes have led to a consolidation and a high concentration of global capital. From an economic perspective, globalization has allowed the development of strategic partnerships between large multinational corporations, especially in technology.

Economic globalization is based on the increasing interdependence between states, which brings the system of interdependent markets. Due to these factors, technology news spread rapidly, affecting production costs of all other countries products, positioning a firm in a market can attract prestige on another market. So, the globalization of markets requires their integration process, companies having no longer the possibility to take separate decisions. The interdependent markets will force them to adopt a "global strategy", which targets the entire world market.

Once with the globalization of markets and companies there is also a globalization of competition, which means that placing a company on a certain category of the market, either positive or negative, can affect its international competitiveness.

A major figure of the world economic science, Joseph Stiglitz, in his book, "Globalization and its discontents" (2003), believes that globalization has huge potential, still unrealized, to eradicate poverty and stimulate the growth of a country. In recent years, the International Monetary Fund, World Bank and World Trade Organization have promoted world financial stability, prosperity and free trade, these institutions being in recent decades in the midst of economic events and contributed by all their actions to globalization. As international organizations was very easy to steer the world economy to the phenomenon of economic globalization.

Stiglitz's book seems to be a criticism of the IMF and complain that, although it has been more than 50 years after its establishment, its main objectives were not met, the IMF mission failed. According to Stiglitz's theory there were adopted wrong policies, such as denial of economic aid to fund those countries that have been in economic decline, namely the creation of economic instability in the capital markets through liberalization started too early and forced. The mistake is that it takes too much on macroeconomic issues at country level; there are plenty of examples, our country being among them. It also provides aid only to countries that adopt policies less expansionary, but rather to restrict economic activity by lowering the budget deficit or increase taxes, which increase the interest rate, typically restrictive policies.

Stiglitz blames "market fundamentalism", which argues that a "free" market solves all problems flawlessly. It requires that public institutions to reform themselves and become more transparent. This

¹ Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development study: „*Performances de filiales etrangeres dans les pays de l'OCDE*”, Paris, 1994.

study contributes significantly to the globalization debate and provides an analytical model on the assistance to countries facing economic development challenges and transformation.

Free market theory, the solution adopted by the U.S.A, was promoted by the International Monetary Fund in the developed countries but also in the developing countries. Often imposed by force, the countries have abandoned Keynesian theory, in which the focus was the government role in the economy, and the accent was on market liberalization. Developed countries haven't been affected by this new theory, but developing and transition countries were not prepared for such policies. Being in a position to open their national markets, they have been found vulnerable and unprepared for the competition from outside.

In addition, we must say that Stiglitz believes that economic development and the process of economic globalization, after all, is not about statistics or other figures, but it is about lives and jobs. Stiglitz does not forget that these adopted policies are implemented for the wellbeing of people and their success should not be measured by how competitive international banks are, but in how much food the people have and by how many their living standards are growing.

The liberalization of capital markets is one of globalization aspect for long fought by Stiglitz, because, as we mentioned, the benefits were remarkable only in the developed countries, developing countries suffer from foreign financial flows, which changed its direction, banking systems have deteriorated and collapsed on the one hand currency. Examples are most common in Asia, Latin America respectively. These attacks have served only to aggravate the poverty and to create chaos at the country level.

Four years after underlying the challenges that supposed the increasing of countries interdependences, Stiglitz returns with another study on the topic of globalization, namely "Making Globalization Work"(2007), which seeks to provide inventive solutions for a range of problems facing developing countries, international fiscal instability, and global pollution. Also stresses the need to reform global financial institutions, review trade agreements, and laws on intellectual property in order to make them better respond to the growing gap between countries. Now more than ever before, globalization has gathered the world's peoples in a community, bringing with it a need to think and act globally.

Another paper with impact on this topic is represented by "Global Political Economy: Understanding the International Economic Order" (2001), by Robert Gilpin and Jean Gilpin, stating that the Cold War end unleashed new economical and political forces, appearing also, new regionalisms. New technologies are more and more momentum for the global economy, their development changing every aspect of contemporary economic affairs.

Gilpin focuses its attention on the propensity of economic forces, political and technological developments that have transformed the world and turned it. He focuses on the economic globalization, on its implications on economic affairs and on the degree to which the nature and the significance of this phenomenon have been exaggerated and wrong interpreted. More than that, he demonstrated that national policies and national economies remain the most critical determinants of business economic. The book also emphasizes the importance of economic regionalism, multinational corporations, and financial flows.

Gilpin integrates economic and political analysis in his discussion of "global political economy", using the conventional theory of international trade and endogenous growth theory.

3. Conclusions

Liberalization and deregulation in the field of international trade, accompanied by new information and production have led to a new production and labor organization within transnational companies, leading to expansion capital mobility phenomenon.

Due to economic globalization, relations between national economies have become much closer, due to international transactions and processes, as well as international trade and investment flows. We can

say that we are witnessing an internationalized economy such as we see that trade relations have been replaced by foreign direct investment flows. When discussing the development, it is absolutely necessary that we see the strong expansion of multinational companies, still regulated at national level, keeping national basis. Again it is emphasized the autonomy of national economies. In other words, open internationalized economy is nothing but a conglomeration of national autonomous systems based on international economic relations.

As we can see the phenomenon of globalization has been discussed by many scientists, which shows that this term is complex and very comprehensive. In future work we will try showing the evolution of FDI under the economic crisis effects, a trend which will show their expansion, implicitly the importance of these flows in the global economy being determinant of economic globalization.

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REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

Migration and Security of States

Cristian Jura¹

Abstract: The main topic of this article is represented by an attempt to encounter an answer to the question whether there is any connection between migration/minorities and security and how do they mutually influence. Pursuant to the analyses performed during the last years, we may definitely state that there is a biunivoque connection between migration/minorities and security. The migration/minorities may influence security positively or negatively. Both states are influenced, the state they are leaving, and the state where they are to settle. I have chosen to select in parallel two concepts: migration and minorities. The scientific ground that determined me to decide to use such an approach is that migrants, sooner or later, turn into groups that share the same values, the same culture, the same traditions, the same language etc. Therefore, the migrants turn into a minority living on the territory of the state where they have migrated. Practically, migration may be defined by the movement of an important number of individuals, but, as these groups of individuals settle, they turn into minorities.

Keywords: migration; security of the states; national minorities; phases of security; asylum

1. Introduction

Emma Rothschild summarizes the extension of the security concept explaining its development of four axes². Firstly, upside down, the concept of security extended from the security of nations to the security of groups and individuals. Then, bottom-up, it was extended from the security of nations to the security of international system, or of a super-national physical environment. On horizontal, the direction of extension was from military security to political, economic, society, environment one in other words to the „individual security“. Eventually, the political liability for providing security extended itself both upside towards the international institutions, and down, to regional or local administrations, and in both directions towards non-governmental organizations, towards public opinion and press.

Another opinion on the evolution of the concept of security states that this has known three phases, corresponding to different dimensions.

During a first phase, security is narrowly understood as national security, having as main objective to defend the territorial integrity and the suzerainty of state, the threat of security being clearly identified as military threat from other state.

During the second phase, security begins to be understood in the context of the interdependence existent between states and, with this, it is extended in order to include new dimensions, e.g. economic, environment. During this second phase, it is emphasized the direct connection existent between national security and international stability and the observance of all international norms.

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² Emma Rothschild, „*What is Security?*“, *Daedalus* 124(3), 1995, pp 53-98, quoted by Simon Dalby in *Geopolitical Change and Contemporary Security Studies: Contextualizing the Human Security Agenda*, Institute of International Relations, the University of British Columbia, Working Paper no. 30, April 2000.

As for the threats, it is started to be considered the non-territorial ones as well, the *migration*, as well as ethnic instability, international crime, issues related to the fulfilment of human rights.

Eventually, the third phase corresponds to individual security, concept that focuses on the economic and social disparities, humanitarian crises, natural disasters as major threats for security, and the individual becomes the main beneficiary of security, replacing the state. During this last phase, *it is obvious the relation between the international security and the migration / problematic of minorities*.

Another perspective on the evolution of security includes also three phases:

- a first phase already consumed of security by national defence and collective defence that had as purpose the maintenance of status-quo, phase that generated the law.
- the second phase is in the process of evolution and development, it deals with security by integration, protection of democracy, fight against terrorism, development, globalization, *migration*; the second phase relies on transoceanic (transatlantic and transpacific) and transcosmic relations and has as purpose the construction of security in the new global order, therefore security models and remodels the legal norm and, at the same time, law controls security.
- the third phase, the last estimated, will have as horizon of development the years 2050 and the *performance of security will appear by civilization*, when morality and spirituality will prevail in the international relations; the general purpose will be the acquirement of security in the globalization era whereas law will generate and model any form of security, therefore, a new concept will appear.

2. Migration and Security of States

The conceptual analysis of security must include as well the reproductive element (Culda, 1997) of a nation.

Despite an increased interdependence of individuals, communities and, last but not least, of states, of intensification of their contacts, *one tends to emphasize the belonging to a certain category, ethnic, religious* or other category and of assertion of the identity of such groups. This phenomenon may often produce tensions that may degenerate in conflicts. It must be stated that *not always and not obligatorily the ethnic tensions, the migration* or other kind of tensions *produce conflicts and, implicitly, they do not threat directly the international security*. The threat of security and stability results, most of the times, from the exploitation and handling of such tensions in political purposes, phenomenon that we may call *ethnicization of politics*. A proper answer before these tensions entails always an evolution and it cannot cause, at all, a catastrophe.

Therefore, *the minorities may be internal or external partners of security. In the majority of international documents, the minorities are regarded as subjects of security, being the beneficiaries of the preoccupations of states to avoid tragic events from the past*.

It is attempted to be removed some feelings of fear opposite to the repetition of some events. Pursuant to some negative stimuli, security turns into a state and becomes a process, it turns into defence. There are many *factors that may strongly influence the relation between migrants/ minorities and security*: economic development; history, culture, one's own consciousness, religion; application of international standards; army; political system; numeric structure of minority; relationships with the neighbours and, last but not least, legislative frame and external stimulation.

It results a paradigm with three variables: minority, majority and the state. The geometry of this paradigm is variable depending on the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of any of the three factors.

Depending on such variables, we may face the following situations: instability, conflict potential, controlled situation and stability. More than that, the migrants/ *minorities may adopt the following kinds of conduct opposite to the state and to the majority: they may support the security of state; they*

may destroy the security of state; they are doing their own national security; they are doing a parallel security; they may enjoy security, due to an external protector.

The states interested to protect the nations are preoccupied to identify as much as possible the sources of insecurity and to undertake some measures as effective as possible. (Tobă, 2003, p. 30)

It may be discussed about *the security specific to migrants/ minorities only in the context of national security* and *we may define de security of minorities* as the reach to such balance which results in a status of satisfaction for the three elements of paradigm and which has the role to perform, protect and assert the basic interests of state and to reduce the risk factors and the vulnerabilities that may occur in case of dissatisfaction.

Pursuant to the analysis *from the historical perspective* of the issue of migrants/ minorities and of the impact of such issue on states, we may assert that, since the occurrence of the first state entities and until the consolidation of states, in the sense of state concept approved by international public law and by modern theory of international relations, the *migration/ minorities were generally an instability factor.*

The migrants/ minorities were never satisfied only with the protection offered by states, directly, or pursuant to some international agreements. They tended to overcome their limits and to have more and more exaggerated and sometimes extremist claims.

We notice that, *up to present date, it wasn't created any functional matrix of analysis of the areas with tensions where such minorities are involved* and which may offer viable, practical solutions during any stage of such conflict. Also, *there is no institutional mechanism that may try to turn the migrants/ minorities from an instability factor to one of subregional, regional and event universal stability.*

We believe that the development of such mechanism would be useful, since, considering the last evolutions on global and European level, it could prevent or settle the potential tensions inherent to the processes of deepening of interdependencies and of globalization phenomenon.

The bipolar model of post-war society determined the issue of the rights of persons belonging to national minorities to be less promoted, preferring rather the promotion of non-discrimination principle on international plan, than granting, by conventional means, of some rights to the persons belonging to national minorities. However, the block policy made almost impossible the approach of such specific issue, until 1975, when, in the Final Document from Helsinki, was introduced, as a counter-weight to the principle of non-interference in the internal business of states, the principle of promotion and protection of human rights as fundamental principle of public international law. From this point of view, we may consider that the principle of observing the human rights was extremely important as well for the protection of the rights of individuals belonging to national minorities, the latter being included in the general system of protection of human rights.

The most important achievements for the promotion and protection of the rights of individuals belonging to national minorities were obtained after the disappearance of what was called bipolar international society, namely at the end of '90s. We consider the most important documents related to the protection of the rights of individuals belonging to national minorities the following: Declaration on the rights of individuals that belong to national or ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities¹ on universal level, within the Organization of United Nations, as well as the European Charter of regional or minority languages of 1992 and the Frame-Convention for protection of national minorities of 1994, both documents having a regional dimension, being adopted within the Council of Europe.

¹ Adopted by Resolution no. 47/135 of December 18th 1992.

During the period 1990-1994, one did not agree either on a definition related to national minorities, preferring either apophantic definitions, or definitions similar to that provided by the International Permanent Court of Justice¹.

However, as stated, the issue of national minorities is not new; a definition of national minorities unanimously approved wasn't provided yet. It is noticed that the rights of the individuals that belong to national minorities are approached in documents related to the range of human rights, in separate articles, parallel to disposals that stipulate the same rights for all persons. We notice as well that, beside the documents that refer to national minorities, one speaks about minorities in general, the national minority being one which, regarded from a certain angle, may incorporate the others as well, countrywide. Thus, a cultural minority may be integral part of a national minority, whereas the latter may include several cultural minorities.

A shading of such approach of the issue of minorities is definitely enforced. Opposite to the manner of approaching such field in Central and Eastern Europe, where national minorities represent an important segment of social-political life – situation influenced as well by the historical conditions faced by this geographical area, in Western Europe, we may practically say that no one speaks about national minorities, but about the so-called „ethno-cultural groups”, category which includes both ethnical minorities and the migrants.

3. Few Statistics

The beginning of the '80s is characterized by the massive increase of the number of demands of political asylum, pursuant to the increase of conflicts in the world, their number reaching to 8.5 million persons².

The countries of European community and those of Northern Europe have become gradually importers of man power from all continents. The basins for recruiting emigrants have been clearly separated: the former Yugoslavians working in France are of Serb origin, those working in Germany are mainly of Croatian origin. In Belgium, most of them are Italians and Turks, in France are the Mediterraneans, whereas Switzerland attracts a strong Italian colony. The neighbourhood, the historical relations and the language are the main factors that explain the international migrating fields.

The falling of Berlin wall facilitated the passing of a strong waive of emigration from the states members of Warsaw Treaty to occidental countries.

There must be stated as well important internal movements inside continents determined by nationality and to escape from wars: the war from Golf caused massive movements of population (3.4 million) that shook deeply the population balance, 500,000 persons (10% of the population) abandoned Tajikistan within a few months (summer-autumn of 1992) and 1 million are refuges in Russia, but the number will increase pursuant to the Russian-Chechen war from 1999; over 1.5 million Albanians and Serbs abandoned their places of origin during the war from Kosovo in 1999; 60 million former Soviets are living outside the borders of their country of origin etc.

¹ The International Permanent Court of Justice defined minority as a „group of persons who are living in a country or locality, having their race, religion, language and traditions, united by their identity in a solidarity feeling, with a view to maintain the traditions, the religious forms and providing education and raising children in the spirit and traditions of their race and mutual help”; see P.C.J.I., series B, no. 17, p. 19, quoted by (Miga-Beșteliu, 1998, p. 192); taken from (Capotorti, 1991, p. 5)

² For statistical data related to the migration phenomenon, see <http://www.iom.int/jahia/jsp/index.jsp>

4. Conclusions

Therefore, the issue of national minorities remains at the beginning of this century XXI, especially current and at the same time controversial. The intellectual disputes, mainly the factual ones, have been and will be caused further on by the existence, acknowledgement and evolution of the rights of persons belonging to national minorities.

5. Few Proposals and Recommendations

- When *elaborating the New Strategy of national security, discuss with specialists* in the field of minorities and security to reach a correct and real identification of the main risk factors and of the main vulnerabilities of state security and to the identification of the possibilities of management of such risks and vulnerabilities. The consultation of specialists is necessary because, when a minority want, by different actions, to reach certain goals that represent risks and vulnerabilities for security, the actions of such minorities will be usually subtle, difficult to identify on long term, supported sometimes by external forces and may be carried out in sequences apparently legal or similar to a political or democratic game. The amount of such actions may represent a threat or a risk for state security. The result of the scientific demarche suggests the explicit need to include a *distinct chapter in the new Strategy of security of Romania and a permanent updating and adjustment of the legislative and institutional frame related to minorities*. And, last but not least, *even a doctrine in the field, as option, of Romanian state related to minorities and security*.
- Considering the decisive role of education, another recommendation refers to the *introduction of some classes* in the specialized institutions of superior education where one may approach the intrinsic relation between minorities and national security.

