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## XIX CICLO DEL DOTTORATO DI RICERCA IN TRANSBORDER POLICIES FOR DAILY LIFE POLITICHE TRANSFRONTALIERE PER LA VITA QUOTIDIANA

## TRANSYLVANIA AND FRIULI-VENEZIA GIULIA IN THE PRESENT EUROPEAN CONTEXT. A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON HISTORY, ADMINISTRATION AND DELOCALIZATION

(Settore scientifico-disciplinare SPS/08)

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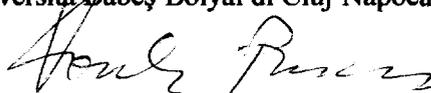
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## **ABBREVIATION LIST**

<b>CARDS</b>	<b>Community Assistance for Reconstruction, Development and Stability</b>
<b>CEFTA</b>	<b>Central European Free Trade Agreement</b>
<b>CMEA</b>	<b>Council for Mutual Economic Assistance</b>
<b>CoR</b>	<b>Committee of the Regions</b>
<b>COREPER</b>	<b>Permanent Representatives Committee</b>
<b>EDF</b>	<b>European Development Fund</b>
<b>EIB</b>	<b>European Investment Bank</b>
<b>EU</b>	<b>European Union</b>
<b>FDI</b>	<b>Foreign Direct Investments</b>
<b>FVG</b>	<b>Friuli-Venezia Giulia</b>
<b>IUIES</b>	<b>International University Institute for European Studies</b>
<b>LAG</b>	<b>Local Action Groups</b>
<b>NAFTA</b>	<b>North American Free Trade Agreement</b>
<b>PPT</b>	<b>Passive Perfecting Traffic</b>
<b>SMEs</b>	<b>Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises</b>
<b>TEN</b>	<b>Trans-European Transport Network</b>
<b>USSR</b>	<b>Union of Soviet Socialist Republics</b>

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# INTRODUCTION

## Presentation of the Topic

The present paper is a comparative study between two regions: Transylvania in Romania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia in Italy. The research we conducted is part of a larger framework, the one of the study on European Union's evolution. Our thesis proposes an analysis of the cultural issues in Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia from the point of view of international relations.

We have always shown a particular interest in the matters related to the European Union, which is a very widely debated subject nowadays. At the same time, we are interested in cultural and communicational issues, given our educational background and professional environment.

We decided to analyse Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia comparatively because we want to demonstrate the following hypotheses:

1. Europe does build its identity starting from the regional level. We can indeed speak about 'unity in diversity'.
2. The European Union is not a group of states that claim national sovereignty, but Europe can develop better by cultivating its local and regional brands and traditions.

Our study does not pretend to be exhaustive. On the contrary, we are aware of the huge number of European aspects that still need to be analysed. However, we undertook an innovative theoretical and empirical approach of this topic, which is to be demonstrated by the content of our paper.

We found it useful to analyse Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia comparatively in the context of the European Union's regional policy as such an attempt has not been done before. Moreover, we are lucky to write such a paper at a moment when Romania has already joined the big family of the European Union.

## Aim of the Research

The study of the historical and administrative development of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia, as well as the primary and secondary research on the process of delocalization of the Italian companies in Transylvania, represented the empirical support for the fulfilment of the aim of our research: to emphasize the cultural similarities (traditions, customs, language, the presence of ethnic minorities, traces left by the Hapsburg domination, etc.) of the populations living in these two regions.

Our comparative study is meant to reveal the common cultural roots of the Romanians and Italians living in two border areas, characterised by the presence of an important percentage of ethnic minorities. The results of such a study could perfectly demonstrate our thesis and support our arguments.

## Objectives

We propose to research on the possible non-economic reasons that determine Italian investors to delocalize in Transylvania. In order to demonstrate such a hypothesis, we formulated a series of secondary theories.

Transylvania and the FVG region have a common historical past. There are both similarities and differences, but the first seem to prevail. We speak here in terms of territorial, cultural, social, and historical similarities. Both Transylvania and FVG are border areas, characterised by the presence of ethnic minorities. Moreover, they have a common past starting from the Romans and the Barbarians and continuing with the Hapsburgs.

We are interested in the two regions' structure and regional characteristics throughout history, insisting, however, on the present configuration. The administrative organisation of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia is rather similar, starting from the local authorities and ending with the regional ones.

The EU regional policy directly involves Italy and Romania, as both are members of the European Union. In such case we will present some regional programmes of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia and their cooperation at different levels.

Although the present economic situation of the two regions is different, it seems that they are closely linked to one another by the common elements belonging to the Latin roots that still survive.

With the help of questionnaires we want to demonstrate that the Italian investors delocalize in Transylvania for economic reasons, but also because they feel at home there given the customs, traditions, and language similar to theirs.

Consequently, our objectives are closely related to those theories. We intend to demonstrate each of those statements throughout the paper.

## Methodology

We should mention first of all that our research was conducted both in Romania and in Italy. In order to elaborate our thesis, we used several methods: 1. *the method of direct comparative analysis* of two regions (Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia) that belong to two EU Member States (Italy and Romania); 2. *the analytical method*, as we analyse the two regions' historical evolution, administrative structure and economic situation; 3. *the conceptual method*, as we define such concepts as 'region', 'development regions', or 'Mitteleuropa'; 4. *the sociological method* (the use of a questionnaire in order to be filled in by the representatives of the Italian companies in Transylvania).

In this way we combined the theoretical approach with the empirical research. Nowadays it is commonly agreed that social studies and humanities imply the coexistence of the two dimensions in any kind of research studies.

## Structure of the Paper

This thesis is made up of a list of abbreviations, an introduction, a body containing five chapters, some conclusive remarks, three appendices, and the bibliographical list.

*The introduction* contains the presentation of the researched topic, the aim of the research, the objectives, and the methodology used.

Each of the chapters of the body ends with conclusions on the matter they analyse. *The first* chapter analyses the history of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia in the present European context. It is an overview on the past and present of the two regions, divided into

several parts that deal with their formation and development. In the case of Transylvania focus is laid on the 1989 Revolution, as it represented a historic moment in the history of Romania. As far as Friuli-Venezia is concerned, we insist on the Hapsburg period and the Unification. In both cases the issue of minorities is underlined and aspects related to their language and rights are presented. Moreover, we tried to present the common historical moments between Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia. All in all, the history of the two regions shows very many similar elements that make both Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia important territories not only for their countries, but also for the whole Europe. They both contribute to a unified Europe, given their comparative advantage that we will emphasize in the next chapters while speaking about regional programmes in these areas and the cooperation at different levels.

As far as the administrative analysis of *the second chapter* is concerned, we first presented a historical profile of the development of the administrative system of the two regions. We continued with the present structure of these entities. We considered it useful to emphasize the autonomous statute of the FVG region, as this reality does not exist in Romania. History played a very important role in defining the administrative structure of both regions. All main events that took part on the territories of these two countries influenced the further development of their regional organisation. Once again, we come back to the idea of the common past of the two regions and their countries and the same Latin roots.

Given our interest for the issue of regions and regional cooperation, we found it important to introduce in *the third chapter* of our paper a complete overview of the EU regional policy. The community dimension of the regional policy has a direct impact both on Romania and Italy. All over the world regions have evolved in different ways and at different speeds. Nevertheless, regions are the common values of the united Europe. Regional balance and cohesion are among the basic principles of the European Union. These important European values must be exploited for the sake of the United States of Europe for the benefit of its citizens. First of all, it is worth mentioning that there is a difference as far as the term of “region” is concerned in the case of the two countries. When we speak about regions in Romania we refer either to historical or geographical regions or to development regions. On the contrary, when we speak about regions in Italy, we might think of historical and geographical regions, but also to autonomous regions. The latter are one of the main issues of the Italian administrative system. They are sub-national entities with a certain amount of legislative, administrative, and financial autonomy. The status of autonomous regions in Italy is based on cultural grounds, the geographical location, and the presence of important ethnic minorities on those territories. There

are several cooperation programmes that are developing between the two regions at different levels, some of which are presented in this chapter. Enhanced regional cooperation will contribute to the economic, social, and cultural development of both EU Member States and candidate countries.

*The fourth chapter* deals with the phenomenon of delocalization and the economic relations between Romania and Italy. We define delocalization and analyse its reasons. Further on, we present a short description of the economic and commercial links between Romania and Italy. We continue with the particular case of the Italian companies that delocalized in Transylvania by presenting their strong and weak points, the places where they moved their business and equipment, as well as the evolution of this phenomenon in Romania after the 1989 Revolution. Beside this phenomenon of the Italian delocalization in Romania, there is a process that is taking place the other way round: the Romanian migration to Italy for work. Practically speaking, it is a circular movement based on economic matters but also on a common cultural background, Latin traditions and mentalities, and a Romance language.

