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CONTENT

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THE TRUTH ABOUT FLAT-RATE INCOME TAX IN ROMANIA

Claudiu DOLTU[1]

Abstract: *This article is about the 'Myth' of the flat rate income tax in Romania. It is not meant to add another argument for the 'pros' or for the 'cons' (the flat rate income tax or progressive income tax debate). It is simply a reality check of the Income Tax system Romania adopted in early 2006, which started and maintained not only many academic, but also even stronger public policy debates ever since. This article shows that accepting a necessary basic distinction between the nominal and the effective tax rate ends any 'debate' on the subject. Why? Because Romania never had and still does not apply a flat rate income tax, but a progressive income tax rate. The study uses data from 2012 and 2018 and shows how eight effective tax rates and not a single income tax rate were applied in 2012 and five effective income tax rates exist today.[2] These evidences were always available not just for the experts and public policy decision makers, but also for the public. They were and still are simply ignored on the background of a misleading ideological noise.*

Keywords*: fiscal policy, income tax, progressive taxation, nominal tax rate, effective tax rate, tax burden, government budget, redistribution, efficiency, equity.*

Background: Creating a false problem

Since the marginal income tax rate has been reduced to 16 percent and the same 16 pecent was applyed to the profit tax (early 2006), strong critiqe never ended against a so-called fully fledged income tax rate in Romania. The main contesting argument is rather ideological than economic. The relatively low income tax rate was and is still considered unappropriate, injust and quite imoral as taxation is viewed merely as an instrument of social justice. This is the ideological origin of the contesting. Nothing wrong with it as long as it would be transparentely assumed. Unfortunately, this is not the case. The critique is presented from the perspective of the relatively low level of the government revenue stated as percent of the GDP. Historically, Romania's government

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[2] Some changes of the tax system were adopted in 2018, when the wage and profit tax rate were reduced from 16 percent to 10 percent. These changes also affected the social contributions (unemployment, pension, etc.), health contributions as well as the brackets for basic deductions.

revenues didn't exceed 30 percent of the GDP, significantly lower compared with the EU average (40 percent).[1]

In essence, this view favours the higher level of taxation to ensure additional government revenues and the progressive taxation to enhance social justice. The main argument for higher tax rates is the government's need for additional resources in order to provide more goods to its citizens (education, health, pensions, social protection, physical infrastructure - public roads, highways, railwails, airports -, public order, judicial system, national defence etc.)

The relatively low level of government revenues stated as percentage of the GDP compared with other EU countries is often used as the main excuse for the relatively low quality of the services the public sector offers to citizens. The envisaged solution would be higher taxes, mainly income taxes (profit, wage etc.), bundeled with progressive taxation. Thus, more government revenue would be secured and social justice would be enhanced.

Reality check: There is no flat rate income tax in Romania

When it comes to taxation, is easy to create a false problem. Taxation is everywhere and always a sensitive issue. The tax system, especially when wages are brought into discussion, generates many emotions. However, besides, passion, it is easy to understand that, in Romania, there was not a single income tax rate after 2006 and that is not the case today. Why? Simply because we indeed apply a single tax rate (16 percent before 2018, and 10 percent after the changes adopted in 2018) to different tax bases.

Box 1. How the income tax is calculated in Romania

From the gross wage the unemployment contribution and the so-called social contributions (pension, and other social contributions) are retained. Then, (only) for some wages –not exceeding a certain level – a „basic deduction"is applied/subtracted (for wages exceeding a certain level the basic deduction does not apply). What remains is called „The Tax Base". On this base the 16 percent or 10 percent tax rate is levied (16 percent between 2006-2017 and 10 percent since 2018 onward) [2].

[1] France, Belgium, Denmark apply the highest tax rates among the other EU countries with total tax revenues above 45 percent of the GDP. Sweden, Finland, Austria, Italy, Greece and Germany are following, with government tax revenue between 40 and 45 percent of GDP. Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Hungary, Croatia, Portugal, Slovenia, UK, Czehia and Poland follow with government tax income between 40 and 35 percent of the GDP. Spain, Cyprus, Estonia, Malta, and Slovakia come after this group with government revenue between 35 and 30 percent of the GDP. Latvia, Lithuania, Bulgaria, Romania and Ireland are at the bottom level of taxation with government tax revenue slightly above 30 percent of GDP (Latvia and Lithuania) and below 30 percent of GDP – Romania, Bulgaria and Ireland. (Eurostat, 2018)

[2] Between 2006-2017, the Unemployment contribution and the Social Contributions represented 11 percent of the gross wage – contributions to the pension was equally shared by the employer and the employee (each covering 10.5 percent of the gross wage) and the Health contribution

A simple game with 16 percent income tax rate (2006-2017)

The Romanian fiscal authorities brake down the gross wage in several (size) categories. Randomly, we consider three individuals with three different gross wages from three different categories (as considered by the fiscal authorities when forecasting the budget revenues). The first individual has a monthly gross wage of RON 1,277. For the second and the third individual, the monthly gross wage is RON 2,808 and RON 6,968 respectively.

The common perception (and the wrong one) is that all these three individuals have to pay to the government the same 16 percent Wage Tax. In fact, they bear three different effective wage tax rates: 12 percent the first individual, 15 percent the second one and 16 percent the third one. Why?

Calculating the effective tax rate for the first individual, the one getting the lowest gross wage:

The Gross Wage (RON 1,277) - Unemployment and Social Contributions (RON 140) – Health Contribution (RON 70) = The Wage Revenue. Then, subtracting the "Basic Deduction" (RON 260) gets the tax base (RON 807).

Applying 16 percent (the nominal wage tax rate) to this tax base gets the amount this person pays to the government: RON 129 (16 percent of RON 807). This is only 12 percent of the Wage Revenue – as defined by the Romanian fiscal authories. Thus, 12 percent is the Effective Wage Tax Rate for the first individual and not 16 percent as most people used to see.

Calculating the effective tax rate for the second individual:

The same calculations for the second individual lead to a different tax base. The gross wage (RON 2,808) – unemployment and social contributions (RON 309) – Health contribution (RON 154) gives a Wage Revenue of RON 2,345. From this amount, a base deduction in amount of RON 150 is subtracted, which gives the tax base (RON 2,195). The wage tax paid to the government is, in this case, RON 351 (16 percent of RON 2,195). The amount paid to the government as wage tax (RON 351) is only 15 percent of the wage revenue. 15 percent is the Effective Wage Tax Rate for the second individual and not 16 percent as most people used to see.

Calculating the effective tax rate for the third individual, the one getting the highest gross wage:

The same definitions and steps/subtractions, applied now for the third individual, with a notable distinction from the previous two gross wages: no basic deduction is applicable. RON 6,968 is considered a high wage and no basic deduction is applied for (gross) wages that exceed a certain level. For this high wage only, the amount paid to

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paid by the employee represented 5.5 percent of the gross wage. The nominal wage tax rate was 16 percent. These rates changed starting 2018. Unemployment, pension and other social contributions increased to 25% of the gross wage (as the full pension contribution was transferred to the employee), and the nominal wage tax rate was reduced to 10 percent.

the government represents 16 percent of the Wage Revenue. 16 percent is the Effective Wage Tax Rate – as for all wages considered high and for which any basic deduction is not applicable.

Few simple evidence: firstly, three individuals from three different brackets of gross wages (brackets are defined by fiscal authorities) pay different amounts to the government. Not only their unemployment contributions and other social contributions are different, but also the effective wage tax rates. Secondly, the higher the wages are, the more the amounts paid to the government as taxes increase (also, when the gross wage exceeds a certain level any basic deduction cease to apply).

The second individual, getting a gross wage of RON 2,808, pays to the government more than the first one who gets a gross wage of just RON 1,277, and the third individual (with a gross wage of RON 6,968) pays more to the government against the second (rich) one.

Table 1. Contributions and taxes to state for three different brackets of gross wages

RON

	First individual (gross wage RON 1,277)	**Second individual (gross wage RON 2,808)**	**Third individual (gross wage RON 6,968)**
Unempl. and Social Contrib.	140	309	766
Health Contribution	70	154	383
Wage Revenue Tax	129	351	931
Total paid to the government	339	814	2080

In other words, the progressive income tax system was well and alive in Romania after 2006, when the 16 percent tax rate was introduced for the most categories of revenues (most relevant and sensitive being wages and profits). It is still in place today.

Nominal vs. Effective Income Tax Rate

People are often misguided by the nominal values of economic data. The rational individuals use real values rather than nominal when evaluating the costs and benefits of their decisions. It is easy to distinguish between real and nominal economic data/variables, such as nominal vs. real interest rates, nominal vs. real GDP. Many people consider these differences. The same is true with the gross wage/income vs. net wage/income. However, it is not the same when it comes to the distinction between the nominal income tax rate and effective income tax rate.

The Effective Income Tax Rate is the ratio between the wage tax paid by the employee and the wage revenue times one hundred. The wage revenue is what remains after the unemployment contribution, social contributions and the health contributions are subtracted from the gross wage. A basic deduction is applied to this wage revenue (for

wages not exceeding a legally defined level). The result is the tax base on which the nominal tax rate (16 percent before 2018 and 10 percent afterwards) is applied.

However, not many people know how their wage tax is calculated. They may pay some attention to their gross wage and to their net monthly wage in absolute amounts (e.g., they may check the balance of their bank accounts to see if they were paid on certain days of the months or many of them are paid in cash). But the details - how much they pay for the future pension or for the social contributions, health, or is any basic deduction applicable for them or where their contributions go? etc. - are most often ignored. Most employees in Romania have a single job. Their wage tax is retained at the source of payment (retained by the employer and paid/transferred to the fiscal authorities). As many do not have other revenue sources (recognized and legally declared), why should they have any concerns on accounting or fiscal details? These characteristics explain, to a large extent, why it is so easy to ignore the difference between the nominal wage tax rate and the effective wage tax rate.

Table 2. Eight Effective Income Tax Rates in 2012

Gross wage (RON)	Social insurances* (RON)	Wage Income (RON)	Deduction (RON)	Wage Tax (RON)	Effective/real income tax rate (%)
658	109	549	280	43	8
700	116	585	280	49	8
800	132	668	280	62	9
928	153	775	280	79	10
1,277	211	1,066	260	129	12
1,599	264	1,335	240	175	13
1,707	282	1,426	230	191	13
1,884	311	1,573	220	216	14
2,808	463	2,345	150	351	15
4,009	661	3,347	0	536	16
5,233	864	4,370	0	699	16
5,967	984	4,982	0	797	16
6,968	1,150	5,818	0	931	16
8,205	1,354	6,851	0	1,096	16
15,700	2,591	13,110	0	2,098	16

Source: Own calculations based on Ministry of Public Finance's data.
** Unemployment, social contributions (pension, etc.) and health contribution.*

In 2012, the Ministry of Public Finance used 14 intervals of revenues to forecast the budget revenues (see Table 1). Using these intervals to calculate the effective wage tax rate is easy to understand that when a single nominal tax rate was levied on the wages, in fact, eight effective wage tax rates existed (Doltu, 2012). The progressive taxation was there, alive and well.

Table 3. Five Effective Income Tax Rates in 2018

Gross wage (RON)	Social insurances* (RON)	Wage Income (RON)	Deduction (RON)	Wage Tax (RON)	Effective/real income tax rate (%)
1,574	551	1,023	470	55	5
1,863	652	1,211	470	74	6
2,085	730	1,356	437	92	7
2,665	933	1,732	298	143	8
3,863	1,352	2,511	0	251	10
5,408	1,893	3,515	0	351	10
6,952	2,433	4,519	0	452	10
8,497	2,974	5,523	0	552	10
10,042	3,515	6,527	0	653	10
11,587	4,055	7,531	0	753	10
13,132	4,596	8,536	0	854	10
14,676	5,137	9,540	0	954	10
16,993	5,948	11,045	0	1,105	10
26,400	9,240	17,160	0	1,716	10

Source: Own calculations based on Ministry of Public Finance's data.
** Unemployment, social contributions (pension, etc.) and health contribution.*

In 2018, the Ministry of Public Finance used 13 intervals of revenues to forecast the budget revenues (see Table 2). Using these intervals to calculate the effective wage tax rate, it is obvious that when a single nominal tax rate was levied on the wages (10 percent) in fact five effective wage tax rates existed. The progressive taxation was still alive and de facto used.

Conclusions

As a progressive wage tax rate is de facto applied in Romania, the debate on progressive vs. flat rate income taxation leads to a dead end. No government would succeed to generate more resources and better serve its citizens simply by changing the fiscal legislation and changing the "Mathematics" of the tax calculations. While the increase of the government revenues could be a reasonable objective of the fiscal policy, more attention should be devoted to the pragmatic elements of the fiscal system and to its economic features.

The progressive character of taxation is by far less important than the understanding of the income tax elasticity. Historically, Romania's tax collecting system is less efficient compared with other EU countries not because a single tax rate is levied on wages (and profits). While it is true that the "rich countries" tax more than "poorer" countries, this does not mean that in order to increase the well-being of a country, the taxation must

be first increased[1]. For sure, this means that to be able to tax more, a government must first make sure that the economy grows first.

There is no such thing as a "Golden Rule" in fiscal policy (one size fits all, or what works well in a country will perform absolutely great in another country). However, some pragmatic features can be identified and used when it comes to increasing government tax revenues.

Good practices around the world show that the efficiency of a tax system can be increased without discouraging the risk taking necessary to develop economic activities. The existing financial structure and the relevance of the large taxpayers are among them. Also, if the incentive structure is not a good one, the informal economy would continue to remain at high levels and the government revenue could not significantly increase.

Easy prediction and the stability of the fiscal legislation are major factors to reduce the uncertainty. A "*Large tax base and lower tax rates*" approach proved to reduce the incentives for tax evading.

Fiscal incentives in the form of various privileges – mainly when arbitrary selecting winners and losers for the future economic activities – proved to be not just costly for the budget, but also a sure way to encourage corruption and rent seeking.

Enhancing the administrative capacity of the fiscal authorities could also increase the efficiency of the tax collection system without necessary operating major changes in fiscal legislation (World Bank, 2012) Before operating any changes in the architecture of the fiscal system and its administrative infrastructure, a political economy mapping could be a very useful instrument in order to identify the necessary allies and opponents to any envisaged changes (Doltu, 2018). Considering the existing conditions of Romania, the 'justice approach' in fiscal policy could very well co-exist with a 'pragmatic approach'.

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[1] At the beginning of the 2000 years, the average levels of taxation in developed countries (35 percent of GDP) were two times higher than in developing countries (17 percent).

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BIASES AND INFLUENCING FACTORS IN RISK PERCEPTION

Virginia ANDREI[1]

***Abstract**: The aims of this paper are to analyze the causes and implications of risk perceptions and to review the theories developed nowadays. One of the main concepts outlined in risk psychology literature is cognitive biases, which refers to cognitive shortcuts used subconsciously by every individual in order to understand a hazardous situation and act upon it. The qualitative research for this study has identified various ways to process risks and various associations made by respondents when talking about the risks perceived in their lives. Some of the answers have been gathered in this paper, which tries to identify connections with well-known biases in risk psychology. Research findings will help in the elaboration of the author's PhD thesis.*

***Keywords:** risk; risk perceptions; cognitive biases; emotions; media.*

Introduction

Studying risks is not only about scientific risk analyses, methods to describe and analyze risks, percentages and mathematical formula. It is also about a subjective perspective, within which risk numbers become feelings or cognitive biases. From a psychological point of view, risks are replaced by fears, are compared to previous experiences and are analyzed using cognitive shortcuts.

Studies of risk perceptions – such as the ones developed by Paul Slovic, Ellen Petters, Alhakami A.S. or Chauncey Starr – do not simply correlate risks with individual and subjective items used by individuals to evaluate risk and but also investigate attitudes and behaviors developed in risk situations and analyze people's reasoning regarding unknown and feared risks. There is also a focus on 'the influencers' involved in risk processing, from the individual level to the societal one (social amplification of risks, specific cultural context, media pressure) (Douglas & Wildavsky, 1982).

The aim of this paper is to outline the main theories and studies carried out over risk psychology, in order for them to be further used in the author's PhD thesis Focus

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group discussions on risk communication were conducted during January and March 2019, as part of the doctoral research.

The author conducted four focus-groups discussion: two in Bucharest and other two in Cluj-Napoca. Every focus-group discussion was held with minimum six participants (six, respectively seven for the discussions in Bucharest and seven, respectively eight for the ones in Cluj-Napoca). Therefore, 28 people were involved in the study. Every discussion was based on 45 questions regarding spontaneous associations to risk, individual or national risks, feelings generated by the risks mentioned, the level of trust in Romanian media, opinions and data known about the risks. There was also a debate on the probability and impact of the democracy decay risk in Romania or the chances for an economic crisis to happen in the next months. The final topics covered referred to risk messages (the participants were asked to assess a risk, starting from a risk message drawn up by the researcher) and to risk scenario (the participants were asked to imagine they are part of a crisis management team and have to communicate to the public on the possibility for an earthquake to happen in the following days).

The discussions lasted about 90-120 minutes and took place at the headquarter of a research institute. The participants were called few days before the agreed fixture for the activity. The researcher did not provide details over the discussions' topic.

Some of the main items investigated were the ways people understood and described risk, as well as the correlations made by respondents with the risks mentioned. Moreover, the author was interested in the respondents' choice for risks (why do they think some risks are more important than others and why the risks mentioned matter for them).

Thus, the article will outline the main theories and studies regarding risk perceptions and will debate over the meaning and applications of concepts like risk, risk perceptions, risk attitude, cognitive strategies and biases used in order to cope with risk situations, by using examples from the author's doctoral research.

Literature Review

Main contributions to risk perception are brought by Paul Slovic's research into intuitive reactions to danger and individual reasoning within risky situation. In a study developed together with Ellen Peters, the authors focus on affect, defined as an emotional stimulus that guide individual reactions to risk: attitudes, behavior, decisions taken in order to face complex, risky or uncertain situations (Slovic & Peters, 2006, p. 322).

Risk as a feeling refers to emotions used intuitively by people in order to estimate risks. For example, anger attenuates risk assessments, while fear amplifies it or makes the individual perceive some risks as being more important than others, even if there is no evidence for such a conclusion. For example, terrorist attacks are commonly feared risks, therefore perceived as important, major, probable to happen even if, according to experts, there are other risks that cause annually more damages than terrorist attacks, such as car accidents (Fischhoff et al., 1978, p. 129).

Other studies conducted by Slovic highlight the correlation between the benefit perceived by individuals and the feelings generated by the risks assessed or managed. In other words, people asses a risk not only by what they think or know about it, but also by how they feel about it or how they felt at a certain point in the past. If their feelings are positive, then the benefits perceived are high. The opposite is true: if the feelings are negative, the benefits perceived are low and the negative consequences are high (Alhakami & Slovic, 1994, p. 323).

Starting from the influence of feelings on individual risk perceptions and attitudes, providing data about beneficial or negative consequences of some risks could change people's perception and reaction to the hazards in question (Slovic & Peters, 2006, p. 324). For example, delivering data through media regarding the positive development on Romania's economy could increase the benefits perceived by people and decrease the negative implications, therefore totally changes people's perceptions on this subject.

Another item taken into consideration regarding perceptions and attitudes towards risks is developed by Chauncey Starr and refers to the voluntary and imposed character of the hazardous situation. In other words, a risk becomes acceptable when it is self-imposed and unacceptable when it is generated by others (Starr, 1969, p. 1235). For example, the risks generated by skiing are not perceives as important or major because it's a leisure activity chosen and assumed by individuals whereas the risks implied by political instability or interstate conflict are totally unacceptable, being generated by external and uncontrolled factors.

A common mistake people make when taking decisions towards risky situations is neglecting risk probability. When there are negative consequences that can have an affective meaning, the chances for the hazard to happen are not taken into consideration. Being insensitive to risk probability could cause exaggerated reactions and decisions to facts that are unlikely to happen (Slovic & Peters, 2006, p. 324).

An integrated approach to risk perception is developed by Slovic and is called the psychometric paradigm. It covers a large number of risks assessed according to the familiarity of the risks and the fears individuals have towards the risks. The psychometric paradigm was drawn up starting from people's opinions and knowledge on risks' magnitude, negative dimension, data gathered through opinion surveys. The paradigm reveals a prioritization of risks, made by individuals, based on their fears and lack of knowledge on risk chances to happen and possible impact on their lives (Slovic, 1987, p. 280-282).