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Recommendations Regarding Valuation of the Cultural Specialty Factors in the Managerial Communication within the Romanian Organizations

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Abstract: Within any organization, the communication plays an important role, practically helping at the progress of all the activities. This is the reason why, at a theoretical level, but also at a practical one, one assigns it a big importance. The problems issued because of an unsuccessful communication (due to status/role, cultural, comprehension differences, disturbances, distortions of messages, etc). They can negatively affect the organizational outcomes. Very important for the understanding of the objectives of the company, but at the same time of the individual and group duties and responsibilities, is the managerial communication. This one induces, in a cultural environment characterized by hierarchy, like the Romanian one, new characteristics that the manager has to keep in mind. To those characteristics, but also to the valuation possibility of the Romanian cultural specific in the managerial communication, is this present article make reference to, anchored on a qualitative analysis, from a critical-interpretative perspective of the synthesis-type data, obtained by the authors, after the analysis of the results of some personal cultural/cross-cultural studies and from other researches.

Keywords: culture; communication; management; cross cultural studies

1. Introduction

Any activity from an organization implies communication. Of the way it is held, depend the outcomes, quantified at a material-financial level, human one, social. In order for the employees to know and understand the objectives, the tasks, their purpose within the organization, etc., they have to be informed by the managers. And not only to be informed but to also communicate with them. Here is why we considerate as important a presentation of the role of the managerial communication, based on the consideration of the cultural specificity elements, as an aspect able to positively and valuating potency.

2. Romanian Culture Profile

There are various studies regarding the Romanian cultural specificity, but the most relevant, in our opinion, are those that appeal to an analysis mixed methodology, through which the ethical runway is enriched with the emical one. This is why, the try to shortly sketch a Romanian cultural profile, we will get to different sources that complete or clarify the aspects we consider to be interesting.

Even though the researches/the prevision of Geert Hofstede could enter the category of aspects often invoked, at least for specialists with cross-cultural concerns, one cannot ignore the fact they are, at least within the management, at the basis of the further developments, that have taken ideas about the content of cultural dimensions, but also about the research methodology. This is the reason for which,

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in the accentuation of some specific cultural features, considered to be important for our way, we will start with these data. We mention the fact that the studies of Geert Hofstede refer to values, meaning “what is desirable” in a certain culture.

By culture, we understand “that superorganic entity, with a slow evolution in normal conditions, acquired and transmitted specially on the basis of tacit learning, that provides a framework for existence and operation unitary for the members of the group, less or more performing, but that can be improved in cultural contact situations” (Onea, 2011, p. 24).

According to the prevision of Hofstede, we have the next scored and significations for Romania, regarding the cultural dimensions:

- **Power Distance Index**– PDI very high (90 compared with the average of 57) reflects a high level of inequality waited and accepted by Romanians, manifested by their need to have authoritative leaders, their need to execute step by step the dispositions of the hierarchic bosses, of centralized decisions. The authority of the bosses is inclusively cultivated by exterior symbols, and the relationships between the subordinates and superiors are emotionally charged.
- **Individualism** (IDV) of 30, compared with the average of 43, indicates a collectivist society. The realities that confirm the prevision are described by: the powerful relationship of dependence between the individual and the group (specially, the enlarged family), privileging the persons belonging to the group, the importance of personal relationships, etc.
- **Masculinity** (MAS) of 42, compared with the average (49) suggests a light inclination towards femininity. Starting from empirical observations, one can remark the progresses made in providing importance to the success and possession values (due to the appropriations, to the development of the enterprising spirit, to the high number of private firms, market competition, etc.), but also to feminine values (quality of life, self-help, etc.). Political life and leading functions remain of a dominant masculine sphere and one continues to think that some domestic tasks or related to the raising and education of children are better realized by women or they be remain in their care.
- **Uncertainty Avoidance** (UAI) is very high (90, compared with the media of 65). This shows the fact that the population has a high level of anxiety about the future, where may also come from the very big importance that Romanians give to the stability of their jobs, even with the “price” of a lower salary. Some researchers (Voicu, 2001) sustain the fact that the high value of the uncertainty avoidance index is responsible of the high level of intolerance towards the minorities (ethnic, sexual). This high level of anxiety brings to an emphasized stress that helps to express the moment impulses and the negative emotions without control. Very closed to the value of this dimension is the fact that Romanians have a continuous need of rules, procedures, dispositions from their hierarchic bosses and do not assume the responsibility for their facts (Nica, 2004, p. 60). The decentralization could have beneficial effects only if it is accompanied by clear and strict rules and procedures that should precisely orient their actions. In this manner, Romanians will take advantage of the “benefits of the power” (Luca, 2005). At the same time, this high level of incertitude creates problems in the implementation of new ideas. Even though one accepts the need of change, in the framework of the action, one can notice a certain lowness, delay or even cancellation.
- **Long-Term Orientation** (LTO) was not projected by Hofstede for Romania. It is estimated at a value of 50 (Nica, Iftimescu, 2004, p. 51), from Gallup Romania&Interact's study one can reveal a value of 41, which rather leads to the idea of a medium-term orientation. The implications are being noticed in the economic sphere, through a relatively low investment level, through the orientation towards a quick enrichment. At the same time, aspects of the short-term orientation are promoted, such as respect for tradition, the reciprocity of greetings and favors.

Regarding the individualism-collectivism dimension, we specify the fact that other studies indicate the fact that in the Romanian organizations, the institutional individualism is manifested (GLOBE study, House and others, 2004), but we have to keep in mind that by the content of the cultural dimension institutional collectivism, the authors make reference to other aspects (the level in which the institutional customs, on an organizational or social line, encourage and reward the collective

distribution of resources and the collective action), not at the dependence relation of the individual towards the group.

Related to the same aspect, that of the collectivism, we can also bring into discussion the Romanian gregarism invoked by Radulescu-Motru (1999). From this observation, in a study about the Romanian regional cultural profile, the solidarity-gregarism cultural dimension has been proposed, understanding by this one the measure in which a society encourages segregation (Onea, 2011). The orientation toward gregarism was obvious. The impact on the communication can be easily appreciated: communication of non-important data, their distortion, delays in providing the information in order to obtain a personal or a group advantage, superficial presentation, the role of the informal in the communication. Other cultural/cross-cultural studies use other criteria to make the cultural difference, but in this article we will emphasize the contributions brought by the anthropologist Edward Hall, for whom time, space and cultural context are important. The author considers that these dimensions, intimately related to each other, describe the cultural specificity. Furthermore, this specificity is being manifested by communication, because culture is communication and communication is culture (Hall, 1984, 1992).

Communication is at the basis of the manager's activities. It is intimately related to the context, and the differences regarding the communication style can be shortly described by its dominant characteristics (Prime, Usunier, 2004, pp. 308-309).

- Explicit communication (in a “poor context”) is characterized by attributes such as: precision, logic, analysis, focus on the purposes, and orientation toward realizing the objectives. The importance given to words, both in the written communication and the oral one, but also in the short-term perspective are specific factors.
- Implicit communication (specific to the “rich content”) room for the manifestation of the ambiguity, of the affectivity. The synthesis operations and the construction of long-term relationships are being emphasized. Significant is considered to be the orientation to respecting the protocol and the objectives. Oral communication and non-verbal manifestations gain importance.

From those presented below, we deduce the Romanian's preference for implicit communication, specific to a rich cultural context of the communication. But this is susceptible of interpretation, which represents a negative aspect within an organization. Therefore, the clear, explicit, but empathic communication is recommended.

3. The Managerial Specificity within Romanian Organizations

International Guides of Cross-cultural Management (Kwintessential.Co.uk) present Romania as a country dominated by a powerful bureaucracy, with an unclear framework and a slow judiciary system. Within an organization every person has a different role that he is ought to respect. The opinion according to which the supervisors are chosen because of their acquired experience and their strong knowledge in the domain is spread. Usually, in the decision-making process, persons that do not have leading positions are not consulted. The decisions are being formally communicated, vertically, from the top to the bottom. The dominant “organizational” models can be grouped into two categories, the pyramidal one, hierarchic, and the family type one. For the first one, power, authoritative rapports are characteristic. It is found in the big organizations, but also in the public system, influence by the political area. The management style is directive, the status of the leader results from an ostentatious “display”. This model is founded on specific cultural characteristics: big distance from the power, powerful control of the uncertainty and institutional individualism. The economic effectiveness and motivation depend on the public-private character, but other dimensions are also important.

The *family* model, generally specific for the BMI, present the next characteristics: the leader controls the key-positions in the organization, relationships are of a paternalist type, the rapports remain of an hierarchical type, but inside this hierarchy the leader is manifesting in a protective manner. The

adaptability to the environment is faster and change is easier to accept (Gauthey et Xardel, pp. 65; Onea, 2006).

There is the trend in Romania of respecting the schedules and the time limits, especially by managers that have lately entered the economical circle asked by the EU competences. Like in all South-Eastern Europe, there is a powerful hierarchic structure, waiting from the subordinates' part to follow the standard instructions without any kind of personal opinion, and most of the time an appropriate person is the one that manages to circumvent the system and the bureaucracy. Older persons specially, maybe because of the reminiscences of the communist period, do not recognize openly their mistakes, young employs being those who individually accept their responsibilities. In ex-communist countries there is a tradition of team-work, work-groups often meeting to discuss their ideas and create new plans. However these plans are rarely put into practice and they end up in results by those that have lived under the influence of two ideologies. The young generation desires to accept challenges and to take advantage of all the opportunities of the present.

Because of the influences brought from the west of the EU, but not only, the phenomena of *flexible specialization starts to enter in Romania too, where organization the work is new: "where strictly specialized workers, often with a brief training, being replaced with high qualification workers, that realizes holistic complex tasks, that use the physical and intellectual abilities at the same time, whose work is flexible, not rarely with an innovational content, varying in a light manner in function of the range of manufactured products."* (Nicolescu, 2006, p. 132)

The new managers are often getting together and share their ideas, but to become competitive in any domain *trainings* are asked to be implemented. A weak point for Romania is the slow rhythm the businesses are taking place because of the bureaucratic system, patience being the main attribute for foreign investors. Many decisions need a juridical notice, interprets being necessary to surpass the multicultural communication problems. Local banks are enjoying a strong reputation, especially and thank to their membership to important international financial concerns still established in crisis times. Shyly, things can take an ascending turn taking into account the fact that until 2013 Romania could receive from the EU a total sum of 32milliards of Euros – for agriculture, sanitary system, infrastructure, education (Bari, 2010).

4. Cultural Repertory of Communication

Communication is supported by various vectors (forms of manifestation). Their verbal formal (the language) is one of the main elements that characterize a culture. This has to be seen not only as an ensemble of sonorities and words, but also as a language-culture ensemble, meaning in a strong relation with the mental representations that sustain it (Yves Nicodeme, apud Bosche, 1993, p. 162). The non-verbal (or the "quiet language" for Hall), that sends 70% of the communicated message, is in itself coded, culturally determined. Without the language, there is not culture and without the culture there is no communication. The relationship between culture and the communication style has been studied within the field of cross-cultural communication. The situation of the cross-cultural communication is considered to be a particular case of the communication situation, where culture is activated at several levels (Prime, Usunier, 2004, p. 304):

- *Communication code* – in the case where the issuer and the receiver do not share the same communication codes (verbal and non-verbal), problems can appear concerning the coding-decoding of messages, starting with repertoires of different significance, out of phased;
- *Communication channel type* – the preference for using a certain verbal or non-verbal channel, written or oral, formal or informal in sending the messages depends on the culture;
- *The feedback* – the retrospective style is influences by culture by adjusting the receiver opposite to the issuer: perception of the emergency, the given importance according to issuer's status (for instance, in hierarchic cultures, the message received from the superior will be perceived as an order or as an important message that needs quick answer), etc;

- *Interpretation* – the distortion of the message, according with the self projections and perceptions regarding the situations, depends on the culture, because this one provides the individuals with predefined answers, unconsciously taken by what is transmitted at an informal level.

5. Recommendations Regarding the Valuation Of The Romanian Cultural Specific in the Managerial Communication

Communication-related problems within an organization, generally speaking, of the managerial one, in particular, present a big diversity, but in order to define the sphere of the debate we will only refer to the mentioned aspects in the previous paragraph as level of activation of the culture within a cross-cultural situation.

- *communication code* - recommended to prioritize the concrete, avoiding abstract terms;
- *communication channel type*: important aspects, related to the mission, plans, strategies, role, evaluation, etc on formal channels, with attendant documents; aspects related to the supervision, on informal, oral channels;
- *communication content*: offering of clear, precise instructions, structuring the tasks; establishing the priorities of solving the tasks; precisising the methods of work, of organization by a precise and firm formulation in rapport with the found, but paying attention to the form as well.
- *the feedback*: Romanians appreciate the offering of a positive feedback, within the work collective, but they manifest intolerance toward the critical attitude in public;
- *interpretation* – according to the tasks to realize: more freedom where the creativity has to be stimulated, rugosity and clarity in the daily tasks or that need the focusing the attention on some aspects.

Still referring to the communication, one cannot omit the distinction between the formal and the informal communication. The first type is specific to the official channels that send information, being specially used in transmitting norms and directives. In the case of Romanian companies, which are still in the process of changing their mentality, the below-described communication would be beneficial if it influenced the opinions and changed some attitudes according to the new demands of improvement of the world market still dominated by the economical recession. Romanian managers that use it have to do it with reluctance, because due to the lack of feedback, they can separate from the company's realities. It has to be completed by the informal communication that spontaneously starts from the employs toward the leadership. The informal communication is generally developing in the spontaneous way, can be modified anytime, and the managers and employs can be issuers and receivers at the same time. It can go at the same time with the formal communication, especially if the given information by this one is imperfect. The parallel development with the official one is necessary because there is the risk for it to become a rumor that can affect the ensemble functionment of the organization. One has to keep in mind that for a good functionment of one company, the negative effects of the informal communication must be countered by the information transmitted through the official channels. At the same time, its positive aspects must not be neglected, among which the one of offering an optimum feedback. All these cultural specificity elements have effects at the level of expectations of the employs regarding the managerial communication. Ensuring a good manager-employee communication is possible if one ensures an adaptation to these expectations, but a valuation of the cultural “given” as well.

6. Conclusions

Knowing the cultural specificity aspects from the region a manager develops his activity, may he be characterized by it or not, is an aspect that contributes to a good communication within the organization. The exercise of valuing the culture can after constituent, in the conditions of the extension of the business on the international market, in concurrential advantage. Of course, the role of the cultural specific must not be augmented in an artificial manner. There is an ensemble of factors

that determine the success on the market. For a more efficient raise of the economical performances, next to the valuation of the cultural specificity elements, the Romanian manager has to take into account other factors as well: the continuous integration of international markets, changes interfered in the strategies of the big multinationals, the differences between the capital markets and the different integration rhythm, from country to country, at the new global economy demands.

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THE 7TH EDITION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
EUROPEAN INTEGRATION
REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

**Future of National Sovereignty of the Republic of
Moldova in the Perspective of European Integration**

Victor Rusu¹

Abstract: By the end of XXth century, important transformations took place in the field of relations related to state structure, especially in relations specific to federalism, affecting the political life of many states. The national principle of constitution of certain states became the cause of many interethnic conflicts (the national principle generates separatism together with the development of underdeveloped nations). Current international situation in the field of human rights protection, protection of the rights of people and fundamental principles of international law, makes it impossible to improve the situations related to the achievement of their sovereignty by nations or, at least, avoid new conflicts, like the one in Yugoslavia. It is impossible only if the „vectors” of international law are not changed, if the visions on the problem of correlation between human rights and rights of the people and achievement of their „sovereignty” by them are not corrected. At the same time we should mention that if national sovereignty is based namely on the right of the nation (not of individuals or of state) to self-determination is such a complex political institution, it will be not necessary to apply it.

Keywords: state structure; political institution; conflict; human rights

Since the XVIIth century (especially after the conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia)² and until present, sovereignty became an issue that raises different political debates. As the professor Antonie Iorgovan said, „...no international scientific session ends without bringing this issue to discussion”. (Iorgovan, 1994, p. 146)

Especially as the „non-critical use of the idea of sovereignty has spread similar confusions both in the theory of internal law and that of international law.” (Hart, 2004, p. 216).

Therefore, those who are concerned with the issue of sovereignty have one of the most difficult tasks, aggravated by the fact that „pressure to restrict sovereignty is exercised in the contemporary society” (Tămaș, 1996, p. 242).

The following can be mentioned among the phenomena that set these „barriers”:

- creation of integrated economic spaces, which implies the creation of political units with supranational institutions as well, fact that means giving up certain prerogatives of sovereignty;

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² *Peace of Westphalia* is the treaty of 1648, which meant the end of the Thirty Years War (1618-1648). The peace treaty has two parts: the Münster Treaty (signed between the Holy Roman Empire and France) and Osnabrück Treaty (signed between the Holy Roman Empire and Sweden). The Peace of Westphalia reasserted the Provision of the Religious Peace of Augsburg (1555), which regarded the Catholic and Protestant (Lutheran) religions as equally justified, this provision being extended over the Calvin Confession in the Empire by means of the Peace of Westphalia. In 1648, the town of Stettin with its adjacent regions, the town of Wismar, the episcopate Bremen and Verden. Denmark does not obtain the claimed territories. Austria ceases Sundgau to France. France through the conspiracies of the cardinal Richelieu, who was against making peace, becomes the most influent and powerful state in the Western Europe. Large territories of the Holy Roman Empire are devastated by the war, the number of casualties amounting to 3-4 million. The German states became landlocked, being thus excluded from the maritime trade, fact that has influenced the economic development in comparison with riparian countries of that period such as Holland, England, and France.