*The fifth chapter* is dedicated to the collection of data on the Italian companies that delocalize in Transylvania. We start by defining the sociological inquiry and the survey and continue with general aspects on how to make a questionnaire. We continue with a case study on the Italian companies delocalizing in Transylvania. In this chapter we used both written sources and data collected from the questionnaires administered to the Italian investors in Transylvania. These questionnaires contain both closed and open questions. Thus, we worked both with quantitative and qualitative methods in order to study the phenomenon of delocalization.

*The conclusive remarks* of our research resume the hypotheses formulated in the introduction and developed throughout the content of the paper. The history and administrative organisation of Transylvania and the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region present both similarities and differences. However, the comparative analysis proved a surprisingly big number of similarities. However, the most important conclusion of our research is the fact that, beside the economic aspect, there are also cultural links between the two regions and their population. On the one hand, Italian investors delocalize in Transylvania for financial reasons but also because they feel good and at home here. They mentioned the Romanian food, language, mentality and culture in their answers. On the other hand, the Romanians who leave their country and go to work in Italy feel the same there. In conclusion, Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia belong to two countries whose common historical heritage is still seen today. Indeed, Europe builds its identity from the regional level. The idea of 'unity in diversity' is thus confirmed. The European Union is

not a group of states with sovereign claims, but Europe develops better by cultivating its local and regional brands and traditions. Thus, our hypotheses proved true and well founded.

There are, however, several questions that arise: Will the situation stay the same given Romania's accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007 and the subsequent changes that are taking place here? Will we see Romanian companies delocalizing in Italy? Will the Romanians that are now working in Italy come back home? All these issues could be debated in a future research.

Mention should be made that, given our professional environment as a university teaching assistant and the further use of our paper for our academic career, we decided to provide references in the British style. That is why quoted authors appear immediately after the statements or quotations with the publication year and the page number. Footnotes only contain our explanations, the information taken from the Internet and from legislation.

A final and complete bibliographical list is to be found at the end of the paper. We found it natural to insert here all the titles we consulted in order to elaborate our thesis. There were cases in which we used dictionaries in order to translate the materials from Romanian, French or Italian into English. In other occasions we only read different works but did not quote or used the whole range of ideas.

# CHAPTER 1 - AN OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF TRANSYLVANIA AND FRIULI-VENEZIA GIULIA IN THE PRESENT EUROPEAN CONTEXT

## 1.1. History of Transylvania - A 'Melting Pot' throughout the Centuries

### 1.1.1. Transylvania – An Overview

As Romania entered the European Union on 1 January 2007, we consider it useful to describe Transylvania as an extremely important cultural area. It is a known fact that the European Union promotes multiculturalism and it aims at being a “*unity in diversity*” (Smith 2004: 1). Romania has always been a territory where history, culture, languages, and people meet. Transylvania, in particular, has always been a house of civilisations, due to the heritage of its national minorities which preserved and also adapted their culture, customs and languages. Transylvania must be looked at by analysing its defining elements, such as religion, ethnicity, tradition, and language. But, what brought about this multiethnic situation, what defined this society? The answer is to be found by scrutinising the past. The combining social, emotional, and cultural factors that characterise Transylvania today have strong historical roots.



Transylvania, Wallachia, and Moldavia are the three medieval countries that emerged on the territory of ancient Dacia. Transylvania had a different status from the very beginning, as it

has always been an area of transition, which is also proved by etymology. The name Transylvania comes from the Latin *trans* = across, beyond, and *silva* = forest. The Germans called it *Siebenbürgen* or, in Latin, *Septemcastra*, meaning “the seven boroughs”. The Hungarians and the Szeklers called it *Erdély*, while the Romanians referred to it as *Ardeal*. Transylvania proper is the region surrounded on all sides by the Carpathians and located in the centre of Romania. Its boundaries were finally set up after several waves of migrations and dominations: the Romans, the Hungarians, and the Germans. According to the census of 2002, Romanians in Transylvania represent 74.7%, Hungarians 19.6%, while the rest are German, Roma, Ukrainian, Serb, etc<sup>1</sup>. After relative independence, these provinces united in the modern era in order to form the country known as Romania. As Jean Nouzille (1996: 11) explains:

As it has always been an area where different peoples, languages, and civilisations met, Transylvania has been for centuries the theatre of confrontations among Romanians, Hungarians, Slavs, Austrians, and Turks.

According to Marica (1997: 229, our translation):

Transylvania is considered the cradle of the Romanian people, as it was here that its foundations were laid. It was here that the Romans came and lived with the Dacians and left their permanent marks.

## **1.1.2. Formation of Transylvania**

### ***1.1.2.1. The Romans***

The Roman Empire had a very important contribution to the formation of the Romanian people and language. At that time Dacia has been reputed as a rich and happy province, “Dacia Felix”, whose possession offers Rome many advantages. The synthesis between Dacians and Romans and the adoption by all inhabitants of the Roman language, religions, culture, customs, way of life, etc. formed the *Romanization* process (Pop, Porumb 2004: 18). As a proof, Romanian is a Romance language. The Romans left to Transylvania permanent elements of their culture, religion, folklore, tradition and language.

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<sup>1</sup> Data provided by the [www.insee.ro](http://www.insee.ro).

*Christianization* became more intense once it became the official religion of the Empire (313 A.D.). In the space of several centuries, the ancestors of the Romanians and the Romanians themselves gradually became Christian, receiving the word of God in Latin. Christianization strengthened the Romanization process and consolidated the Latin identity of the Romanians.

Though no source supplies the precise date of the evacuation of Dacia, most historians estimate it between 270 and 275, and the year 271 is generally accepted. Historians' opinions differ on the way this evacuation was done, offering various interpretations of ancient sources. There are several theories regarding the origins of the population in Transylvania:

- the Romanian historians sustain the "*theory of continuity*". According to them, ancient Dacia, colonized by the Romans, continued to be the home of the Romanized population, the latter assimilating the ethnics left behind by the successive waves of invaders until the arrival of the Hungarians;
- the Hungarian historians oppose the Romanian thesis and sustain the "*immigration theory*", claiming that the Roman army's withdrawal was accompanied by the complete disappearance of the Dacian-Romans from Transylvania. According to them, the Hungarian conquerors would have found a desert area in Transylvania, while the Romanians, coming from the south of the Balkan Peninsula, would have come to Transylvania as late as the 13<sup>th</sup> century (Nouzille 1996: 11).

#### ***1.1.2.2. The Migratory Peoples***

After the withdrawal south of the Danube of the Roman administration and of parts of the population, several invasions of the migratory peoples took place; thus, the Goths, Visigoths, Vandals, Huns, Gepidae, Avars, Slavs, Magyar, and Tartars came on the Dacian territory until the middle of the 13<sup>th</sup> century, slowing down the natural evolution of the native society. As Ioan-Aurel Pop (2004: 18) says, 'only the Slavs eventually settled in the region'. They left traces on the Romanian language, but those were not defining. This is perfectly normal, as it is a known fact that the Slavs only came to Transylvania from time to time and, consequently, they could not influence that much the structure of the already consolidated language of the area. However,

they could not alter the ethnic structure of the Romanian people, its way of life, or the Latin character of its language. The Romanian language, in its vocabulary, has been affected by cohabitation or

contacts with other peoples, by borrowings from Slavic, Magyar, German, Turkish, and Greek, but has retained its basic character as a Romance language.

(Bodea, Căndea 1982: 4)

### ***1.1.2.3. The Hungarians***

The Hungarians also played an extremely important role in defining the structure of the administration and institutions in Transylvania. Today, the Hungarians represent a very important minority in Transylvania. Most of the Hungarians living in Transylvania speak Romanian, while an important number of the Romanians in the area know Hungarian. We speak here about bilingualism. However, the Romanian language only has very few Hungarian elements. This is perfectly explainable, as the Hungarians arrived in Transylvania at a time when the formation of the Romanian language had already been concluded. Still, the intonation and the accent of the Romanians in Transylvania are influenced by the Hungarian language.

According to Nouzille (1996: 80) ‘The exact date when the Hungarians occupied Transylvania is not known: it seems, however, that the occupation occurred gradually’. Small bands of Hungarians began to settle in Transylvania. The Hungarians, ‘a Finno-Ugric people (with Turkish influences) which originated in Asia in the area between the Altai mountains and northern Iran’ (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 6), reached the Pannonian Plain and the regions between the Danube and the Tisza around the year 896, after crossing the Northern Carpathians. From here, Hungarian tribes led by “Duke” Arpad began raiding the surrounding regions. ‘They turned towards Transylvania where they met the resistance of the local Romanian political units’. (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 6). The Hungarian raids against Transylvania resumed after the year 1000, at a time when the Hungarians had taken the Christian religion from the West and had established a kingdom according to the German model. As Pop explains (2004: 19):

Between the second half of the 11<sup>th</sup> century and the year 1200, the Hungarians managed to subdue the whole Transylvania. Banat, Crișana, Sătmăr, etc. became part of Hungary proper, while Transylvania (the ancient area once controlled by Gelou) remained a voivodate in the Romanian-Slavic tradition, included nevertheless in the Kingdom of Hungary.