Apart from feelings, socio-cultural dimensions could influence risk perception as well. The social amplification of risk, for example, refers to the route taken by risks in order to have a major negative impact on society and to become feared or highly debated (Kasperson & Kasperson, 2005). Another dimension debates the role played by culture, as a background that generates a positive or negative risk assessment, before the individual understands the hazardous situation (Douglas & Wildavsky, 1982).

Psychology of risk: key definitions

By describing an event or a situation as risky, we refer to possible negative consequences that could affect valuable items for us: our assets, job, or even our friends, family, or our life. Therefore, describing and analyzing risks involves two main dimensions: probability and impact. The first one refers to the chances for the risk event to happen and the second one to the negative outcome of the risk manifestation (Zinn, 2008, p. 14).

This definition doesn't focus on the subjective dimension of risk analysis, which is best represented by individual risk perceptions. Understanding risk perception and its role in analyzing risks is important not only within the scientific approach (which consists in analyzing risks by experts, following certain procedures and methods), but also in the individual one (people assess risk information in their own way, not knowing details about risk analysis processes and methods) (Zinn, 2008, p. 5-6).

Risk perception refers to risk processing, more specifically to individual responses to risk and cognitive strategies used to deal with risk information and to assess the magnitude of the risk, in order to decide regarding the upcoming risk. Without the capacity to scientifically analyze the risks we face, we only use our risk perceptions, together with our intuition.

By cognitive strategies we understand the rational (mental) approach to risk information: trying to make sense of new, uncertain data and to use some of the beliefs and last experiences with similar situations, in order to cope with the new one and make the best decision (Slovic, 2000, p. 10-13).

In most cases, due to lack of time, attention and know-how, we are not capable of processing the risk: to make connections between the pieces of relevant information and to draw proper conclusions. Thus, we use shortcuts to assess risks and to take decisions regarding possible negative consequences, even if we shouldn't always rely on this subjective mechanism (Assailly, 2010, p. 68-72).

The two approaches (rational and subjective) used to process risk information are also called experiential and analytic. The first one is based upon feelings, associations, intuition, unconscious, impulsiveness, whereas the second one consists of data analysis, logic, consciousness, measurements, estimations, memory and attention (Assailly, 2010, p. 10).

In trying to analyze a risky situation, people use their main beliefs and the knowledge that they possess in order to understand the new risk data. They connect the risk event with similar situations from the past, try to identify its causes and consequences, ways to control risk, responsible actors and, finally, they manage to take an informed decision towards the risk (Fischhoff, 1985, p. 21-22).

Using mental shortcuts, people do not manage to cover the real dimension of the risk assessed. Moreover, they become influenced by certain items, used in order to build up an individual defense or prevention mechanism. The most common cognitive biases involved in risk processing are the following:

- spontaneous associations;
- the negative impact of the risk;
- proximity to the risk assessed;
- perception over individual capacity to face the risky situation;
- the emotions revealed by the risk, mostly the negative ones such as fear;
- the risk's extension;
- the trust we have in the ones responsible to manage the risk;
- media coverage over the risk;
- knowledge about the risk or about similar situations (Fischhoff, 1985, p. 24).

Cognitive biases in practice

Spontaneous associations with risk: analyzing biases

The word "danger" was the most mentioned association with risk, together with negative outcomes, damages at a national or individual level and earthquake. The second most mentioned word was "probability" – the fact that the danger is not imminent, it is likely to happen. The less frequently mentioned correlations were opportunity, win, positive outcome, 'no risk, no gain'/ These latter responses indicate that some people, though not many, not only perceived the negative dimension of risk, but also the positive ones.

In order to analyze the answers of respondents, the findings about risk associations have been categorized into informed and emotional ones. Analyzing the spontaneous associations outlined above, we can say that the emotional approach was more present during focus group discussions, given the large number of people who talked about risks in negative terms.

"Something you should not ignore" or 'something that you should avoid" were some of the definitions provided by the respondents. In other words, it means that we should take a decision in order to manage a risky situation. These definitions also reveal risk attitudes towards risk: avoiding or managing loses.

The role of media; the influence of personal and professional experience

Asked about the most important risk for Romania in upcoming years, many opinions have led to educational issues. The risks mentioned were: lots of people are becoming easy to manipulate due to their lack of education, Romania's future is in the hands of today's children, who are not properly educated.

Possible reasons why people thought educational driven risks to be more important than others may be media content shared about this issue, personal experiences (participants offered examples from their own lives) and also the spread of the risk (one of the respondents claimed that the proportion of functional illiteracy affects 40% of the country's entire population).

The wide extent of corruption, the incapacity of politicians to take decisions for the safety of citizens, the political instability and damages brought to democracy are frequently mentioned risks. The details offered on this subject revealed a pessimistic approach regarding Romania's political development, also fuelled by the data known on the subject. This negative perspective may have been influenced by personal opinions, past experiences and also by media coverage on topics like public manifestations, analyses over Government's decisions, over public speeches of our rulers, negative public reactions from EU countries over latest domestic developments. These topics and others were detailed by the ones asked, when talking about the risks from the political field.

People perceived risks differently, in terms of natural disasters, economic issues for them or for the entire country, educational matters. Their opinions seem to be mostly influenced by their profession and every-day activities. For example, one participant, who runs a charity for children, mentioned disease risk as being important for him.

The risk extension

Risks that could have a national impact – such as earthquakes, economic crisis and diseases – were perceived as being more important than others and highly probable by some respondents.

Asked which risks are the most important for them, some participants mentioned risks that could affect a large number of people and prioritized these risks by taking into account only the criterion of how many people might be harmed by the negative outcome.

Perception over individual capacity to face the risky situation

Some participants said that they lacked the capacity to manage risks such as economic crises or political instabilities. Respondents blamed someone else for the development of risk and believed that they could not do anything to improve the situation since the risk had already been widespread at a societal level. Participants also identified as main causes of the risks the latest decisions made by the Government of the country and the political and economic trends in Europe, mostly even in developed EU countries.

There were also people who said it was possible to individually manage the risks. For example, in order to avoid financial collapse, one respondent (with economic studies) claimed that our financial situation, our decisions can influence the economic development of our country.

The difference discovered between the optimists (strong believers in the individual capacity to face the risk) and the pessimists (respondents who did not believe in the role of individual capacity to manage the risk) is their level of knowledge: the optimists are higher educated people, with an interest towards and knowledge of risk, while pessimists have only mentioned negative outcomes of risk, without having detailed knowledge.

Emotions revealed

The risks mentioned by some participants blended into their fears. For example, functional illiteracy was the highest concern of one respondent, not only for himself, but also for the entire country.

Their worries for their future or the country's future were the risks participants prioritized among others. The incapacity of the Government to financially sustain its citizens was one of the risks frequently mentioned by respondents. The discussions began from the actual state of the country, the latest decisions taken by the Government to raise the amount of the wages and pensions and lead to a major perceived risk for Romanians, on a long term, namely the default risk.

There were no positive emotions associated with the risks mentioned. People only referred to fear, concern, disgust, anger, shame when asked to correlate the risks mentioned with an emotion. Moreover, they seemed to mix their opinions about the actual governance with the negative risks' descriptions. The trust people have in authorities and their perceptions of safety and of important issues Romania faces nowadays were also root causes of their arguments, risk evaluations and prioritization.

Knowledge about risk

Asked how they are exposed to the risk mentioned, some of the respondents distinguished between close risks and long-term risks. This ability mostly came from the high level of knowledge owned about political, economic or social reality from Romania or outside the borders.

In some cases, even they heard and read about the risk discussed, their answers were driven by emotions, not by their expertise. This is the case for one of the respondents who firstly defined risk as a probable negative event and afterwards claimed the risk of autocracy to an important one, a direct consequence on a short term, due to the actual political instability, without having logical arguments to sustain it.

Conclusions

One of the most important conclusions of this study is that there aren't risk perceptions only driven by one bias, one rationale, one event or one context. Almost every risk evaluation represents a mix of feelings, knowledge, beliefs about the latest domestic and foreign developments, every-day experiences and professional activities.

Studying risk perceptions is difficult due to the mix of items involved in the process of processing risks. There can be perceptions driven by the context of speaking, the latest news, latest experiences or complaints, issues that could affect participants and also their families and friends on a long term.

Once identified, these perceptions can act as triggers to change misjudgments about the debated risk. Debating over risks shows not only the power of biases over how people think but also their fears and main concerns. There were some cases where the respondents delivered only negative arguments when talking about the most important

risks for Romania's future. They were constantly trying to convince the researcher to believe just how imminent the risk was not only for them, but also for all of us.

There were few participants optimistic about their future and fewer that thought they had the power to individually manage risks. Different levels of knowledge regarding the risks debated and different areas of interests revealed obvious differences in risk perceptions and evaluations. The associations and evaluations made regarding the perceived risks were mostly driven by fears, concerns and less by knowledge and logical arguments.

Last but not least, an in-depth analysis over these research results can reveal a risk perception matrix that can be used for better communicating risks around us, important for our safety and future. Knowing which the associations and the opinions are, that people share about one risk, we can formulate risk messages, using the terms and correlations made by the majority of the target audience.

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DIMENSIONS OF MULTIPLE DEPRIVATION IN ROMA POPULATION – A DESCRIPTION OF THE ROMA ACCORDING TO THE HOUSEHOLD BUDGET SURVEY 2016

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***Abstract**: The current article compares Roma with Romanian population in terms of various dimensions using data from the Household Budget Survey 2016. The current article aims to illustrate the multiple deprivations of the Roma population. The article is descriptive and aims to capture a snapshot of the Roma population using a large dataset. The article finds the traditional structure of the Roma family is preserved with Roma women more likely to be housewives, men more likely to be self employed workers, Roma have a lower educational status and are more likely to be poor.*

***Keywords**: Roma, deprivations, inequalities, poverty, Household Budget Survey 2016*

Introduction

This article compares Roma with the Romanian population in terms of various dimensions using data from the Household Budget Survey 2016. The used method is descriptive analysis by doing simple cross-tabulations.

According to the latest report on Roma inclusion index published by Decade for Roma Inclusion 2005-2015 Secretariat Foundation (2015, p.56) despite an improvement in the situation of Roma in Romania, three-fourths of them live at risk of poverty, and about 40% in absolute poverty[2]. Roma live on 60% less income than the total population, while one-third of them perceive themselves as being discriminated against. Zamfir C. describes in a synthetic manner most of the issues the Roma face: "*they have a poor socio-economic situation, characterized by severe poverty, a marginal position: low education, marginal fluctuating employment, poor living conditions, accentuated by a traditional attitude of discrimination,*

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[2] Data comes from various sources and multiple surveys.

negative image, and a traditional lifestyle which is characterized as a survival strategy in the position of severe and severe poverty marginalization that accentuates separation from the rest of the population." (Zamfir C. in Zamfir E. (eds.), 2015, p.562). Roma that live in Roma communities face multiple deprivations and in fact they live in pockets of multidimensional poverty characterized by: "*low levels of employment, severe poverty, precarious housing conditions, low level of participation in education, marginal access to health care, minimal access to public utilities (water, sewage, electricity), spatial isolation with low level of access to transportation"* (Zamfir C. in Zamfir E. (eds.), 2015, p.562). The majority of Roma live in compact communities at the peripheries of settlements (Zamfir C. in Zamfir E. (eds.), 2015, p.563). Spatial segregation is enhanced by a number of policy related factors: "*returning the houses to their former owners, the increase in the prices of properties, the decrease in the level of salaries, precarious employment with low and insecure earnings, the neoliberal policy of a small state*" (Zamfir C. in Zamfir E. (eds.), 2015, p.563). There is an intergenerational transmission of poverty that remains constant throughout time (Zamfir C. in Zamfir E. (eds.), 2015, p.563). "*The majority of Roma reproduces from one generation to the next a low socioeconomic marginal status, being enclosed in a traditional lifestyle which is adapted to a poverty and marginal position"* (Zamfir C. in Zamfir E. (eds.), 2015, p.566).

Critical data from the official statistics office related to the social inclusion of Roma and their families are often missing, making it difficult to monitor the implementation of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. Data is available through a series of surveys but the surveys have different methodologies making it difficult to monitor the situation of Roma. Data on Roma children and their families are often missing due to several factors:

- First, the Roma children represent a minority which is a vulnerable group (at high risk of poverty) being hard to reach and often living in the outskirts of town/cities or in excluded areas spread over a large territory (some live in compact Roma communities whereas others live in spatially dispersed areas)
- Second, they are often discriminated against and tend to under-report their ethnicity in official statistics such as the Census data[1]or they are integrated in the mainstream population and make themselves invisible for fear of negative associations others may have on their ethnic group
- Third, not all Roma people speak the Romani language
- Fourth, declaring ethnic affiliation is a personal option due to the implementation of Directive 95/46/EC transposed in national legislation Law no. 677/2001 on the protection of individuals with regard to the processing of personal data and free movement[2].

[1] To illustrate these issues, 2011 Census data under-reports the Roma population estimating it at 3.08% of the population whereas data from the Council of Europe estimate it at 8.63% of the population. (Council of Europe, 2012: 20)

[2] The collection of data in regard to ethnicity is prohibited with exceptions, such as: a) when the data subject has expressly given his/her consent for such data processing; b) when the

- Fifth, many governments collect data about the Roma from their national statistics sources such as Census data and there is a huge discrepancy between Census estimates who tend to under-estimate and NGO estimates who tend to over-estimate.

A recent report by Roma Decade (2015) collecting data from various sources lists the main gaps in indicators: "*data are completely missing for special schools, long-term unemployment and homelessness. Recent data disaggregated by gender in housing, health (except access to health insurance) and cross-cutting areas are missing, and baseline data are missing on preschool education, informal employment, last and no employment experience and youth NEETS rate (youth not in school nor in employment), property documents and housing segregation, access to health insurance and discrimination*".

Furthermore, existing data have been collected on a project basis (See Annex 1), surveying the vulnerable groups using a one-time survey design making it difficult to monitor progress on the situation of Roma children and their families.

Methodology

The current methodology builds upon the Household Budget Survey 2016 (HBS) which collects information about households' consumption patterns incomes and work in Romania. The total sample size is 60 569, the sample size or Romanian population is 54 775 and the sample size of Roma population is 1381 of individuals. The sample size for Roma population illustrates that Roma are over-represented in rural areas. Data from HBS has been previously used in a report by the World Bank on "Achieving Roma inclusion in Romania, What does it take?" for the year 2011. The main research question what are the main patterns of inequality between the Roma and Romanians. The analysis will be further developed across other variables in the HBS data such as: level of educational status, occupational status, civil status, the reason of absence from work, professional status, type of contract, if they receive free goods or services from work. The analysis will shed some light on the income poverty status of Roma and whether they are more prone to social assistance than native Romanians.

Based on the Charter of Human Rights we identified the following dimensions of deprivations: health, nutrition, education, living conditions, income/expenditure, employment, cross-cutting indicators, the potential list of indicators can be found in the table below. For some indicators it might be the case that we cannot measure them with the data at hand.

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processing is carried out as part of the legitimate activities of a foundation, association, or of any other nonprofit organization with a political, philosophical, religious or trade union profile, provided that the data subject is a member of that organization or has regular contacts with the organization in its activity profile, and provided that the data shall not be disclosed to a third party without the data subject's consent; and c) when the processing refers to data made expressly public in a clear way by the data subject. This increases the difficulties to have comprehensive statistics. However, it is our task to overcome such barriers, and make available data to serve the interest of the project.

Table no 1. Dimensions of deprivation.

Dimensions of Human Rights and Human Development	Dimensions of deprivation	Potential List of Indicators
Right to health	Health	Life Expectancy, Effective access to health care services, Early pregnancy rates
Right to health	Nutrition	Malnutrition, Hunger, Consumption of protein per week
Equality of opportunities in education access	Education	Educational attainment, education by age, education by area
Right to adequate standard of living adequate nutrition, clothing and housing	Living conditions	Dwelling conditions, no drinking water, no electricity at home, not holding property documents, segregated housing, overcrowding
Right to adequate standard of living	Income/Expenditure	Income sources, Expenditure structure, percentage of Roma children by income quantiles, social assistance benefits
Right to adequate standard of living and support for families, no employment or exploitation of minors	Employment	Informal work, Employment structure by area, Employment structure by working age, Types of contract (temporary, part-time), Unemployment, child labour
EU Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union	Cross-cutting indicators	At-risk of poverty, At-risk of material deprivation, Absolute poverty, Average income,

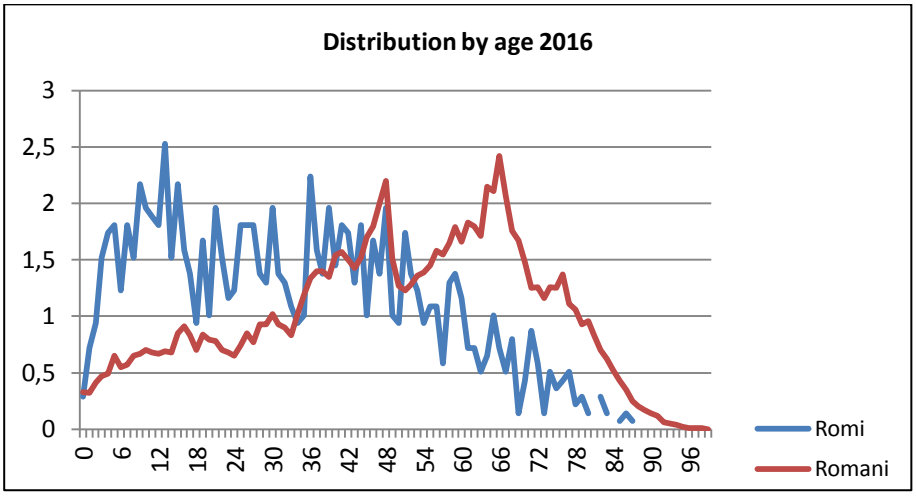
Source: Charter of Human Rights

Results

We find in 2016 data for HBS that Roma have a high birth rate and a lower life span than native Romanians (see Figure 1). The average age of Roma is 33 years old whereas the average age of Romanians is 49, therefore Roma have a relatively young population whereas Romanians started to have an ageing problem of the population. Further we can see that Romanians have an equal distribution between urban and rural areas whereas Roma are more predominant in rural areas.

When we look at the civil status, we find that among Roma, 36% are married, about 12% live in partnership and 42% are single, reflecting the fact that Roma have younger generations and tend towards cohabitation. Among the Romanians, 53% are married, only 3% live in a partnership relationship, 24% live alone and 15% are widows, compared to only 6% of Roma, reflecting a longer life expectancy of Romanians.

Figure 1. Age distribution by nationality



Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016
Notes: In blue Roma, in red Romanians

Table 2. Age summary statistic by nationality

Age	N sample	Average	Standard Deviation	Min	Max
Roma	1381	33.46	20.47	0	87
Romanian	54775	48.76	21.50	0	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 3. Distribution by area and nationality

Area	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Other	Total
	26,960	1,614	513	33	116	29,236
Urban	49.22	39.26	37.15	51.56	48.74	48.27
	27,815	2,497	868	31	122	31,333
Rural	50.78	60.74	62.85	48.44	51.26	51.73
	54,775	4,111	1,381	64	238	60,569
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 4. Civil status by nationality

Civil status	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	29,242	2,116	501	33	134	32,026
Married	53.39	51.47	36.28	51.56	56.3	52.88
	1,556	167	160	2	9	1,894
Partnership	2.84	4.06	11.59	3.13	3.78	3.13

Civil status	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	2,688	163	33	5	10	2,899
Divorced	4.91	3.96	2.39	7.81	4.2	4.79
	8,283	657	86	14	40	9,080
Widow	15.12	15.98	6.23	21.88	16.81	14.99
	12,641	987	581	9	44	14,262
Single	23.08	24.01	42.07	14.06	18.49	23.55
	365	21	20	1	1	408
Separated	0.67	0.51	1.45	1.56	0.42	0.67
	54,775	4,111	1,381	64	238	60,569
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

As we can see from the Table below, the data at hand the Household Budget Survey contains information about 33% household heads, 20% partners, 36% are daughters/sons, 2% are dauthers in law/sons in law, 6% are nephews/nieces and about 1.4% are without any blood relation.