- technical progress, such as artificial satellites, which make states lose their exclusive control over information on national security or their own natural resources;
- humanitarian interference in the internal affairs of a state, including military intervention for „humanitarian purposes” (Tămaș, 1996, p. 242).

In our opinion, controversies around the notion of sovereignty are to a great extent determined by the simultaneous circulation of different definitions of sovereignty.

At the same time we must not ignore the different statements made today by the representatives of certain ethnic communities regarding national and state sovereignty, the loudly pronounced statements expressed in an almost separatist manner, as, in most cases, sovereignty is regarded as a product of national (ethnic) self-determination from this point of view.

From this perspective, the situation in the field of relations regarding the state structure or certain forms of state associations can be appreciated as affected by global „ethnization” of social relations, which, according to some authors, was contested as early as at the beginning of the XXth (Yashchenko, 1912) century, but which appeared again when it seemed that the development of the civilization made society’s orientation towards other social values, more important and more fundamental possible.

Finally, we must recognize that we face one of the basic contradictions of modern society:

- between general human integration tendency and national isolation;
- between the ethnization of social relations and the need to direct towards general human values;
- between observance of human rights and intangibility of sovereignty (state or national).

Under these conditions, the following question should be raised before scientists and not only: how and by what means (at least theoretically) can these contradictions be solved.

First of all, we should agree on the terminology, beginning the discussion with the notion of sovereignty.

It is known that depending on the historical moment, ideology, different schools of thinking and on state and international organizations interests, the experts provided different acceptations of the debated term.

Generalizing the opinions expressed in professional literature and political-legal language, we see that this notion is used under three aspects (if we do not take into consideration the use of such expressions as: linguistic sovereignty, cultural sovereignty, which are not and cannot be sovereignties in the sense this term will be treated here).

State Sovereignty represents supremacy and independence of state power in internal and external affairs.

In Hart’s opinion, the notion of sovereignty „does not apply to a legislative body, to a certain element or person in the state, but to the state itself” (Hart, 2004, p. 214).

In our opinion, the evolution of society was accompanied by certain transformations in terms of the phenomenon of state sovereignty. Today, this term is examined alone, but together with the sovereignty of people.

Thus, state sovereignty can be interpreted as „a quality of state power to be supreme on the territory of the state and independent in relation to any state or international body, a feature expressed in the right of the state to freely solve its internal and external affairs, on the condition of observance of the corresponding rights of other states and norms of the international law (Guceac, 2001, p. 83).

Sovereignty of People as an idea appears in the context of the works of such remarkable illuminists as Locke, Rousseau and other representatives of liberalism following certain conflict between the civil society and absolute power of the state. Under these conditions it becomes necessary and real to recognize the right of the entire population of the state to be the single source of political power. At present, state sovereignty begins to be regarded as a derivative of the sovereignty of people.

Today, sovereignty of people is considered “a concept of international public law evoking the right of a nation to build its national state...” (Iorgovan Antonie, p. 147).

At the same time, we should draw your attention to the following: it should be understood correctly - both notions are interdependent. The integral achievement of sovereignty of people is impossible without the state, situation about which Hegel said: “The nations, who did not create their state, do not belong to history” [Гегель Г.–В. *Философия истории*. Сочинения. Т. VIII. С. 100.]. At the same time, the reverse phenomenon should not be neglected: the prosperity of a democratic and constitutional state that does not recognize, in a way or another, the sovereignty of its people is impossible (of all the people, not of a certain social category, class or stratum) (Umnova, 1997, p.149)

Today, both sovereignty of state and sovereignty of people coexist inseparably in state and social life, such a coexistence representing state quality and capacity to promote independently its internal and external policy observing human rights and rights of citizens, ensuring the rights of national minorities and respecting the norms of international law.

It has been more difficult to define the **national sovereignty**, which can actually be interpreted under two aspects:

1. From *general civic* point of view, national sovereignty is identified with the sovereignty of the state and sovereignty of people, the nation being regarded as a notion that comprises all the citizens of the state, regardless of their national belonging and who in this context act as co-citizens of an indigenous nation. In this context, national sovereignty is considered „a political-legal notion, evoking the political essence of the phenomenon of state, the fact that power belongs to the nation, which is the personal element of the state...”¹.

There have been opinions that such an interpretation of the concept of nation is accepted by international normative acts (UN Statute, Declaration on Principles of International Law, Final Act of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe^{2*3} etc.), though this point of view has many opponents.

2. *Ethnical approach to the subject* - giving the possibility of self-determination of ethnos, including the right to choose its form of political organization and state structure is another aspect of the interpretation of the notion of sovereignty. National legislation and mentioned international acts are interpreted from the same, ethnical, point of view. In most cases, such an approach is specific to the states that do not have well defined civil societies.

In general, this way of interpreting national sovereignty can be examined as the first one, from historical point of view, as an attempt of interpreting the nature of supreme power, because ethnical understanding of national sovereignty has been most efficient efficiency in the period preceding the appearance of the state, in times when supreme power was indeed a substratum of ethnical self-consciousness of individuals and national communities could be considered quite independent systems.

However, today, in the period of state values re-evaluation, the hope in past experience of social organization cannot be justified completely.

From this point of view, we agree with the Romanian scientist Antonie Iorgovan, who talks about the attempts of giving the right to self-determination to nations by using the expression „national sovereignty” as a „poetic license”, „ignoring the ideological and political connotations as we cannot talk about a nation but within a state, regardless the justification thesis of the concept of nation we choose” (Iorgovan, 1994, p. 146).

¹This document stipulates (Ch. VIII, par. 2) „In the virtue of the principle of equality in rights of the people and their right to decide over themselves, all nations have a permanent right, in full freedom, to decide as they will and when they will their political internal and external status, without any involvement from abroad and to achieve according to their will their political, economic, social and cultural development”.

² *Drepturile Omului. Principalele instrumente cu caracter general/ Human Rights. Main instruments with general feature*, 1998.

In case of ethnical approach to national sovereignty, sovereignty of the state (sovereignty of the people) and national sovereignty overlap, this is inadmissible. Though the sovereignty of the state, people and national sovereignty are not always the same thing, today these syntagms cannot be perceived otherwise than a synthesis unit.

By the end of XXth century, important transformations took place in the field of relations related to state structure, especially in relations specific to federalism, affecting the political life of many states. The national principle of constitution of certain states became the cause of many interethnic conflicts (the national principle generates separatism together with the development of underdeveloped nations). (Chirkin, 1997, pp. 71-81)

Current international situation in the field of human rights protection, protection of the rights of people and fundamental principles of international law makes it impossible to improve the situations related to the achievement of their sovereignty by nations or, at least, avoid new conflicts, like the one in Yugoslavia. It is impossible only if the „vectors” of international law are not changed, if the visions on the problem of correlation between human rights and rights of the people and achievement of their „sovereignty” by them are not corrected.

At the same time we should mention that if national sovereignty is based namely on the right of the nation (not of individuals or of state) to self-determination is such a complex political institution, it is not necessary to apply it.

In the virtue of the transformations that take place, some experts admit the division of sovereignty under two aspects: political-economic and legal¹.

Political-economic sovereignty is related to the phenomenon of globalization. Thus it is said that “The State will disappear, all economic sectors will be globalized and technological changes in communications will create a “global state”²

Globalization affected even the process of accomplishment of basic state functions. Thus, state cannot ensure any more an efficient control of its territory and national sovereignty loses its functional potential of political-local management. The legal capacity of state authorities is reduced and, as a result, democratic justification of public stockholders decreases more and more. The power of the national state highly developed in the XIXth century through the cohesion between the need in identification and unity and the need of an efficient functionality loses its value more and more.

As for *legal sovereignty*, the constitutions of certain European states stipulate that sovereignty (some of them including the word “national”) or power, belong to people. For example, the Constitution of France (Art. 3 par. 1) stipulates: “National sovereignty belongs to people, who exercises it through their representatives and by means of referenda”. (Constitution of France, 1998)

Article 1 of Italian Constitution stipulates that “Sovereignty belongs to people, who exercise it in the forms and limits provided for by the Constitution”. (Constitution of Italy, 1998)

In the Fundamental Law of the Federal Republic of Germany (Art. 20, par. (2) of the Fundamental Law): “All state power comes from people”. (The Fundamental Law for the Federal Republic of Germany, 1998)

Spanish Constitution, in Art. 1 par. 2 provides: “National sovereignty consists of the people of Spain, those who give the powers to the state.” (Constitution of Spain, 1998)

In the Constitution of the Russian Federation, Art.3 par. 1 „multinational nation” is recognized as „the bearer of sovereignty and the only source of power”. (The Constitution of the Russian Federation, 1999)

¹ Dorina Năstase, Mihai Mătieș, *Viitorul suveranității naționale a României în perspectiva integrării europene/ Romania's national sovereignty future in the European integration perspective*, studint.org.ro/Nr7_Rom.htm.

² Dorina Năstase, Mihai Mătieș, *op. cit.*

Alos, the Romanian Constitution (Art. 2 par. 1) stipulates: „National sovereignty belongs to Romanian people, who exercise it by means of its representative bodies...” (Constitution of Romania, 2003)

The constitutional legislative body in the Republic of Moldova undertook, at its turn, the generally recognized principles of the European constitutionalism, stipulating in Art. 2 par. 1 of the Constitution: “National sovereignty belongs to the people of the Republic of Moldova who exercise it directly and through its representative bodies, in the forms provided for by the Constitution”. (Constitution of Romania, 2003)

At the same time, states have discovered that they would have benefited from the signing of treaties, conventions and agreements only if they had acted on their own and, on the other hand, if the limitation of some attributions of sovereignty contribute to their common good.

In this context, it is very important to underline that the delegation of some competences of sovereignty to international organizations or institutions does not mean giving up sovereignty, which remains indivisible and inalienable (cannot be taken away), but only represents a convention, by which its lawful holder, the people delegate it to another authority. Conversely, states have consolidated their sovereignty by means of international cooperations, sharing both the costs and the benefits (Deleanu, 1992).

In our opinion, the efforts of the states that have contributed to the creation of the European Union were based on bringing sovereignty in line with the imperatives of international interdependencies and those resulting from the development of European organizations formed of these states, and not a legal solicitation of national sovereignty limitation.

At the same time, the issue on the extent to which the transfer of sovereign rights required by Community constitutive agreements is constitutional, remains open for discussion, as well as the constitutional ground for recognizing the peculiarities of community law, in particular, its primacy over any internal norm, even a subsequent one.

A significant part of European states have expressly stipulated the possibility of transfer of some attributions of sovereignty to European institutions in their constitutions. Para. 15 of the Preamble to the French Constitution of 1946 stated: “In terms of mutuality, France agrees to the limits of sovereignty necessary for peace organization and defence”. (Constitution of France, 1998)

The Preamble to the Constitution of 1958 makes reference to the provisions of the old Preamble, so that this document must be understood as being part of the Constitution of October 1958.

The Italian Constitution authorizes the transfer of certain national competences. Thus, Art. 11 of the Italian Fundamental Law of December 27, 1947 stipulates the following: “Italy agrees, in terms of equality with other states, to accept the limits of sovereignty necessary for a system that would ensure peace and justice between nations; it supports and favours international organizations having this purpose.” (Constitution of Italy, 1998)

Article 24 of the German Constitution stipulates: «The Federation can transfer, by legislative ways, certain sovereignty rights to international institutions”, and Art. 23 expressly provides for this possibility with regard to the European Union. (The Fundamental Law for the Federal Republic of Germany, 1998)

Spanish Constitution of December 27, 1978 (Art. 93) stipulates: „An organic law can authorize the signing of the treaty, providing an international organization or institution with competences resulting from the Constitution”.

The Romanian Constitution chose even to include a special chapter (Chapter VI - Euro-Atlantic Integration) where it is recognized that “The accession of Romania to constitutive treaties of the European Union for the purpose of transferring certain attributions to community institutions, as well as jointly exercising the competences provided in these treaties with other member states is done by means of the law adopted at the joint session of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate...(Constitution of Romania, 2003)

The Constitution of the Republic of Moldova (Art.8) recognizes the obligation of the state to observe the Charter of the United Nations and the treaties it has ratified, the entry into force of an international treaty that contains provisions contradicting the Constitution, followed by the revision of the latter. It is clear that our Constitution does not address the problem of transfer of sovereignty, Art. 2 para. (2), stipulating that nobody “can exercise state power on one’s own behalf”.

In June 2004, the Council of Europe in Brussels adopted the European Constitution, which, according to the program communicated by the Secretariat of the Summit, had to be signed officially by the heads of states and governments within the period of October-November 2004 and then ratified by all 25 member states according to their own constitutional rules (approved at parliamentary level or by means of national referendum), so that it enters into force after these procedures.

Without doubt, the adoption of the European Constitution (officially the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe)* was an important step for the European Union - in its extended format - to deepen significantly the political integration at the Union level.

All these changes, presented briefly, allowed community law to get involved directly into fields that had been previously the exclusive competence of states and address directly the citizens of other states under their jurisdiction, making clear that national state authorities participate in the enforcement and application of community law.

As for our country, we must acknowledge an undeniable truth: the influence of the European Union on the Republic of Moldova, in the process of accession and integration into the Union, will overcome to a great extent its possibilities to express its opinions. However, the Republic of Moldova will have to design its own identity in the Union.

Firstly, the Republic of Moldova will have to adopt a modern approach to sovereignty and understand that *sharing the attributes of sovereignty* with the Union is an advantage.

As for the changes that will take place in the field of *legal sovereignty*, we should remember that this should emerge from the understanding of the fact that the nature of legal sovereignty has suffered certain changes and that the notion of sovereignty defined in the XIXth century became obsolete a long time ago by the experts in law and politicians.

Introduction the acknowledgement of the supremacy of the European law and its direct enforcement in the Constitution is one of the important problems that should be approached. Another aspect would be the acknowledgement of the possibility to delegate certain national competences to the European Union. For this purpose, it is necessary for the authorities of the Republic of Moldova from different fields of activity to know in details the legislation and attributions of the Union in order to know “what and how much” should be delegated under the jurisdiction of the Union.

From the series of amendments that both the Constitution and other legislative acts will be subjected to, we should mention here the guarantee of the right of any European citizen to elect and to be elected to national and local public positions in the Republic of Moldova, the translation of principles of the community law into the national legislation and namely: the principle of subsidiarity, the principle of proportionality, the principle of liability of the state of the Republic of Moldova before its citizens for the violation of community law provisions, etc.

*The treaty grants legal personality to the EU in terms of international law (as a subject of international law), community law and domestic legislation of member states. The structure of the constitutional Treaty is a quadripartite one (the four parts being preceded by a *Preamble*), a set of Protocols that will be considered necessary will be added after the ending of discussions. Also, the Charter of Fundamental Rights, which was transposed as the IInd part of the Treaty, has its own Preamble. Thus, Part I regulates the basic aspects of the European Union: definition, objectives, structure, competences; Part II comprises the Charter of Fundamental Rights, adopted at Nice in 2000, Part III regulates the policies and functioning of the European Union, while Part IV contains the final provisions of the Treaty.

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THE 7TH EDITION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
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REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

**Addressing the Decision-Making Process at the Global Level
and Multilateralism**

Maria Gabriela Sterian¹

Abstract: In the new global order, some items are likely to give new impetus to multilateralism: the growing discontent in the increasing activity linked to global governance and the slow pace of reform, the emergence of new powers and their impact to the system, global financial crisis and other issues of global concern. Each of these have an impact on the issue of multilateralism and international responses are given according to the role of each part. This paper aims to underline the role of multilateralism as form of international cooperation and the link with global economic governance. It has been tried to emphasizing the concepts already developed by known researchers in the field. The approach is a more theoretic one done in a comparative manner with emphasis on results and future research. The key results are related to pros and cons of redefining the paradigm of multilateralism. The implications are varied in terms of studying the concepts and addresses researchers in the field, but also lecturers and students. The main added value is the compared approach of the old multilateralism and the new one and its formal relationship with the global economic governance.

Keywords: multilateralism; global governance; international organizations; regionalism

1. Introduction

After the Cold War, interest in international institutions began to flourish and multilateralism has taken a new momentum in research studies. At that time, there were several forms of international cooperation, but none was conceptualized (Caporaso, 1992). It was felt that multilateralism is the weapon of the weak (Kagan, 2005), which means that multilateral agreements do not require power for imposing solutions to international problems.

The multilateral system is based on a variety of institutions and organizations, but the core is, still, United Nations and the institutions created after the Bretton Woods Conference. The countries understood that their weak status was very important in adopting the multilateralism collectively (Katzenstein, 1986).