The Hungarian kings started to colonize Transylvania, bringing in foreign settlers. The first step was to bring in groups of Hungarians, especially noblemen, from the west, but their number was insufficient. (Pop, Porumb 2004: 19). Consequently, the kings brought Szekler colonists to Transylvania to use them as sedentary border guards. ‘They were quartered in the

Bihor, where they left traces until late' (Edroiu, Puşcaş 1996: 13). In the 12<sup>th</sup> century the Szeklers were transferred to the south-eastern part of the province (the Târnave-Mureş line), 'where their descendants still live' (Nouzille 1996: 84). As Pop describes (2004: 19):

In the 14<sup>th</sup> and the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the Szeklers established seven territorial units called seats (*sedes*), led by sheriffs and captains. Among them Telegd, Kézdi, Sepsi, Orbai, Ciuc, Mureş, Arieş. For centuries, the Szeklers managed to preserve their traditional archaic society, partially agricultural, based on a powerful military structure and located in a cold, mountainous region.

#### ***1.1.2.4. The Germans***

Like in the case of the Hungarians, the German elements did not play a decisive role in the formation of the Romanian language, as it had already been consolidated at the time when the German colonists were brought in.

Pop (2004: 19) presents the arrival of the Germans in Transylvania:

In the 12<sup>th</sup> and the 13<sup>th</sup> century, the Hungarian kings brought in Transylvania large numbers of Western colonists, mostly German, which developed here urban and rural centres. The Germans were brought in from the Rhineland, Moselle, Flanders, Luxemburg, etc. and they occupied a compact area located in southern Transylvania, between the valleys of the Târnava and Olt rivers, but also near Braşov and Bistriţa. The Germans were generically designated as Saxons (*Sachsen*). They were skilled farmers, craftsmen, miners, and traders, representatives of an advanced civilisation. For crusading purposes, other Germans were invited into Transylvania around the year 1211: the Teutonic Knights.

Sorina-Paula Bolovan and Ioan Bolovan tell us that (2000: 16, our translation):

Although they were given privileges, the Teutonic Knights had conflicts with the Hungarian King, as they had built their own castles and coined their own money;

Moreover, they did not recognise the authority of the Catholic bishopric of Alba-Iulia and colonised without permission German population from the territories they had been offered for use. Consequently, they were banished in 1225 (Bolovan, Bolovan 2000: 16, our translation).

The great majority of the Saxons were peasants who cultivated the land and bred cattle. However, some of them were craftsmen, as shown by the documents of the beginning of the 13<sup>th</sup> century (Bolovan, Bolovan 2000: 22, our translation). The second half of the 13<sup>th</sup> century meant a

decisive step in the process of the craftsmen's separation from the peasants (Bolovan, Bolovan 2000: 23, our translation). 'The Saxons also established seven marks (Sibiu, Sebeş, Cincu, Orăştie, Nocrich, Rupea, Miercurea)' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 19). The first big urban centre was Sibiu (Hermannstadt); later, it was followed by Mediaş, Bistriţa, Cluj, Sighişoara and two districts (Braşov and Bistriţa). During the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the Saxon political-administrative community was given the name *Universitas Saxonum*, or the 'Saxon University'. (Pop, Porumb 2004: 19). It met once or twice a year in order to adopt decisions related to general issues (Bolovan, Bolovan 2000: 21, our translation). At the same time, it represented the Saxons and regulated their relations with other political and administrative institutions (Bolovan, Bolovan 2000: 22, our translation). It is worth mentioning the activity of the democrat scholar Stephan Ludwig Roth.

According to Nouzille (1996: 95):

The Saxons may have given Transylvania the name of Siebenbürgen (Seven Citadels) by virtue of the existence of these seven citadels serving as seats. The lands of the Szeklers and the Saxons escape from the authority of the Hungarian Voivode.

As Edroiu and Puşcaş describe (1996: 13):

The leaders of some clans who distinguished themselves in battle received lands and offices in the newly conquered territories and settled with their families around the royal castles and around the main settlement of the feudal domain they had received from the king.

#### ***1.1.2.5. Further Events***

The Hungarian state and the colonists introduced in Transylvania the institutions of Western Christianity. Thus, at the beginning of the 14<sup>th</sup> century, the ethnic and religious structure of medieval Transylvania was composed of the Orthodox Romanians, on the one hand, and the Catholic Hungarians, Saxons, and Szeklers, on the other hand. To quote Edroiu and Puşcaş again (1996: 14):

The Hungarian penetration left in the ocean of Romanian population small ethnical islands, which were to expand in the following centuries through a demographic influx from Pannonia and through natural growth.

Here again, we can see another important characteristic of this area: *the ethnical diversity*.

Transylvanian *towns* represented not only a socio-economic, demographic and political issue, but also an ethnical one. The township privilege granted by the Hungarian King to the foreign ethnic groups, colonised or brought into Transylvania after the conquest, resulted in the foundation and preservation of the towns as ethnical islands spread over territories with a different population.

As Pop states (2004: 20) in the Preface of *Patrimoniul Cultural al României. Transilvania/ The Cultural Heritage of Romania. Transylvania*:

Paradoxically, the originally Neo-Latin Romanians eventually turned towards Constantinople rather than towards Rome when it came to their religious identity. Rome was simply too far and the Romanians found themselves isolated from it [...]. It was mainly the Slavs that mediated between the Romanians and Byzantium, and it was from them that Romanians took the language of their religion and culture (Old Slavonic) as well as the elements pertaining to the ecclesiastical institutions.

Moreover, ‘the Hungarian Crown became committed to the mission of fighting ‘the heathen, the heretics, and the schismatic’, trying to impose their conversion to the Catholic faith’ (Pop, Porumb 2004: 20). Beginning with the year 1351, the Orthodox faith was gradually taken outside the law. ‘The clergy and aristocracy of Orthodox faith, that is the Romanians, were excluded from the country’s political life’ (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 15). The new comers received collective and individual privileges and considerable advantages, while the Romanians were forced to defend their old customs and liberties (Pop, Porumb 2004: 20).

In 1437, faced with the Ottoman threat and with the risk of internal rebellions of the serfs, the Catholic elites (nobles, Saxons, Szeklers) organized a union known as *unio trium nationum* (“union of three nations”), which consecrated a system of Transylvanian leadership that completely excluded the Romanians from power. (Pop, Porumb 2004: 20)

The Ottoman threat helped diminish these ethnic-confessional differences and conflicts. The Late Crusade of the 15<sup>th</sup> century brought together Orthodox and Catholics, Romanians and Hungarians, Serbs and Croats, Greeks and Bulgarians, Szeklers, Saxons, Poles, etc. in an anti-Ottoman struggle against the Turks.

It is more than obvious that at that time the nations in Transylvania became united in front of the dangers they were facing. The principle “unity in diversity” (Smith, 2004: 1) is confirmed once again.

John of Hunedoara (1441-1456) got the fame of a great Transylvanian voivode. He ‘was also one of the foremost military leaders of his age’ (Bodea, Căndea, 1982: 17). Thus, he became Governor of Hungary. Pop describes him and his son, King Matthias Corvinus (1458-1490):

They became symbolic figures for both the Hungarians and the Romanians, as they descended from a Romanian family that had embraced the Catholic faith and had managed to gain the highest honours in the Hungarian Kingdom.

(Pop, Porumb, 2004: 21)

Matthias Corvinus ruled for 32 years, a period marked by a brilliant cultural and artistic Renaissance.

The Turkish victory at Mohacs (1526) led to the division of old Hungary in 1541 (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 19) between the Ottoman Empire and the Hapsburgs. ‘Of the entire Hungarian Kingdom, only Transylvania and few neighbouring counties were saved’ (Pop, Porumb 2004: 21). This contributed to Transylvania’s becoming an autonomous principality under Ottoman suzerainty. In 1552, most of the Banat became a Turkish pashalik (Pop, Porumb 2004: 21).

Military and feudal obligations and heavy taxation led to violent rebellions, such as the revolts of the Romanian, Hungarian, and Szekler peasants occurred in 1437 and 1514. A code of laws called Werböczy’s Tripartitum was passed in 1517, which contained the entire legislation of the principality after the dissolution of Hungary. In this way, Transylvania saw itself an almost independent country, feeling the early influences of the modern world.

(Pop, Porumb 2004: 21)

The Porte regarded the province as a political entity different from Hungary and consequently subjected Transylvania to a regime similar to that of the two Romanian states, Moldavia and Wallachia. The Ottoman suzerainty ended in the late 17<sup>th</sup> century. The principality was ruled by a prince, elected by the Diet and confirmed by the Porte. The Transylvanian prince ruled with the assistance of the Council (*Consilium*) and the Diet. Rights and privileges were granted only to three political nations (nobles, Saxons, and Szeklers) and four recognized religions (Catholic, Lutheran, Calvinist, and Unitarian) (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 20). The

Romanians did not participate in public and political life and their Orthodox religion was not recognized.