Table 5. Roma household structure

Roma Household structure	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Hosehold head	452	32.73	32.73
Husband/wife/partener	287	20.78	53.51
Daughter /son	491	35.55	89.07
Daughter in law/son in law	28	2.03	91.09
Nephew/nice	78	5.65	96.74
Dad/mother/Mother in law/ Dad in law	5	0.36	97.1
Brother/sister/ brother in law/ sister in law	9	0.65	97.76
Other relatives	10	0.72	98.48
Children in foster care	1	0.07	98.55
Without any blood relation	20	1.45	100
Total	1,381	100	

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

When we look at educational level, we find that among Roma 24-61 years aged, about 8% of the Roma are without any school completed, compared to only 0.26% for Romanians, 36% have completed primary classes compared to 2% for Romanians, 45% of Roma have completed gymnasium, compared with 14% for Romanians, 5% have completed a vocational school compared to 24% for Romanians, only 2% of Roma have completed a high school compared to 31% of Romanians, about 16% of Romanians have higher education, according to ABF, compared with no 1% of Roma. From the data available, it is clear that there are educational deficiencies among Roma. If we further analyze the distribution of the educational level by age and look at it over the generations, we notice that about 7% of the population aged between 25 and 30 have not graduated from a school, compared to about 20% for those over the age of 66, who were educated and worked during communism, but the percentage increases with the aging.

Approximately 35% of Roma aged between 25 and 30 have completed primary classes, compared with 62% of those over the age of 66. Approximately 47% of Roma aged between 25 and 30 have graduated from gymnasium, compared with 14% of over 66. Younger generations are characterized by a higher level of school education, about 3% of those aged between 25 and 30 graduating from high school, compared with 0% of those over 66. By comparison, about 38% of Romanians with ages between 25 and 30 have graduated from high school, compared with 8% among those over 65. About 28% of Romanians aged between 25 and 30 have higher education, compared with only 5% among those over 65 years.

Table 6. Educational attainment by nationality

Educational attainment	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
Without any school completed	2,199	140	251	1	6	2,597
	4.01	3.41	18.18	1.56	2.52	4.29
Kindengartnen	1,252	99	76	1	3	1,431
	2.29	2.41	5.5	1.56	1.26	2.36
Primary school (classes 0 – 4)	5,759	338	477	6	30	6,610
	10.51	8.22	34.54	9.38	12.61	10.91
Gymnasium (classes 5–8)	10,890	1,024	460	17	54	12,445
	19.88	24.91	33.31	26.56	22.69	20.55
Vocational school	10,993	819	46	11	49	11,918
	20.07	19.92	3.33	17.19	20.59	19.68
High-school (class 9th or 10)	3,380	355	40	1	10	3,786
	6.17	8.64	2.9	1.56	4.2	6.25
Highschool (class 11th or 12th / 13th)	12,231	877	25	17	60	13,210
	22.33	21.33	1.81	26.56	25.21	21.81
Vocational school after highschool/tehnic speciality	2,609	196	3	3	1	2,812
	4.76	4.77	0.22	4.69	0.42	4.64
University I (BA studies)	566	45	0	0	4	615
	1.03	1.09	0	0	1.68	1.02
University II (MA studies)	172	16	0	1	3	192
	0.31	0.39	0	1.56	1.26	0.32
University III (PhD)	92	10	1	0	0	103
	0.17	0.24	0.07	0	0	0.17
University long duration (4-6 years)	4,503	188	2	6	18	4,717
	8.22	4.57	0.14	9.38	7.56	7.79
Postuniversity	111	4	0	0	0	115
	0.2	0.1	0	0	0	0.19
PhD /postdoctoral studies	18	0	0	0	0	18
	0.03	0	0	0	0	0.03
Total	54,775	4,111	1,381	64	238	60,569
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 7. Level of educational attainment for 15-61 years aged by nationality

Level of educational attainment for the working age 15-61	Roma-nian	Hunga-rian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	86	6	64	0	0	156
Without any school	0.27	0.25	6.99	0	0	0.44
	10	5	13	0	0	28
Kindengartnen	0.03	0.21	1.42	0	0	0.08
	645	48	305	1	7	1,006
Primary school (classes 0 – 4)	2.02	2.03	33.33	4.35	4.67	2.85
	5,382	438	422	3	26	6,271
Gymnasium (classes 5–8)	16.9	18.54	46.12	13.04	17.33	17.76
	6,731	521	42	3	30	7,327
Vocational school	21.13	22.05	4.59	13.04	20	20.75
	2,861	293	40	1	9	3,204
High-school (class 9th or 10)	8.98	12.4	4.37	4.35	6	9.08
	10,104	718	24	9	55	10,910
Highschool (class 11th or 12th / 13th)	31.72	30.39	2.62	39.13	36.67	30.9
Vocational school after	1,595	121	2	2	1	1,721
highschool/tehnic speciality	5.01	5.12	0.22	8.7	0.67	4.87
	564	45	0	0	4	613
University I (BA studies)	1.77	1.9	0	0	2.67	1.74
	167	16	0	1	3	187
University II (MA studies)	0.52	0.68	0	4.35	2	0.53
	81	9	1	0	0	91
University III (PhD)	0.25	0.38	0.11	0	0	0.26
	3,518	139	2	3	15	3,677
University long duration (4-6 years)	11.04	5.88	0.22	13.04	10	10.42
	102	4	0	0	0	106
Postuniversity	0.32	0.17	0	0	0	0.3
	7	0	0	0	0	7
PhD /postdoctoral studies	0.02	0	0	0	0	0.02
	31,853	2,363	915	23	150	35,304
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 8. Level of educational attainment for the working age 24-61 years by nationality

Level of educational attainment for the working age 24-61 years	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	74	5	57	0	0	136
Without any school	0.26	0.25	7.81	0	0	0.44
	10	5	6	0	0	21
Kindengartnen	0.04	0.25	0.82	0	0	0.07
Primary school (classes	558	39	260	1	7	865
0 – 4)	1.99	1.92	35.62	4.55	5.11	2.8
	3,934	313	326	2	20	4,595
Gymnasium (classes 5-8)	14.06	15.4	44.66	9.09	14.6	14.87
	6,584	512	38	3	30	7,167
Vocational school	23.54	25.18	5.21	13.64	21.9	23.2

Level of educational attainment for the working age 24-61 years	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
High-school (class 9th or 10)	2,268	240	26	1	9	2,544
	8.11	11.81	3.56	4.55	6.57	8.23
highschool (class 11th or 12th / 13th)	8,646	596	12	9	49	9,312
	30.91	29.32	1.64	40.91	35.77	30.14
Vocational school after highschool/tehnic speciality	1,566	116	2	2	1	1,687
	5.6	5.71	0.27	9.09	0.73	5.46
University I (BA studies)	493	40	0	0	3	536
	1.76	1.97	0	0	2.19	1.74
University II (MA studies)	164	16	0	1	3	184
	0.59	0.79	0	4.55	2.19	0.6
University III (PhD)	81	9	1	0	0	91
	0.29	0.44	0.14	0	0	0.29
University long duration (4-6 years)	3,486	138	2	3	15	3,644
	12.46	6.79	0.27	13.64	10.95	11.8
Postuniversity	100	4	0	0	0	104
	0.36	0.2	0	0	0	0.34
PhD /postdoctoral studies	7	0	0	0	0	7
	0.03	0	0	0	0	0.02
Total	27,971	2,033	730	22	137	30,893
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

If we analyze the professional situation of those aged 15-61, about 15% of the Roma are employed, compared to 51% for the Romanians. About 12% of Roma are self-employed workers in non-agricultural fields, compared to 5% for Romanians. Approximately 17% of Roma are self-employed workers in agriculture, compared to 10% for Romanians, about 15% of Roma are unemployed according to the official definition of unemployment (unemployed and looking for a job), compared to 4% for Romanians, 4% of Roma are retired, compared to 10% in the case of Romanians, 5% are pupils, compared to only 6% for Romanians, about 23% of Roma are housewives, compared to only 8% for Romanians and about 6% represent elderly or dependent children , compared with only 2% for Romanians. From the data available, there is a traditional picture of the Roma family with women who are housewives and men who are self-employed workers rather than employees compared to the Romanian family in which both women and men work.

Table 9. Occupational status for people aged 15-61 by nationality

Occupational status in the last 12 months	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
For persons aged 15-61 years						
Employee	16,368	1,187	140	10	75	17,780
	51.39	50.23	15.3	43.48	50	50.36
Entrepreneur	84	4	2	0	6	96
	0.26	0.17	0.22	0	4	0.27

Occupational status in the last 12 months	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
Self-employed worker in non-agriculture activities	1,480	127	111	5	6	1,729
	4.65	5.37	12.13	21.74	4	4.9
Member of a non-agriculture cooperative	11	8	3	0	0	22
	0.03	0.34	0.33	0	0	0.06
Self-employed worker in agriculture	3,116	122	160	0	4	3,402
	9.78	5.16	17.49	0	2.67	9.64
Member of an agriculture association	8	1	0	0	0	9
	0.03	0.04	0	0	0	0.03
	627	45	12	0	3	687
Family help	1.97	1.9	1.31	0	2	1.95
	1,214	92	140	1	4	1,451
Unemployed	3.81	3.89	15.3	4.35	2.67	4.11
	3,120	288	31	5	15	3,459
Retired	9.79	12.19	3.39	21.74	10	9.8
	1,850	167	51	0	5	2,073
Pupil	5.81	7.07	5.57	0	3.33	5.87
	948	66	1	0	7	1,022
Student	2.98	2.79	0.11	0	4.67	2.89
	2,664	230	209	2	24	3,129
House wife	8.36	9.73	22.84	8.7	16	8.86
Other statute (elderly, kindergarten, dependent person, disabled person)	363	26	55	0	1	445
	1.14	1.1	6.01	0	0.67	1.26
Total	31,853	2,363	915	23	150	35,304
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

If we analyze the occupational status without limiting ourselves to the working age group we can see that 17% of the Roma are pupils and only 0.07% are students. We also notice that 8,83% are pensioners, compared with 37% of Romanians, and 17% are house wives, compared to 6% of Romanians. We note that the percentage of people with a different status of dependent person is 15% for the Roma as opposed to 4% for the Romanians.

Table 10. Occupational status in the last year by nationality

Occupational status in the last 12 months	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	16,705	1,206	141	11	75	18,138
Employee	30.5	29.34	10.21	17.19	31.51	29.95
	102	5	2	0	6	115
Entrepreneur	0.19	0.12	0.14	0	2.52	0.19
Self-employed worker in other activities than agriculture	1,515	131	120	5	7	1,778
	2.77	3.19	8.69	7.81	2.94	2.94
Member of a non-agricultural cooperative	11	8	3	0	0	22
	0.02	0.19	0.22	0	0	0.04

Occupational status in the last 12 months	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
Own account worker in agriculture	3,413	133	165	0	4	3,715
	6.23	3.24	11.95	0	1.68	6.13
Member of an agriculture association	8	1	0	0	0	9
	0.01	0.02	0	0	0	0.01
Family help	678	46	12	0	3	739
	1.24	1.12	0.87	0	1.26	1.22
Unemployed	1,230	95	141	2	4	1,472
	2.25	2.31	10.21	3.13	1.68	2.43
Retired	20,098	1,626	122	40	87	21,973
	36.69	39.55	8.83	62.5	36.55	36.28
Pupil	4,817	388	241	3	17	5,466
	8.79	9.44	17.45	4.69	7.14	9.02
Student	948	66	1	0	7	1,022
	1.73	1.61	0.07	0	2.94	1.69
House wife	3,087	257	228	2	26	3,600
	5.64	6.25	16.51	3.13	10.92	5.94
Other statute (elderly, kindergarten, dependent person, disabled person, born in the month of the research	2,163	149	205	1	2	2,520
	3.95	3.62	14.84	1.56	0.84	4.16
Total	54,775	4,111	1,381	64	238	60,569
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

As can be seen in the table below, only 17% of Roma men are employed, 20% are self-employed workers in other fields than agriculture, 22% work are self-employed workers in agriculture, 20% are unemployed and about 6 % of men are either pupils or students. If we analyze the professional structure of women able to work, 46% of women are housewives, 13% are employed, 3% are self-employed in non-agricultural fields, 13% are self-employed in agriculture, 2% are family workers, 10% are unemployed, 3% are retired, 5% are students or 5% are other categories of dependents. Therefore, almost half of the women are housewives, which means that the structure of the traditional family has been maintained.

Table 11. Roma occupational status for people aged 15-61, by nationality and gender

Roma occupational status in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
For people aged 15-61 years			
Employee	83	57	140
	17.93	12.61	15.3
Entrepreneur	2	0	2
	0.43	0	0.22

Roma occupational status in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
Self-employed worker in other fields than agriculture	96	15	111
	20.73	3.32	12.13
Member of a non-agriculture cooperative	3	0	3
	0.65	0	0.33
Self-employed worker in agriculture	103	57	160
	22.25	12.61	17.49
Family help	3	9	12
	0.65	1.99	1.31
Unemployed	95	45	140
	20.52	9.96	15.3
Retired	17	14	31
	3.67	3.1	3.39
Pupil	30	21	51
	6.48	4.65	5.57
Student	0	1	1
	0	0.22	0.11
Housewife	0	209	209
	0	46.24	22.84
Other statute (dependent person)	31	24	55
	6.7	5.31	6.01
Total	463	452	915
	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Of the working men in Romania, about 57% are employees, 7% work in other fields than agriculture, 11% work on their own in agriculture, 5% are unemployed, 8% are retired, 9% are pupils or students 1% falls into another category of dependents in the last 12 months. Of the Romanian women aged 15-61, 46% are employees, 8% are self-employed in agriculture, 3% are family workers, 12% are unemployed, 12% are retired, 9% are pupils, 16% are housewives and 1% fall into another category of dependents in the last 12 months.

Table 12. Romanian Occupational status for people aged 15-61, by gender

Romanian Occupational status in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
For persons with the age 15-61 years			
Employee	8,931	7,437	16,368
	57.02	45.94	51.39
Entrepreneur	58	26	84
	0.37	0.16	0.26
Self-employed worker in other than agriculture fields	1,084	396	1,480
	6.92	2.45	4.65
Member of a non-agriculture cooperative	4	7	11
	0.03	0.04	0.03

Romanian Occupational status in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
	1,741	1,375	3,116
Self-employed worker in agriculture	11.11	8.49	9.78
	5	3	8
Member of an agricultural association	0.03	0.02	0.03
	159	468	627
Family help	1.02	2.89	1.97
	823	391	1,214
Unemployed	5.25	2.42	3.81
	1,231	1,889	3,120
Retired	7.86	11.67	9.79
	951	899	1,850
Pupil	6.07	5.55	5.81
	469	479	948
Student	2.99	2.96	2.98
	2	2,662	2,664
House wife	0.01	16.44	8.36
	206	157	363
Other statute (dependent)	1.32	0.97	1.14
Total	15,664	16,189	31,853
	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Next, we use the data distribution in rural and urban areas as well as by gender and nationality. Among the Roma, we see that in urban areas, about one quarter of the men are employed, 23% work on their own in non-agricultural (industrial or services), 7% self-employed in agriculture, 27% are unemployed, 5% are retired, 6% are pupils or students and 5% are in other categories of dependents. Among women in urban areas, only 18% are employed, 4% work on their own in non-agricultural fields, 3% work on their own in agriculture, 14% are unemployed, 5% are retired, 5% students and 49% are housewives. This means that although they are in urban areas, due to limited opportunities for employment, discrimination or low educational level, the structure of the traditional Roma family is preserved.

Table 13. Occupational status for people aged 15-61, in the urban areas by gender

Urban Occupational status in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
People aged 15 to 61 years			
	42	31	73
Employee	25.3	18.13	21.66
	1	0	1
Entrepreneur	0.6	0	0.3
	38	6	44
Self-employed worker in non-agricultural fields	22.89	3.51	13.06

Urban Occupational status in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
	12	5	17
Self-employed worker in agriculture	7.23	2.92	5.04
	1	0	1
Family help	0.6	0	0.3
	44	24	68
Unemployed	26.51	14.04	20.18
	9	9	18
Retired	5.42	5.26	5.34
	10	7	17
Pupil	6.02	4.09	5.04
	0	1	1
Student	0	0.58	0.3
	0	83	83
Housewives	0	48.54	24.63
	9	5	14
Alt statute (dependent)	5.42	2.92	4.15
	166	171	337
Total	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

In rural areas, a lower percentage of men and women are employed, about 14% of men are employed, 20% work as self-employed , 31% of men work in agriculture, 17% of men are unemployed, a lower percentage than in urban areas, 3% are retired, 7% are students. Among women in rural areas, 9% are employed, 3% work on their own in non-agricultural fields, 19% work on their own in agriculture, 3% are family workers, 7% are unemployed, low compared to urban areas, 2% are retirement, 5% are female and about 45% are housewives. The data shows that, irrespective of urban or rural areas, about half of Roma women are housewives, which means maintaining the structure of the traditional Roma family.

Table 14. Occupational status for people aged 15-61, living in the rural area for Roma by gender

Rural Roma Occupational statute in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
Persons aged 15-61			
	41	26	67
Employee	13.8	9.25	11.59
	1	0	1
Entrepreneur	0.34	0	0.17
	58	9	67
Self-employed in other than agriculture	19.53	3.2	11.59
	3	0	3
Member of a non-agriculture cooperative	1.01	0	0.52
	91	52	143
Self-employed in agriculture	30.64	18.51	24.74

Rural Roma Occupational statute in the last 12 months	Men	Women	Total
	2	9	11
Family help	0.67	3.2	1.9
	51	21	72
Unemployed	17.17	7.47	12.46
	8	5	13
Retired	2.69	1.78	2.25
	20	14	34
Pupil	6.73	4.98	5.88
	0	126	126
Housewife	0	44.84	21.8
	22	19	41
Other statute (dependent person)	7.41	6.76	7.09
	297	281	578
Total	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

If we look at the situation of poverty, about 75% of Roma are at risk of poverty, compared to 20% for Romanians. There is a higher tendency towards Roma poverty, which is due to a higher likelihood of self-employed work, either in agriculture or in non-agricultural sectors, in combination with a traditional family structure, where women are housewives and there is a large number of elders and children in need of care. In addition, about 69% of Roma working are poor, compared to 17% of Romanians in this situation. As a result of a precarious educational situation, working fails to bring the Roma out of poverty. Poverty persists regardless of the professional situation, with only 6% of Roma getting out of poverty by working. Of the Roma who do not work, 75% are poor, compared to 21% of the Romanians in the same situation. Therefore, the inequalities between the Roma and the Romanians appear to be manifested on several levels. Approximately 44% of Roma work, compared with only 49% of Romanians. If among the Romanians the main reasons for not having a job are either retired or having a socially assisted status, with about 35% of Romanians having the same reasons, there is a strong tendency among the Roma to motivate their lack of a job by the fact that women are housewives (21% of Roma), in combination with a larger family of dependent children and elderly people.

Table 15. Poverty by nationality

Poverty	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	44,040	3,372	344	60	199	48,015
No	80.4	82.02	24.91	93.75	83.61	79.27
	10,735	739	1,037	4	39	12,554
Yes	19.6	17.98	75.09	6.25	16.39	20.73
	54,775	4,111	1,381	64	238	60,569
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 16. Poverty among the working poor by nationality

Poverty among the working poor	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
No	20,405	1,358	145	16	89	22,013
	82.95	87.44	31.45	100	93.68	82.37
Yes	4,193	195	316	0	6	4,710
	17.05	12.56	68.55	0	6.32	17.63
Total	24,598	1,553	461	16	95	26,723
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: ABF 2016, own calculations

Table 17. Poverty among those that do not work by nationality

Poverty among those ..	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	20,225	1,742	150	40	101	22,258
No	79.31	78.43	25.17	90.91	77.69	78.12
	5,276	479	446	4	29	6,234
Yes	20.69	21.57	74.83	9.09	22.31	21.88
	25,501	2,221	596	44	130	28,492
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 18. Reasons for absence from work

Reasons for missing from work	Romanian	Hungarian	Roma	Germans	Others	Total
	24,598	1,553	461	16	95	26,723
He/she worked	49.1	41.15	43.61	26.67	42.22	48.4
	308	31	2	0	0	341
Absent from work	0.61	0.82	0.19	0	0	0.62
He/she found work and will	14	1	1	0	0	16
start activity subsequently	0.03	0.03	0.09	0	0	0.03
Is looking for work/	1,230	115	136	2	4	1,487
unemployed	2.46	3.05	12.87	3.33	1.78	2.69
	2,709	226	48	0	12	2,995
Pupils or students	5.41	5.99	4.54	0	5.33	5.42
Retired – age limit, illness,	17,743	1,560	119	40	87	19,549
invalidity, survivor, social assistance	35.42	41.34	11.26	66.67	38.67	35.41
	3,063	255	225	2	26	3,571
Housewives	6.11	6.76	21.29	3.33	11.56	6.47
	434	33	65	0	1	533
Other reasons	0.87	0.87	6.15	0	0.44	0.97
	50,099	3,774	1,057	60	225	55,215
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

If we analyze the professional situation of people aged 15-61 we can see that about 51% of Roma do not work, compared to 31% of Romanians. Among the Roma, there is a greater tendency not to work, and if they do work, they work on their own account either in agriculture or in non-agricultural fields. As a result of the low level of school education, Roma tend to work on their own account. Out of the workforce, about 15% of Roma are employed, compared with 51% of Romanians, 15% work on their own in non-agricultural fields, compared to only 5% for Romanians, 17% of Roma work on their own in agriculture, compared to 10% of Romanians, and about 2% work to support their family, 3% in the case of Romanians.