2. Multilateralism versus Global Governance

Multilateralism was created as a form of cooperation among states to institutionalize intergovernmental cooperation and to replace anarchy (van Lagenhove, 2010) and was defined as the practice of coordinating national policies in groups of three or more states through ad hoc agreements or institutions (Keohane, 1990). It also presents a generic form through institutional arrangements that define and stabilize the property rights of states, coordinates and manages collaborative problems (Ruggie, 1992).

It is built on principles that are different from other forms of international relations by generalized principles of conduct, indivisibility and mutuality. Multilateralism can be a way or an instrument in

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achieving specific goals, such as global economic governance, migration control or economic liberalization (Bouchard and Peterson, 2011).

The conceptualization of multilateralism requires its classification according to some specific features. Such a classification would be the first related to governance (Rosencrance, 2008): subtle – United Nations, average – WTO or IMF, strong – coalition among great economic powers. An alternative classification of multilateralism states (Peterson et al, 2008): institutionalized – WTO, crystallized – the Kyoto Protocol, aspirant – agreements on foreign direct investments.

In exploring the various forms of multilateralism, a central concern is the compliance or non-compliance with the existing norms and procedures, so we have a direct link to international law, which is the focal point in discussions regarding how multilateralism should look like in the twenty-first century.

Multilateral relations between states are not games where parties have equal rights and obligations. In terms of global order, the world was held for a long time in a bipolar framework: differences between East and West and the balance built on the principle of destruction. With the end of Cold War, unipolar world has become dominated by the US hegemony. With the emergence of a multipolar world order, the structures of global governance face several challenges, which refers to the difficulties of adapting the existing structures and the development of new actors on international arena, eager to have a say in global issues (Haas, 1993).

It is assumed that these evolutions will contribute to the weakening of the role of multilateral institutions, thus leading to the new global economic governance. It seeks understanding of the multipolarity impact on multilateral institutions and the contribution of regionalism to global governance.

The problems associated with traditional national framework are represented by the United Nations system and its institutions and more informal multilateral agreements, such as G8 and G20, which have become extremely important for global economic governance.

Global economy and world politics are characterized by an unprecedented interdependence. Recent developments suggest that global governance is increasing. Countries are eager to find common solutions to common challenges and to coordinate the action in regional and global forums, more or less institutionalized. The international system has no change to survive in the absence of a strong and wise leadership (Gilpin, 2004).

Multipolar world encourages the intergovernmental cooperation rather than a supranational regionalism. A certain degree of supra-nationalism is accepted for litigation and taking common decisions in maintaining the legitimacy of regional cooperation.

3. The New Multilateralism

The institutions of global economic governance have become the most favorite subject of criticism. While globalization and systemic risk awareness have led to the need for global governance, the form it have taken it's no longer adequate to the current challenges, which have an increased sense of dissatisfaction about the multilateral order and, then, the crisis of multilateralism. The global institutions do not work anymore either individually or collectively (McGrew, 2011).

The crisis of multilateralism is kindled discussed by policy makers and researchers. Debates suggest that the core problem is the inadequacy of multilateral organizations, established to protect the sovereign countries and their interests, as well as global challenges that go beyond borders and interest (Weiss, 2008). This crisis and the growing importance of informal means at the expense of formal ones have a profound impact on international relations. Given the deadlock of formal institutions and the increased emphasis on bilateral relations, especially the ones between emerging countries, states feel they have no choice but to follow.

These arguments are supported by the failure of multilateral governance in addressing the global challenges and crises and the importance of state sovereignty and the implementation of the existing and new binding agreements at the global level. We have here the failure of the United Nations reforms, the continuation of the economic liberalization under WTO umbrella, the reluctance of great powers to join the International Court of Justice, the inefficient protection of financial regulations and solving the macroeconomic imbalances. In many respects, multi-polarity and political powers are related to the global financial crisis, but the connection goes back in time. Since 2005 the analysts have said that the Western economies lost their confidence in globalization, facing fierce competition in terms of transfer the investments and jobs to emerging countries, these being topics of analysis in European and American governments. Most developing countries have emerged from the crisis more or less wrinkled, but the United States and EU countries are facing serious problems in financial area.

The important growth rates in emerging countries are translated also in strong demand for representation in global economic governance. The desire of emerging powers to continue the globalization process and global governance is uncertain. These countries tend to emphasize their developing status and the need of protecting themselves in global competition. Although they support a fair representation in the institutions of global governance, they seem to stay away from taking responsibility for tasks and solving problems of global concern (Zakaria, 2009). There is strong evidence that suggests increasing commitments in multilateralism as basic principle of organizing the global governing. Current U.S. administration promotes multilateralism after a long period of unilateralism in its foreign policy. EU external relations are likely to serve its strategic goals by increasing its importance in terms of global economic governance and China engages in multilateral cooperation, which is an important element of its foreign policy.

High levels of economic interdependence, the existent mechanism of developing the integration process in developing countries and the desire to boost trade and attract foreign direct investors are items close related to the regionalization initiatives (Karns, Mingst, 2010). Some regional groups have advanced the economic integration by creating common institutions and policies, while others remain in the traditional form of free trade areas or customs union. And while some have developed complex supranational structures, others rely on less formal agreements. While the crisis has highlighted the challenges and global opportunities, regionalism seems to be out of control despite its role in addressing the future problems. Almost without sense, the phenomenon has grown in some parts of the world. The tendency of integration in Western Europe was politically motivated, the one in North America has mixed motivation and the one in the South-East Asia had market considerations (Gilpin, 2004).

G-20 takes the great responsibility in the current global governance in a multipolar world. The development of this forum was held together with the need to find common solutions to financial crisis. It promotes cooperation and joint global action to tackle the crisis and deepening economic interdependence. One of its key features is the reform of global governance. Some analysts say that the evolution of G-20 is a diluted form of multilateralism (Penttilä, 2009). In their point of view, the world moved to a dual center of power system consisting of formal and informal organizations. Where informal resolution is dealing with crisis, the formal implementation focuses on the results of informal organizations. Others say that maybe the G-20 promotes a dangerous kind of multilateralism (Tedesco and Youngs, 2009), because it is a new forum with old vices, lack transparency and public responsibility, and gives exclusivity to the great powers within the forum. As an informal forum, its decisions are taken behind closed doors and there is no treaty outlining the rules of conduct and access to information. Although G-20 is not open to many stakeholders, it has more members than the G-8 and a greater representation of global opinion.

The concept of “*à la carte*” multilateralism is also very interesting (Haas, 1993). Multilateral organizations have only an instrumental value for the great powers and their political interests. In the specific case of U.S. foreign policy, there are evidence showing their success in strengthening their own interests, based on the ability of systemic importance and global economic governance. The United States can choose how to act unilaterally, bilaterally or multilaterally, this depending on the

expected benefits. If international institutions do not meet its requirements, it can choose something else to satisfy its immediate interests. So, the global governance in a multipolar world is increasingly becoming an intergovernmental one and it is led by the interests of big powers.

4. The New versus the Old Multilateralism

The new paradigm of multilateralism refers to the collaboration at all levels between governments and between governments and other important actors in society. The new multilateralism (Cox, 1997) refers to the growing importance of civil society in participating at building multilateralism to adapt to the new global requirements. If the United States was the core of the previous system and international organizations were depending on the will of the states, in the new multilateralism the role is taken by actors outside the countries, actors that contest the conceptual notion of sovereignty and open the one of international system (van Langenhove, 2010):

Table 1. Multilateralism 1.0 versus Multilateralism 2.0

Multilateralism 1.0	Multilateralism 2.0
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the old multilateralism • countries are the core of the system • intergovernmental organizations are dependent on the states' will • the principle of sovereignty in decision making process • the policies are independent • the involvement of the citizens is limited to democratic representation at political level • the system is inflexible • formal institutions or organizations • the global order is divided into levels of governance, from global to local • unipolarity or bipolarity • perfect synchronization between regions and regional organizations • principle of subsidiarity in decision making process • the system is closed • United Nations play a central role 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the new multilateralism • other actors are the core of the system • redistribution of global power, independent on the states' will • diversification of the multilateral organizations • the increased number of non-state actors at regional level • the policies are interconnected • the involvement of the citizens in the decisional process, not only at the political level • the system is flexible • informal agreements • there is no hierarchical structure of governance • multi-polarity • asymmetric synchronization between regions and regional organizations • principle of mutuality in decision making process • the system is open • informal organizations play a central role • United Nations do not play anymore a central role

The transition to a multipolar world is done under the auspices of the development of global economic governance (Behr and Jokela, 2011). The increased number of countries with very important roles globally makes it difficult to measure the absolute gains and to track the global interests. The continuous transition of power made not an easy way for the United States and EU to open the international cooperation. At the moment, no country is able to establish structures of the global economic governance, nor to ensure their proper functioning. The transition to a multipolar world order is associated with relative gains and traditional power politics, but also with the fragmentation resulted from the decentralization of economic and political powers.

Despite the significant changes that occurred in the global economy since 1945, the main institutions of the global governance tend to reflect an order centered on Western states in terms of values and representation (Cottier, Elsig, 2011). The analyses show the disconnection between current and actual distribution of power within the major institutions of global economic governance. The legitimacy links the representation, this meaning to which extent the international institutions are representative for the global society over which they exercise political or technical authority.

5. Conclusions

The legitimacy deficit is closely related to effective global governance and the crisis of multilateralism, which requires the redefining of the applied model. The transition is being made toward a less formal model of governance and negotiation. Global governance reform must reflect all these changes and realities of the contemporary world, addressed inefficiently. The important growth rates in emerging countries are translated also in strong demand for representation in global economic governance. The desire of emerging powers to continue the globalization process and global governance is uncertain. G-20 takes the great responsibility in the current global governance in a multipolar world. The development of this forum was held together with the need to find common solutions to financial crisis. It promotes cooperation and joint global action to tackle the crisis and deepening economic interdependence. One of its key features is the reform of global governance and it is outlined the need of further research in this direction.

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THE 7TH EDITION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
EUROPEAN INTEGRATION
REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

European Union - Impasse, Compromise and Development

Marcela Monica Stoica¹

Abstract: If the European construction has been considered, for a long time, a “success story” in its evolution took place and a series of impasses that led to a blockage and so to crisis. This paper aims at making a chronological approach of the idea of “compromise” in European Union history, the compromise as a form of elites negotiations, the compromise as the generator of measures that led to solutions for the “relaunching” of European construction. The research is based on deductive and inductive analysis, comparative and case study. Thus, are concerned, from a comparative perspective, the Luxembourg compromise, Fontainebleau and Ioannina, as many moments that have resulted in solutions as consensus of European elites for effectiveness of European institutional mechanism. In the same time, this paper is an approach focused on the evolution of the relationship federalism- intergovernmentalism. The results of the analysis made in this paper show us that these compromises, as forms of negotiations, were in favor of the intergovernmentalism followers and had declined, as a result, from the Europe of Jean Monnet and from the ideals of the Community.

Keywords: negotiations; consensus; evolution and development; intergovernmentalism; European construction.

1. Introduction

European Union, like its ancestor the European Community, was approached from several perspectives: the historical evolution of the idea of United Europe, the EU legislative framework, the institutional system, European policies, etc.

But a closer analysis notes that in the 62 years of existence (from the Schuman Declaration of 9 May 1950), the EU was marked by a series of impasses, small or large, some of them remaining in history as the famous “compromises” that were finalized by solutions aimed the decision-making mechanisms within the institutions (especially, the Council of Ministers) and European policies (especially, Common Agricultural Policy).

European Union is characterized by a permanent negotiation activity being a union of interests. In this respect, in EU there is the decisional institutional triangle formed by the Council of Ministers, the European Commission and the European Parliament who represents, also, a “triangle of interests”.

Although the responsibilities and attributes of the institutions, their autonomy and the cooperation between them were regulated by treaties, there were moments when one or another were more strongly felt in the decision making process.

Here it should be noted that a special role was played by leaders who have been leading them. One thing undeniable, is that personalities like Jean Monnet, Robert Schuman, Charles de Gaulle, Altiero Spinelli, Margaret Thatcher, Jacques Delors, Simone Veil and others through their leadership gave visibility and prominent to the action and prestige of institutions.

Or, what it was wanted, what that the institutional triangle to be a balance of interests.

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Thus, the European Commission defends the Community interest, the EU Council of Ministers defends the interests of member states, so, the national interests and the European Parliament defends the interests of the EU peoples, and today, by the Treaty of Lisbon, defends the interests of European citizens.

So, those who led these institutions would negotiate their interests under the rules and regulations established by the Treaties.

This triangle of interests is also highlighted through its composition: thus, the interests of the member states are protected by the national government ministers of the member states (generally named by those who have won the elections), the European interests are defended by the Commission members who are appointed by member states representatives and work together, uniform, based on the principle of collegiality (so, not a legitimacy given by a popular vote) and the interests of citizens are protected by the European Parliament whose members, the euro-deputies, are elected, since 1979, by direct, equal and secret vote, so, they have a strong democratic legitimacy.

And there is the European Council, an institution with political role, consisting of heads of state and government, who are also elected and legitimized by popular vote, giving the outline of the Union's development.

In order to fulfill their interests, they have to negotiate all the time. Thus, the history of institutions involved in decisions regarding the EU, the member states and its citizens is a history of negotiations.

Of course, negotiation is for two reasons: to create what not a single part can achieve by its own means and to solve a problem or, sometimes, a dispute between the parts.

According to some authors, “negotiations are carried out in the competitive processes of peaceful talks by two or more parts who agree to pursue together in achieving the optimal and safe targets, set in an explicit solution, commonly agreed.” (Malița, 1972, p. 147).

A successful negotiation involves the management of tangible items (measurable items which are the objectives of an offer) and intangible elements (intangible factors are deep psychological motivations, reputation, values, beliefs and convictions, etc.).

2 Events

During the development of European construction there have been periods marked by the rise of federal ideas or by the affirmation of intergovernmentalism concepts.

In the first part of its existence, the Community has developed a supranational dynamic, and especially the legal European integration, the legal frame, had a remarkable boom.

But, in terms of political decision-making procedures, there was a reverse evolution, a way toward intergovernmentalism and a distancing from European integration. Following the goals of this paper, we have to emphasize, that European integration was a constant process of negotiations and the impasses were solved by compromises.

2.1 The Luxembourg Compromise

In the 60s, the problem of further accessions to the Community found a stern opponent, General Charles de Gaulle, who was at the helm of France, so that the French nationalism and its commitment to intergovernmentalism blocked the enlargement.

De Gaulle wanted a “Europe of homelands”, a Europe of sovereign states, far from that envisioned by Monnet, and far from the United States of Europe.

Thus, De Gaulle opposed to any attempts of creating a “federalist fiction” (Păun et al, 2005, p. 192).

De Gaulle, who did not agree the federalism vision, sought to use the Community to strengthen the power of France and its aspirations as leader of Europe and by using the veto power blocked the negotiations for enlargement of the Community with Great Britain, Norway, Denmark and Ireland (Pinder, 2005:15). But this was only the beginning because a more serious trouble arose in 1965 relating to the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). CAP should be based on price support, issues which require substantial public expenditures. Both France and the European Commission agreed that these subsidies to come from the Community budget and not from the member states.

But the Commission, with its federalist orientation, insisted that the government spending to stay under parliamentary control, and not of the parliaments of the six states, but under control of the European Parliament.

This solution was accepted by the other countries, except France.

Refusing the institutional proposals of the Commission, De Gaulle forbade ministers to attend Council meetings and the French government left the negotiations on July 1, 1965, practicing so-called “empty chair policy” (Quermonne, 2005: 16).

In this context, neither side was ready to give up so that this episode was concluded by “finding disagreements” on January 29, 1966, situation which is known as the “Luxembourg compromise”, one of the first great crisis in the history of the Community (Courty and Devin, 2001, p. 25; Weiler, 2009:42).

The compromise meant that, whether a member state declared that its fundamental national interest was at stake in a given situation, a solution could be accepted only if unanimous agreement was reached (Horváth, 2007: 36).

This institutional crisis revealed a conflict of goals and proved that the interests of member states were not to leave an initiative (a construction) mutually profitable. It was seen, by all, as an opportunity for economic growth, and especially it shows the use of Europe is a way to recoup the political, economic and social costs that involves any modernization (Courty and Devin, 2001, p. 26).

This constant preoccupation is expressed, as we have seen, through negotiation strategies tend to persuade others to support some specific obligations. So, the conclusion is that nationalist fundamentalism has left place for pragmatic intergovernmentalism (Pinder, 2005, p. 16).

Although foreseen in the original treaties, the qualified majority voting is canceled in practice by Luxembourg compromise. However, from the second half of the 1980s, following the adoption of the Single European Act, the compromise was suspended, as the Act stated, explicitly, when decisions could be adopted by qualified majority and when they required unanimity (Jacqué, 2006, p. 321).

2.2 The Fontainebleau Compromise

A new period of impasse for EU began when, in 1979, Margaret Thatcher became prime minister and put the foundation of a stormy relationship with the Community struggling for the intergovernmentalist principles.