The Renaissance and the Reformation brought new cultural alternatives, new artistic trends, and new denominations, consecrating writing in the national languages. The printing presses from Sibiu, Braşov, and Cluj printed books in German, Romanian, and Hungarian. These events were interrupted for a brief period by the rule of Michael the Brave (1593-1601) in Wallachia. ‘A military genius, courageous and determined, Michael the Brave brought together Wallachia with Transylvania (1599) and Moldavia (1600)’ (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 22). The Romanian Church in Transylvania became subordinated to the Metropolitan See of Wallachia and he managed to obtain approval from Vienna to bring the Orthodox faith among the official denominations of the principality. Consequently, he was removed from power, accused of breaking the rules and of elevating his Romanian subjects to an undeserved position. Although the Union lasted for a short period, from May 1600 until August 1601, it made the Romanians conscious about the existence of the three principalities as one people with common language, religion, customs, and ideals (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 23). He was turned into a Romanian national symbol by the historians of the modern era.

### **1.1.3. Development of Transylvania**

#### ***1.1.3.1. The 17<sup>th</sup> Century***

During the 17<sup>th</sup> century, Transylvania experienced a time of relative prosperity. ‘The Diet passed a new legislation, *Approbatæ* (1653) and *Compilatae Constitutiones* (1669), which consecrated the establishment based upon three nations and four religions’ (Pop, Porumb 2004: 24). Transylvania began its emancipation from under Ottoman sovereignty.

‘In 1688, Transylvania practically became part of the Hapsburg Empire, and in 1699, after the Peace of Karlowitz, its new status gained official international recognition’ (Pop, Porumb, 2004: 24). Transylvania’s constitutional status within the Hapsburg Empire was determined by the Leopoldine Diploma of December 1691. It would serve as the constitution of the country for the next 150 years. According to it, the political system based on the three privileged nations and the four recognized religions was maintained. However, it was meant to make Transylvania part of the Empire and state clear obligations. Pop (2004: 24) further describes the events:

After the annexation of Banat (taken from the Turks in 1718), the imperial authorities decided to organize the region and brought in new colonists collectively designated as Schwaben, or Swabians. As opposed to the Transylvanian Saxons, the Swabians were Roman-Catholic.

The centre of governance and the seat of the Diet was Alba Iulia. It was later moved to Sibiu and, after 1790, to Cluj. A Transylvanian Court Chancellery was established in Vienna in 1694.

### *1.1.3.2. The 18<sup>th</sup> Century*

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the imperial authorities instituted a new, modern order in Transylvania, following the model of enlightened despotism, during the reign of Maria Theresa (1740-1780) and Joseph II (1780-1790). 'These measures were meant to increase religious tolerance, to modernise education and administration, to limit the abuses of the nobility and even put an end to serfdom' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 24). According to official statistics, the Romanians represented two-thirds of the population at that time. They 'felt encouraged by the new reforms' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 24). 'Interested in the stability of the empire and in the loyalty of its citizens, Vienna encouraged the Romanians to embrace Catholicism' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 24). The Romanians were expected to get closer to the Church of Rome. The most important was the recognition of Papal Supremacy. In exchange, the authorities promised imperial patents granting the Romanians equal rights with the other nations. Thus, after 1700, some of the Transylvanian Romanians became Greek-Catholic (Uniate), while the rest decided to remain Orthodox. The new Church, with its central see in Blaj, would become known as the Romanian Uniate, or Greek-Catholic Church (Pop, Porumb 2004: 25).

The 18<sup>th</sup> century also recorded the beginning of the political struggle of Transylvanian Romanians to win recognition as a nation. Hungarians, Romanians, Germans, Szeklers, Serbs, etc. defined their national ideology and goals, established institutions and 'tried to gain their national freedom and establish independent nation-states' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 25). In Transylvania the struggle was opened by bishop Inochentie Micu Clain (1692-1768) and it was based on the Leopoldine promises related to religious union. Together with Petru Maior, Samuil Micu, Gheorghe Șincai, Ignatie Darabant, he asked official recognition of the Romanian nation, equal rights with the other Transylvanian nations, right of free movement, access to education and crafts, official recognition of their language, etc. 'He also invoked the superiority of the origin, the antiquity and continuity of the Romanian people in Transylvania' (Bodea, Câdea

1982: 36). The ideological and cultural movement of the Romanian intellectuals from Transylvania was called the *Transylvanian School*. It started at the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> and the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Its leaders contributed to the formulation of the *Supplex Libellus Valachorum* of 1791. As Nouzille (1996: 209) describes it:

It was meant to inform the Court of Vienna on the claims of the Romanians in Transylvania and ask for fully equal rights with the three privileged nations (the Hungarian, Saxon and Szekler noblemen) and a representation in the Diet proportional to the tax-payers' number.

Bodea and Căndea (1982: 37) draw a clear conclusion:

The Transylvanian School played an important role not only in affirming the cultural and national rights of the Romanians in Transylvania, but also in the ideological preparation of the entire Romanian national movement of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

### ***1.1.3.3. The 19<sup>th</sup> Century***

The 19<sup>th</sup> century - 'the century of nations' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 26) - found most peoples of Central and south-eastern Europe 'still deprived of their nation-states' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 26). Starting with the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Ottoman and the Hapsburg Empire, later joined by Russia, had divided among themselves this part of Europe. 'The climax came after the year 1800, when the democratic ideals of the French Revolution and the national German spirit became known' (Pop, Porumb, 2004: 26) in Transylvania. The priority was national freedom (Pop, Porumb 2004: 26).

Marica (1997: 252, our translation) describes the people from Transylvania:

The people here are very active and well organized, while they follow traditional and modern trends. The Austrian administration was one of the best in Europe by its spirit of order, civilisation and progress, which led to a better life standard.

Consequently, 'Transylvanians became ambitious, proud, cultivated, optimistic, strong, courageous and conscious about their own value' (Marica 1997: 252). The various nations of the empire intensified their struggle for emancipation, culminating in the Revolution of 1848-1849. Pop (2004: 26) presents briefly the situation:

In Transylvania, it involved Romanians, Hungarians, Szeklers, and Saxons, who all condemned Austrian absolutism and the feudal order still existing in the country. In Transylvania, the

Romanians fought for their own ideals and against a Greater Hungary, deemed more dangerous than the existing Greater Austria.

National ideals remained unfulfilled in 1848, but it meant a first step. After the repression of the Revolution of 1848-1849, the system of absolute governance was reintroduced throughout the Hapsburg Monarchy until 1860. 'The Diet of Sibiu of 1863-1864 enacted the "Law of equal national rights" for the Romanian nation [...] and recognized the Romanian language as official language of Transylvania' (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 53).

National equality lasted only until 1865. To prevent a collapse, the Hapsburg Empire experienced an Austrian-Hungarian dualism (1867-1918) (Pop, Porumb 2004: 26). Transylvania was placed under direct Hungarian rule. 'As discrimination increased, the struggle for national emancipation intensified' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 26). 'The Romanians in Transylvania wanted to unify with their brothers from Wallachia and Moldavia, as they spoke the same language and had common roots' (Marica 1997: 267, our translation).

#### *1.1.3.4. The 20<sup>th</sup> Century*

During the First World War (1914-1918), and especially towards its end, this struggle took new proportions. In October-November 1918 new states emerged, mostly on the ruins of Austria-Hungary: Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Austria, Poland, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, Romania. Transylvania, by the will of a majority of its inhabitants, the Romanians, joined Romania (Wallachia and Moldavia) on 1 December 1918. 'The union was decided at Alba-Iulia by 1,228 delegates appointed by the Romanian communities from Transylvania, Banat, Crișana and Maramureș' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 26). In 1920, by virtue of the Paris Peace Treaty signed by the Allies and Hungary in the Palace of Trianon, the union between Transylvania and Romania received international recognition.

The consequences of the 1918 Unification are underlined by Marica (1997: 269, our translation):

The Unification of 1918 had many important meanings. It brought changes in the psychological, social, and political structure. The Romanians in Transylvania left the circle of Central Europe and German culture and entered the south-eastern European space, thus being under the French influence. As Cluj detained a central position, it became the seat of the province. Together with Timișoara, Oradea, Sibiu, etc., it was the social and cultural centre of the new Romanian life.

The feelings of the Hungarians are described by Edroiu and Pușcaș (1996: 23):

Being now an ethnic minority within Greater Romania [...], the Hungarians of Transylvania were hostile to the Romanian authorities arrived in the province and from the very start accused them of practising a policy of “assimilation”.

Thus, the Hungarian policy between the wars was oriented towards ‘the denunciation of the Peace of Paris, the cancellation of the Treaty of Trianon, and the revision of the northern borders, in the name of some pretended “historic rights” ’ (Edroiu, Pușcaș 1996: 23).