Table 19. Roma the educational level attained by generations

Roma the educational level attained	<7 years	7-14 years	15-18 years	19-24 years	25-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61-65	>=66	Total
Without any school	144	23	2	6	8	16	20	12	5	15	251
	76.19	11.17	2.67	4.58	6.9	7.51	10.31	9.09	9.8	20.27	18.18
Kindergarten	45	17	5	3	2	1	0	1	0	2	76
	23.81	8.25	6.67	2.29	1.72	0.47	0	0.76	0	2.7	5.5
Primary school (classes 0 – 4)	0	110	20	42	41	66	73	56	23	46	477
	0	53.4	26.67	32.06	35.34	30.99	37.63	42.42	45.1	62.16	34.54
Gymnasium (classes 5–8)	0	50	28	68	55	102	80	48	19	10	460
	0	24.27	37.33	51.91	47.41	47.89	41.24	36.36	37.25	13.51	33.31
Professional school (vocational school)	0	0	4	2	5	10	12	9	3	1	46
	0	0	5.33	1.53	4.31	4.69	6.19	6.82	5.88	1.35	3.33
Highschool (classes 9 or 10)	0	6	7	6	4	11	4	2	0	0	40
	0	2.91	9.33	4.58	3.45	5.16	2.06	1.52	0	0	2.9
Highschool (class 11-12/ 13)	0	0	9	4	0	5	3	4	0	0	25
	0	0	12	3.05	0	2.35	1.55	3.03	0	0	1.81
Post high-school technical school	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3
	0	0	0	0	0.86	0.47	0	0	1.96	0	0.22
University III (PhD)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.52	0	0	0	0.07
University long duration (4-6 years)	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
	0	0	0	0	0	0.47	0.52	0	0	0	0.14
Total	189	206	75	131	116	213	194	132	51	74	1,381
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 20. Romanian educational level attained y generations

Romanian educational level attained	<7 years	7-14 years	15-18 years	19-24 years	25-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61-65	>=66	Total
Without any completed school	1,894	116	4	7	12	29	18	14	3	102	2,199
	67.86	3.52	0.23	0.29	0.39	0.39	0.21	0.16	0.05	0.96	4.01
Kindergarten	897	300	0	0	0	4	3	4	2	42	1,252
	32.14	9.11	0	0	0	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.4	2.29
Primary school (class 0 – 4)	0	1,452	12	30	48	131	129	326	387	3,244	5,759
	0	44.11	0.7	1.26	1.58	1.74	1.48	3.63	6.72	30.62	10.51

Romanian educational level attained	<7 years	7-14 years	15-18 years	19-24 years	25-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61-65	>=66	Total
Gymnasium (class 5–8)	0	1,177	290	251	370	1,030	1,013	1,811	1,517	3,431	10,890
	0	35.75	16.98	10.52	12.18	13.68	11.66	20.15	26.34	32.38	19.88
Professional school	0	8	96	212	389	1,366	2,293	2,967	1,876	1,786	10,993
	0	0.24	5.62	8.89	12.8	18.14	26.39	33.02	32.57	16.86	20.07
Highschool (class 9 or 10)	0	239	310	160	178	610	892	569	185	237	3,380
	0	7.26	18.15	6.71	5.86	8.1	10.27	6.33	3.21	2.24	6.17
Highschool (class 11 or 12 / 13)	0	0	972	1,121	1,009	2,439	2,857	2,069	949	815	12,231
	0	0	56.91	46.98	33.21	32.39	32.88	23.02	16.48	7.69	22.33
Post high-school vocational eduction/ technical school	0	0	9	117	216	484	436	439	445	463	2,609
	0	0	0.53	4.9	7.11	6.43	5.02	4.89	7.73	4.37	4.76
University I (BA studies)	0	0	13	183	143	124	91	12	0	0	566
	0	0	0.76	7.67	4.71	1.65	1.05	0.13	0	0	1.03
University II (MA studies)	0	0	0	44	45	49	22	7	5	0	172
	0	0	0	1.84	1.48	0.65	0.25	0.08	0.09	0	0.31
University III (PhD level)	0	0	0	2	15	38	20	10	3	4	92
	0	0	0	0.08	0.49	0.5	0.23	0.11	0.05	0.04	0.17
University long duration (4-6 years)	0	0	2	246	589	1,191	888	745	383	459	4,503
	0	0	0.12	10.31	19.39	15.81	10.22	8.29	6.65	4.33	8.22
Post-university	0	0	0	13	23	35	24	9	4	3	111
	0	0	0	0.54	0.76	0.46	0.28	0.1	0.07	0.03	0.2
PhD /postdoc	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	4	1	9	18
	0	0	0	0	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.08	0.03
Total	2,791	3,292	1,708	2,386	3,038	7,531	8,688	8,986	5,760	10,595	54,775
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Among the Roma, about 7% of people aged 14-18 work, compared with only 4% among Romanians. The figure grows normally with age and decreases after 50 years. For people aged between 25 and 30, about 50% of Roma work, compared with 77% for Romanians. Therefore, there is a lower tendency to work.

Table 21. Roma work by generations

Roma Work/Years	14-18	19-24	25-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-65	65>	Total
Yes	6	56	70	115	112	80	17	5	461
	7.14	47.46	50.36	58.08	55.45	48.78	34	4.9	43.61
No	78	62	69	83	90	84	33	97	596
	92.86	52.54	49.64	41.92	44.55	51.22	66	95.1	56.39

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Table 22. Romanian work by generations

Romanian Work	14-18	19-24	25-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-65	65>	Total
	80	1,029	2,223	5,392	7,529	5,177	1,262	1,906	24,598
Yes	4.44	42.28	77.48	82.7	83.28	63.27	23.98	13.63	49.1
	1,723	1,405	646	1,128	1,512	3,006	4,001	12,080	25,501
No	95.56	57.72	22.52	17.3	16.72	36.73	76.02	86.37	50.9
	1,803	2,434	2,869	6,520	9,041	8,183	5,263	13,986	50,099
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Household Budget Survey, 2016

Conclusion

The current analysis found that Roma have a lower life expectancy than Romanian natives, lower educational attainment, a higher percentage of them are not working, women are more likely to be housewives, men are more likely to be self-employed workers irrespective whether they work in agriculture or non-agricultural domains, and overall Roma have a higher propensity to be at risk of poverty (Cace, Duminica, Preda, 2005; Cace, Preoteasa, Stanescu, Tomescu, 2010). The current article used the Household Budget Survey (HBS) to illustrate some of the multiple deprivation situations Roma face compared to the native Romanians. The article shows that the traditional structure of Roma families is maintained with women more likely to be housewives and take care of children and men more likely to be own account workers. Work is not able to lift the Roma out of poverty because most likely it is done in the rural areas in agriculture or occupations that do not pay much and only 17% of Roma men are employed. The long term solution for Roma would be to invest in education (Zamfir, Preda, 2002; Duminica, Preda, 2003; Duminica, Cace, 2004; Ionescu, Cace, 2006; Cace, Tomescu, Cojocaru, 2012; Ionescu, Stanescu, 2014); and to create more opportunities for employment in rural areas, re-industrialization could be part of the solution as it would create more and better paid jobs for Roma and as well for Romanians who would not be trapped in subsistence agriculture.

Overall, only 17% of Roma men are employed, 20% are self-employed workers in other fields than agriculture, 22% work are self-employed workers in agriculture, 20% are unemployed and about 6 % of men are either pupils or students. If we analyze the professional structure of women able to work, 46% of women are housewives, 13% are employed, 3% are self-employed in non-agricultural fields, 13% are self-employed in agriculture, 2% are family workers, 10% are unemployed, 3% are retired, 5% are students or 5% are other categories of dependents.

In rural areas, a lower percentage of men and women are employed, about 14% of men are employed, 20% work as self-employed , 31% of men work in agriculture, 17% of men are unemployed, a lower percentage than in urban areas, 3% are retired, 7% are students. Among women in rural areas, 9% are employed, 3% work on their own in non-agricultural fields, 19% work on their own in agriculture, 3% are family workers, 7% are unemployed, low compared to urban areas, 2% are retirement, 5% are female and about 45% are housewives. The data shows that, irrespective of urban or rural

areas, about half of Roma women are housewives, which means maintaining the structure of the traditional Roma family.

The implications of the current work is that the Household Budget Survey can be used to give an overview of the Roma population and monitor the situation on the long term as it is a rather large survey and applied in a consistent manner over the years.

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Table A 1. Appendix Roma Projects in Romania

Data Coverage	Data Sources	Year	Sampling	Dimensions
International	FRA Survey (BG, CZ, HU, RO, SK, FR, GR, IT, PL, PT, ES)	2011, 2008	Roma population 1100 and about 500 Non-Roma	education, employment, health, dwelling, poverty, discrimination and rights awareness.
	The Regional Roma UNDP/World Bank/EC Regional Roma Survey (BG, CZ, HU, RO, SK, HR, FYROM, MD, AL, CS, BH)	2011	About 750 Roma and 350 Non-Roma households by country	Household members profile, early childhood education and care, status of the household (dwelling type, access to basic infrastructures, household items possession etc.), individual status and attitudes, management section (interviewer's evaluation of settlement characteristics and housing conditions; identification of the respondent; assessment of the interview), incomes and expenditures present both in the individual and household module
	UNDP Vulnerable Groups Survey (AL, BH, BG, HR, CS, RO)	2004	700 households (Roma, refugees, IDPs and majority)	NA
	UNDP and ILO Survey (BG, CZ, HU, RO, SK)	2001		NA
National	Open Society Foundation, Roma from Romania, Bulgaria, Italy and Spain – Between social inclusion and migration Survey	2012	Roma self-identified of various citizenships living in Romania, Bulgaria, Spain and Italy	Profile of the respondent, activity, employed persons, unemployed, discrimination, social inclusion, income, migration experience, migration intentions, ethnic affiliation
	Open Society Foundation, The Situation of Roma in Romania 2011. Between social inclusion and migration	2012	Roma population and 5 case studies of Roma subjects	Community type, area, self-identification of ethnic affiliation, background characteristics, activity, employed persons, type of occupation and employment, unemployed, discrimination, housing, migration experience, migration intentions, ethnic affiliation, income, household composition

Table A 1. Appendix Roma Projects in Romania

Data Coverage	Data Sources	Year	Sampling	Dimensions
	Census data conducted by National Institute of Statistics	2011, 2002, 1992	All population, ethnicity affiliation	
	Open Society Foundation Survey EU Inclusive	2011	Roma population	Background information, activity, employment, unemployment, discrimination, social inclusion, dwelling, migration, migration experience, migration intentions, ethnic affiliation, income, household composition
	Open Society Foundation Legal and Equal on the Labour Market for Roma communities	2010	Roma population	Employment, social inclusion
	Phare Survey	2008	Roma and Non-Roma neighbors; Community Survey applied to local administration, 10-20 qualitative interviews (Sample=2000 respondents)	Household information, information about each member in the family, quality of life (medical access health issues due to precarious living and precarious resources Roma communities and health the system, hunger, cold, sleeping conditions, age at first birth, work stealing and begging) and life experiences addressed randomly to a household member, affiliation and ethnic classification, stereotypes, social distance attitudes and inter-ethnic contact, , dwelling problems (access to utilities, dwelling density, property rights), employment revenues and expenditure, social change factors: education related problems (school failure, value of education, educational attainment (repeat pupils, illiterate children, school segregation), strategies of financial adaptation (migration, working abroad, borrowing), local authorities and their interaction with Roma (formal exclusion: lack of identity documents, lack of property documents, institutional capacity)

Table A 1. Appendix Roma Projects in Romania				
Data Coverage	**Data Sources**	**Year**	**Sampling**	**Dimensions**
	Roma Inclusion Barometer conducted by University of Bucharest	2007, 2006	Roma population	State of mind, institutions, political options of the Roma in Romania, dwelling conditions and financial problems of the Roma population, formal exclusion of Roma origin citizens, residential segregation, tolerance and perceived discrimination, family life, human and social capital of the Roma population
	Roma in Romania Survey conducted by the Research Institute for Quality of Life (ICCV)	2001, 1998, 1992	Roma population	Ethnic self-identification, household composition, fertility by age groups, births by age group, age at first birth, percentage of women who do not wish to have any more children, marriage, official documents situation, education by age, percentage of illiterate women by age and area, percentage of illiterate men by age and area, pre-school children enrollment, education enrollment, last grade educational attainment, migration, mass-media consumption, professions and occupations by cohorts, revenues, subjective standard of living, land property, goods for long term use, dwelling situation, density of dwelling,
	Family Budget Survey conducted by National Institute of Statistics	2015, 2014, 2013, 2012, 2011, 2010, 2009, 2008, 2007, 2006, 2005, 2004, 2003, 2002, 2001	All population, ethnicity affiliation identified	Household members, household revenues, household social protection and social assistance revenues household expenditure and Household consumption of goods, employment status, education attainment

Table A 1. Appendix Roma Projects in Romania				
Data Coverage	**Data Sources**	**Year**	**Sampling**	**Dimensions**
	ARACIP, Education Indicators, RAQAPE 2012 the National Map of Educational Risk		School Data	No of Roma children, Registry of Formal Specialists in the field of Education,
	Health Indicators			
Regional/Local	UNICEF Aurora Survey	2015	50.000 Roma households in 45 communities	Household composition and demographics (including highest attained educational level and ethnicity), human capital investment through non-formal activities with the parent, children taken care of by maternal assistant or institutionalized, children reintegrated after exiting the social protection system, revenue sources, health, hygiene, nutrition and risky behavior, children education, ,monitoring of children health status by regular general practitioner check-ups and controls, nutrition, health, nutrition and sex education of teenagers, contraception and births of all women in the household over the age of 10, work sharing practices in households, teenage mothers, household level data on social benefits, revenues and expenditure, remittances, dwelling conditions, parental practices, dwelling conditions and hygiene level of the household assessed by the social worker, vulnerabilities (poverty, health, education, risky behavior, dwelling, family and house social conditions)
	OSF, ISPMN and CCRIT SocioRoMap Study	2014-2016	Municipality questionnaire, Roma Community/Group questionnaire, Health Mediator questionnaire, NGO-s questionnaire	

Table A 1. Appendix Roma Projects in Romania				
Data Coverage	**Data Sources**	**Year**	**Sampling**	**Dimensions**
	World Bank and University of Bucharest The Roma Communities Social Map Survey, PROROMA	2005	Roma community survey	Living conditions, infrastructure, income, dwelling infra-structure, education, migration and poverty, main income source by community type, hierarchy of Roma problems as perceived by local experts, poverty factors and their linkage

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INTERVENTION IN ROMA COMMUNITIES. PARTICIPATION IN FORMATION ACTIVITIES

Corina CACE[1]

Abstract: *The study developed within an integrated program follows the actions carried out on the labour market for the employment of the Roma population. Are these measures effective and respond to the needs of the Roma population or the lack of adequacy to the specifics of the population leads to poor results? Data collection methodology included face-to-face questionnaire interviews with predefined questions, administrated by trained field operators. A total of 1064 questionnaires with Roma people were also collected. The marginalised Roma persons have been selected using the "snowball" method (we started from the town hall; if we had no success with the town hall, we approached the next institutions that might supply such information, for instance, the church, health care unit, police, school etc.). A percent of 13% of the respondents declared that they attended professional training courses after having graduated the school. The respondents who attended training courses after having graduated the school, attended training courses in mechanics and plumbing (26%), in constructions (16%), catering and services (14%), counselling and formation (12%). Less than 10% of these respondents attended training courses in other areas.*

Keywords: *regional development, social development, employment, vocational training, Roma communities*

Introduction

This study has been conducted within project *"OPTIMAL- Establishment and development of a network of Centres of Social Inclusion for the Roma"*, project co-financed from the European Social Fund through the Sectoral Operational Program Human Resources Development 2007-2013 "Invest in people", implemented by the Association for Socio-Economic Development and Promotion Catalactica, Bucharest, in partnership with the Foundation for Social Recovery Integration and Development ECHOSOC Bucharest, and the Association for Integrated Development, Olt, Slatina.

General objective of the project was to facilitate the access to labour market for a number of 1,088 Roma people from the rural areas covered by a network of 4 Centres

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of Social Inclusion for the Roma (CSIR) from the 4 southern regions of development in Romania: South-East, South-Muntenia, South-West Oltenia and Bucharest-Ilfov, in order to prevent their social exclusion and marginalisation, and to avoid discrimination and the risk of poverty.

The effects generated by the project considered not just improving the participation of the vulnerable groups to the labour market, but also the establishment of conditions for their subsequent development.

By its design and objectives, the project pursued three main directions:

1. Development of the personal capacities of the people from the vulnerable groups regarding their access to labour market, by supplying integrated and specialised services (education, formation, information, counselling, market labour orientation, assistance in finding and getting a place of work);
2. Encouraging, by activation and mobilisation of the local communities and employers, to identify viable solutions to increase the level of professional insertion of the Roma people and to use their potential in a manner that ensures both the cohesion, and the social equity within the targeted communities.
3. Implementation of a set of measures adapted both to the specific needs of the target group, and to the opportunities circumscribed within the socio-economic context of the communities where the project is to be implemented, by scientific documentation, quantitative research and qualitative evaluation of the activities performed within the project, as well as of their impact on the target groups.

Any explanative action with actional finalities requires deepening the Roma problem detached from the existential context of the people belonging to the community. We focused our analysis on the segment of rural Roma population, whose structural conditionality's we will discuss for the 4 regions of development, where the planned interventions are to be conducted. We analysed the 4 regions in a unitary manner, given the existing similitudes between them. At the same time, an analysis at the county level was conducted, on the specificity of each region.

Methodology

The quantitative research within the project corresponded to activity 4. *Evaluation of the occupational needs of the Roma people, and of the impact of the support interventions provided within the marginalised communities of Roma in rural areas,* being in accordance with the specific objectives 1 and 2 of the project.

Specific objective 1. Facilitate the access to occupation for a number of 1,088 Roma people, from the rural areas, of which 450 women, from regions South-East, South-Muntenia, South-West Oltenia and Bucharest-Ilfov, by providing, complementary to the support of the local volunteers, services of professional information and counselling, and services of social work and psychological assistance, to motivate them to integrate/reintegrate on the labour market, within 4 Centres of Social Inclusion of the Roma.

Specific objective 2. Increase the level of insertion on the labour market and labour force mobility by diversified and tailored professional formation, within the community, based on the evaluation, within the areas covered by the Centres, of 896 Roma people from South-East, South-Muntenia, South-West Oltenia and Bucharest-Ilfov, by certifying at least 716 trainees.

Specific activities have been performed within activity 4, to evaluate the employment requirements of the Roma people from 56 marginalised Roma communities, using a methodology relying on scientific research criteria. This activity was completed by the analysis of the impact of the support services provided within the marginalised Roma communities, validated by 4 focus-groups in which participated experts in the field of the social inclusion of Roma people. This evaluation supported directly project activities, i.e., determination of the covered areas (Activity 5), selection and particularization function of the communities, of the 8 programs of professional formation (Activity 6), and the supply of scientifically-validated information to promote the employment opportunities for the Roma within the covered areas (Activity 7). The main target group of this project consisted of Roma people. The research activities of the project were performed during months 1-6 of implementation, namely, April 16-October 16, 2014.

The research started with a desk-research, whose purpose was to make a regional analysis whose results were used both to produce the samples of the quantitative research (the list with the 56 marginalised Roma communities), and to select and justify the counties where the 4 CISR were to be established. The same analysis outlined a brief evaluation of the requirements for professional formation by regions and counties. Based on this evaluation we selected 2 type of professional formation adequate for the Roma from the 8 courses of professional training. The rest of 6 types of professional formation were identified based on the data collected during the field research and by in-depth analysis of secondary data. The research experts conducted this desk-research on data from ANOFM, INS, from previous research, unofficial data from NGOs and experts in this field.