The famous “*Give my money back!*” launched at summit of the European Council in Dublin, in September 1979, was the first message announcing a combative agenda in the Community (Bino, 2001: 204). In her original and unique style, Margaret Thatcher led the attack against the budget, asking questions about who has to win and who has to lose from it. Of course, budgetary gains and losses are only a small part of the balance sheet of EU membership.

According to some authors, Thatcher did not believe in the political dimension of integration and never thought to the losers of market integration (Tsoukalis, 2005, p. 57).

The “British problem” with reference to UK contribution to EU budget was raised by British prime minister, Margaret Thatcher, all European Council meetings, leading to the situation that at the summit from December 1983, could not be adopted any final statement.

But the turning point is considered the Fointainebleau European Council from 25-26 June 1984 when the “British problem” has been solved and it was decided to be appointed at the leadership of Commission the Frenchman Jacques Delors (Bino, 2001, p. 223).

Delors's appointment gave new impetus to the European project. If Thatcher was considered the heir of the Gaullist tradition, Delors was seen as defender of Monnet's Europe.

After 1985, when it began the reviewing of the existing constitutional framework, the enthusiasm for integration increased.

In 1986, it was signed the Single European Act (SEA) - the first major revision of founding treaties - which affected the activities of the Community through the changes of decision making process, in the way of the extension of qualified majority voting, created the co-decision procedure, set a deadline for achieving objectives of the Common Market and incorporated the European Political Cooperation within the framework provided by the treaties.

2.3 The Ioannina Compromise

In the 80's, the EU enlargement has continued, leading to 12 members. Greece took the presidency on January 1, 1994, and during this time discussions were held on a new enlargement with the accession of Austria, Finland, Norway and Sweden. European Union was ready to receive, on January 1, 1995, the new states and on the agenda was the issue of the use of qualified majority in a Community with 16 member states. But Norway's membership has fallen since on November 28, 1994, the referendum gave a negative answer.

As a consequence, the decision taken at the meeting in Ioannina had to be modified in order to correspond to the functioning of the EU with 15 countries.

In this context, the discussions and negotiations aimed at the definition of qualified majority voting and the votes re-weighting. The application of qualified majority voting was hampered again by so-called „Ioannina compromise”, which was introduced, especially, under British pressure.

This compromise was embodied by the Council Decision from 29 March 1994 establishing that, if some members of the Council of Ministers, whose votes combined total between 23 votes (the old blocking minority threshold) and 26 votes (new threshold), expressed their intention to oppose to a decision of the Council, by qualified majority vote, the Council will do its best to reach, within a reasonable time, at a satisfactory solution, then could be adopted by at least 68 votes out of 87 (Jacqué, 2006: 326).

Subsequently, by the Treaty of Nice, the votes were re-weighting and Ioannina compromise canceled.

But Ioannina episode was a symptom that would give a serious warning upon future serious situations that would arise in the institutional field (Bino, 2001, p. 223).

Thus, the Treaty of Lisbon explicitly refers to the decision starting with November 1, 2014, and defines the new qualified majority when it meets at least 55% of the votes in the Council from at least 15 states and representing at least 65% of its population.

The new calculation method will be complemented by a similar mechanism as “Ioannina compromise” which should allow a small number of member states (close to blocking minority, which can be composed of four states) to express opposition to a decision (Dumoulin, 2005, p. 67).

In such a situation, the Council must do all that is within its power to achieve, within a reasonable time, a mutually satisfactory solution.

2.4. A synthetic view

The history of negotiations and compromises can be presented in a summary table which includes periods when they occurred, the actors involved, the subject that caused disputes and the consequences.

Tabel 1. The EU compromises synthetic model

The event	Period	Actor	The disputed subject	The consequences
Luxembourg Compromise	1965-1966	France, Charles de Gaulle / The french problem	Common Agricultural Policy	Canceled by Single European Act (SEA)
Fontainebleau Compromise	1979-1984	Great Britain, Margaret Thatcher/ The british problem	The bugetary contribution	SEA, The Common Market New President of the Commission
Ioannina Compromise	1994	The Council And The 12 member states	Enlargement and the votes re-weighting Qualified majority voting Blocking minority	Canceled by Treaty of Nice Treaty of Lisbon introduce a similar mechanism as "Ioannina compromise"

3 Conclusions

The history of European construction had periods of dynamic integration, of slowdown and impasses.

Tensions that occurred in the construction were due to tendencies between governmental approach, on one hand, and federalist, supranational approach, on the other hand, causing distinct periods, specific only to EU and came to be known as "compromises" and dominated by certain issues or matters: French problem, British problem, etc.

The institution, at the center of attention, was the Council of Ministers, which defends, as we noted, the interests of governments of member states, involving, in this way, national actors.

Thus, in the negotiation of interests, the results depend on the quality of the negotiating teams, the firmness of heads of state and government (eg. De Gaulle, Thatcher), the influence of certain networks or groups of lobby (eg. Like Movement for United States of Europe the Jean Monnet when creating the European Council) (Courty and Devin, 2001, p. 53).

The consequences of the Luxembourg compromise on the functioning of the institutions were very important. The veto slowed the decision-making procedures, not only in the Council but also in the preparatory courts used it at the national officials, blocking them to study a problem from the initial stages. The role of the Commission has diminished while the Council has always acted unanimously, it could always reject the Commission proposals. So this almost systematic recourse to unanimity was the cause that led to a blockage of institutions.

The adoption of the Luxembourg compromise emphasised the intergubernamental character of the Council.

An evolution occurred with the Treaty of Amsterdam and Nice which have pursued this issue and extend the qualified majority system in the Council. Then, the voting system in the Council of Ministers is changed by the reform treaty in order to reflect both states and peoples will as well.

Or in other words, the vote reflects the will of the majority of European citizens and the reality of power member states.

Another interesting thing is that, during recent negotiations for ratifying the Treaty of Lisbon, Poland has received to include the so-called “Ioannina clause” in an additional protocol to the treaty text, in order to give greater legal weight. Poland received guarantees that a smaller group of countries can delay certain decisions of the European Union which does not agree with.

So, after almost 60 years from the Schuman Declaration, the compromise is back in force, and at the request of Poland it can be invoked anytime.

The compromise showed both the capacity of leaders for negotiation and the will to give the EU to go further, even for a short period the national interests prevailed.

As a conclusion, the relationship between the Union and Member States is not a “zero sum” and can be considered that the evolution of European integration is marked by moments of progress and setback, the role of exit from the impasse is the win-win negotiations that are the privilege of leadership.

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REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES

From Representation to Participation: A More Democratic European Union?

Marcela Monica Stoica¹

Abstract: The present paper analyzes the evolution and characteristics of the democratic process in the European Union from the perspective of political science using the recent theories in this field. Following the entry into force, the Treaty of Lisbon establishes the principle of participatory democracy that puts the focus of the European citizen, a citizen who is actively involved in European Union life, strengthening EU - citizen relationship. The essence of participatory democracy is the destruction of political apathy and the maximizing of active participation of citizens in the democratic tasks. So, the basic principle of the participatory democracy is solidarity. The results of this analysis show that although participatory democracy is established in the European law, citizens are less involved in the decision-making in EU and are more and more individual, contradicting thus the very foundations of this type of democracy.

Keywords: representation; participatory democracy; European citizens; civic culture; dialogue

1. Introduction

Ideals have occupied an important place in the arguments of the European construction promoters.

Democratic ideals were those that gave life to the dream of the founding fathers who wanted an European area of security, prosperity and human rights. Founding treaties proclaimed the will of states to establish and develop the economic prosperity and to strengthen peace and freedom.

Often, democracy was considered rather an ideal than a form of government which should have a specific structure (Ball and Dagger, 2000, p. 51) or according to other opinions, "democracy has come to designate a civilization or, better said, a political purpose (current) of Western civilization" (Sartori, 1999, p. 31).

Democracy has become the fundamental standard of political legitimacy in our time.

The organizing and functioning of democracy can be done in many ways. Generally, democracy is the governance of the people and the representative democracy is realized through the people's elected representatives.

But if we start from the definition of democracy as "governing by the people and for the people" we have the key word "people", so we can talk, in this respect, about two models of democracy: of majority and consensual. In the democracy of majority, the people are governing for its own interest because the governing is done by the majority according to its will. The consensual democracy involves broad participation in government, is not focused on a majority (Lijphart, 2000: 26).

The rule of the government by the majority is exclusive, competitive and antagonistic, while the model of consensual democracy is characterized by inclusiveness, consensus, negotiation and compromise. For this reason, consensual democracy can be called "negotiation democracy" and is more democratic than the democracy of majority (Lijphart, 2000, p. 39).

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But, it must be emphasized that even the language of theory creates the situation when some key terms, such as the political participation, representation, possibility for citizens to choose freely, can produce ambiguous meanings or conflicting interpretations.

In the same time, the history of political institutions of democracy shows the fragility and vulnerability of the democratic order.

This situation can be found also in analyzing the European Union's democracy. Thus, the EU institutions as the European Parliament, Commission and Council have often sparked confusion, because its government affects the balance between legislative and executive bodies as they are perceived at the state level. In this regard, the EU is a construction completely and totally original, and the European Parliament, is part of this model, even though over the years a gradual raise occurred in its formal powers. It evolved from an institution representing the interests of the peoples of member states to an institution of European citizens.

So, in terms of EU-citizens relationship, the Union has undergone a process of democratization from a democracy of elites (as founders) to a representative democracy, the people choosing their representatives in Parliament, and, today, by the expressed provisions of the Treaty of Lisbon, the participatory democracy was established having in its center the European citizens with a civic culture (based on dialogue among the parts involved).

2. Democracy as a Political Regime

In this part of the paper, it is analysed the democracy as a political regime with its specific characteristics in order to find out whether this model can be applied in the EU case.

Democracy is an alternative to a political governance of a society, in addition to many other political regimes. Depending on all these variables, there are many theories of democracy that try to provide answers to various challenges of the political field.

Democracy can be defined on a series of concepts that are unique to this system, such as: political leaders, citizens, political competition, elections, the will of the majority, cooperation and representation.

Leaders and the way they come to power are important because these aspects give the legitimacy to a democracy and distinguishes democracy from other forms of political organization. The leaders must come to power through free competition and free elections and exercise their mandate on transparency.

Only the presence of citizens makes a political system to be democratic or not and in contemporary democracies there is no restriction on the rights of a citizen. The concept of citizenship is intrinsic to the notion of democracy (Schmitter, Lynn Karl, 1991, p. 77).

One of the characteristics of democratic elections is the cyclicality, thus giving citizens the opportunity to maintain or change the political elites at a period of time.

The will of the majority is another element in defining democracy and what makes a political system to be a democracy is a majority that takes into account the aggregate of minority interests and desires.

Cooperation is another key concept for definition of democracy because the political forces should take decisions together, and policies resulting from these decisions must have a unitary character.

Uniqueness of politics in a democracy is given by the way how elites cooperate in decision making process. Cooperation is an important concept for modern democracies because is extended also on the body of citizens not only of the leaders. Taking part into elections, the citizens have the opportunity to maintain or to change the elected representatives. Citizens have the right to influence the political decision, or cyclically through elections or randomly through political participation.

Thus, cooperation is carried out on three levels: 1. between the various political parties or organizations that want to govern in a democracy; 2. between parties and citizens - to acquire political legitimacy (for the parties) and interests' representation (for the citizens); 3. cooperation among citizens in order to aggregate interests.

Representativeness is the feature offering the unique character to democracies (Schmitter, Lynn Karl, 1991, p. 79). The body of representatives is composed of professional politicians who make from the political decisions making a job, a profession.

If we analyze the above mentioned concepts, we can assert that in the EU, the key concepts are: leaders, citizenship, elections, cooperation, representativeness.

The leaders have all the time a decisive role in democracy building in EU. The elites were, at first, the founders of the first European Community and later the protagonists of the process of negotiation and cooperation and the decision makers. Today, the Treaty of Lisbon, explicitly, promoted a European leadership having a President as a leader of European Union.

As time went by, the treaties moved the interest from the people to the citizens. As it is known, the European citizen, legally, came later, with the Treaty of Maastricht in 1993.

The concept of EU citizen had a special development. The European Parliament represented, initially, the interests of peoples and those who voted were citizens of the nations of member states (national citizens).

Elections for the European Parliament were held since 1979 and the cooperation between political parties and leaders was presented all the time, being a *sine qua non* condition in the foundation of the democracy, at the beginning, and of the representative democracy, subsequently.

Representativeness appears together with the elections and the cooperation and all these were circumscribed to citizens and leaders.

So, the understanding of democracy and its institutions must be done in the frame of a certain theory of democracy.

3. Participatory Democracy

Contemporary literature identifies four major theories about democracy: liberal democracy, classic pluralism, deliberative democracy and participatory democracy.

The participative democracy alleged to other forms of democracy a high political apathy and inactivity of citizens. Thus, the essence of participative democracy is the destruction of political apathy. This means to maximize the active participation of citizens in democratic tasks and the basic principle of this democracy is solidarity. Citizen participation in decision making is essential for many states and the governments are useful only to implement the decisions of the body of citizens. From this joint participation of citizens in decision making appears the theory of participative democracy.

From participation point of view, democracy is the control that citizens exercised when it comes to solving problems of concern to them. Of course, it takes the presence of a legislative body to address these problems. So, there is a continuous relationship between citizens and the legislative body. This relationship is through negotiation and contract and may be dissolved when citizens feel that their interests are not represented by this political body.

Another specific element of participatory democracy is the relationship of identity between state and civil society. In such a democracy there is no dividing line between people who make decisions and civil society citizens covered by these decisions.

As such, it reaffirmed the Rousseau's view that there is only one contract in a democracy - between citizens and governments, and governments are always identified with the governed (Cunningham, 2002, p. 102).

Most criticism of participatory democracy has been linked to availability of citizens to devote time and attention to public issues. To disprove this criticism, proponents of participatory democracy bring to their support empirical evidence obtained from specific studies of Almond and Verba. According to these studies, reluctance to involve citizens in solving public problems is the prerogative of inefficient institutions to allow free access of citizens in decision making process (Almond and Verba, 1965: 39).

3.1 Participatory Democracy and the Problems of Democracy

The Oppression. Participative democracy is particularly critical to the vote, which is strictly an instrument of oppression of the citizens, since they can not control the political activities of those who elected them only in a limited intervals of time (from a electoral choice to another). The solution offered by participative democracy in order to deal with oppression is political participation, initially, to a reduce scale, at the level of the community where the citizen is part of.

Active political participation is the only way that can break the vicious circle of political passivity and of undisputed subordination to an authority (Cunningham, 2002 p. 134).

Irrationality. According to proponents of participatory democracy, the political expression that equates democracy with voting is irrational. The explanation is simple: once you have voted for a particular government and become passive politically is completely unreasonable to expect that government to solve your problems (Cunningham, 2002, p. 143). Once installed, the government has no incentive selective basis to address the problems that citizens gave him a vote of confidence, at least until the next election. The solution to this problem lies in transforming the mentality of citizens, in the awareness that he/she is part of civil society and that democracy is not only vote but active political participation. Political apathy of citizens is the result of representative democracy, which depoliticized the individual, creating the image of a government watches to solve all the citizens problems. The sole responsibility of the citizens of such democracies is to move up to the polling station and put the stamp on a party or on a politician. On long term, the result of such a representative democracy is the emergence of a political culture of conflict, since politicians are nothing but people competing for votes and to maintain constantly in power (Cunningham, 2002, p. 143).

Tyranny of the majority. This problem facing democracy is the worst for participatory democracy because it provides no plausible solution for it.

For example, the problems faced by minorities in a democracy are considered, from participation point of view, only a lack of political skills and ill-will of their minority citizens who can not reach a peaceful consensus with other citizens (Cunningham, 2002, p. 144).

Moreover, participatory democracy ignores the concept of minority itself, since all citizens are civil society representatives and are morally bound to each other to achieve common good. For advocates of participative democracy there is no acceptance of the idea of a minority who has other interests than common good. The explanation for this lies in literature circumscribed to the theory of participative democracy offering little space for the idea of rights. When conflicts are resolved in a society via appeal to certain rights of individuals, it means (from participative perspective) that that society is not a community in the true senses in which all individuals want a common good. For Rousseau and the followers of his theory, the concept of rights is fueling the conflict in a society, individuals using these rights as weapons against other (Cunningham, 2002, p. 144). The conclusion of discussion about the tyranny of the majority is that the individual rights of citizens remain in a state of conflict, creating an instinct of defense in exchange for cooperation that, would lead eventually, to political participation.

4. Conclusions

European Union is founded on democratic principles. Building a political Europe was an ideal and it was wanted to transform it into practice bringing in the scene those who give legitimacy to a democratic regime: the voters, (electors) and that means the citizens. Only the peoples and the citizens can assure the democratic legitimacy. The EU democratic model is hard to define because all democratic theories were developed almost exclusively in the context of state. EU had a model of democratization without complying with a state model. To be democratic must meet the characteristics of a political system: citizens, elections, cooperation, representativeness, etc. What kind of democracy is in EU? Lijphart speaks about democracy of a majority and about a democracy of consensus. For instance, Weiler says in EU is a consensus.