Until 1918, the Hungarians had preserved their privileged status by means of an overwhelming presence in the Transylvanian cities, which gave them control of the essential economic levers.

(Edroiu, Pușcaș 1996: 24)

After 1918, a natural process of evolution affected the ethnic structure of the urban population, consequence of an economic developed that involved the Romanian element, present until then in an overwhelming proportion mainly in the rural areas (Edroiu, Pușcaș 1996: 25).

Before the First World War, due to the centralist tendencies of Budapest, there were almost no discussions about a cultural life and a literature of the Hungarians in Transylvania (Edroiu, Pușcaș 1996: 26). The young talents were attracted by the perspective of a career in the capital and the few writers who remained in Transylvania were almost forgotten by the Hungarian public. After Transylvania’s unification with Romania, the situation changed. The old literary societies knew a revival and new ones were born (Edroiu, Pușcaș 1996: 27).

The minorities in Transylvania started to create associations and political parties. On 28 December 1922, *the Hungarian National Party* is created by the merger of two parties (Nouzille 1996: 245). On September 18, 1921, the Saxons regroup themselves into *the Union of Germans in Romania* (Nouzille 1996: 245). The Romanian Constitution of 1923 adopted the principle of equality of rights for all ethnic groups. ‘The law of 1924 on education provided that, in cities where languages other than Romanian were also spoken, instruction be also given in the respective languages’ (Bodea, Câdea 1982: 72).

Between the two world wars, the minorities living in Romania accounted for 25% of the total population and enjoyed full civil and political rights, as granted by the Constitution of 1923.

Even though it signed and applied the provisions of the treaty of 4 June 1920, the Hungarian government did not abandon its aspirations to reconstitute the kingdom of Saint Stephen.

(Bodea, Căndea 1982: 74)

During the Second World War, between 1940 and 1944, the north-eastern part of Transylvania, 'inhabited by a Romanian majority, was temporarily ceded to Hungary' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 27), at the unilateral decision of Germany and Italy (the "Vienna Award" of 30 August 1940). Bodea and Căndea (1982: 78) explain:

The Vienna Award forced Romania to cede to Hungary a territory of 43,492 square kilometers which included the towns of Salonta, Oradea, Satu Mare, Baia Mare, Sighet, Dej, Năsăud, Bistrița, Cluj, Tîrgu Mureș, Miercurea Ciuc, Sfîntu Gheorghe, and others and a population of 2,667,007 inhabitants of whom 50.2% were Romanians, 37.1% Hungarians, and the rest members of other nationalities. Later, after the Peace of Paris (1946-1947), the international community once again recognized Transylvania as part of Romania.

The Paris Treaty of 1947 re-establishes the Romanian-Hungarian border as it used to be on 1 January 1938. The Greek-Catholic Church of Transylvania was banned in 1948 and restored only in 1989, after 40 years of persecution during which all of its hierarchy and some of the believers were imprisoned, tortured, or deported.

'In 1959, the Hungarian university of Cluj merged with the Romanian one, creating the "Babeș-Bolyai" University, with Hungarian departments for every discipline' (Edroiu, Pușcaș 1996: 28). Socialist Romania works on the assumption that it is necessary for nations and states to establish new relations based on total equality of rights and mutual respect of independence. The Constitution of the Socialist Republic of Romania of 1 August 1965 states that the co-inhabiting nationalities are encouraged to use their mother tongue at all levels (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 86). In the districts inhabited mostly by a non-Romanian population, all institutions will also use the language of the respective nationalities and appoint functionaries from the latter (Bodea, Căndea 1982: 86). The cultural life of the co-inhabiting nationalities is an organic part of Romania's culture and enjoys material support from the state, providing a large network of cultural, scientific, and educational institutions in their mother tongue. However, the co-inhabiting nationalities also learn Romanian in order to acquire a correct knowledge of it.

Even before the Romanian Revolution, Romania supported the issue of minorities, by promoting multiculturalism and multilingualism through schools and administration.

#### ***1.1.3.5. The Post-Revolution Period***

The Romanian Revolution of 1989 put an end to communism, which restrained the Romanian people and damaged the country's foreign relations. The new Romanian Constitution from 2003 is favourable to the minorities:

The state recognises and guarantees to the persons belonging to national minorities the right to preserve, develop and express their ethnical, cultural, linguistic and religious identity<sup>2</sup>.

Present-day Romania, as a full member of the European Union, 'managed to preserve a valuable historical and artistic heritage, representative for all the nations that have been living on its territory' (Pop, Porumb 2004: 27). The Transylvanian issue is important for the whole country. It is a national subject because of its central position on the Romanian territory. Transylvania was important in the past, for the genesis and the affirmation of the Romanian people, but it is still important today, by its links with the West.

#### **1.1.4. The Issue of Minorities**

One of the most debated issues of the 20<sup>th</sup> century remains the question of ethnic minorities. After 1918, important groups remained on the Romanian territory, among which Hungarians and Germans. They distinguished from the majority by their ethnic origin, language, religion, and habits. Often, the issue of minorities in Romania and in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe did engender different polemic discussions related to their statute on that territory and their relations with the majority (Ivan 2006: 83).

##### ***1.1.4.1. Minorities in Transylvania during the Interwar Period***

The political regime of the interwar period was founded on the idea of equality of all citizens in front of the law, irrespectively of ethnicity, religion and social category, on the freedom to organise meetings, and on the preservation of the property right (Ivan 2006: 50). At the international level, the Romanian unitary state was a member of the Society of Nations and signatory of the Minorities' Treaty of 1919. Consequently, most of its conflicts with the minorities were brought in front of the institutions of the Society of Nations.

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<sup>2</sup> Constituția României din 2003, Art. 6, par. 1.

According to the Peace Treaties from 1919-1920, Romania had to grant equal rights to all its citizens, irrespective of their ethnicity or geographical position on its new territory. By the Minorities' Treaty of 1919, Romania undertook to give its ethnic minorities special rights, such as the right of option and the right to use their mother tongue not only in private relations, but also in business, public meetings, cultural events, press, court, school, etc (Ivan 2006: 100).

The formation of the unified Romania soon gave birth to social, demographic, political, and cultural phenomena. The Unification also meant the incorporation of large groups of ethnical populations. Consequently, the majority-minority and state-minority relations were structured by the democratic process (Ivan 2006: 121) asked by the European and international context and by the necessity to coexist with different minorities in the fields of education, traditions, and culture.

#### Hungarians

The change in the status of the Hungarians in Transylvania from a dominating nation to an ethnic minority had a psychological impact on them, which explains their passive attitude towards the participation in Romania's public life (Ivan 2006: 72).

The attitude of the German minority towards the consequences of Transylvania's unification with Romania was different from the one of the Hungarians. The difference might come from the relationship between the German community and the Hungarian state and nation before 1918. The abolition of the Saxons' administrative autonomy shortly after the beginning of the Austrian-Hungarian dualism in 1867 caused an attitude of rejection of the centralised institutions in Budapest. Moreover, culturally speaking, the Saxons became closer to Germany, without any intention to separate politically and administratively from the Austrian-Hungarian Empire (Ivan 2006: 74).

#### ***1.1.4.2. Identity Building in the Case of the Transylvanian Hungarians and Germans***

The identities of the minorities from Central and Eastern Europe were influenced by the types of societies that developed in that part of the continent starting with the 19<sup>th</sup> century. We also have to take into account the definition of nation and the role played by the subjective perceptions of those communities in building their image (Ivan 2006: 125).

The lack of a strong state tradition and ethnical homogeneity in Central and Eastern Europe sometimes generated a radical nationalism, which was in fact the theory which sustained that ethnical limits should coincide with political limits. Of course, minorities' identities were also influenced by the state policies at the end of World War I. They tended to create

homogeneous administrative, economic and cultural structures. Consequently, states and their minorities had to face an identity and nationalist problem, which gave birth to ethnical conflicts.

The minorities' discourse was not uniform. It was influenced by the relation between the minorities and the state to the jurisdiction of which they belonged, but also by their links with their mother countries. In the case of Romania the behaviour of the Hungarian minority was different from that of the Germans (Ivan 2006: 126).

Minorities defended their identities not only by parliamentary political steps or in front of the Society of Nations, but also by the appeal to memory, which will play an important role in searching for and preserving identity. Collective memory has strong roots fixed in the past, religion, language, and traditions.

Despite a long living together, Transylvania did not have the same meaning for the Romanians, Hungarians and Germans. For the Romanians, Transylvania means the space where the Romanians were born. For the Hungarians it is the province where the modern Hungarian national culture and consciousness formed and developed. For the Saxons it is a territory of political, economic and cultural autonomy, based on the rights obtained by the Hungarian kings and strengthened later on by the agreements between the dominant political and economic groups of Transylvania (Ivan 2006: 127).