Sampling: we selected 54 rural communities and 2 urban communities from Bucharest, running a higher risk of marginalisation/social exclusion. We selected 6 communities from each of the 4 counties where the CISR have been established, and 2 communities from each of the other 15 counties, plus 2 communities from Bucharest.

Research target: Roma population, aged 18-64, from the 56 selected communities.

Sample: n=1400 respondents. The error margin was 2.6% with 95% level of confidence. The marginalised Roma persons have been selected using the "snowball" method (we started from the town hall; if we had no success with the town hall, we approached the next institutions that might supply such information, for instance, the church, health care unit, police, school, etc.). This type of sampling allowed us to identify the people fitting the selection criteria to be included in the study; they were subsequently asked to recommend other people they know, that meet these criteria. Each field operator interviewed at least 19 marginalised Roma people, and 2 representatives of the public institutions (school, town hall, police, public administration), health care units or church.

Data collection methodology: face-to-face questionnaire interviews with predefined questions, administrated by trained field operators. Data collection was conducted between June 16, 2014 August 16, 2014. A total of 1064 questionnaires with Roma people were collected, and 112 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities. The breakdown by region is as follows:

- Bucharest-Ilfov region: a total of 152 questionnaires with Roma people and 16 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities. Of the total: in Bucharest, 38 questionnaires with Roma people and 4 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities; in Ilfov County, 114 questionnaires with Roma people and 12 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities;
- South-East region: a total of 304 questionnaires with Roma people and 32 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities. Of the total: in Constanţa, Tulcea, Brăila, Vrancea and Buzău counties, 38 questionnaires with Roma people and 4 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities; in Galaţi County, 114 questionnaires with Roma people and 12 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities;
- South-West Oltenia region: a total of 266 questionnaires with Roma people and 28 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities. Of the total: in Gorj, Mehedinţi, Olt and Vâlcea counties, 38 questionnaires with Roma people and 4 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities; in Dolj County, 114 questionnaires with Roma people and 12 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities;
- South-Muntenia region: a total of 342 questionnaires with Roma people and 36 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities. Of the total: in Argeş, Dâmboviţa, Teleorman, Giurgiu, Ialomiţa and Călăraşi counties, 38 questionnaires with Roma people and 4 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities; in Prahova County, 114 questionnaires with Roma people and 12 questionnaires with representatives of the public authorities.

Results

Analysis of the state of professional training of the Roma people from the target marginalised communities

The state of professional training was studied in relation with the qualification acquired by the Roma people from the target communities, and in relation with the areas of professional formation and trades of interest for the respondents. We also analysed the extent to which the interviewed Roma people and the representatives of the local authorities involved in the study, have knowledge of the running occupational programs and of solutions, from the perspective of the local authorities, for an efficient insertion of the Roma people on the labour market.

Analysis of the state of professional training

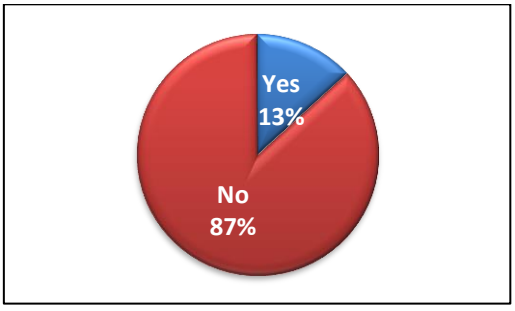
A number of 260 respondents stated to have no qualification. Some of the respondents said they have two or more qualifications. The most frequent qualifications were in the field of mechanics and plumbing and constructions, in all surveyed regions of development. In South-East, 16 of the respondents said they have professional training in the field of counselling and formation *(see Table 1)*.

Table 1. R11. Qualifications of the respondents, by regions, and total – Multiple answer

Qualification	Region of development				
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East	Total
	Number of respondents				
Unskilled	85	171	212	146	614
Mechanics and plumbing	13	41	15	25	94
Constructions	13	27	6	15	61
Catering and services	7	12	1	7	27
Janitor	5				5
Agriculture	4	2	3	7	16
Cosmetics	3	2	1		6
Security agent	2	5		3	10
Taylor/dressing designer	1	7	3	6	17
Counselling and formation	1	2	2	16	21
Driver		5	6	9	20
Other	5	13	5	16	39

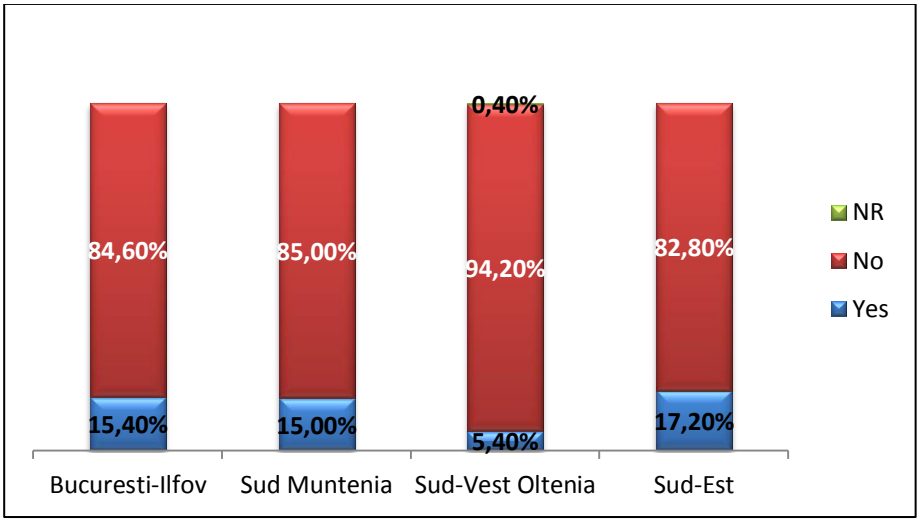
A percent of 13% of the respondents declared that they attended professional training courses after having graduated the school *(see Chart 1)*.

Chart 1. R12. Did you attend any professional training course after graduating the school? (N= 1003)



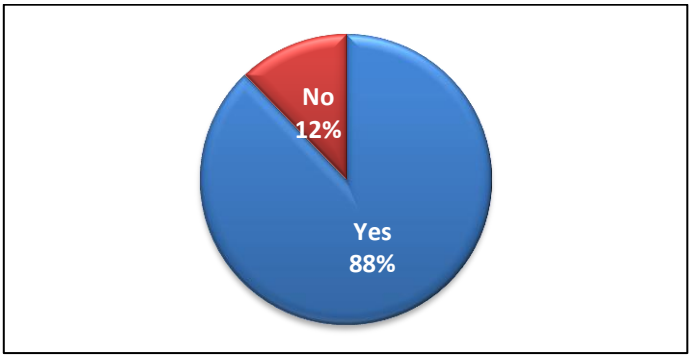
The percentage of respondents who attended training courses varies, among the surveyed regions of development, between 17.20 and 15%, except South-West Oltenia, where just 5.40% of the respondents stated that they have attended training courses *(see Chart 2)*.

Chart 2. R12. Did you attend any professional training course after graduating the school? (N= 1003), by regions of development



Among those who stated that they attended training courses after graduating the school, 88% said they also received graduation/skill certificates *(see Chart 3)*.

Chart 3. R13. Did you receive a graduation/skill certificate? (N= 123)



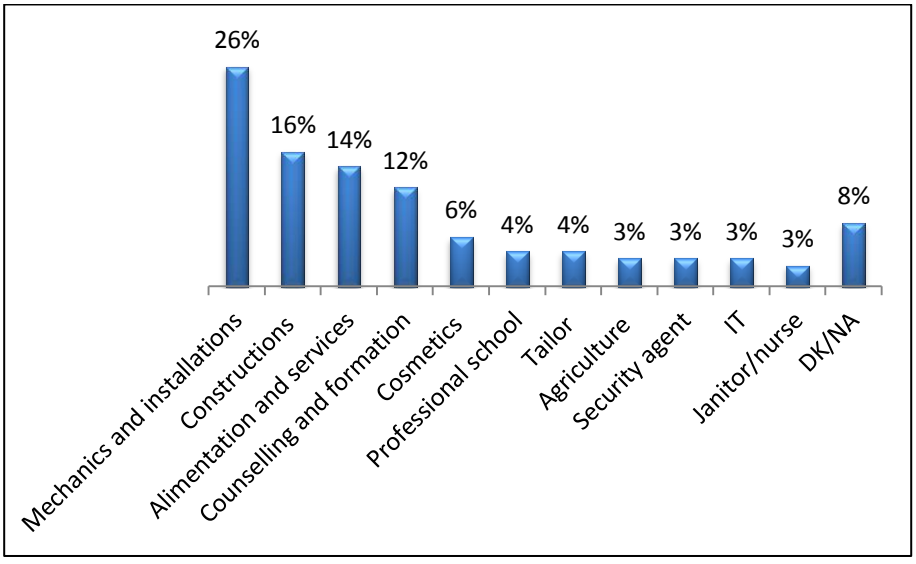
Most respondents who graduated training courses also received a diploma or certificate of graduation, in all regions of development *(see Table 2)*.

Table 2. R13. Did you receive a graduation/skill certificate? total and by regions of development (N=123)

Certificate of graduation	Region of development				
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East	Total
	Number of respondents				
Yes	16	37	12	43	108
No	3	8	1	3	15
Total	19	45	13	46	123

The respondents who attended training courses after having graduated the school, attended training courses in mechanics and plumbing (26%), in constructions (16%), catering and services (14%), counselling and formation (12%). Less than 10% of these respondents attended training courses in other areas, as shown below *(see Chart 4)*. Most of the training course mentioned by the respondents were of 2, 3 and 6 months.

Chart 4. R14. Type of training course attended by the respondents (N= 119) – Multiple answer



Six of 21 respondents from Bucharest-Ilfov who graduated training courses are skilled in catering and services. In South Muntenia, 17 of 46 trained people, graduated courses

in mechanics and plumbing, and 11 of 46 are skilled in constructions. In South-East, 11 of 45 trained people, graduated courses in counselling and formation *(see Table 3)*.

Table 3 R14. Type of training course attended by the respondents, total and by region of development (N=126) – Multiple answer

Training course	Region of development				
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East	Total
	Number of respondents				
Mechanics and plumbing	3	17	2	9	31
Constructions	2	11	3	3	19
Catering and services	6	4	1	6	17
Counselling and formation	0	0	3	11	14
Cosmetics	3	3	1	0	7
Professional school	2	3	0	0	5
Taylor	1	1	0	3	5
Agriculture	0	1	2	1	4
Security agent	0	1	0	3	4
IT	2	2	0	0	4
Nurse	0	0	0	3	3
Other	1	2	1	3	7
NS/NR	1	4	1	3	9
Total	21	46	14	45	126

Asked when they attended, for the last time, a professional training course, most of the respondents replied it was no longer than one year ago, both for the whole sample (86 respondents) and by region of development *(see Table 4)*.

Table 4. R15. When did you attend, for the last time, a course of continuous/professional formation? total and by region (N=482)

Period of attending training courses	**Region of development**				
	Bucharest-Ilfov	**South Muntenia**	**South-West Oltenia**	**South-East**	**Total**
	Number of respondents				
Last year	3	4	1	7	15
More than one year ago	12	32	12	30	86
Do not know/do not remember	6	9	1	10	26
Never attended	64	162	42	87	355
Total	85	207	56	134	482

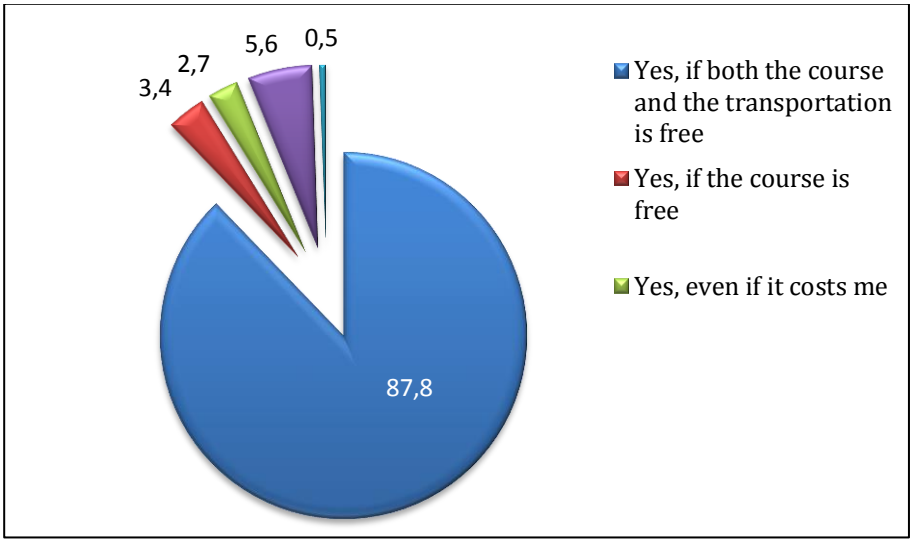
Most people who attended professional training courses, evaluated than as being rather useful (96 of 111 respondents). The distribution of the positive evaluations remained the same at the level of the surveyed regions of development too *(see Table 5)*.

Table 5. R16. How useful was what you learned at these courses? total and by region of development (N=111)

Usefulness of the training courses	Region of development				
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East	Total
	Number of respondents				
Rather useful	12	39	11	34	96
Rather un-useful	3	2	3	6	14
NS/ NR		1			1
Total	15	42	14	40	111

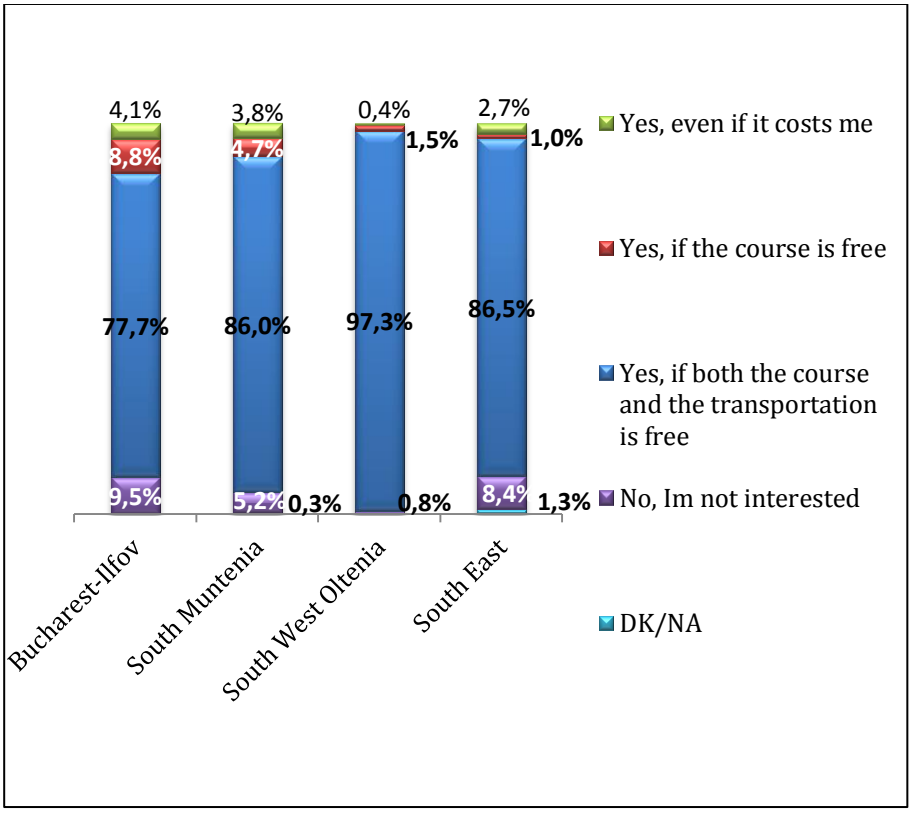
A proportion of 87.8% of the respondents would like to attend another professional training or improvement course, in the following period, if they are free and if transportation is provided. While 3.4% of the respondents would still participate in free training courses, even if transportation is not provided, 5.6% of the respondents are not interested to attend other training courses in the future. *(see Chart 5*

Chart 5. R17. Would you like to attend a professional/improvement course in the next period?



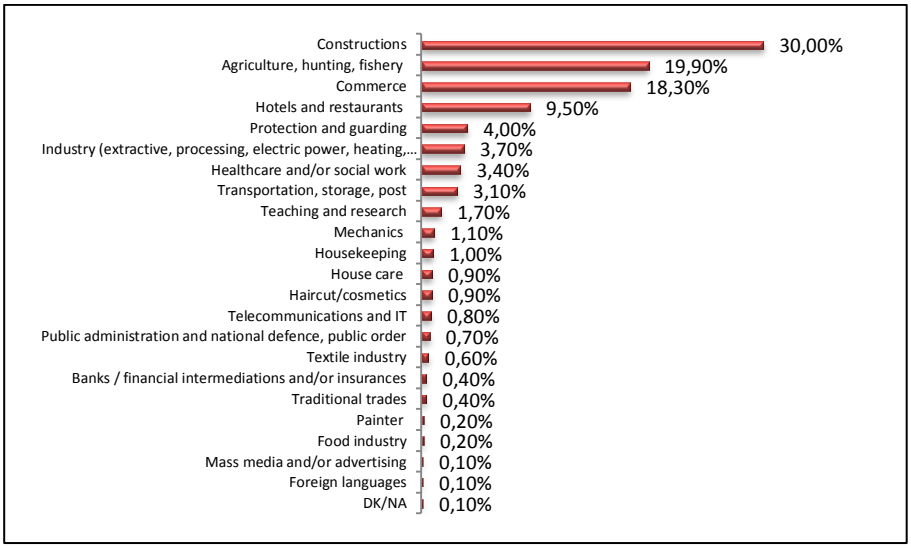
In South West Oltenia we can find the highest proportion of respondents who would like to attend free training courses (97.3%). This category of respondent predominates in all four surveyed regions of development. In Bucharest-Ilfov and South Muntenia we can find the highest proportion of respondents who would still attend training courses, even if they presume some fees (12.90% and 8.5%, respectively). *(see Chart 6)*

Chart 6. R17. Would you like to attend a professional/improvement course in the next period? by region of development



Of the respondents willing to attend training courses, 30% would like to be trained in constructions, 19.90% in agriculture and 18.30% in commerce. Less than 10% of the respondents would like to attend training courses in other fields *(see Chart 7)*.

Chart 7. R18. Which field of activity would be of most interest in training courses? (N= 988) – Multiple answer



The top three areas of interest for men are constructions (49.70%), commerce (13.60%) and agriculture, hunting, fishery (12.10%). The women showed interest for training courses in agriculture, hunting, fishery (31.40%), commerce (24.70%) and hotels and restaurants (18.80%). *(see Table 6)*

Table 6. R18. Which area of activity would be of most interest in training courses? by gender – Multiple answer

R18. Area of activity	S2. Gender of the respondent	
	Male	Female
Constructions	49.70%	2.00%
Agriculture, hunting, fishery	12.10%	31.40%
Commerce	13.60%	24.70%
Hotels and restaurants	2.90%	18.80%
Protection and guarding	6.00%	1.20%
Industry (extractive, processing, electric power, heating, gases, water)	4.80%	2.20%
Healthcare and/or social work	0.50%	7.70%
Transportation, storage, post	5.00%	0.50%
Teaching and research	1.40%	2.20%
Mechanics	1.90%	
Housekeeping		2.50%
House care	0.20%	2.00%
Haircut/cosmetics	0.20%	2.00%
Telecommunications and IT	1.00%	0.50%
Public administration and national defence, public order	0.90%	0.50%

R18. Area of activity	S2. Gender of the respondent	
	Male	Female
Textile industry	0.20%	1.20%
Banks / financial intermediations and/or insurances		1.00%
Traditional trades	0.70%	
Painter		0.50%
Food industry		0.50%
Mass media and/or advertising	0.20%	
Foreign languages	0.20%	
NS/NR	0.00%	0.20%

In Bucharest-Ilfov, the top three areas of professional training, of interest for the respondents, are constructions, commerce, hotels and restaurants. In the other surveyed regions of development, the respondents also showed interest in constructions and commerce, but also in agriculture. *(see Table 7)*

Table 7. R18. Which area of activity would be of most interest in training courses? by region of development – Multiple answer

R18. Area of activity	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East
Constructions	30.70%	33.60%	33.50%	21.90%
Commerce	23.40%	16.40%	12.90%	23.30%
Hotels and restaurants	19.00%	9.40%	4.90%	9.30%
Agriculture, hunting, fishery	5.80%	22.30%	30.80%	13.70%
Healthcare and/or social work	5.80%	3.50%	2.70%	3.00%
Protection and guarding	4.40%	2.80%	4.60%	4.80%
Transportation, storage, post	3.60%	3.50%	4.60%	1.10%
Haircut/cosmetics	2.90%	1.30%	0.00%	0.40%
Industry (extractive, processing, electric power, heating, gases, water)	2.20%	2.20%	3.80%	6.30%
Housekeeping	0.70%	1.90%		1.10%
Public administration and national defence, public order	0.70%	1.30%		0.70%
Textile industry	0.70%	0.30%		1.50%
House care	0.70%			3.00%
Mechanics		1.30%	0.40%	2.20%
Traditional trades		0.90%		0.40%
Telecommunications and IT		0.60%	0.80%	1.50%
Food industry		0.60%		
Teaching and research		0.30%	0.80%	5.20%
Banks / financial intermediations and/or insurances		0.30%	0.40%	0.70%
Foreign languages		0.30%		
Painter				0.70%
Mass media and/or advertising				0.40%
NS/NR				0.40%

In the field of agriculture, most respondents would like to attend training courses in animal husbandry (73.20%) and plant culture (65.60%). In Bucharest-Ilfov we noticed the lowest number of respondents interested to attend training courses in agriculture, hunting and fishery (19). In constructions, the trade of brick layer-stonemason-plasterer was indicated by 80.30% of the respondents. In commerce and services, the many of the respondents showed interest in the position of commercial worker (62.90%), while in the food industry, most respondents would like to be qualified as bakers (65.30%). Of the respondents willing to be qualified in the textile industry, 85.60% would like the job of textile products maker. A proportion of 61.40% of the respondents interested to attend training courses in forestry, wood exploitation and processing, would choose a training course for nursery and green areas workers. A proportion of 48.60% of the respondents interested to attend training courses in tourism, hotels and restaurants, would select a cook training course. A proportion of 22% of the respondents interested to attend training courses in other areas of activity than the mentioned ones, indicated a course for cauldron maker.