Looking at the EU's democratic model there are opinions which support the model of consensual democracy. The consensual democracy is not a specific institutional framework but a common effort of elites to deliberately create a stable and functional system (Weiler, 2009, p. 130).

European ideals mobilized masses by political parties which are "political consciousness" of the EU. Citizens of EU member states have become European citizens who elect their representatives in Parliament. Unfortunately, the European Parliament is weakened by its structure and by having certain powers only formal. That function of popular representation is compromised by the fact that has no effective decision (it co-legislates with the Council of Ministers). Thus, as under treaties, its powers have increased, the voter participation has declined. Currently, none of those participating in European elections has the feeling to influence political decisions taken at European level (Weiler, 2009, p. 117).

Although, we can speak of an electoral democracy, as the data show, the EU electoral power is lower in European politics. Thus, the lack of citizen involvement in EU life could compromise just the basic imperative of democracy in the Union: the need for legitimacy. C.B. Macpherson argues that participatory democracy is the key to a democratic future (Held, 2000, p. 286). Freedom and personal development can be fully realized only through direct and continuous involvement of citizens in society and the state regulation. According to Pateman, participatory democracy encourages human development emphasizes the sense of political effectiveness and contribute to a class of active citizens (Held, 2000, p. 287). If standing up for the European Parliament, legislators have set up the foundation of representative democracy, gradually, by promoting the concept of Europe of citizens, Treaty of Lisbon focus on active citizen. By introducing cooperation between the EP and national parliaments would have to increase interest in democratic participation, but the last election had the lowest participation rate. Perhaps the fact that in 2009, Europe was in crisis, and according to statements of European leaders the main cause was the lack of solidarity, and that means exactly the engine of participatory democracy.

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REALITIES AND PERSPECTIVES**

Internet Time: Open Data and Laws for European Citizens

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Abstract: This article covers three different aspects related to the Internet usage in Europe. The first theme examines the Open Data phenomenon and the use of Public Sector Information in the interest of the citizens. In this part we listed the studies that in last years attempted to quantify the PSI market. In the second paragraph we list the actions taken by European Commission to develop the PSI market and to use the “openness” to improve economic growth in Europe. In the final section an overview of the Italian law relating to the use of the Internet is given, connecting it with the latest developments of European and UN laws on the usefulness of new technologies for the European digital citizen. The paper provides an overall look at the studies, actions and European laws regarding the use of the Internet and public data and the resulting benefits for citizens.

Keywords: Open Data; Digital Agenda; Public Sector Information; Digital Rights; European Citizen

1. Open Data for European Growth: how big is PSI market?

When tackling the issue of the contribution that the Public Sector Information (PSI) can make to economic growth, the first major problem is the evaluation of the potential market for PSI.

Over the years there have been several studies that have assessed the value of PSI with different methodologies.

1.1. PIRA study

In 2000 the PIRA study (Epractice.eu, 2000) provided the first extensive estimates of the economic value of PSI. The study identified two main estimates of this value: i) investment value and ii) economic value.

By “investment value” the study identified the government investment in the acquisition of PSI. In the PIRA study, the cost of acquiring the information gathered by the public sector provides a lower bound to the value of PSI.

“Economic value” refers to the part of national income attributable to industries and activities that are based on the exploitation of PSI (i.e. value added of PSI with respect to the economy as a whole and private sector expenditure on PSI).

PIRA study is the first to suggest that existing revenue based licensing models may be operating not only against private sector and consumers interests, but also against the financial interests of

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governments themselves. Although governments gain income from the commercial licence fees, they lose the taxation and employment benefits from the higher volumes (at least doubling of market size assumed by the study) of commercial activity that would be generated by abandoning charges.

The report results emphasized the importance of geo-spatial information, making up around one half of the total. They estimated a total value of PSI of EUR 68 billion annually, with a value of EUR 36 billion for geo-spatial information.

1.2. MEPSIR

The MEPSIR study (EU Commission, 2006) (MEPSIR stands for Measuring European Public Sector Information Resources), completed in 2006 by HELM Group of Companies of Moira (UK) with Zenc company (NL), rebuilds the value chain of Public Sector Information, identifying three main phases performed by the public sector and, subsequently, by the private sector:

- I) generation of data, usually by the public sector;
- II) processing (collection, aggregation and combining) of data to make easy to access them, to share and work with combining them with other data. This processing may also be intended as “adding value” to the data and can be a matter of private sector;
- III) distribution of data: at the end of the chain, the data are distributed to the re-users. Distribution can be a task for public bodies or by private firms.

After analyzing the different business models for public data, the study lists the different types of economic effects on which the 2003 Directive (2003/98/EC) took effect, from “Direct price effect” (the costs of purchasing public sector information from the government will decrease), “Quantity effect” (re-users will buy more products, due to lowered prices and increased accessibility), “Entry effect” (more companies will enter the value chain) and so on.

MEPSIR finally, after collecting the feedback of re-users and public offices, attempted an evaluation of the amplitude of the PSI market in Europe, leading to an assessment, however, significantly lower than both the PIRA study and estimates of the American Public Sector Information market.

In MEPSIR indeed, estimates for the overall market size for PSI in the European Union range from €10 to €48 billion, with a mean value around €27 billion (about 0.25% of the total GDP for the European Union).

1.3. Vickery's Study

In 2010, in preparation for the revision of the Directive, the Commission has commissioned to Graham Vickery¹ the following study: “Review of recent studies on PSI re-use and related market developments” (EU Commission, 2011a).

In the study is recognized that knowledge is a source of competitive advantage in the “information economy”, and then it is economically important that there is wide diffusion of public information. Between the benefits gained from improving access to PSI and facilitating its reuse, the following are listed:

- development of new products built directly on PSI;
- development of complementary products such as new software and services;
- reduction of transaction costs in accessing and using such information;
- efficiency gains in the public sector itself;
- the crossing of different public and private information to provide new goods and services.

1 Some note about Graham Vickery: <http://www.devex.com/en/news/leader-profile-graham-vickery-head-of-icc-oecd/29936> and http://www.oecd.org/speaker/0,3438,en_21571361_42740239_43561454_1_1_1_1,00.html

After the after the analysis of a number of national cases of use of public information, Vickery comes to the conclusion that there is the need to update the figure of the potential market value of PSI re-use in Europe, evaluated by MEPSIR to 27M.

The first estimate, based on studies of “business as usual”, provide economic gains from opening up Public Information and providing access for free or marginal cost up to € 40M for the EU27.

But the Study continues, indicating that PSI can be used in a very wide range of direct and indirect applications across the economy and direct and indirect economic impacts from PSI applications and use across the whole EU economy are of the order of €140 M annually, confirming that there are large economic benefits from easier access to PSI.

2. EU Main Actions

2.1. Directive 2003/98

The Directive 2003/98/EC states in Article 1 as its main objective: to establish “a minimum set of rules governing the re-use and the practical means of facilitating re-use of existing documents held by public sector bodies of the Member States”. It can be seen that the Directive sets out to establish a frame-work for fair, proportionate and non-discriminatory conditions for re-use of Public Sector Information in the European Union.

The General Principle: Member States shall ensure that, where the re-use of documents held by public sector bodies is allowed, these documents shall be re-usable for commercial or non-commercial purposes in accordance with the conditions set out in Chapters III and IV. Where possible, documents shall be made available through electronic means.

Directive establishes that for all public document users can ask for re-use and public bodies must answer timely (usually in 20 days) having to justify any negative opinions and allowing an appeal against their decision.

Transparency on conditions and charge is granted: conditions must be pre-established and published, and any applicable conditions for the re-use of documents must be non-discriminatory for similar categories of re-use.

Moreover there is the prohibition of exclusive arrangements to grant exclusive rights on documents.

Finally the Directive stated that the Commission should review his application before 2008, verifying the scope and impact of this Directive, especially in terms of the extent of the increase in re-use of public sector documents.

2.2. Open Data Package

In December 2011, the Commission presented, with the slogan “Turning government data into gold“, an Open Data Package consisting of:

1. A proposal for a revision of the Directive (EU Commission, 2011b);
2. A Communication on Open Data (EU Commission, 2011c);
3. New Commission rules on re-use of the documents it holds (EU Commission 2011d).

The main **changes to the Directive** that the Commission is proposing are:

- General rule that all documents held by public sector bodies will be re-usable for both commercial and non-commercial purposes, unless covered by the exceptions provided for in the Directive;
- Libraries, museums and archives will be included under the Directive rules;
- Public bodies shall in principle not be allowed to charge more than marginal costs generated by the individual request for data;

- Introducing regulatory oversight over fees charged by public authorities on requests for re-use;
- Usage of standard machine-readable formats so as to avoid technical barriers for re-use.

The date of adoption of the revised Directive is expected towards the end of 2012.

Open Data Communication starts from Vickery's Study which provides that the gains from opening up this resource could amount to € 40 billion a year in the EU. Furthermore opening up PSI will encourage the participation of citizens in political and social and will help improve policies in different sectors such as the environment.

As part of the Digital Agenda for Europe (EU Commission 2012a), the Commission presents three interconnected actions to overcome existing barriers and fragmentation across the EU:

- ⤴ Adapt the legal framework for data re-use, with the quoted proposal for a revised Directive on the re-use of public sector information and a revised Commission Decision on the re-use of its own information are adopted together with this Communication;
- ⤴ Mobilize financial resources in favor of open data and support the development of European data portals;
- ⤴ Facilitate coordination and experience sharing between European countries, in particular through:
 - ⤴ the PSI group (EU Commission, 2012b), a Member States' expert group exchanging good practices of PSI re-use and initiatives supporting PSI re-use;
 - ⤴ the Public Sector Information platform (EU Commission, 2012c), a web portal which provides news on good practices, new products and services, and legal cases concerning PSI re-use;
 - ⤴ the LAPSI network (EU Commission, 2012d), the European network for policy discussions and strategic action on legal issues related to the access and the re-use of PSI;
 - ⤴ the ISA action (EU Commission, 2012e) on semantic interoperability: ISA (Interoperability Solutions for European Public Administrations programme with a budget of 164 Million Euro) addresses the need of efficient public services in EU by facilitating electronic collaboration between European public administrations.

New rules on re-use of Commission documents: for Commission documents a new General Principle has been established, by which all documents (with few exceptions) shall be available for reuse for commercial or non-commercial purposes, without charge and without the need to make an individual application. A data portal as a single point of access to documents available for reuse will be set up. Also the research information produced by the Joint Research Centre will be included and all documents will be in the future available under machine-readable formats. So Commission documents will be generally available for reuse without the need for individual applications, through open reuse licenses or simple disclaimers.

2.3 ICT PSP 2012 Work Programme

Finally in 2012 February, inside the 2012 ICT Policy Support Programme (EU Commission, 2012f), which provides EU funding to support the realization of the Digital Agenda for Europe, we can find other concrete actions towards the goal of open data.

Inside the Call for Proposals (deadline 15 May 2012) in the Objective 2.2 "Open data and open access to content" funded with 12 M€ the following goals are highlighted:

- ⤴ Stimulate the opening up of European data resources for re-use by businesses;
- ⤴ Work on legal aspects of Public Sector Information and standards for open data;
- ⤴ Experiment with Open Access to scientific information.

For these goals following projects will be funded:

- ⤴ Geographic Information to foster the wider use of spatial data by public and private sector organizations and citizens, making available harmonized information related to the INSPIRE Directive and developing innovative value-added services by the private sector;
- ⤴ Open access to scientific information, to support experiments with open access to scientific information, exploring new paradigms for accessing, querying, using and evaluating this information;
- ⤴ Legal aspects of PSI and standards for open data, taking into account the results of the LAPSI thematic network to analyze the field of legal aspects of PSI;
- ⤴ Standards for open data, facing interoperability (technical and legal) aspects of open data.

We have seen that Europe is pursuing a wide range of actions that converge towards an ever greater availability of public data confident that the increased availability and their re-use can help to stimulate economic growth on the continent.

3. Europe and Internet: New Technology and Digital Citizens

3.1. The Italian legal system

It's time to Internet. More than 2 billion users of the network in the world (so says the International Telecommunications Union, ITU, in its report of May 2011). Network access is considered, now finally, as a fundamental right, which is part of the inviolable rights of the person.

The Italian legal system has many important laws that relates indirectly to Internet.

First there is the Italian Constitution, which remarks "indirectly" in many parts of the text, the right of Internet. Some legal experts think that this right is part of the "fundamental rights", while other experts think that is one of the "social rights".

The article 2 of the Italian constitution is a law considered by most authors as "open" and says that the Republic recognizes and guarantees the inviolable rights of man as an individual and in social education where man plays its activities and requires the fulfillment of duties imperative of political solidarity, economic and social development. In this case we must consider Internet between these inviolable rights of the person.

Article 21 recognizes the importance of network in reference to another fundamental principle of our Constitution. The right of free expression of our thoughts, speech, writing and "any other form of communication."

There are other articles of the Italian Constitution which deal with the subject.

These include: Article 4 (right to work) says that the Republic should ensure and promote the conditions (all, including technology) to perform this right the best. Article 9 states that must be guaranteed the development of culture (Internet is an instrument and at the same time a product of culture). Articles 17 and 18 ensure the freedom of assembly and association, by any means (do not forget that the Internet is also a place for social gatherings).

Article 117 of the Italian Constitution, reformed by Constitutional Law no. 3 of 2001, section 2, letter. r), introduced in our Constitution an explicit reference to the subject of the "informatics". This rule is "exclusivity" of the State legislature, and shows that you should establish a technical coordination to guarantee a "commonality of language, procedures and uniform standards, to allow the communicability between the computer systems of public administration".

With regard to Public Administration and relationships with citizens, another law is the Digital Administration Code (CAD). Article 9 CAD ensures democratic participation by electronic means. This warranty is promoted and pursued by the government through new technologies and must be made to serve the user-citizen, also the citizen who is abroad, in order to allow the exercise of political rights and civil.

The article 3 in the CAD outlines an original, but also necessary, "Right use of technology" thought for the citizen and, more importantly, also for the companies that can (indeed must) require the use of computer technologies in communications with public administrations.

3.2 The European Legal System

The European legislator tries to overcome the digital divide: this problem contrast with the intimate nature of Internet because the network was created for everyone access (overcoming all forms of disability).

The aim of the European legislator is to prevent what a tool like the Internet, created with the intention of encouraging "anyone", becomes, on the contrary, a potential instrument of profound social inequality. The dream shared by the ardent supporters of the network is to induce the states (EU and internationals) to realize a widespread distribution of the Net, even in areas not adequately developed, where the "people" has not yet learned to use this technology.

The EU has repeatedly reaffirmed the one hand the aim to foster a digital culture addressed to the type of technologically illiterate citizens on the other's commitment to the creation of public places where everyone can use advantage of the Net. In this context, the Internet Point can arise in even small local (villages and small towns) to allow everyone to perform tasks that would otherwise not be possible. A technology that serves the citizen, allowing easier access to the citizens. Wherever they live.

Even the UN has highlighted the importance of the impact of on-line connections on the development of the whole universal community (in economic, social and civil). The study is an interesting report of May 16, 2011 (discussed in the June 3 meeting of the UN Human Rights Council, A.HRC.17.27_en, UN Special Rapporteur on freedom of expression Frank LaRue). The UN has recognized the nature of the Internet as a "key means of exercising the right to freedom of opinion and expression".

The document states, moreover, that any restriction on the use of Internet is "a violation of fundamental human rights" since the network, in fact, facilitate the full realization of the person in all areas: from education, participation, culture and social life.

The report want to ensuring universal access to the web; it should be a priority for all countries.

The study produced by the United Nations, however, has awareness of how states are in a very unequal situation between them and therefore it is as difficult to achieve the same result simultaneously

To hinder the development, the creation and access of the Internet violates the international covenant on human rights (civil and political), adopted by the UN General Assembly on 16 December 1966 and entered into force during 1976.

The provisions contained in the Covenants are modeled on the rights set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (December 10, 1948) which becomes another legal important standard reference text.

The Declaration of the Citizenship Act (Article 15) now recognizes with growing conviction the right of "universal citizenship" different respect to the "national citizenship"(guaranteed by the state of belonging, according to a *jus soli*, the law of the land, or a *jus sanguinis*, the right of blood).

The idea of universal citizen was acknowledged for the first time in international law but which turns out to be, in reality, the product of globalization that brought the Internet. The "World Citizen" (desired shape by historical characters and excellent jurists such as Giorgio La Pira, and the Pope Wojtila himself) is increasingly becoming a legal law reality. It replaces the law of reciprocity of mold purely "commercial". This requires the State to treat citizens (of any country) in respect to their

fundamental rights, universally recognized as "Person", regardless by treatment granted by other Member States¹.

Not all of the numerous interventions of the European Union were a success.