Religion played a fundamental part in the defence of identity despite the secular evolutions of the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. It influenced political institutions, shaped attitudes and social behaviour and affected daily life. In the case of the Hungarians and Germans in Transylvania, churches were the leaders of the protest movements against agrarian and educational policies of the Romanian state (Ivan 2006: 127).

*Language* was another fundamental element for building and defending minorities' identities. The language preservation and promotion inside an ethnical group depends on the solidarity of the institutions that cultivates it. Thus, school played a decisive role.

When trying to find the identity marks of a community such as the Hungarians from Transylvania, we should not forget their historical and cultural dimension and the significance of their cohabitation with other ethnical groups in Transylvania. At the same time, we should consider their perceptions about themselves. Culturally speaking, the identity of the Transylvanian Hungarians is closely linked with the idea of the Hungarian nation (Ivan 2006: 135).

The statute of the Hungarians in Transylvania experienced a long way through the Romanian interwar regime and the communist era until the post-Cold War period. At that

moment the Hungarian community in Romania partially assumed the role of a bridge between Hungary and Romania, two countries that were experiencing the Euro-Atlantic and European integration process (Ivan 2006: 147).

At the same time, the Romanian majority reconsidered its own identity. The Romanians had acquired demographic and political superiority, but they were inferior economically, socially and culturally. Thus, the Romanian state's policies on the minorities also referred to the cancellation of the discrepancy between the economic, social, and cultural status of the Romanians, Hungarians and Germans in Transylvania (148).

The Hungarians' cultural and ethnic identity building reevaluated the historical past as an important argument in the confrontations with the Romanian state. Permanently fed by the ideas coming from Budapest, the Hungarians in Transylvania wanted a decentralised state that permitted them to benefit from cultural and religious autonomy (307).

The identity of the Germans in Transylvania was built differently. The Saxons constituted an ethnic minority before 1918. In their case we cannot speak about a psychological choc or of a mother country to claim the changing of the Romanian borders (149).

The Saxons' historical consciousness based on their medieval and modern autonomy and privileges granted by the Hungarian kings played a very important role in this process. A decisive contribution in this respect was brought by the Saxon bourgeoisie, which was the main actor of the modern Saxon construction. Artisans, craftsmen and traders colonised by the Hungarian kings will impose economically in front of the Hungarian nobility in Transylvania. Thus, the hostility of the two socio-economic entities will give birth to the first forms of nationalism (153).

The Saxons' group consciousness was also defined as an ideological answer to the threats of the Romanians and Hungarians. Consequently, the Saxons will be the first to claim the necessity of creating a modern multinational state, based on Liberal ideas, the respect of linguistic differences and Transylvanian peculiarities (155).

Until the Peace Conference of 1919-1920, the Saxons will remain faithful to Hungary and participate in its political life. Thus, they succeeded in preserving their cultural, political and economic identity. After the 1918 Unification, their leaders thought of their community's destiny as part of the Romanian state. Their identity was based on cultural autonomy and the Minorities' Treaty of 1919 (158).

The Church and school, as well as the German Party in Romania, were the institutions that had dialogues and polemic discussions with the Romanian state in order to defend the identity of the Transylvanian Germans (158).

Like the Hungarians, the Transylvanian Germans also wanted a decentralised state based on regional and collective autonomies. Both under the Austrian-Hungarian regime and the Romanian one, the German leaders tried to assure their political, cultural and religious autonomy, which were important elements in the preservation of their historical, ethnical and linguistic identity.

The Romanian state of the interwar period underwent through its political, economic and administrative redefining and consolidation like the other states of Central and Eastern Europe. Here institutional structures were based on structural reforms that brought tensions in the majority-minority relationships (310).

In the context of Romania's joining the European Union, there is one question that has to be asked: what will be the future of the European Transylvania? We can only speculate on that, but, given its turbulent history, its cultural and linguistic wealth, Transylvania seems to have the prerequisite to tackle European multiculturalism. The experience gained throughout the ages in such matters as cultural tolerance, linguistic acceptance, folkloric adaptation has no doubt prepared the people of Transylvania for what shall be 'extended European multiculturalism'. Culturally, Transylvania qualifies as ready to be a part of the European Union and compete with the other Member States in the chapter "unity in diversity" (Smith 2004: 1).

In order to underline this last statement, we will further have a brief overview on the history of the Italian autonomous region Friuli-Venezia Giulia.

## 1.2. History of Friuli-Venezia Giulia – Towards Regional Autonomy

### 1.2.1. Friuli-Venezia Giulia - An Overview

In order to emphasize the characteristics of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region, we should first have a look at it as being a part of Italy. Moreover, given the purpose of our thesis, we will further present Friuli-Venezia Giulia in the framework of Italy's being a member of the European Union. We all know that Italy was one of the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community, together with France, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxemburg. Since

then it has played a very important role on the economic and political European and international stage. As in the case of Transylvania, we will emphasize on the cultural, religious, ethnic and traditional aspects of Friuli-Venezia Giulia, starting with an overview on the past and continuing with relevant aspects until present.

The name Friuli-Venezia Giulia has Roman origins. Friuli is the deformation of *Forum Julii*, the Latin name of the ancient city of Cividale; Giulia comes from *gens Julia* to which Julius Caesar belonged. The name Venezia Giulia was born in 1863 to include in one region eastern Friuli or Goriziano, Trieste and Istria<sup>3</sup>.

Located in north-eastern Italy, Friuli-Venezia Giulia borders the region of Veneto to the west, the Republics of Austria and Slovenia to the north and east, and the Adriatic Sea to the south. Friuli-Venezia Giulia has an area of 7,844 km<sup>2</sup> and 1.2 million inhabitants and the coastal length is 111.7 km. Its capital is Trieste<sup>4</sup>.

Friuli-Venezia Giulia is made up of two historical regions:

- Friuli, which forms 90% of the territory, including the city of Udine;
- Venezia-Giulia, including the capital city of Trieste.

The Friuli-Venezia Giulia region of Italy is one of the smallest, yet most culturally diverse areas in all the country. This semi-autonomous area is also one of the newest, as it gained its modern boundaries and government in 1963. Occupying the extreme northeast corner of Italy, east of the river Tagliamento, with the Alps in the north, the region shares borders with the Veneto region, Austria and Slovenia. The Alps have always been considered a strip of isolation (Valussi 2000: 21). This is by far the most easily accessible region from outside Italy and has traditionally acted as a gateway for Germanic and Slavic invaders over the centuries<sup>5</sup>. Owing to the current geo-political situation this region has become an important point of economic connection between north and south and east and west and, at the same time, a logistical trade platform with central and eastern European countries.

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<sup>3</sup> <http://www.italycyberguide.com/Geography/regions/friuli.htm> - accessed 12 October 2006.

<sup>4</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Friuli-Venezia\\_Giulia](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Friuli-Venezia_Giulia) - accessed 16 August 2006.

<sup>5</sup> <http://www.lifeinitaly.com/tourism/friuli/> - accessed 1 August 2006.

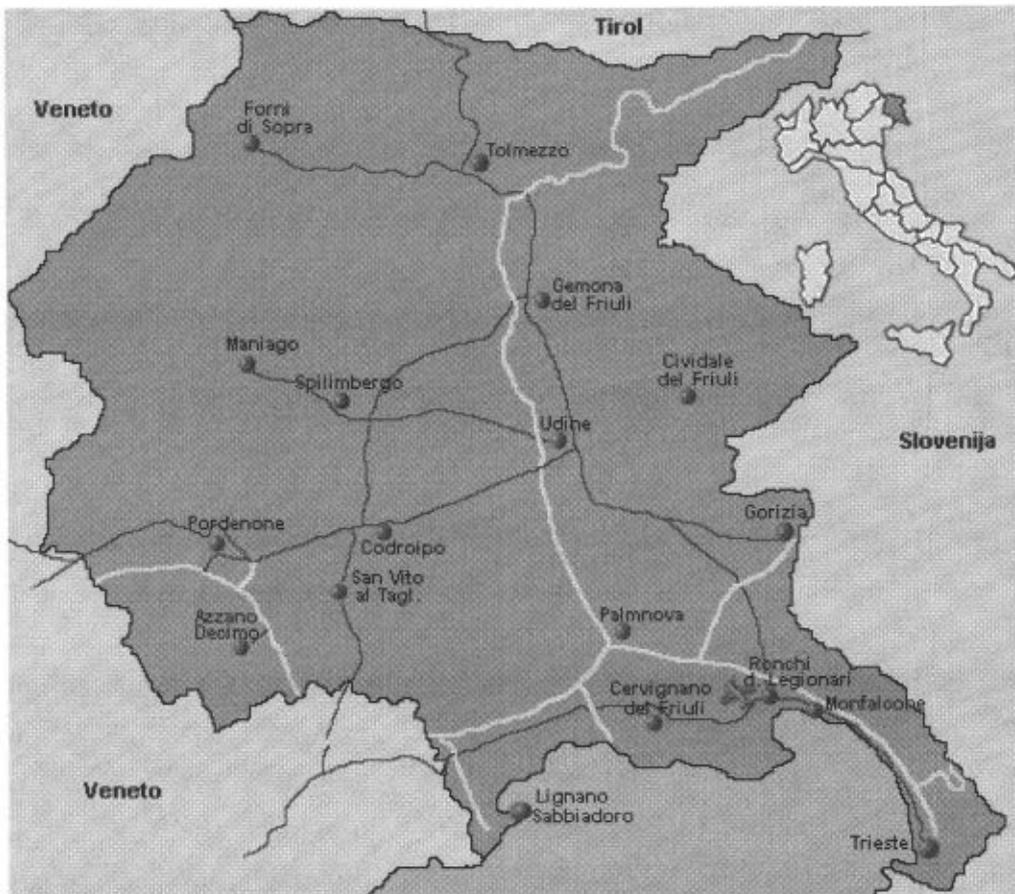


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This region has 4 provinces: Gorizia, Pordenone, Trieste, and Udine. The chief town is Trieste.