Table 8. R19. If you were to attend a free training course, which trade would you choose – Multiple answer

		Region of development								Total	
		Bucharest-Ilfov		South Muntenia		South-West Oltenia		South-East			
Sector of activity	Trade	*Number of answers*	*% of total respondents*	*Number of answers*	*% of total respondents*	*Number of answers*	*% of total respondents*	*Number of answers*	*% of total respondents*	*Number of answers*	*% of total respondents*
Agriculture, forestry, fishing	Animal husbandry worker	9	47.40%	97	71.90%	89	75.40%	65	78.30%	260	73.20%
	Plant crops worker	10	52.60%	78	57.80%	91	77.10%	54	65.10%	233	65.60%
	Fruit grower	5	26.30%	50	37.00%	81	68.60%	19	22.90%	155	43.70%
	Vineyard grower	4	21.10%	40	29.60%	71	60.20%	15	18.10%	130	36.60%
	Horticulture worker	2	10.50%	22	16.30%	46	39.00%	9	10.80%	79	22.30%
	Agro-tourism worker	5	26.30%	9	6.70%	35	29.70%	8	9.60%	57	16.10%
	Agricultural technician	8	42.10%	26	19.30%	26	22.00%	11	13.30%	71	20.00%
	Fishery worker	3	15.80%	2	1.50%	8	6.80%	6	7.20%	19	5.40%
	Other	1	5.30%	2	1.50%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	0.80%
	Total respondents	19		135		118		83		355	
Constructions	Brick layer-stonemason-plaster	49	79.00%	113	77.40%	95	87.20%	74	77.90%	331	80.30%
	Painter-gypsum worker- wallpaper worker	57	91.90%	91	62.30%	97	89.00%	40	42.10%	285	69.20%
	Carpenter / joiner-floorer	55	88.70%	88	60.30%	89	81.70%	40	42.10%	272	66.00%
	Crane operator	24	38.70%	32	21.90%	42	38.50%	12	12.60%	110	26.70%
	Tiles, mosaic layer	45	72.60%	74	50.70%	90	82.60%	30	31.60%	239	58.00%
	Other	19	30.60%	28	19.20%	12	11.00%	18	18.90%	77	18.70%
	Total respondents	62		146		109		95		412	
Commerce and services	Commercial worker	74	72.50%	72	46.80%	65	72.20%	77	68.80%	288	62.90%
	Seller, food stuff	58	56.90%	53	34.40%	33	36.70%	61	54.50%	205	44.80%
	Hair stylist/haircut/ manicure/pedicure	42	41.20%	57	37.00%	21	23.30%	32	28.60%	152	33.20%
	Bootmaker	6	5.90%	4	2.60%	0	0.00%	18	16.10%	28	6.10%
	Security agent	23	22.50%	63	40.90%	23	25.60%	42	37.50%	151	33.00%
	Other	5	4.90%	5	3.20%	0	0.00%	3	2.70%	13	2.80%
	Total respondents	102		154		90		112		458	

		Region of development								Total	
		Bucharest-Ilfov		South Muntenia		South-West Oltenia		South-East			
Food industry	Baker	18	69.20%	55	53.40%	35	87.50%	31	70.50%	139	65.30%
	Milling and bakery	13	50.00%	28	27.20%	19	47.50%	10	22.70%	70	32.90%
	Butcher	1	3.80%	32	31.10%	5	12.50%	16	36.40%	54	25.40%
	Dairy worker	3	11.50%	24	23.30%	6	15.00%	7	15.90%	40	18.80%
	Other	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Total respondents	26		103		40		44		213	
Textile industry	Textile products maker	16	84.20%	34	82.90%	15	83.30%	30	90.90%	95	85.60%
	Sewer of hide /replacer items	6	31.60%	16	39.00%	9	50.00%	3	9.10%	34	30.60%
	Footwear worker	1	5.30%	8	19.50%	5	27.80%	1	3.00%	15	13.50%
	Soles worker	0	0.00%	1	2.40%	3	16.70%	2	6.10%	6	5.40%
	Other	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Total respondents	19		41		18		33		111	
Forestry, wood growing and processing	Upholsterer	5	38.50%	7	16.70%	6	30.00%	6	23.10%	24	23.80%
	Nursery and green areas worker	6	46.20%	26	61.90%	11	55.00%	19	73.10%	62	61.40%
	Wood cutter	1	7.70%	8	19.00%	3	15.00%	11	42.30%	23	22.80%
	Forklift worker	4	30.80%	7	16.70%	3	15.00%	2	7.70%	16	15.80%
	Other	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Total respondents	13		42		20		26		101	
Tourism, hotels, restaurants	Cook	34	49.30%	57	45.60%	50	68.50%	33	36.30%	174	48.60%
	Confectioner – pastry maker	34	49.30%	55	44.00%	37	50.70%	31	34.10%	157	43.90%
	Waiter	38	55.10%	44	35.20%	33	45.20%	18	19.80%	133	37.20%
	Hotel worker	30	43.50%	50	40.00%	20	27.40%	44	48.40%	144	40.20%
	Baby-sitter	32	46.40%	41	32.80%	6	8.20%	18	19.80%	97	27.10%
	Home care for old, sick people	21	30.40%	21	16.80%	7	9.60%	29	31.90%	78	21.80%
	Other	4	5.80%	2	1.60%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	6	1.70%
	Total respondents	69		125		73		91		358	
Other areas of activity	Painter	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	10.00%	3	7.30%
	Casting operator	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.30%	1	2.40%
	Telecommunications	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.30%	1	2.40%
	Lathe operator	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.30%	1	2.40%
	Healthcare	1	33.30%	1	25.00%	1	25.00%	4	13.30%	7	17.10%
	Social work	0	0.00%	1	25.00%	2	50.00%	3	10.00%	6	14.60%
	Teaching staff	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	10.00%	3	7.30%
	School mediator	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	10.00%	3	7.30%
	IT	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	2	50.00%	1	3.30%	3	7.30%
	Cauldron maker	0	0.00%	1	25.00%	0	0.00%	8	26.70%	9	22.00%
	Coordinator	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	4	13.30%	4	9.80%
	Mailman	1	33.30%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.40%
	Manipulator	1	33.30%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.40%
	Mass-media	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.30%	1	2.40%
	Foreign languages	0	0.00%	1	25.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.40%
	Total respondents	3		4		4		30		41	

The respondents, out of local authority who have knowledge of occupational programs mentioned most often the training courses (44.40%), mentioned generically. The actions organised by the employment agencies were mentioned by 40.70% of the respondents, followed by the Job exchange (16.70%) and Employment caravan (14.80%).

Asked of the occupational programs and actions, the local people of the target communities who said that they know of such actions, mentioned on the top four

positions the programs already confirmed by the local authorities *(see Table 9)*. They mentioned first the training courses (39.50%), followed by the actions organised by the employment agencies (38.30%), by the Job exchange (19.80%) and by the Employment caravan (8.60%).

Table 9: MS3. Occupational programs/actions known by the respondents– multiple answer

Programs	Answers	
	Local authorities (N=54)	Local people (N=81)
Training courses	44.40%	39.50%
ANOFM/AJOFM	40.70%	38.30%
Job exchange	16.70%	19.80%
Employment caravan	14.80%	8.60%
Adds	7.40%	
Social canteen/lunch tickets	5.60%	
Billboards	3.70%	
Construction of a factory	3.70%	
Counselling centre for parents and children/professional guidance	3.70%	
School after school	3.70%	
Training courses provided by the town hall	1.90%	3.70%
Courses through the EU		3.70%
Roma alliance		2.50%
Second opportunity	1.90%	
Sportive activities	1.90%	
Cultural activities	1.90%	
Healthcare activities	1.90%	
By phone	1.90%	
Entrepreneurship		1.20
NS/NR		17.30%
Total	155.60%	134.60%

The interviewed representatives of the local authorities said that most beneficiaries of these programs or actions are Roma people (92.3% of the mentioned programs, 26 cases in all). A respondent spoke of training courses in 2012-2013, attended by 80 Roma people, while another respondent remembered of training courses hosted by ANOJFM attended by 4 Roma people. The respondents also mentioned the locations where the occupational courses took place: Galaţi, Tecuci, Prahova, Tulcea, Viziru, Urziceni and Jilava. From the descriptions of the people who mentioned the location of

the courses, we found out that in Urziceni there was an action for the beneficiaries of the MGI, while in the other locations the programs addressed the Roma people *(see Table 10)*.

The interviewed local people consider that the occupational programs and actions address the Roma people (9 cases), the young people (2 cases), or the unemployed (one case). In terms of period when these programs/actions took place, 9 local people mentioned the years 2007, 2008, 2011, 2013, 2014, as well as the annual programs running in Galaţi. The locations mentioned by the local people are: Bucureşti, Galaţi, Alexandria, Vălenii de Munte, Constanţa, Medgidia, Târgovişte, Focşani, Tulcea, Buzău, Câmpulung Muscel. We noticed that in Galaţi, Alexandria and Focşani there were actions addressing the Roma people, while in Vălenii de Munte there were actions addressing the young people *(see Table 11)*.

Table 10: MS3. Locations where occupational programs/actions took place, known by the representatives of the local authorities, by type of beneficiary

MS3.Beneficiaries	Location					
	Galati	Tecuci	Prahova	Viziru	Urziceni	Jilava
	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count	Count
Roma people	1	1	1	1	0	1
MGI beneficiary	0	0	0	0	1	0

Table 11: MS2. Locations where occupational programs/actions took place, known by local people, by type of beneficiary

MS2. Beneficiaries	Location			
	Galati	Alexandria	Valenii de Munte	Focsani
	Count	Count	Count	Count
Roma people	1	1	0	1
Young people	0	0	1	0

The interviews showed that AJOFM Galaţi organises each year occupational actions, but the results are rather poor. The results also show the organisation of the Job exchange in Prahova, in 2012-2013, but there were no Roma people employed thereafter. At the same time, the Job exchange organised in Jilava helped MCI beneficiaries to be employed. In terms of results of the occupational programs, the representatives of the local authorities mentioned the presents and the money aid given to the Roma people within the Employment caravan and of the training programs. The respondents evaluated as "satisfactory" the results of most types of occupational programs mentioned by them *(see Table 12)*.

The interviewed local people evaluated the professional formation courses as being discriminating and without materialising in actual jobs *(see Table 13)*.

Table 12: MS3. Results of the occupational programs/actions, known by the representatives of the local authorities – Multiple answer

Results of the programs	Programs						
	ANOFM/ AJOFM	Billboards	Adds	Phone	Training courses	Job exchange	Employment caravan
Satisfactory results	2	2	2	1	2	0	0
The Roma people refused the jobs offered by AJOFM	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
No employment materialised	1	0	0	0	2	1	1
Poor results	1	0	0	0	2	1	2
Jobs resulted	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
The Roma people received presents and money aids	0	0	0	0	4	1	3
The training courses are according to labour market requirements	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Very good results	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Table 13: MS2. Results of the occupational programs/actions, known by local people – Multiple answer

Results of the programs	Programs					
	AJOFM	Job exchange	Employment caravan	Training courses	Town hall help	Courses through the EU
No employment materialised	1	0	1	6	2	0
The participants were not paid	0	0	0	2	1	0
The outcome was not satisfactory	2	1	0	0	0	0
The Roma people did not attend	0	0	0	2	0	0
Qualification diploma provided	0	0	0	1	0	0
Very good results	0	0	0	2	0	0
They discriminate	1	1	0	3	0	1
The jobs are too poorly paid	1	0	0	1	0	0
The people are not interested in information	0	0	1	1	1	0
The training courses are useful	1	0	0	2	0	0

About half of the representatives of the local authorities interviewed in the four regions of development stated that they know of occupational programs. On South-West Oltenia, 42.90% of the respondents said that they know of such programs *(see Table 14)*.

Table 14. MS2. Do you know occupational programs/actions? by region of development — Local authorities

	Region of development				
	Bucharest-Ilfov	**South Muntenia**	**South-West Oltenia**	**South-East**	**Total**
Yes	50.00%	50.00%	42.90%	51.60%	48.7%
Do not know	50.00%	47.60%	57.10%	45.20%	49.60%
NR		2.40%		3.20%	1.70%

Most representatives of the local authorities interviewed in Bucharest-Ilfov region of development, said that they have heard of training courses (25.00%) and of the Employment caravan (18.80%). In South Muntenia region of development, 33.30% of the respondents mentioned the training courses, while 14.30% mentioned the actions of the employment agencies. In South-West Oltenia region of development, 21.40% of the respondents mentioned the programs of the employment agencies, and 14.30% mentioned the training courses. The actions of the employment agencies were also mentioned by 28.10% of the respondents from South-East region of development *(see Table 15)*.

Table 15. MS3. Occupational programs/actions known by the representatives of the local authorities, by region of development – Multiple answer

	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	**South Muntenia**	**South-West Oltenia**	**South-East**
Training courses	25.00%	33.30%	14.30%	6.20%
Employment caravan	18.80%	7.10%	3.60%	3.10%
ANOFM/AJOFM	6.20%	14.30%	21.40%	28.10%
Job exchange	6.20%	11.90%	3.60%	6.20%
Adds	6.20%		3.60%	6.20%
Social canteen/lunch tickets		2.40%	3.60%	3.10%
Counselling centre for parents and children/ professional guidance		2.40%	3.60%	
Building a factory		2.40%		3.10%
Training courses provided by the town hall		2.40%		
School after school			3.60%	3.10%

	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East
Billboards				6.20%
Second chance				3.10%
Sport activities				3.10%
Cultural activities				3.10%
Healthcare activities				3.10%
By phone				3.10%

In terms of results of the occupational programs, they were evaluated as being poor in each region of development, although jobs resulted, and some results were evaluated as satisfactory *(see Table 16)*.

Table 16. MS3. Results of the occupational programs/actions known by the representatives of the local authorities, by region of development – Multiple answer

Results	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East
	Number of respondents			
Poor results	2	1	1	1
The Roma people received gifts and money aids	2	1	0	1
No employments	1	1	0	1
People were employed	1	1	0	1
The training courses are not according to market requirements	1	0	0	0
Satisfactory results	0	1	1	2
The Roma people turned down the jobs offered by AJOFM	0	1	0	0
Very good results	0	0	1	0
Total	4	6	3	5

Most interviewed representatives of the local authorities agree that supporting the creation of jobs for Roma people would increase their opportunities of insertion on the labour market (78.90%). The next measure about which most respondents agree totally or partially, that it would be to the benefit of the Roma people, is the development of training programs for basic qualifications (87.80%). A proportion of 19.30% of the respondents disagree totally or partially with the fact that running specific measures for the vocational profile of the Roma people would help them integrate on the labour market. Seven respondents proposed different measures able to support the insertion of the Roma people on the labour market: guiding the pupils towards professional schools, counselling the adult people, training on the job, promotion of the artistic traditions and creation of new jobs.

A proportion of 54% of the interviewed representatives of the local authorities, consider that the education and professional qualification of the Roma people is adequate to the current requirements of the labour market, while 42% do not agree with this statement.

Of the people who consider that the education and professional qualification of the Roma people is not adequate to the current requirements of the labour market, 56.20% propose, as solutions for this situation, the professional qualification/requalification, 20.80% education of the children, 12.50% continuation of the studies, as well as other educational measures, enhancing the interest of the Roma people, job creation and provision of financial support.

A proportion of 59% of the representatives of the local authorities stated that they know the training requirements in the county. Of them, most consider that training courses in constructions are necessary (79.40%), while 38.20% of the respondents knowing the training requirements in their county, consider that training courses in agriculture are necessary, 36.80% propose training courses as commercial agent and 16.20% support training courses for the textile industry. The other qualifications that would be necessary, mentioned by less than 15% of the respondents are: security agent, hair stylist, plumber, car mechanic, driver, janitor, processing industry, healthcare, transportation, natural resources and environmental protection, confectioner/pastry worker, education, fiddler, crafts, bootmaker, homecare for old people.

The representatives of the local authorities from South West Oltenia, support most of all, compared to the other regions of development, as measures for the insertion of the Roma people, the adoption of measures specific to the vocational profile of the Roma people, running programs for the development of the basic qualifications, creating occupations and jobs function of the capacities of the Roma people, supporting the practice of specific Roma trades. In Bucharest-Ilfov, the respondents believe least in the measure of developing new occupations for the Roma, as measure of social insertion (62.40%), while in South Muntenia are the fewest respondents supporting the traditional Roma crafts (61.90%).

In South Muntenia region of development, most respondents consider that the education and professional qualification of the Roma people are adequate to labour market requirements (61.90%), while in Bucharest-Ilfov just 25.00% of the respondents consider that the professional training of the Roma people fits the requirements of the employers

The representatives of the local authorities, from all surveyed regions of development, consider that the education and professional training of the Roma people can become more adequate to labour market requirements by the qualification or requalification of the Roma people and by the education of the Roma children.

The representatives of the local authorities from the four surveyed regions of development consider that the constructions are the field with the highest demand for training. In Bucharest-Ilfov 43.80% of the respondents consider that people trained in commercial activities are sought in that county. A proportion of 11.90% of the respondents from South Muntenia consider that second to constructions, people

trained in agriculture and textile industry are sought, while 42.90% of the respondents from South West Oltenia consider that there is demand for qualification in agriculture. The respondents from South East rank constructions first, followed by the demand for commercial workers (25.00%) *(see Table 17)*.

Table 17. MS9. Please enumerate the most sought qualifications in the county, by region of development – Multiple answer

Training	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South-West Oltenia	South-East
Constructions	56.20%	45.20%	60.70%	28.10%
Commercial worker	43.80%	4.80%	28.60%	25.00%
Security agent	31.20%	4.80%		6.20%
Agriculture	18.80%	11.90%	42.90%	18.80%
Textile worker/tailor	12.50%	11.90%	3.60%	9.40%
Cosmetics, hair stylist	6.20%	7.10%		6.20%
Janitor	6.20%	2.40%		
Plumber		7.10%		6.20%
Car mechanic		4.80%	3.60%	3.10%
Processing industry		4.80%		
Healthcare		2.40%		
Transportation		2.40%		
confectioner/pastry worker		2.40%		
Fiddler		2.40%		
Craftsman		2.40%		
Shoemaker		2.40%		
Driver			3.60%	6.20%
Natural resources and environmental protection				3.10%
Education				3.10%
Homecare for the elder				3.10%
NS/NR	6.20%			

Conclusions

For most of the local respondents, it is extremely important to be honest in order to have success in life (47%), while for just 22% of them it is highly important to learn continuously. The faculty is important for 57% of the respondents, while the middle-class education is important for 77% of the respondents. The professional training is important to acquire success, for 81% of the respondents. At the level of all surveyed regions of development, work is seen as source of income. A proportion of 49.30% of the respondents who graduated at most the middle school are romanized Roma, and 21.80% are ursari. A proportion of 68% of the respondents with secondary education are romanized Roma, and 16.40% are ursari. With faculty education, we noticed 22.20% ursari and 11.10% brick makers. A total of 614 respondents declared that they have no

qualification, and the most frequent qualifications are in mechanics, plumbing and constructions, in all surveyed regions of development. A total of 355 interviewed local people said they never attended professional training courses, but 87.8% of the respondents would like to attend professional training courses, or to improve their skills, in the following period, if these courses are free and transportation is provided.