Much hope is for action plan of the Council of Europe for the eGovernment 2011-2015². In line with the Digital Agenda for Europe, the Action Plan is divided into four priorities, as defined by the Malmö Declaration of November 18, 2009³: 1. increase empowerment citizens and businesses; 2. increase mobility in the European single market; 3. improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public and 4. create the enabling factors and pre-conditions necessary to set in useful procedures. ICT (Information Communication Technology) has the aim to use "*an intelligent, sustainable and innovative administration.*"

The Plan will recognize and enhance the "new trend" of the PA about the open government, open data, social media and all other tools of technology. In this context there are the "technologies" that promote interoperability in the digital environment, such as electronic signature and e_ Identification.

The intent is to satisfy a new generation of eGovernment services, cross-border, designed around European citizens and European businesses, regardless of their nationality or country of origin.

The aim of the EU is to provide services accessible to all EU citizens in order to "significantly enhance the digital single market" and allow the harmonization of legislation existing in individual States, in those key areas that involve all aspects eProcurement, the e-Justice and e-health.

The European Commission predicts to obtain, till 2015, an increase of the eGovernment services usage by citizens (around 50%) and by the business class(around 80%).

4. Final Remarks

Recently Italy reiterates the need for an Italian digital Agenda (February 9, 2012 by d. Law no. 5, Art. 47th, in the section dedicated to technology innovation, published in G.U. February 9, 2012, n. 33.)

The law says "According to the indications of the Digital Agenda, European Commission Communication COM (2010) 245 final / 2, 26 August 2010, the Government pursues the primary objective of the modernization of the relationship between public administration, citizens and businesses class, through coordinated actions aimed at encouraging the development of demand and supply of innovative digital services; to enhance the delivery of broadband connectivity and to encourage citizens and business class to use digital services; to promote capacity growth adequate to support the industrial development of innovative products and services. "

It's no accident that Tim Berners Lee (founder and creator of the Web) in a recent interview he quoted the famous words of Liu Xiaobo, Nobel Peace Prize 2010, which defined the Internet "a gift from God."

1 A. Papisca, UNESCO, "Diritti umani, democrazia e pace" University of Padova (Italy) about the article 15 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; and <http://web20.excite.it/onu-internet-e-un-diritto-fondamentale-N103464.html>.

2 Brussels, 15 December 2010, COM(2010) 743, http://ec.europa.eu/information_society/activities/egovernment/action_plan_2011_2015/docs/action_plan_en_act_part1_v2.pdf

3 http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/information_society/strategies/si0021_it.htm

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**The Influence of Context on Participatory E-Government Applications:
A Comparison of E-government Adoption in Romania and South Korea**

Greg Porumbescu¹, Catalin Vrabie², Jiho Ahn³

Abstract: This article assesses how contextual factors influence participatory applications of e-government. While the pursuit of participatory e-government projects is increasingly advocated, little research to date has attempted to investigate whether such applications of e-government are feasible across all national contexts. In particular, this research will focus upon assessing how the political, economic, and social characteristics of a particular government's context influence the introduction of participatory applications of e-government. To explore the relationships between contextual factors and applications of e-government, we compare participatory e-government applications in Romania and South Korea. These nations were selected because they possess important similarities and differences related to their political, social, and economic contexts. As an attempt to fill this dearth in existing literature, the research question this study investigates is how certain contextual features serve to influence the adoption of participatory applications of e-government. Our findings suggest that the success of participatory e-government projects is to a large extent contingent upon political and economic contexts, while being less related to social contexts.

Keywords: e-government; electronic; digital

1. Introduction

Over the past few decades, the topic of e-government has emerged as a salient one in the field of public administration. Accordingly, a litany of research has sought to describe implications said to stem from governments' application of this new administrative tool. To date, such research efforts, and the implications they describe can be categorized into two veins. The first vein of research and implications can be considered internally oriented in that this vein explores the impact of e-government adoption on the internal processes of government and bureaucracy (Danziger and Andersen 2002, Brewer et al. 2006). The second vein of e-government research and implications can be considered externally oriented, as it is primarily interested in understanding how government's use of e-government impacts relationships with actors outside of the government, such as citizens (Gerdodimos 2005, Welch et al. 2005).

What is often illustrated by e-government adoption models is an (gradual) evolution of e-government application from internal and efficiency oriented, toward external and participation oriented (Chadwick and May 2003). However, a growing body of research is finding that the evolution of e-government applications tends to become progressively slower as governments move toward participatory applications of e-government (Brewer et al. 2006). This slowdown has been interpreted as a government aversion to increasing levels of citizen participation and a preference for efficiency oriented applications of e-government (Norris 2005). The internally oriented emphasis that has been

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argued to be common among e-government adoption strategies has come under criticism, with many in the academic community arguing that such applications of this new administrative tool simply serve to “reinforce existing administrative and political arrangements”, rather than ushering in a new era of (more) democratic administration (Im et al. forthcoming). However, advocacy for externally oriented applications of e-government tends to be general, and does not go into much detail when explaining whether such applications of e-government are suitable for all contexts, or rather contingent upon certain social settings¹. Such an oversight is significant for the reason that it is important to understand how different contextual features are conducive to certain applications of e-government, as building such an understanding is likely to contribute toward the long term success of e-government applications (Heeks 2005).

As an attempt to fill this important dearth in existing literature on the subject of e-government, the research question this study intends to investigate is how certain contextual features serve to influence the adoption of *participatory* applications of e-government. While ample research has investigated the extent to which certain contexts contribute toward the adoption of e-government in general, to the authors’ knowledge little to no empirical research has attempted to describe how certain contexts may actually influence the adoption of specific applications of e-government (internally oriented versus externally oriented). In particular, this research will focus upon assessing how the political, economic, and social characteristics of a particular government’s context influence the introduction of participatory applications of e-government. In doing so, this research will build upon existing descriptive models describing e-government adoption by attempting to identify the contextual features of a given society that find themselves particularly associated with participatory applications of e-government. Such research is particularly relevant for the reason that, despite growing calls for greater participatory applications of e-government, little research has attempted to understand what conditions should be present for such e-government applications to actually work.

In exploring the relationships between contextual factors and applications of e-government, this research will compare participatory e-government applications in Romania and South Korea. These two nations have been selected because they possess important similarities and differences related to their political, social, and economic contexts. In addition, both nations possess a similar timeline with regard to the evolutions of their democracies, which makes comparisons of participatory e-government application in these two nations particularly interesting. The projects that have been selected for comparison are the *government 4 citizens project* (G4C) launched by the South Korean government, and the *www.e-guvernare.ro portal project* (e-guvernare) launched by the Romanian government. Reasons for comparing these two projects, as well as explanations of these projects are provided in the case study section of this article.

2. Theoretical Framework

Despite a variety of valid definitions of e-government, for the purpose of this research we consider e-government as ‘government’s use of information and communications technology, such as the Internet, for purposes of internal management of information and public services, and as a means of mediating government interaction with citizens’ through information provision and soliciting citizen involvement in administrative processes (UN and ASPA 2001). Highlighted by this definition of e-government are two distinct areas for e-government application². The first area of application can be considered internal, and places an emphasis upon improving the efficiency with which existing administrative processes operate (Danziger and Andersen 2002). The second area of e-government

¹ While prior research has explained that certain prerequisites exist with respect to e-government adoption, this research does not distinguish whether such adoption is internally or externally oriented. This research contends that this is an important distinction to make.

² This research, assumes that internal actors will exhibit a preference for internal applications of e-government, while external actors will exhibit a preference for externally oriented applications of e-government. This assumption is based in arguments found throughout existing literature that has discussed e-government adoption cycles (Chadwick and May 2003, Yildiz 2003).

application can be considered external, and places an emphasis upon improving using e-government as a means of incorporating greater levels citizen involvement in the administrative processes of government (Brewer et al. 2006). In particular it is the externally oriented applications of e-government that have been flagged by existing e-government literature as a topic of particular contention and debate (Yildiz 2007).

Traditionally, internal administrative processes of government have been rather isolated from external actors, which have led many, primarily non government actors, to argue for greater external transparency and accountability of public organizations (Halachmi 2005). Through increasing the extent to which citizens, as well as other non government actors are able to hold their government accountable to 'the will of the people', and access government related information, the overall quality of democracy is said to increase. Given the relationship said to exist between levels of bureaucratic external accountability and transparency, and the quality of democracy, advocates of externally oriented e-government applications are numerous and include international organizations such as the United Nations, politicians (Ahn and Bretschneider 2011), and civil society (Yang 2003).

At this point, the ensuing picture suggests that participatory applications of e-government are likely to play a major role in influencing the way in which internal actors manage the bureaucracy's relationships with its environment (Ahn and Bretschneider, 2011). Subsequently, it can be assumed that internal actors charged with crafting participatory e-government applications, such as the senior level managers, will seek to adopt this technology only if it allows the bureaucracy to achieve some degree of enhanced organizational stability or objectives (Ho and Ya Ni, 2004), while simultaneously placating demands made by external actors for greater external transparency and accountability.

Thus, what this discussion intends to highlight is a tension that presents itself between sources external to the government, which advocate participatory applications of e-government as a means of 'reigning in closed doors bureaucrats', and (internal) government actors who are cautious, if not resistant to opening up their organization to potentially destabilizing external forces. Thus, the form e-government applications take in practice are often said to be functions of pressures from inside and outside of government (Fountain, 2001). As such, contextual features of a government, through their influence on the way external and internal actors articulate their demands, are likely to play a formative role in shaping the way e-government is applied within a particular setting. Perhaps one of the best known frameworks for explaining the interplay between the contextual features and e-government applications is Fountain's "technological enactment framework" (2001). Through this framework, Fountain argues that various internal and external sources of pressure, which are shaped by various contextual features of the environment and organization is operating within, serve to influence the way in which a new technology is adopted; as Yildiz explains Fountain's framework, "technology is customized to the needs and the environment of a specific organization through the process of enacting", where 'enacting' can be considered synonymous with application, and 'the needs' and 'the environment' pertain to the formative influence of the political, social, economic contexts. However, as some have noted, Fountain's "technological enactment framework often overemphasizes the importance of internal contextual features (i.e. inter-organizational politics), and therefore discounts the importance of the role that external contextual features play in influencing the way in which e-government is adopted (Norris, 2003). As internal, as well as external characteristics of the context in which e-government applications are pursued serve to influence the form e-government takes, it also stands to reason that *both* internal and external contextual features will play an important role in influencing the sustainability of one form of e-government policy over another (c.f. Norris 2003).

3. The Role of Context in Influencing the Success of E-Government Applications

An ample body of literature has explored the way in which certain features of an environment influence the sustainability of e-government programs (Garcia and Pardo, 2005). However, to date little to no research has attempted to understand how contextual features serve to influence the sustainability of *certain types* of applications of e-government, such as internal or external oriented.

As e-government matures in practice and in theory, a greater degree of diversity can be found in terms of the ways in which this maturing administrative tool can be, and is applied (see Im et al., forthcoming). Consequently, it is important for research to now specify which contextual factors influence the sustainability of *particular* applications of e-government applications, rather than at an aggregate and general level, as has been most common among previous bodies of literature on the subject. As there has been a limited amount of research that works toward achieving such objectives, this research attempts to determine contextual factors of particular relevance to participatory applications of e-government from among the factors found by existing literature to be of relevance to e-government in general. Of the numerous factors identified in the extant literature concerning the sustainability of e-government programs, three broad categories of such factors- *political*, *social*, and *economic*- are identified. This section has two intentions; (1) to discuss the theoretical and practical relevance for these categories of contextual factors in order to illustrate why their presence or absence matters with regard to influencing participatory applications of e-government, and (2) to identify similarities and differences concerning the presence of these factors in Romania and South Korea.

3.1 The Political, Economic, and Social Contexts of Romania and South Korea

Zanello and Maassen observe that adoption of information and communication technologies, such as e-government, within a given context is often seen as contingent upon the prevalence factors related to infrastructure, literacy, income, and perceived need (2011). Conversely, the authors also argue that a lack of resources, political interference, and poor policy design or implementation serve as major sources of failure (un sustainability) for ICT policies, such as e-government. Marked similarities and differences, with regard to the aforementioned factors, in Romania and South Korea make a comparison of participatory e-government application in these two nations particularly interesting.

3.2 Similarities

Romania and South Korea both began their democratic transitions in the late 1980s, with Romania's beginning in 1989, and South Korea's in 1987. Today, democracies in both nations are recognized as free and fully functional (Freedom House, 2011). The political systems adopted at the period of transition and, which remain to this day, bear resemblance to each other in that they both have adopted semi presidential political structures. Moreover, in both nations, the office of the president is typically viewed as more powerful than other branches of government, such as the legislative and judicial branches, as well as other positions in government, such as the prime minister. These similarities, which are related to the political structures in both nations, imply that internal sources of pressure charged with influencing e-government programs (i.e. resources or political interference) will be similar relative to other governments (c.f. Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004). Furthermore, given the similar political structures of these nations, the way in which internal actors articulate their demands are also likely to be similar, thereby implying the likelihood that inter-organizational politics will play out in a similar fashion in both contexts (cf. Peters, 1998). Finally, given the strength of the executive branch vis-à-vis other branches of central government, as well as the unitary system of government found in both nations, similar formal oversight (accountability) mechanisms will be present at central, regional, and local levels of government, which together serve to influence bureaucrats' use of discretion during the formative implementation stage of e-government applications (Walker et al., 2011).

In addition to similar political structures, a further similarity to remark upon concerns the influence of culture on citizens' predispositions toward political participation. Both Romania and South Korea, for most of the 20th century, were governed by authoritarian governments. In the case of Romania, the Romanian Communist Party, which came into power shortly after World War 2 and remained at the helm until 1989, pursued a series of policies that served to drastically increase the power of the state vis-à-vis non government actors, which in turn also triggered substantial reductions to levels of civic engagement (Fukuyama, 2001; Badescu and Sum, 2005). Research by Uslander has found that, while Romania began its democratic transition in the early 1990s, due to such state centric policies pursued by the Romanian Communist Party, levels of civic engagement and citizen participation in government still remain low when compared to other western nations (2004). South Korea also has a long history of state centric political culture, which is largely influenced by Confucian Philosophy and

more *Koreanized* manifestations of Confucian principles, such as *sil-hak*, which likened the role of good government to that of a caring parent, and the role of the citizens to that of an obedient child (cf. Sen, 1997). This perspective on the relationship between citizens and their government has contributed toward traditionally low levels of civic engagement and citizen participation in government in South Korea¹. These tendencies endured long into the twentieth century, in part thanks to a series of authoritative generals who autocratically governed the nation from the early 1960s to the late 1980s. Only in the mid 1990s, due to government actively funding various not for profit groups in order to deepen democratic reforms, did levels of civic engagement and citizen participation increase. However, when compared to levels of civic engagement and (non-voting) participation in western nations, South Korea remains relatively low.

A final similarity concerning social contexts of Romania and South Korea, which bears particular influence upon participatory e-government applications, is age. Previous research that has sought to uncover a relationship between age and political values typically reveals a significant divide between younger generations and older generations, viewing younger generations as more participative than older generations of citizens. Further, as democratic values in the societies of the two countries examined in this study are relatively recent in their proliferation, it is also likely that the prevalence of younger generations within the contexts of Romania and South Korea is likely to be conducive to more participatory applications of e-government, as younger citizens of these countries are likely to have been socialized in societies espousing democratic values. A final point related to the importance of the age structure of a society when assessing participatory e-government applications, is that this factor is commonly highly correlated to overall Internet use within a particular context (Lee, 2003). The median age in Romania and South Korea is nearly identical, with the median age in Romania estimated to be 38.7, while in South Korea 38.4 (CIA World Fact book, 2011). It should also be noted once again that, in consideration of the fact that both nations began their democratic transition at similar times, both populations are likely to have been socialized in relatively similar political environments.

3.3 Differences

While many of the similarities mentioned above can be conceived of as attributable to factors related to culture and age structures, differences primarily concern the economies and presence of IT infrastructure in the two nations. With respect to differences between Romania and South Korea, perhaps the most poignant concerns the economies of the two nations, with the South Korean economy estimated to be nearly three times as large as the Romanian economy. Subsequently, per capita gross domestic product is also very different between the two nations, with a South Korean citizen's being nearly three times that of their Romanian counterpart. This disparity bears significant implications to the purpose of this research for three reasons.

First, it suggests a substantial difference between the Romanian government's ability to fund e-government programs and the ability of the South Korean government. As resources are more scarce it is less likely that government will divert funds to entirely new projects, but rather focus available funds on existing processes in hopes of making them more efficient. Furthermore, as government funds are limited, their use is likely to stimulate greater debate.

Second, the difference in the size of the economies of Romania and South Korea also implies that citizens' ability to afford important prerequisites for e-government use, such as computers and Internet subscriptions, are also likely to differ (cf. Zanello and Maassen, 2011). To this end, external pressures (social) for participatory applications of e-government in Romania and South Korea are likely to differ in kind.