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<sup>6</sup> 6 – Friuli-Venezia Giulia with its main city Trieste, <http://www.italiantourism.com/regions.html> - accessed 31 October 2005.



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## 1.2.2. Formation of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia Region

### 1.2.2.1. The Roman Period

In ancient times, the region was inhabited by Celtic peoples of Indo-European heritage. The physical features of Italy have always divided the country into distinct and diverse regions and modified the characteristic life of each. The contribution of successive bodies of invaders tends to vary from region to region. In the earliest times the Central Apennines were almost impenetrable, and southern Italy had its own cultures and was in touch with lands beyond the Adriatic and the eastern Mediterranean long before it was affected by the cultures and migrations of the north (Hearder, Waley 1966: 1).

The ancient peoples and languages of Italy before the Roman conquest have left few traces; and though there is much archaeological evidence from sites and tombs, the identification

<sup>7</sup> [http://www.welcometuscany.it/outside\\_tuscany/regions/friuli\\_venezia\\_giulia/](http://www.welcometuscany.it/outside_tuscany/regions/friuli_venezia_giulia/) - accessed 31 October 2005.

of cultures with peoples and languages is often uncertain. As Hearder and Waley (1966: 1) continue, the peoples of ancient Italy are mainly distinguished by languages and by burial customs. Ethnographically the population always consisted of local breeders of Mediterranean stock, progressively modified northward by immigrants of Alpine descent. In the north there were also descendants of the Nordic types representing invaders of Celtic and Teutonic speech.

But only with the Roman colonization was the territory seriously rearranged for needs of human settlements. The Romans founded cities, such as Aquileia (in 181 B.C.), built roads, introduced new plants, divided land into pieces and gave it to local inhabitants to be cultivated.

During the Roman rule, a perfect fusion was achieved with the government of Rome; one can easily see how important Aquileia was to the Roman political, economic and military life and appreciate the harmony between Rome and Friuli. By 49 B.C. Italy ruled directly or indirectly the whole Mediterranean world, but the constant drain on fighting men depleted Italian communities; foreign corn supplies, especially from the provinces of northern Africa and from Egypt, did much to ruin Italian agriculture (Hearder, Waley 1966: 14); the lure of city life depleted rural communities; and immense wealth, easily won by Romans abroad, erected a barrier between the ruling class and the masses. The municipal system was, however, consolidated, and extended into the provinces, especially in the west. In this period also great public works – theatres, public baths and markets, harbours, roads, bridges and aqueducts – were built and waste land reclaimed. Financial administration was improved (Hearder, Waley 1966: 20).

If we speak about borders, it is worth mentioning that the first Roman border in the Giulia region at that time was a provincial ethnical limit (Valussi 2000: 22, our translation) that divided the Gauls and Carnis from the Istrians. At that time borders were linked to the peoples rather than to the territory.

Known in the Roman times as the Julian region<sup>8</sup>, the area was divided after the barbarian invasions into a coastal part (dominated by the Byzantines through the city and port of Grado) and an inland zone ruled by the dukes of Friuli and the counts of Gorizia. The rise of the Roman Catholic patriarchate of Aquileia to prominence in the 11<sup>th</sup> century brought Friuli and the Istrian Peninsula, as well as the seacoast, under the control of this ecclesiastical sovereignty.

However, the most important inheritance of the Roman period is the fundamental cultural unity of the Giulia region and its political and economic organization based on a street network, which started from the cities of the coast (Valussi 2000: 31, our translation).

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<sup>8</sup> <http://members.aol.com/waynewwill/fri-home.html> - accessed 1 August 2006.

### 1.2.2.2. *The Middle Ages*

Soon, the pressure of barbarian invasion became extremely strong. Several populations coming from the east stopped in this region: the Marcomans, the Visigoths, the Huns, the Ostrogoths, the Avars, the Lombards, and the Slavs<sup>9</sup>.

Into this struggle between ancient Rome and the new barbarian nations the temporal power of the Papacy entered as a third political factor. The adoption of Christianity as the official religion of the Roman Empire and the transfer of the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople gave new political significance to the Papacy (Hearder, Waley 1966: 28).

During the Early Middle Ages, the Lombards invaded the region and created a duchy with its capital at Cividale. They appeared in the valley of the river Po in 568 (Hearder, Waley 1966: 30). They married with the Romans, adopted their language, and absorbed their culture. The effect of their period of power in Italy was to perpetuate its divisions. A significant development of the times was the growth of the temporal power of the Papacy.

However, with the aid of the Franks, who came after the barbarian invasions, the patriarchate of Aquileia was able to increase its power and free itself from Lombard domination. The period of Aquileian hegemony ended when Venice became the great power in northeastern Italy (1420) and shared its dominion over the region with Austria (at Gorizia and Trieste).

In 1420 the region was incorporated entirely within the Republic of Venice. In 1518, the eastern part became a province of the Austrian empire, while the western part remained Venetian until 1797. In 1866, the latter part was then incorporated into the Kingdom of Italy together with the Veneto region.

At the end of the Middle Ages, the region underwent a centuries-long period of domination by two distinct political and administrative powers: the Republic of Venice and the Hapsburg Empire. This double presence caused a marked diversification of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region into a “Venetian Friuli” (what are now the provinces of Pordenone and Udine) and an “Austrian Friuli” (the present-day province of Gorizia)<sup>10</sup>. Trieste, on the other hand, which was associated with Austria as early as 1382, managed to maintain an independent status.

The diversification of Friuli-Venezia Giulia into two distinct regions had profound social, political and cultural ramifications. “Venetian Friuli” kept its predominantly agricultural identity and enjoyed a period of political and social stability. The expansion of the Venetian sovereignty

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<sup>9</sup> *Sussurri di terre isontine. Dall'Alpe al mare lungo il fiume di puro smeraldo*, Agriturismo Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Provincia di Gorizia, Cormòns: Poligrafiche San Marco, 2006, p. 8.

<sup>10</sup> <http://members.aol.com/waynewwill/fri-home.html> - accessed 1 August 2006.

over Friuli meant a quicker insertion of the region in the Italian cultural sphere, the end of the feudal era and the end of Slavic migrations (Valussi 2000: 44, our translation).

The rest of the region changed significantly. Trieste was declared a Free Port and turned into an important center for the commercial trade which was generated by the expansionist policy of the Hapsburgs. The growth of Trieste into a major trade center attracted a stream of immigration from the Mediterranean area and from the Austrian Empire, and the resulting mixture of peoples, races and cultures has been a major influence on the attitudes and character of the people in Friuli-Venezia Giulia<sup>11</sup>.

There are several theories related to the Middle Ages period in this part of Italy (Valussi 2000: 33, our translation):

- the Italian historiography, of Venetian and liberal inspiration, insists on the continuity of the Roman model in the juridical organization of the communes and in the Latin and humanistic culture;
- the German historiography tries to search for the legitimate reasons for which, at the beginning of the modern era, this northeastern part of Italy belonged to the House of Austria;
- the Slavic historiography sustains the thesis of the early separation from the Roman tradition in most of the areas of the Giulia region because of the Slavic migrations; the Roman roots, however, would have been preserved with the help of Venice, but only in the case of the small coastal cities.

### ***1.2.2.3. The Age of the Renaissance***

The Age of the Renaissance in Italy is characterised by the emergence of its 5 principal states: Naples, the Papal States, Venice, Florence, and Milan, which, during the 15<sup>th</sup> century, controlled among them the national destinies (Hearder, Waley 1966: 59). The Italian Renaissance was the first phase of the Renaissance, a period of great cultural change and achievement in Europe that lasted from the end of the 14<sup>th</sup> century to about 1600, marking the transition between Medieval and Early Modern Europe<sup>12</sup>.

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<sup>11</sup> <http://members.aol.com/waynewwill/fri-home.html> - accessed 1 August 2006.