Of the respondents who would like to attend formation courses, 30% would like to qualify in constructions, 19.90% in agriculture and 18.30% in commercial activities. The top three areas of interest for the men are constructions (49.70%), commerce (13.60%) and agriculture, hunting, and fishery (12.10%). The women showed interest in attending training courses mainly in agriculture, hunting, and fishery (31.40%), commerce (24.70%) and hotels and restaurants (18.80%). In Bucharest-Ilfov, the top three areas of professional formation of interest for the respondents are constructions, commerce and hotels and restaurants. In the other surveyed regions of development, the respondents also showed interest in constructions, commerce, but also in agriculture.

A proportion of 50.60% of the local people who attended the survey are inactive on the labour market, of which 1.70% are retired people, 0.60% were going to integrate on the labour market after the period of survey, being students or freshly graduates. A proportion of 12.70% of the respondents are active and have a constant income (employees, company owners and self-employed). The sample also includes 36.70% people with occasional incomes (hired hands and agricultural workers). In Bucharest-Ilfov there is the highest proportion of employees (20.30%), compared to the proportion of employees in other regions of development. In South-Muntenia, there is the highest proportion of people working in the household (22.30%), compared to the other three surveyed regions of development, and just 9% employed people among the respondents. In South West Oltenia, just 2.30% of the respondents are employed, the main income coming, in this region, from occasional non-agricultural activities (14.00%). In South East there is the highest proportion of people working by the day in non-agricultural activities (21.20%), which is the main source of income in this region.

A proportion of 56% of the unemployed respondents said that they have been looking for a job in the last year. While in South Muntenia and South East regions of development, less than 60% of the respondents looked for a job during the past year, in South West Oltenia and Bucharest-Ilfov, over 77% of the respondents looked for a job during the past year, and 83.20% of the respondents looking for a job during the past year, said that they looked for a job asking friends, relatives or people they know. Relations are the source of getting a job for most respondents in every surveyed region of development. Most inactive respondents in the four surveyed regions of development claimed the lack of qualification, followed by the economic crisis, as major reasons why they did not get a job. While in Bucharest-Ilfov and South Muntenia, the top two solutions given by the respondents as alternative if they do not get a job, is the temporary employment and working in a lower qualification than they have, in South West Oltenia and South East, most respondents are willing to work for a determined period of time, or be less paid. In South East we find the highest proportion (24.50%) of respondents willing to work for a wage up to 700 lei, compared to the situation in the other surveyed regions of development. In South West Oltenia, 77.60% of the respondents would for a wage of 701 to 1000 lei per month, the highest

proportion with this option a mong all surveyed regions. Only in Bucharest-Ilfov, we find the highest proportion of respondents willing to work for a wage of 1001 to 1500 de lei.

The highest proportion of the local respondents who are employed, work in constructions (28.70%), while 12.60% work in agriculture and 12.60% work in commercial activities. A proportion of 45% of the employed respondents said that they have a labour contract on undetermined period, while 29% work with no form of contract.

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Appendix: Profile of the Roma respondents from the target marginalized communities

The study of the situation of the marginalized Roma communities from the development regions Bucharest-Ilfov, South Muntenia, South West Oltenia and South East, proceeded in June-August 2014, with a margin of error of 2.6%, with a confidence level of 95%. We conducted a total of 1072 interviews with inhabitants of these communities according to the following structure *(see Table A)*: 153 interviews in Bucharest-Ilfov, 348 in South Muntenia, 265 in South West Oltenia and 306 in South East. The sample included 98.80% of the local people who declared to be Roma, 1.10% Romanian locals and one Serbian.

Table A. Q2. Ethnic group, by region of development and total

Ethnic group		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Romanian	No. of respondents	6	2	1	3	12
	% of the Region of development	3.90%	0.60%	0.40%	1.00%	1.10%
Roma / Gypsy	No. of respondents	147	345	264	303	1059
	% of the Region of development	96.10%	99.10%	99.60%	99.00%	98.80 %
Serbian	No. of respondents	0	1	0	0	1
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.30%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%
Total	No. of respondents	153	348	265	306	1072

We can see that 44 respondents stated to be Romanians at the 2011 Census *(see Table B),* compared to the 12 who stated to be Romanians *(see Table A)*.

Table B. Q3. Ethnic affiliation stated at the 2011 Census, by region of development, and total

Declared etnic group		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Romanian	No. of respondents	3	26	1	14	44
	% of the Region of development	2.20%	7.90%	0.40%	4.90%	4.40%
Roma	No. of respondents	63	291	259	255	868
	% of the Region of development	46.70%	88.40%	99.60%	88.90%	85.90%
Serbian	No. of respondents	0	1	0	0	1

Declared etnic group		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.30%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%
I did not participate	No. of respondents	46	11	0	18	75
	% of the Region of development	34.10%	3.30%	0.00%	6.30%	7.40%
NS/NR	No. of respondents	23	0	0	0	23
	% of the Region of development	17.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.30%
Total	No. of respondents	135	329	260	287	1011

Most of the respondents stated by be Romanised Roma (54%). 20.0% of the respondents stated to be ursari *(see Table C)*.

Table C. Q4. Roma line stated by the respondents, by region of development, and total

Roma line		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Brick maker	No. of respondents	1	10	70	4	85
	% of the Region of development	0.70%	2.90%	26.40%	1.40%	8.10%
Rudar	No. of respondents	1	14	0	44	59
	% of the Region of development	0.70%	4.00%	0.00%	15.30%	5.60%
Chimney maker	No. of respondents	0	9	0	17	26
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	2.60%	0.00%	5.90%	2.50%
Bucket maker	No. of respondents	1	13	0	44	58
	% of the Region of development	0.70%	3.80%	0.00%	15.30%	5.50%
Ursar	No. of respondents	3	66	84	62	215
	% of the Region of development	2.00%	19.10%	31.70%	21.50%	20.40%
Romanised Roma	No. of respondents	144	224	104	96	568
	% of the Region of development	94.10%	64.70%	39.20%	33.30%	54.00%
Silversmith	No. of respondents	1	0	0	0	1
	% of the Region of development	0.70%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%
Cauldron maker	No. of respondents	0	1	0	0	1
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.30%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%
Sieve maker	No. of respondents	0	0	0	2	2

Roma line		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.70%	0.20%
Laias	No. of respondents	0	3	7	2	12
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.90%	2.60%	0.70%	1.10%
Fiddler	No. of respondents	0	0	0	1	1
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.30%	0.10%
Tinker	No. of respondents	0	2	0	0	2
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.60%	0.00%	0.00%	0.20%
Tinsmith	No. of respondents	0	1	0	0	1
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.30%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%
NS / NR	No. of respondents	2	3	0	16	21
	% of the Region of development	1.30%	0.90%	0.00%	5.60%	2.00%
Total	No. of respondents	153	346	265	288	1052

50.60% of the respondents are inactive on the labour market, including the retired people. 1.70% of the respondents are retired persons. 12.70% of the surveyed people are active on the labour market, including the employees, self-employed people and owners of companies. 36.70% of the respondents stated to work occasionally, including the people working in agriculture, who obtain occasional incomes from their work *(see Table D)*.

Table D. SPM1. Occupational status, by region of development, and total (N=1068)

Occupational status	Region of development				Total
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
No occupation	42.50%	18.80%	29.50%	17.30%	24.40%
Worker by the day / occasional work (not in agriculture)	15.00%	20.60%	14.00%	21.20%	18.40%
Household worker	9.20%	22.30%	17.80%	16.70%	17.70%
Worker by the day / occasional work in agriculture	2.00%	16.80%	32.20%	13.70%	17.60%
Employee	20.30%	9.00%	2.30%	10.50%	9.40%
Registered unemployed	2.60%	5.80%	0.00%	7.80%	4.50%
Self-employed in non-agricultural activities, freelancer, liberal and artistic professions, PFA, individual enterprise	2.00%	3.50%	1.90%	2.60%	2.60%
Retired due to health problems	2.00%	2.00%	0.80%	1.60%	1.60%

Occupational status	Region of development				Total
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Receiver of VMG	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	5.60%	1.60%
Company owner / administrator	2.00%	0.30%	0.00%	1.30%	0.70%
Farmer	2.00%	0.30%	0.80%	0.70%	0.70%
pupil/student or recently graduate	0.70%	0.30%	0.40%	1.00%	0.60%
Social aid	0.00%	0.00%	0.40%	0.00%	0.10%
Pension from deceased husband/wife	0.00%	0.30%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%

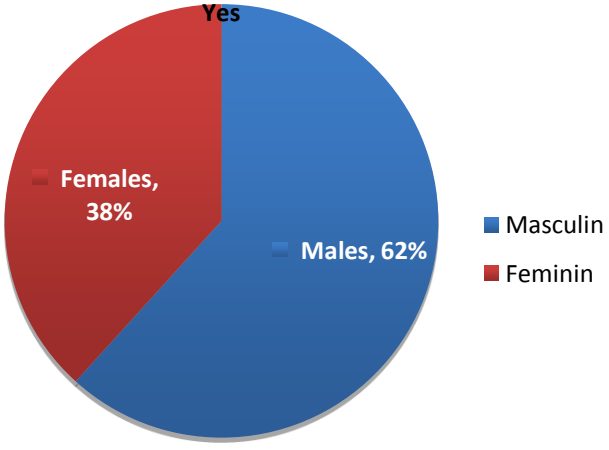
Most of the respondents stated that they have never been employed legally (69%). In each surveyed region of development, most respondents stated that they never worked legally *(see Table E)*.

Table E. SPM2. Legally employed, by region of development and total (N=831)

Legally employed	Region of development				Total
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Yes	36.90%	40.40%	17.00%	30.20%	31.00%
No	63.10%	59.60%	83.00%	69.80%	69.00%

A higher proportion of men declared to have been employed legally (37.10%) than women (23%) *(see Figure A)*.

Fig. A. SPM2. Legally employed people, by gender (N=829)



Most respondents are young people aged 18 to 35 (50.50%). This distribution can be found at the level of the regions of development too, except South-East region, where 44.40% of the respondents are aged 36 to 50 *(see Table F).*

Table F. S1. Age of respondents, by region of development and total

Age		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
18-35	No. of respondents	82	190	145	124	541
	% of the Region of development	53.60%	54.60%	54.70%	40.50%	50.50%
36-50	No. of respondents	48	132	90	136	406
	% of the Region of development	31.40%	37.90%	34.00%	44.40%	37.90%
51-65	No. of respondents	22	25	30	34	111
	% of the Region of development	14.40%	7.20%	11.30%	11.10%	10.40%
66+	No. of respondents	0	0	0	1	1
	% of the Region of development				0.30%	0.10%
NS/ NR	No. of respondents	1	1	0	11	13
	% of the Region of development	0.70%	0.30%		3.60%	1.20%
Total	No. of respondents	153	348	265	306	1072

58.90% of the respondents are males, and 41.10% are females. A similar gender distribution is in all surveyed regions of development *(see Table G).*

Table G. S2. Gender of the respondents, by region of development and total (N=1068)

Gender of the respondents		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Males	No. of respondents	83	204	153	189	629
	% of the Region of development	54.60%	58.80%	57.70%	62.20%	58.90%
Females	No. of respondents	69	143	112	115	439
	% of the Region of development	45.40%	41.20%	42.30%	37.80%	41.10%
Total	No. of respondents	152	347	265	304	1068

97.10% of the respondents live in the rural. In Bucharest-Ilfov region, 18.40% of the respondents live in the urban. In South West Oltenia all questionnaires were applied in the rural *(see Table H).*

Table H. S3. Residential area, by region of development, and total (N=1001)

Residential area		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Urban	No. of respondents	25	2	0	2	29
	% of the Region of development	18.40%	0.60%		0.70%	2.90%
Rural	No. of respondents	111	325	263	273	972
	% of the Region of development	81.60%	99.40%	100%	99.30%	97.10%
Total	No. of respondents	136	327	263	275	1001

Most of the respondents are married (52.80%). Most respondents in the surveyed regions of development are married people, except in Bucharest-Ilfov region, where 49.20% of the respondents live in concubinage, and 41.30% are married people (*see Table I*).

Table I. S4. Marital status of the respondents, by region of development, and total (N=961)

Marital status		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Married	No. of respondents	52	141	124	190	507
	% of the Region of development	41.30%	47.20%	50.00%	66.00%	52.80%
Concubinage	No. of respondents	62	122	107	82	373
	% of the Region of development	49.20%	40.80%	43.10%	28.50%	38.80%
Single parent (divorce, separation, widow/ widower)	No. of respondents	12	36	17	16	81
	% of the Region of development	9.50%	12.00%	6.90%	5.60%	8.40%
Total	No. of respondents	126	299	248	288	961

Most respondents belong to families with 2-5 members, of which 2-3 children (302). 210 respondents belong to families with 2-5 members, of which one child, and 187 respondents belong to families with 2-5 adult people *(see Table J).*

Table J. S5. Family structure, by region of development and total

Family structure			Region of development				Total
			Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Number of people	Number of adults	Number of children	Number of respondents				
One person	one adult	No children	2	10	8	5	25
2 to 5 persons	one adult	One child	0	6	3	1	10
		2 to 4 children	0	6	5	5	16
	2 to 5 adults	No children	41	66	39	41	187
		One child	23	72	45	70	210
		2 to 3 children	34	100	77	91	302
6 to 10 persons	one adult	6 to 9 children	0	1	0	0	1
	2 to 5 adults	One child	1	7	1	3	12
		2 to 5 children	29	48	60	61	198
		6 to 8 children	2	11	7	15	35
	6 to 10 adults	No children	4	1	2	4	11
		One child	1	8	1	0	10
		2 to 4 children	7	7	3	7	24
11 to 19 persons	2 to 5 adults	6 to 10 children	0	1	2	1	4
		11 to 12 children	0	0	1	0	1
	6 to 10 adults	2 to 5 children	0	0	3	1	4
		6 to 10 children	1	2	7	0	10
	11 to 13 adults	2 to 5 children	1	0	0	0	1
Total			146	346	264	305	1061

75.50% of the respondents declared that the incomes are not enough even for the bare necessities. Most respondents in each surveyed region of development declared that the incomes are not enough even for the bare necessities *(see Table K).*

Table K. VEN1. Incomes of the respondent families, by region of development, and total

Family incomes		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Not enough even for the bare necessities	No. of respondents	109	249	215	190	763
	% of the Region of development	72.70%	75.20%	86.30%	67.60%	75.50 %
Enough for the bare necessities	No. of respondents	29	65	18	75	187
	% of the Region of development	19.30%	19.60%	7.20%	26.70%	18.50 %
Enough for a decent living, but cannot afford buying more	No. of respondents	11	13	16	13	53
	% of the Region of development	7.30%	3.90%	6.40%	4.60%	5.20%

Family incomes		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
expensive goods						
We can buy more expensive goods, but with efforts	No. of respondents	0	2	0	3	5
	% of the Region of development		0.60%		1.10%	0.50%
We have all we need, with no great effort	No. of respondents	1	2	0	0	3
	% of the Region of development	0.70%	0.60%			0.30%
Total	No. of respondents	150	331	249	281	1011

Children allocations are the source of household income for 80.80% of the respondents, 53.60% live from social assistance, 68.40% work by the day, and just 33.60% are employed. In Bucharest-Ilfov, most respondents are employees (50.80%), compared to the other regions of development *(see Table L-)*.

Table L. VEN2. Sources of income of the respondent families, by region of development and total – Multiple answer

Sources of income		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Wages	No. of respondents	62	67	15	51	195
	% of the Region of development	50.80%	30.60%	17.20%	33.30%	33.60%
Craftsmen activities	No. of respondents	7	12	1	11	31
	% of the Region of development	7.40%	6.10%	1.20%	8.90%	6.20%
Collecting/recycling products	No. of respondents	9	2	1	4	16
	% of the Region of development	9.30%	1.10%	1.20%	3.30%	3.30%
Work by the day	No. of respondents	74	162	130	166	532
	% of the Region of development	54.00%	64.80%	69.90%	81.00%	68.40%
Social support (VMG, unemployment benefit)	No. of respondents	25	136	127	82	370
	% of the Region of development	24.00%	53.30%	74.70%	50.90%	53.60%
Children allocations	No. of respondents	71	207	184	191	653
	% of the Region of development	63.40%	73.90%	90.60%	89.70%	80.80%
Pensions (including alimonies)	No. of respondents	17	30	14	14	75
	% of the Region of development	17.50%	14.40%	16.10%	10.90%	14.40%
Properties (profit, interests, royalties, rents)	No. of respondents	0	0	0	3	3
	% of the Region of development				2.50%	0.60%
Selling agricultural products	No. of respondents	2	2	4	4	12
	% of the Region of development	2.20%	1.00%	4.60%	3.30%	2.40%

82.20% of the respondents own their dwelling together with their family. In the surveyed regions of development, more than 70% of the respondents own their dwellings. The highest proportion of respondents owning their dwellings is in South-West Oltenia region (96,60%), while in Bucharest-Ilfov is the lowest proportion of respondents owning their dwellings (74%) *(see Table M)*.

Table M. PROP1. Properties and goods owned by the families of the respondents, by region of development, and total – Multiple answer

Properties and goods		Region of development				Total
		Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East	
Dwelling (house, apartment)	No. of respondents	97	210	254	209	770
	% of the Region of development	74.00%	75.80%	96.60%	78.60%	82.20%
Other real estate properties: holiday house, leased homes	No. of respondents	2	0	2	1	5
	% of the Region of development	2.10%	0.00%	0.80%	0.60%	0.70%
Agricultural land (more than half hectar)	No. of respondents	4	17	20	10	51
	% of the Region of development	4.20%	7.20%	7.60%	5.60%	6.60%
Agricultural farm: crops, animal production, apiculture	No. of respondents	1	1	2	0	4
	% of the Region of development	1.10%	0.40%	0.80%	0.00%	0.50%
Work animals (horses, donkeys), carriage	No. of respondents	7	25	32	7	71
	% of the Region of development	7.40%	10.80%	12.20%	4.00%	9.30%
Herds/flocks (sheep, cows, pigs etc.)	No. of respondents	1	4	37	2	44
	% of the Region of development	1.10%	1.80%	14.10%	1.20%	5.80%
Shops, booths	No. of respondents	2	0	0	3	5
	% of the Region of development	2.20%	0.00%	0.00%	1.80%	0.70%
Shareholder in commercial companies	No. of respondents	1	0	0	1	2
	% of the Region of development	1.10%	0.00%	0.00%	0.60%	0.30%
Production units: workshops, factories	No. of respondents	0	0	0	2	2
	% of the Region of development	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1.20%	0.30%
Peasant household: grows a garden, raises few animals	No. of respondents	6	84	150	52	292
	% of the Region of development	6.50%	36.20%	57.00%	28.90%	38.00%

In the four surveyed regions of development, most respondents are connected to then power supply. A lower proportion are connected to the gas supply or use liquefied gas. More than half of the respondents have mobile of fixed phone. South-Muntenia region has the lowest proportion of respondents connected to the water supply (33%). *(see Table N)*.