Third, between Romania there is a sharp difference with regard to broadband penetration. In Romania, broadband penetration, as of 2010, was estimated at 13.96 connections per one hundred citizens, whereas in South Korea this figure was substantially higher, at 36.63 subscriptions per one hundred

¹ An additional factor that should also be noted concerns Japan's occupation of South Korea.

citizens (ITU, 2011). This difference primarily speaks to broader disparities between the two nations, regarding the prevalence of ICT infrastructure, as ICT infrastructure in Romania has consistently been evaluated as underdeveloped, while the ICT infrastructure of South Korea is often seen as highly developed (UNPAN, 2010). To this end, the prospect of enhancing participatory applications e-government in a context such as Romania, may be financially prohibitive, as pursuing such applications of e-government are likely to first require large investments into ICT infrastructure.

4. Case Study: A Comparison of participatory e-gov projects in Romania and South Korea

The cases chosen for comparison by this research are the *www.e-guvernare.ro* (e-guvernare) portal by the Romanian government and the *government 4 citizen project* (G4C) by the South Korean government. These programs were chosen for the following three reasons.

First, both programs exhibit an external orientation in that they intend to solicit greater citizen use of and participation in government services by making use of e-government. *Second*, both programs intend to introduce mechanisms to enhance external accountability and transparency to the public. *Third*, both programs also intended to include a service component, shifting services that at one time could only be obtained in person, to an online format, where citizens were able to obtain such services without leaving their home or office. The G4C project launched by the South Korean government is largely considered as a success while the e-guvernare project launched by the Romanian government is considered to have been unsuccessful (Popescu, 2010). Bearing in mind the theoretical discussion in the previous sections, as well as the similarities and differences of Romania and South Korea, a more detailed assessment of these two programs is made.

4.1 The 'E-Guvernare' Project of the Romanian Government

Launched in 2003, the intent of the e-guvernare project is to “reduce bureaucratic administrative barriers and simplify [citizen] access to [government] information and services” (*www.e-guvernare.ro*, 2011). Through this objective, policymakers hope to increase levels of external transparency and accountability of government processes in order to reduce levels of corruption (Ion, 2008). Taken together, these points constitute part of a broader reform agenda referred to as the “desk reform”. The overarching objective of this reform agenda is to make use of participatory applications of e-government in order to enhance the degree to which government bureaucracy is efficient, increase the numbers of citizens who are able to interact with their government, and enhance the frequency with which citizens interact with their government (*www.e-guvernare.ro*, 2011). As such, the e-guvernare project’s agenda possesses dual objectives of increasing citizen participation in administrative processes and also enhancing the efficiency with which government processes operate, implying both an internal and external orientation. The e-guvernare project falls under the supervision of the Agency of Information and Society Services (ASSI), which itself falls under the purview of the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (MCTI).

Sources of support for the e-guvernare project were broad initially, and came from those within the Romanian government, as well as from those outside of it, such as citizens. Moreover, an important point to note is that the e-guvernare reform project was heavily influenced and supported by the European Union. However, while the program may have enjoyed a broad range of support, a key problem with regard to e-government in Romania in general, according to Zahan and Costake (2007) is that details of e-government reform bills were modified and amended frequently, a phenomenon which, while not unique to Romania, is often found to diminish the likelihood of success of e-government projects (Heeks, 2003). Building upon this point, it should also be noted that much of the legislation addressing e-government issues in Romania has come after the e-guvernare portal was launched (Silvestru et al., 2009). The points outlined above suggest that e-government projects in Romania are likely to either be subjected to a great deal of political dealing between ruling and opposition parties, or a tendency of the Romanian government to quickly implement e-government projects without a careful assessment of necessary prerequisites. Under both scenarios, a coherent

picture in terms of how the e-governare portal intends to achieve its ambitious agenda is missing, as is the presence of a well thought out plan. Generally, while the e-governare portal's objectives were ambitious this project is cited as a failure (Sandor, 2006). Among the potential reasons contributing to the lack of success experienced by the e-governare project, three factors in particular can be identified. Referring to the framework outlined in the literature review of this article, these three interrelated factors can be primarily attributed to the actions of internal, as well as external actors, and related to economic, political, and social features.

The first factor which may be attributed to the e-governare's lack of success concerns failed attempts to integrate back end and front end systems. Dana Popescu of the ASSI, one of the bodies responsible for the functioning of the e-governare project, explains, "Taxpayers were given digital certificates issued by ASSI, which although they have taken, they could not use. The reality was that they did not have protocols with National Agency for Tax Administration, House of unemployment, etc... In fact at that time I was told that the system cannot handle work and data traffic over older servers by National Electronic System" (2010). While measures were taken, such as the creation of the NES to enhance interoperability between the front end and back end systems, the above quotation by Popescu suggests that such attempts to enhance interoperability were negated due to a lack of interoperability of backend processes. Without first pursuing interoperability of backend processes among various agencies whose services were migrating online, it is of little surprise that interoperability between front end and back end processes faltered as well. As is illustrated by the following point, the lack of interoperability can ultimately be attributed to economic factors.

The second factor contributing to the lack of success experienced by the e-governare program can be attributed to a fundamental lack of infrastructure necessary to make such initiatives work. Sandor, citing a study on e-government readiness published by the Economist Intelligence Unit in 2006, has argued that the infrastructure necessary to support e-government initiatives is largely under developed (2007). Indeed, such themes are present throughout much of the literature assessing e-government in Romania (Sandor, 2006; Sivestru et al., 2009). Broadly, this absence of infrastructure, as was explained earlier can be considered as related to economic factors. Thus, the ensuing question is why such an ambitious e-government project would be pursued by the Romanian government in the absence of necessary economic factors, such as infrastructure.

The answer to the above question may be found in *the third factor* that we may attribute to this project's lack of success, which concerns politics. Given that Romania is a member of the European Union, the politics influencing e-government adoption involve two levels of actors; those at the EU level, and those at the domestic level. Recalling the benefits e-government adoption is said to have on consolidation of democracy, the European Union has been a firm advocate of participatory applications of e-government in new member states of Central and Eastern Europe (Rentea et al., 2008; Silvestru et al., 2009). In this case, as Romania is the recipient of various forms of European Union grants and support, domestic politicians and government officials (internal actors) are charged with the task of placating the demands of the European Union officials (external actors). Given the relationship between the internal and external actors, it appears likely from the above discussion that the decision to implement such an ambitious participatory application of e-government, without first ensuring the fulfillment of necessary prerequisites by Romanian politicians, could be attributable to their over eagerness to pacify the demands made by European Union officials, and ostensible lack of concern related to the success of the e-governare portal. This explanation finds support from the flurry of amendments and legislation that occurred *following* the implementation of the e-governare portal, suggesting that this major project was implemented without a great deal of planning. To this end, and within the framework of economic, political, and social categories of factors outlined earlier, what is suggested by the above discussion is that while *poor infrastructure*, which we consider an *economic factor* largely contributed to the lack of success of this project. Without sufficient infrastructure, the interoperability of front and end back end processes became a major issue. The decision to apparently *not account for necessary economic prerequisites* to achieve such an ambitious e-government project,

as well as the *absence of a coherent strategy, was a political one*, and likely related to Romanian officials' perceived need to fulfill the demands of European Union officials.

4.2 The G4C Project of the South Korean Government

“The G4C project arose from the need to provide a better set of services to the public, as well as increase administrative efficiency and transparency” (Ministry of Public Administration and Safety, 2011). Launched in 2000, the G4C project, like the e-guvernare project of Romania, intended to improve the efficiency with which government interacted with citizens, while at the same time soliciting greater citizen use of public services, suggesting both an internal and external orientation of the project. However, G4C project differs from the e-guvernare project in its overarching ambition, in that while the e-guvernare project was to serve as a component of an overarching reform agenda, the G4C project was pursued by the Korean government in an effort to enhance Korea's competitive capacity with respect to public service delivery (Ministry of Public Administration and Safety 2011).

While the G4C project was officially launched in 2000, the Ministry of Public Administration and Safety began preparations for such a project from the early 1990s, largely focusing upon the importance of developing infrastructure needed to sustain the delivery of services online. To this end, the Korean Ministry for Public Administration and Safety explains that before initiating the G4C project, which targeted improving the quantity and quality of citizen interaction with their government, great efforts were made internally to first assure that back end processes of different offices could support interacting with each other. Following the interoperability of back end processes, front end processes were progressively, albeit conservatively targeted. Implementation of the G4C was primarily left to the Ministry of Public Administration and Security.

The G4C project enjoyed sustained support by internal actors such as politicians and public officials, as well as external actors found throughout society. However, organization of the G4C project was mainly pursued by the state bureaucracy, largely independent from external actors and interference of politicians. To this end, a coherent long term strategy can be found with respect to the G4C project; for example the Ministry of Public Administration and Security outlines the developmental timeline of the G4C project in terms of 3 stages that span nearly 15 years, with citizen oriented processes only being pursued full heartedly in the last stage (Ministry of Public Administration and Security, 2011). Thus, while Romanian e-government project appear to be marked by a much hastier approach, the Korean approach appears to be relatively cautious and strategic. Today the G4C project is typically viewed as a great success. Among the factors attributing to the success of this project, three factors are identified as particularly important. Referring to the framework outlined earlier in the literature review of this article, these three interrelated factors can be primarily attributed to the actions of internal actors and related to economic and political factors.

The first factor related to the success of the G4C project is attributable to *a long term perspective* with respect to planning then implementing to the G4C project. While the G4C project came into the spotlight only over the past five years or so in South Korea, preparations for this project can be found as far back as 15 years ago. As such, this long term perspective exhibited by the South Korean government with respect to its implementation of the G4C project suggests that the *Korean government viewed the G4C project as an investment as opposed to a reform*. Indeed, the fact that the government saw the G4C project as a means of enhancing national competitiveness speaks to this fact in particular. Furthermore, an emphasis was placed upon identifying prerequisites perceived as necessary to the project and then establishing strategies for fulfilling such prerequisites. To this end, while little of the needed infrastructure for the implementation of such an ambitious e-government was present at the conception of the G4C project, the need to cultivate such infrastructure, as well as plans to develop it in order for its implementation were heavily emphasized in the strategy underlying the G4C project (Korean Ministry of Public Administration and Security, 2011).

The second factor attributable to the success of the G4C project is related to ensuring the interoperability of back end processes, before working towards furthering the interoperability of front end and back end processes. This factor is related to ensuring that needed infrastructure is present

before attempting to incorporate citizens into administrative processes, as well as to the careful establishment of a segmented strategy of implementation. Through emphasizing the development of adequate infrastructure, the Korean government was able to ensure that various areas of government possessed the tools needed to interact with each other, thereby establishing a foundation for the eventual creation of participatory applications of e-government, such as the G4C project.

The third factor which contributed toward the success of the G4C project is related to the political environment in which the G4C project was carried out in. As mentioned earlier, responsibility for the G4C project largely fell under the purview of the Ministry of Public Administration and Safety, which is answerable primarily to the office of the president, as well as the parliament. Interestingly, the Ministry of Public Administration and Security experienced very little interference from politicians in Parliament, but did experience significant adjustments as presidential administrations changed. This is relevant for two reasons. First, given the five year terms served by presidents in South Korea, this could imply that the G4C program, as well as the reforms aiming to improve its performance, exhibited relative continuity. Secondly, and also related to continuity, is that very few sources for adjustments to the G4C project were present, those being bureaucrats inside of the Ministry of Public Administration and Security, as well as the President. This continuity very likely contributed toward the ability to develop and execute long term initiatives.

Referring back to the framework of economic, political, and social categories of factors outlined earlier, the Korean case appears quite different from the Romanian case, despite the ostensible similarities between these two nations with respect to these three categories of factors. Concerning economic factors, while Romania attempted to implement a participative e-government project and develop infrastructure to support this project at the same time, Korean officials appear to have worked hard in ensuring that the G4C project was only made participative once necessary infrastructure was present. Moreover, in the process of ensuring the presence of infrastructure, the government was also able to enhance the interoperability of back end processes, thereby facilitating eventual citizen participation. Regarding political factors, the reason the government was not forced to rush into implementing a participative e-government project may be attributable to a more streamlined decision making process, thereby speaking to a relative absence of politics from the decision making process related to the G4C project in Korea.

5. Implications

Notably, contextual factors found to contribute to the success or failure of the e-governare and G4C projects are largely unrelated to the social category of factors. What the above comparison suggests is that for social factors to contribute to the success or failure of a participatory e-government project, consistency and long term perspectives are essential. While external social forces may play an indirect role in influencing the adoption of long term perspectives and consistency, the role of economic factors and political factors have much more of a direct influence upon the adoption of long term perspectives and consistency of participatory e-government applications. Subsequently, these two categories of factors are likely to play a decisive role in determining the outcomes of participatory applications of e-government, at least in the immediate term.

As was illustrated by the comparison above, *planning* plays an important role in influencing the success of participatory e-government applications in particular, and perhaps e-government more generally. In the case of the G4C project, planning and execution largely was left up to a single internal actor, The Ministry of Public Administration and Security. Conversely, in Romania planning and execution of the e-governare project was spread across various internal actors, thereby contributing to a lack of consistency, and also making the formulation of a single coherent vision for the project more difficult. Further complicating the picture was the involvement an external actor, the European Union, which possessed great influence over the planning and implementation of the project, and also served as a source of pressure on Romanian officials, who at the time were eagerly pursuing the prospect of accession to the European Union.

Also suggest by the comparison between the G4C and e-governare projects is that in order for infrastructure to be developed and interoperability enhanced, the development of infrastructure must be marked as an area of strategic importance by politicians, perhaps even more so in less economically developed contexts. As such, this point also implies that timelines for the implementation of participatory applications of e-government are best considered from a long term perspective; particularly in contexts where resources are scarce, such as Romania. As was the case in South Korea, participatory applications of e-government were signaled by politicians and bureaucrats as *a long term objective* and as such, politicians and bureaucrats in the Korean government first concerned themselves with satisfying associated necessary pre-requisites first, as opposed to simultaneously pursuing both objectives. Indeed, evidence of this point can be found from government documents dating back as far as 1995, a point in time at which South Korea's economy was considerably smaller than it is today (Ministry of Public Administration and Security, 2011). At this time, acknowledging limited resources, but also acknowledging the desire to use information and communications technology as a means of enhancing levels of citizen participation, the government pieced together what it viewed as a gradual, yet achievable plan. Often times, international organizations tend to push for rapid adoption of participatory applications of e-government in an effort to consolidate and enhance the quality of democracy. Such arguments are applied indiscriminately by international organizations to wealthy and poor nations alike (UNPAN, 2010). In the case of Romania, the European Union played an important if not decisive role in accelerating Romania's adoption of a participatory e-government program, when in fact such course of action appears to not only have been ineffective in achieving enhancements to democracy, but also resulted in the inefficient use of resources.

A final point that bears mentioning here and which again relates to political and economic factors concerns the way in which benefits associated with participatory applications of the e-government applications were framed by the actors involved. In the case of South Korea, the G4C project was argued by its founders to serve as a primary means of enhancing government competitiveness via enhanced provision of public services, which in turn would stimulate economic benefits. As such, the objective of the G4C was framed in narrow terms, and associated with set of tangible benefits, in addition to various intangible benefits. By contrast, the e-governare project framed its benefits in more ambiguous, less tangible terms, ranging from European Union accession, to enhanced democracy, to happier citizens. Subsequently, the way in which benefits associated with the e-governare project in Romania were more open to debate, and therefore frequent change. Consequently, maintaining a coherent vision for the project proved difficult. The point suggested here is that the way in which the benefits associated with participatory applications of e-government are framed are likely to have a major influence upon the political context the application is implemented in. To this end, vague sets of benefits may enhance the extent to which political debate occurs over such projects, whereas more concrete and specific benefits may be more difficult to debate and translate into greater consistency and simply the formulation of a long term plan.

6. Conclusion

This research contributes to e-government research in two ways. First, this research has attempted to better understand conditions conducive toward the viability of participatory applications of e-government. At present, literature related to e-government has treated the concept of e-government as an aggregate concept, yet with the passing of time and the advancement of technology applications of e-government are becoming more diverse, thereby requiring scholars to focus their research upon particular applications of e-government in order to be useful. Moreover, given the widespread calls for greater participatory applications of e-government, comparative research addressing successful and less successful participatory applications of e-government is much needed. In comparing the cases of participatory e-government projects in Romania and South Korea this research suggests that long term planning, which is related to a nations political context, is fundamental to the success of this variety of e-government projects. From long term planning factors associated with the nation's economic context

can be better accommodated and necessary pre requisites met in a feasible fashion, thereby ensuring the viability of eventual citizen participation. Conversely, participatory applications are likely to be prone to failure if they are rushed. Moreover, the successful creation of such a long term plan is likely to be associated with the way in which benefits stemming from participatory applications of e-government are framed. To this end, the more concrete and unambiguous, the better.

The second contribution of this research to existing literature is that this research builds to the existing body of knowledge related to e-government in Romania, which is under researched in the English language. Moreover, this research compares e-government in Romania to that of South Korea, a nation well known for its e-government. Through such a comparison, it is possible to how differences and similarities between the two cases contribute toward to the successful adoption of participatory e-government applications within the two nations. The findings resulting from such a comparison are fairly intuitive and possess a universal nature, implying that they should also be easily generalizable to participatory applications of e-government throughout various contexts, ranging from wealth advanced nations to those with fewer resources.

7. References

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