Table N. PROP2. Facilities of the respondent households, by region of development, and total – Multiple answer

Facilities	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East
Electricity	92.20%	87.60%	96.20%	90.50%
Gas/liquefied gas	84.30%	72.10%	82.30%	85.00%
Mobile/fixed phone	62.10%	74.70%	72.10%	69.60%
Water supply	55.60%	33.00%	43.40%	71.60%
Cable, internet, satellite TV	47.10%	65.80%	63.80%	68.30%

In the four surveyed regions of development, most respondents stated they had outstanding bills for more than a month for electricity and radio-TV *(see Table O).*

Table O. DAT. Outstanding bills for more than a month, over the past year, for utilities, in the four regions of development, and total – Multiple answer

Debts	Region of development			
	Bucharest-Ilfov	South Muntenia	South West Oltenia	South East
Electricity and radio-TV	30.10%	49.40%	49.10%	51.60%
Other loans	15.70%	2.60%		3.90%
Gas	13.70%	8.90%	4.20%	8.20%
Cable, internet	9.80%	15.20%	25.30%	32.00%
Taxes and dues	7.80%	8.60%		13.40%
Bank instalments / CAR	6.50%	5.70%	0.80%	2.60%
Phone	3.90%	8.30%	14.30%	7.50%
Water	2.60%	10.60%	4.90%	30.70%
None of the above	27.50%	26.10%	36.60%	25.50%
NS / NR	9.20%	2.00%	0.40%	1.30%

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EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT IN KINDERGARTEN

Monica-Mihaela BEŞCU[1]

***Abstract**: The article addresses the issues of educational management in kindergarten and of educational leadership. These two concepts are very important and a lot of researchers are interested to find more information about. We are interested to discover the importance of the activity of a manager in a kindergarten and how this activity influences the quality of education provided there. In the education system in Romania, we have kindergartens that have legal personality and kindergartens that are structures of another kindergarten or another school. Also, there are kindergartens from rural or urban areas. In this article, we propose an approach to the issue of educational management in order to be able to find out to what extent a kindergarten management can influence the work of teachers and all staff in the education unit to achieve quality education.*

***Keywords:** leadership, kindergarten in Romania, kindergarten's head-teacher, education management, quality of education, pupils.*

Introduction

This study has started from the increasing importance of the pre-university education management and the educational leadership in recent years, aimed at achieving the success of pre-school education in Romania. There is a need to examine these two concepts, with increasing differences between them. The study is aiming to support preschool educators, including innovative motivational strategies, theories, methods, techniques to reach the set objectives.

The research argument is built on the idea that all school managers need to information about educational management before taking a leadership position in any school or kindergarten. Therefore, they can make quality education in the school unit and can be able to solve the diverse and extensive problems with which face. The need to build a modern, quality education adapted to the educational standards of the European Union states, without failures, without risk, requires a scientific foundation based, specifically on the science of educational leadership and educational management.

Preschool education is the first step of the Romanian education system aimed at developing and educating pre-school children aged between 3 and 6 years according to

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their physical and psychic development in order to prepare for school and for a successful future in the society. The educators/teachers of kindergarten set the foundation for the education of any child, survey, observe and understand how it grows and evolves, being constantly changing in a modern world.

The interdisciplinary approach to content is a necessity given by the preschooler's need to know and explore the environment. This is also the career status that defines and motivates my efforts. Experience as a kindergarten manager has allowed me to observe pre-school education, becoming increasingly interested in the influence of the kindergarten head-teacher in terms of achieving performance to the expected standards.

This study will synthesize the original personal contributions to the development of educational management and educational leadership in pre-school education institutions, to the enhancement of the quality of the educational process, to the development and maintenance of a close collaboration with the local family and community. We will reflect on the evolution of leadership on national and international level, analyzing the current situation in kindergartens regarding the concrete activity of the managers and aiming at making them more efficient.

From my practice I have observed that successful educational management largely depends on the motivation of all factors involved in education, so the proposed targets will pursue its real growth and the development of innovative and motivational strategies. Also, the necessary information on the training, selection and evaluation of kindergarten managers as well as of school or high school managers, which are referred to as kindergarten structures, will be made available for the achievement of an efficient educational management. Thus, solutions will be identified to improve management in preschool education so that pre-school children can be educated in such a way that you can look with joy and pride in the eyes of the adult who will become.

As a result of the research we will find the degree of satisfaction of the parents and the local community regarding: the activity in the kindergarten, the real progress of the preschools, the conduct and the level of involvement of the directors and the whole staff in the kindergarten, the training and the improvement, to permanent change. We will observe the evolution of managers in rural and urban education, the differences between the quality of education made in kindergartens with legal personality, or that have included all kindergartens and kindergartens that are structures of secondary schools or high schools. As a result, we will identify the factors that influence and condition the achievement of a high-performance education and we will propose a continuous training program to increase performance to support educational leadership.

The educational management in kindergarten

Kindergarten has an important role in building the foundation of the entire child's education in order to develop its personality. In the years spent in kindergarten, the preschool accumulates and acquires the knowledge and skills necessary to prepare him / her for school but also for integrating into society, helping him / her throughout the educational process.

An educational institution with legal personality is led by a manager. (Romanian Education Low 1/2011). Educational management is the area that reflects leadership activity in an educational institution and which refers to the functioning and management of educational units.

Bolam analyzes this area and defines it as "*an executive function designed to implement approved policies*" (Bush, 2015, p. 13). Also, Bolam proposes to make a distinction between educational management and educational leadership. From a different perspective, Sapre argues that "*management involves a series of activities oriented towards efficient and effective use of organizational resources to achieve organizational objectives"* (Sapre, 2002, p. 102). We agree with the ideea that "*management must be mindful of the purpose and objectives of education"* (Bush, 2015, p. 13). This, of course, has sparked the existence of many opposing views. However, it is argued that management activities and tasks must somehow be permanently linked to the objectives and objectives of educational institutions. Despite numerous debates and disagreements in the literature, this is a primordial principle without which quality education can not be achieved.(authors like Bush, Sapre, Bolam). Of course objectives and objectives give us important milestones to support the management of an educational establishment. Educational management aims to achieve certain educational objectives and strategic objectives, which a manager and determines according to many factors. If there is no clear, stable and logical link between purpose, objectives and management, malfunctions occur, different dangers of downtime, including the transition to "*managerialism",* with a "*focus on procedures to the detriment of educational objectives and values".* (Bush, 2015, p.13).

There is a clear need to put this on educational purpose. But we ask ourselves: are all the objectives set up? The answers can be multiple, but we firmly support the fact that it is clear from practice that not always the objectives set and pursued by a manager have proved to be the most appropriate. Increased attention should therefore be paid to setting the targets and objectives to be achieved. Often they are imposed outside the school, which negatively influences the activity of an educational unit. These objectives, imposed, may or may not meet the needs of an educational institution, pre-school needs or even the needs of teachers and all employees.

It is fundamental that management is geared to achieving certain educational objectives, but we must also keep in mind that they are also agreed upon by the respective institution and the community. A lot of researchers (Furlong, Wright, Bush etc.) consider that if a manager follows the implementation of external initiatives, without having specific interventions, tailored objectives and adapted to the institution he is leading, he risks limiting and slipping towards managerialism.

Most theoretical approaches, emphasisse the importance of objectives and the management goals for an educational institution. However, there are also disagreements on some issues. Here are some questions that arise from these disagreements:

1. Formal objectives. What value do they have ?;
2. Organizational or individual objectives. What do we support? / What do we promote ?;

3. Objectives, institutional objectives or other curricular elements specific to the field. How are they established? What criteria are the basis for action?

Gunter makes a history of the syntagms that have been used to define this complex and important field, which has varied from "*educational administration*" to "*educational management*" and, recently, to "*educational leadership*" (Bush, 2015, p.17). This change is illustrated in England by the establishment of the National College for School Leadership in 2000.

Yukl states that there are several definitions of leadership some more useful than others, not to say that there is only a correct definition. (Yukl, 2002, p.4-5). Cuban also offers a clear differentiation between the two concepts: leadership and educational management. Moreover, he succeeds in identifying the importance of both dimensions: (Bush, 2015, p. 21). "*By leadership I mean influencing the actions of others to achieve desirable results. Leaders are those people who outline the purposes, motivation, and actions of others. Often, they initiate change to achieve either existing objectives or new objectives. Leadership requires much ingenuity, energy and talent "* (apud Bush, 2015, p. 21). *"Management implies maintaining the efficiency of the organization's current activities. Although management often requires leadership skills, its global function is to maintain and not to change. They value both management and leadership, without benefiting anyone, since the different contexts require responses* " (apud Bush, 2015, p. 21).

The concept of quality in education is a system of essential features of the learning process that, due to changes generated by evolution, favors the emergence of other phenomena superior to the first. In the literature, we identify a set of management models: "*Cuthbert sets five categories of management models"* (Bush, 2015, p.48): 1. Analytical and rational; 2. Pragmatic-rational; 3. The policy; 4. Models that highlight ambiguity; 5. Phenomenologically; 6. Interactionist.

Tony Bush identifies six key educational management models detailed in his book in 2015: a. Formal; b. College; c. Political; d. Subjective e. Ambiguity; f. Cultural;

Also, within the literature, Bush and Glover identified 10 leadership models that are associated with the six previously identified Bush management models:

- Management formal - managerial leadership;
- Collective management - participatory, transformational, distributed;
- Political management - transactional leadership;
- Subjective management - postmodern, emotional leadership;
- Management of ambiguity - circumstantial leadership;
- Management culture-moral leadership, training;

According to Davies, there are seven categories of leadership: i. Strategic Leadership; ii. Invitation Leadership; iii. Ethical Leadership; iv. Constructivist Leadership; v. Poetic and political leadership; vi. Leadership entrepreneurial; vii. Sustainable Leadership.

Both preschools, teachers and managers are constantly changing. The organization acquires a new form of the entity by realizing innovation at its level. Innovative motivational strategies are nothing more than a system of methods, processes, means and organizational forms used to achieve quality in education. Leadership and effective educational management are essential to a performance in an educational organization. Their models are of particular importance to all members of the educational institution, as they are models to follow for everyone else. Thus, the importance of management and leadership in education institutions for qualitative education is obvious.

Pre-school education in Romania

German pedagogue Froebel (1782-1852) was interested in the importance of the early years of the child's life and was the one who founded the first kindergarten in Blankenburg in 1837. The institution then appears in Romania in 1909, during Spiru Haret ministry (1851-1912).

"The education system is the main subsystem of the education system. In Romania, education system includes: pre-school education, primary education, lower secondary education, general compulsory education, upper secondary education, arts and crafts schools, apprentice schools, post-high school education and higher education." (Romanian National Education Law no. 1/2011). The structure of the school year, including course sessions, holiday periods and national exams, shall be established by order of the Minister for National Education. School classes can be suspended for a certain period of time, in emergency situations, in case of epidemics, natural calamities, diseases or crisis situations. Authorized educational institutions (accredited) are part of the national school network, which is constituted annually in accordance with the provisions of the law in force. (Romanian National Education Law no. 1/2011).

The Education Law no. 84/1995 provided for the gradual generalization of the preparatory group for the school so that the enrollment rate of the children in the kindergarten increased annually. The year 2000 brought a new vision of preschool education, seen within the educational program "*Organization of pre-primary education*", and in 2002 the program "*Generalization of the large preparatory group in the pre-school education in Romania*" was initiated. During 2005-2006, the Strategy of the Ministry of Education and Research in the field of Early Education was developed with the support of UNICEF. The Law of National Education 1/2011 places the preparatory class at school. Pre-school education includes children aged between 3 years and 6-7 years. Activities take place in regular, extended or weekly kindergartens. Preschool education is structured on two levels: level I that prioritises the socialization of children aged between 3 and 5 years and level II that aims to prepare for schooling children aged 5 to 6 years. The Law of National Education 1/2011, with its subsequent amendments and completions, is the law governing the current education. Early education - pre-school education includes small, middle and large group. At each community level, there is a school network that includes all the institutions in that locality, specifying the status of each. This school network is established by the Local Council Decision at the beginning of each budget year and refers to the next school year. This establishes the institutions

with legal personality and those that become structures and are attached to an institution with legal personality.

The school and the community are two realities that represent an interest for: pedagogues, sociologists, psychologists, philosophers, anthropologists, etc., each trying to capture the issues that contribute to their operating mechanisms, also the involved agents and the degree of involvement in promoting education. (Staiculescu, 2011, p.24)

In Romania, only pre-university education unit with legal personality cand have a manager. To have legal personality (PJ), according Education Law no.1/2011, a kindergarten must have certain elements: a) act of establishment; b) possesses heritage, whether as public / private property or through administration / convenience / rental; c) fiscal identity code (CIF); d) account in the Treasury of the State; e) stamp with the coat of arms of Romania, with the current name of the Ministry of National Education and with the exact name of the educational unit.

Each legal entity has a leadership, staffing and budget, performs financial statements and, according to the law of institutional and decision-making autonomy, within certain limits. On the other hand, a unit of education without legal personality, which is subordinated to another educational institution, which has legal personality, is called structure of that unit. (Romanian National Education Law no. 1/2011). In order to have legal personality, a kindergarten must have at least 150 preschools, according to the mentioned law.

Pre-primary education institutions may have only legal personality or may have one or more kindergartens as a structure. However, there are also cases where a kindergarten has no legal personality and is considered as a secondary school or high school structure. In order to facilitate the enrollment of children in education at any level, after consultation with the local public administration and with the educational units, the county school inspectorates establish, for each educational unit, the school constituencies of the educational units. School districts are established for educational establishments that preschool pre-school, elementary and lower secondary classes, in compliance with the provisions of the law in force. This is made up of the streets near the school and is thus allocated to it, for enrolling in preschool / pupils living at addresses located on these streets. After setting up the school districts, the educational establishments are obliged to make the census of the children annually.

In Romania, there is a concurrent environment in terms of the network of educational units. There are several categories of institutions. From the most prestigious to the least prestigious. These are ranked in this ranking based on the results and performance recorded. On the other hand, we can see that an important role in the choice of the kindergarten by the parents is the location of the kindergarten, the configuration of the building, its facilities and the opportunities it offers. Another motivating factor that plays an important role is of course the educator. Parents are interested long before enrolling their child in the kindergarten by their educator. The most common question nowadays is: what educators do I enroll for my child? After a thorough analysis of the educator's work, the level of training, the activities that both school and extra-curricular activities take, after discussions with the parents of preschoolers who graduated from

the kindergarten and are enrolled in that teacher, the parent chooses the educator. There are many cases where an educator is more demanded than other colleagues. These situations can be considered as a plus because it is good for an educator to be desirable for her qualities, her parents, but on the other hand, in such frequent situations, it is necessary to take action. Because my experience like manager and like teacher I can oserv this practices in my kindergarten and in anothers kindergartens.

A possibile design of research in educational management

The research will provide the necessary information on the training, selection and evaluation of kindergarten managers as well as of school or high school managers who have a kindergarten structure to achieve an effective educational management. Thus, solutions will be identified to improve management in preschool education so that pre-school children are educated in such a way as to become mature adults adapted and integrated into the society in which they live.

Thereffore, the aim of the research would be to propose new methods and practices in managerial activity. Also, we propose several objectives and hypotheses. Some of the hypotheses could be:

I1. If the kindergarten ensures the quality of the educational process in the kindergarten then the pre-school children will be prepared for the school.

I2. If the manager has leadership skills and offers teachers positive conditions and motivations, then the teaching staff will provide pre-school opportunities for personality development at a high level.

I3. If the parents, the local community, the manager and the teaching staff are prepared to properly assess the work of the actors involved, the education will be a qualitative one.

I4. If the kindergarten develops a fair and real partnership with parents and the community, then the quality of the vertical and horizontal relationships will increase, the child will have greater flexibility in assimilating new knowledge.

Therefore, in the proposed research, we will have the following independent variables: the type of staff and the director; age of staff and director (EE); professional status of teachers; teacher experience; teaching degree; environment of origin - rural or urban;

Methods, techniques and tools for collecting, analyzing and interpreting research data

- Quantitative methods: questionnaire, statistical data collection methods, interview,
- Qualitative methods: observation, content analysis of school documents, case study, reflective journal, focus group

We shall have results that will help us to identify issues related to educational management.

Conclusions

In this research, we propose an approach to the issue of educational management in order to be able to find out to what extent a kindergarten management can influence the work of teachers and all staff in the education unit to achieve quality education.

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BOOK REVIEW
Terry Kading, editor, NO STRAIGHT LINES: Local Leadership and the Path from Government to Governance in Small Cities, Calgary, University of Calgary Press, 2018, p. 308

Sorin CACE[1]

The book **NO STRAIGHT LINES: Local Leadership and the Path from Government to Governance in Small Cities** is a scientific reference in the field of quality of life in small towns. The work is dedicated „purpose of this collection is to expose how these leadership initiatives have and continue to fortify – often unknowingly – the equality of quality of life in one small city, Kamloops, British Columbia". (p. 3)

The volume authors have extensive experience in quality of life studies at the local level.

The idea of leadership and learning is emphasized, according to which local initiatives need to be developed primarily by local actors who understand the context very well and can prioritize both the needs and the allocation of resources.

The most visible forms of leadership are understood as being driven by the local "pro-growth coalition," a combination of developers, property owners, professionals, tradespeople, and businesses acting in concert with the local government to ensure the continuous expansion of the city. (p. 3)

This collection expands on the concept of quality of life to encompass equality of quality of life, a new perspective comprised of less recognized but critical components that ensure the health and vitality of urban life – particularly in the small city, where the structures and capacities of local government are more circumscribed than in large urban centres (p. 4)

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The structure of the paper is complex and its chapters describe and analyse both the theoretical and methodological elements (Møller &Huschka, 2009, Glatzer 2015, Tonon, 2015) as well as the practical and practical ones: Promoting "Community Leadership and Learning" on Social Challenges: Government of Canada Homelessness Initiatives and the Small City of Kamloops, British Columbia; "What a Difference a Shower Can Make"; No Straight Lines: Using Creativity as a Method to Fight Homelessness; The Kamloops Public Produce Project—A Story of Place, Partnerships, and Proximity in an Edible Garden Setting; The Kamloops Adult Learners Society: Leadership through Organic Partnerships and Knowledge Support in the Small City, The Tranquille Oral History Project: Reflections on a Community-Engaged Research Initiative in Kamloops, British Columbia, Leadership Initiatives and Community-Engaged Research: Explorations and Critical Insights on "Leadership and Learning" in the Small City of Kamloops.

Chapter 1 Promoting "Community Leadership and Learning" on Social Challenges: Government of Canada Homelessness Initiatives and the Small City of Kamloops, British Columbia"

Previous measures to reduce the number of homeless people have not yielded the expected results, and therefore a rethink of policies was needed to combine measures at the federal level with those at the local level.

With an inadequate response from the provinces to this off-loading of responsibility in housing and social support, the Government of Canada returned with a new and revised funding model to address homelessness – a model that placed the onus on local communities to assume a leadership role in addressing an emerging homelessness crisis. (p. 35)

A new implementation mechanism has been built up with very well-defined decision levels and action that has led to much better results in Kamloops, British Columbia.

In chapter 2 "What a Difference a Shower Can Make" s presented a project that has set up a special shower room for homeless people and how this facility has helped to improve the quality of life of these people. In a wider context homeless people went to the table in better and more confident conditions.

It is also noted that researchers support the strengthening of the relationship between learning and quality of life at the local level.

"are exploring the relationships between leadership, learning, and quality of life in small city settings *and* the value and contribution of our academic skill sets to this process" (p. 72-73)

The chapter 3 "focuses on the initial planning stages of a community-engaged theatre and research project involving NSL in collaboration with homeless and marginally housed individuals" (p. 99)

NSL is one of several initiatives on homelessness resulting from a partnership between the United Way, Thompson Rivers University (TRU), and the Kamloops Homelessness Action Plan (HAP).(p 101)

An interesting project evaluation is carried out which highlights the results of the collaboration between several partners and the benefits of the integrated approach.

In chapter 4 was described *„grassroots-initiated urban agriculture project introduced in Kamloops, British Columbia, in 2011. As one of the first urban agriculture projects of its kind in Canada, the "Public Produce Project" interrupted the prescribed logic of a downtown urban space by creating an innovative response to issues of sustainability and food production at the local level. It was Kamloops' first fully public garden project, and it transformed a derelict urban lot into a fertile garden oasis*. (p. 145)

The defining element of this chapter is that the researcher was involved in all phases of project development and implementation: design, partnership creation, implementation and evaluation.

In chapter 5, after situating the organization in the context of the third-age learning movement, examines the motivation for its creation, its leadership and structure, the motivation of its students, and the community partnerships – particularly the extensive but unofficial relationship with Thompson Rivers University – that KALS has established. (p. 175)

The lessons learned from this initiative are: the elderly were involved in coordinating and running the project, the participants in the course were also trainers, the length of the relatively low courses and the synthetic modules, the provision of courses for small groups that increased the interactivity

Quality and *equality of quality of life* are widely accepted as being fostered by third-age learning (p. 189)

In chapter 6, *was reflected on the development of one public history initiative in Kamloops, British Columbia: the Tranquille Oral History Project (TOHP). Established for a two-year period beginning in June 2012, the TOHP involved representatives from private industry, the non-profit sector, and the university* (p. 215)

This paper is the result, on the one hand, of the contribution of some specialists with experience in the field and, on the other hand, of the systematic work done in the field of quality of life in Canada.

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