<sup>12</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian\\_Renaissance](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Italian_Renaissance) - accessed 4 October 2006.

The word “Renaissance”<sup>13</sup> literally means “rebirth”, and the era is best known for the renewed interest in the culture of classical antiquity after the Dark Ages. However, these changes, although significant, affected mostly the elite, and for the vast majority of the population life changed only little from the Middle Ages. The Renaissance was not a period of great social or economic change, only of cultural and ideological development. As it only touched a small fraction of the population, many historians in modern times tended to reduce the importance of the Renaissance in human history. They considered that period the Early Modern Europe.

The Italian Renaissance began in Tuscany, centered in the cities of Florence and Siena. It later had a significant impact in Venice and Rome, giving new texts to the humanist scholars. The peak of the Italian Renaissance was the 15<sup>th</sup> century, when its ideas and ideals spread into the rest of Europe. The Renaissance in Italy is best known for its cultural achievements. Impressive works of art were created in the fields of literature, music, architecture, and art. At the same time, present-day historians also see this era as one of economic regression and of little progress in science.

### **1.2.3. Development of Friuli-Venezia Giulia**

#### ***1.2.3.1. The Foreign Domination (16<sup>th</sup> – 18<sup>th</sup> Centuries)***

At the beginning of the 16<sup>th</sup> century the states of the Italian peninsula began to suffer the effects of an economic crisis due to the move of the main trade routes from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic. Since Italy was not unified politically, most of the small and weak Italian states were defeated by foreign powers (mainly Spain), some of them were annexed (e.g. Milan and Naples), while others were reduced to a lesser role (e.g. Venice and Florence)<sup>14</sup>.

The papacy lost much of its importance both because of military defeats and the Protestant Reformation, which deeply weakened the Catholic Church. The Italian Wars led to Spanish hegemony over Italy. Although many states, such as Venice, did not come under the direct control of the Spanish crown, Italy relied on Spain for protection against external aggression. Spanish control was replaced with Austrian hegemony in the 18<sup>th</sup> century, with the exception of Naples and Sicily.

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<sup>13</sup> (It.) Rinascimento.

<sup>14</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History\\_of\\_Italy\\_during\\_foreign\\_domination\\_and\\_the\\_unification](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Italy_during_foreign_domination_and_the_unification) - accessed 4 October 2006.

### 1.2.3.2. *The Hapsburgs*

In the 14<sup>th</sup> century, the Hapsburgs put political pressure on the Friuli region, in the context of the fall of the County of Gorizia, which had proven unable to evolve from a pure feudal organization towards the form of territorial principality (Valussi 2000: 41, our translation). In 1719 Trieste and Fiume were proclaimed “free ports” by the emperor Charles I Hapsburg. Thus, the road Trieste-Vienna was opened<sup>15</sup>, which meant the beginning of the economic growth of Trieste. The low level of taxes permitted an active movement of goods and the success of the port.

After 1815 all Venezia Giulia and Friuli fell under Hapsburg rule, while the province of Udine (including Pordenone) became part of Italy in 1866; the rest of the region was added in 1918. After the Napoleonic occupation, which had no significant influence on the social life of the people, the Friuli region, Trieste and Gorizia became part of the Austrian Empire. During this period, there were strong nationalistic tensions in the region, together with a diffusion of Renaissance ideals. The Hapsburgs ruled here through the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and the *friulani* longed to see their region returned to Italy.

For historians the Hapsburg Monarchy is a very important subject, as it detained a very important position in Central and Eastern Europe between 1867 and 1918.

In the period before World War I the Austrian-Hungarian Monarchy was the second state as to its surface (after Russia, which was 9 times bigger) and the third as to the number of its inhabitants (after Russia and Germany)<sup>16</sup>. According to the Law of 21 December 1867 it was made up of the Austrian Empire and the Hungarian Kingdom, which were two inseparable constitutional monarchies. They had certain common parliamentary and executive bodies for issues of common interest.

The most important characteristic of the population of the Empire was its multiple nationalities. As far as religion is concerned, the monarchy was more homogeneous. Catholics formed the majority, but there were also high percentages of Protestants and Orthodoxes. However, there were big cultural differences between the regions and nationalities. Populated by different nationalities and formed of regions with different physical and climate conditions, Vienna was the centre or the crossroads of the main roads (Sked 2000: 69, our translation).

Not only military causes led to the fall of the dual monarchy, but also the sense of the State and of the civil duty. The political framework also played a very important role in this

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<sup>15</sup> <http://www.italyberguide.com/Geography/regions/friuli.htm> - accessed 3 October 2006.

<sup>16</sup> *Dall’Austria-Ungheria alla nuova Europa Centrale. Un’antologia storiografica*, Istituto per gli Incontri Culturali Mitteleuropei, Gorizia: Grafica Goriziana, 2000, p. 13.

process. The decision of Italy was a big question mark, as it declared itself neutral at the beginning of the war (Tapié 2000: 71). Each of the two enemies tried to have it on its side. This was possible only by promising it territorial changes to the detriment of Austria. Germany insisted that the Hapsburg Empire give to Italy Trentino, and then Trieste, which would become a free city. Beside Trentino, the Entente promised South Tyrol, Gorizia, Trieste, Istria and Dalmatia. Thus, Italy entered the war against its ancient ally. The next year, they had to give Transylvania back to Romania (Tapié 2000: 72).

At the social-democrat congress in Budapest on 13 October 1918, a delegate declared that Austria-Hungary had ceased to be a political unit and that only the peoples had the right to decide. The Romanians asked for the total independence of Transylvania, Banat and Bucovina. The emperor did not resign but he did not exercise his authority anymore starting from 11 November. Thus, in only few days, the monarchy of the Hapsburgs dissolved. Its power and prestige dominated in Europe for centuries. It was forced to disappear by the same peoples it gathered under the same sceptre. It protected their material existence and allowed their development, while its power was diminishing (Tapié 2000: 84, our translation).

The disappearance of Austria-Hungary as a monarchy and supranational state was for sure one of the most important results of the First World War. The army was one of the fundamental elements of the system.

There are several theories related to the causes of the dissolution of the Austrian-Hungarian Empire. It was often argued that the fact that it was made up of several nationalities led to a lack of cohesion and discipline (Mason 2000: 87):

- according to a group of thinkers led by O. Jászi, the fall of the monarchy is seen as an organic process created by internal contradictions and by the incapacity to solve the issue of nationalities. The predominant forces of the empire were the dynasty, the army, the aristocracy, the Catholic Church, bureaucracy, and capitalism;
- there is an opposite interpretation given by H. Kohn, H. Hantsch, and E. Crankshaw. They sustain that the collapse of the empire was caused by the First World War and not by the issue of nationalities. In this case the decisions of foreign policy were crucial for the destiny of the monarchy. The policy of huge power of the Hapsburgs, especially the occupation and annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1878 and 1908 led to the fatal antagonism with Russia. The final

hit came with the war, as the Austro-Hungarian Empire proved unable to fight all its enemies on all the borders, from the Russian to the Serbian ones;

- A. J. P. Taylor has another theory. He is convinced that the destiny of the Hapsburg Monarchy was decided by the war of 1866. According to him, Francis Joseph should have accepted in 1867 a dual constitution (establishing the Hungarian hegemony in Hungary and the Austro-German one in Austria) in order to maintain the empire alive. In other words, Austria-Hungary could continue to be a great power only by maintaining the Slavic population under its domination. He sustains that as far as foreign policy is concerned, Austria-Hungary had never succeeded in being free from the German influence. Its defeat and dismantlement in 1918 were the logical consequence of its depending on the defeated ally, Germany.

### ***1.2.3.3. The Unification (1796-1861)***

The Unification of Italy was the result of the well-known nation-building process and socio-political movement, known as the Resurrection<sup>17</sup>. The period of the Resurrection lasted around sixty years, from the beginning of the nineteenth century until 1861. In fact, Italy became a unified country on 7 March 1861, by force of an executive law which established Victor Emmanuel II, former King of Piedmont, King of Italy 'for the Grace of God and the Will of the Nation' (Campani, Lapov 2004: 4).

One of the main actors of the Resurrection, Giuseppe Mazzini, supported both the republican and the European dimension of the new Italy. He imagined a future Italian state as a democratic and popular republic, independent and free from any foreign domination. During the Resurrection, however, the definition of linguistic and cultural unity was controversial. Several questions began to appear. They were mainly related to the historical period of the peninsula that defined the linguistic and cultural unity, to the content of this unity, to the myths of the Resurrection, as well as to the role played by the Catholic Church in a country with a unified religion.

Due to the peculiar history of the Apennine Peninsula and the late Unification, the formation of the Italian nation-state has not reduced important regional differences in the economic, cultural and political fields.

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<sup>17</sup> (It.) Risorgimento.

The north-south division – defined as ‘the southern question’ – an economic ‘gap’ between north and south, has a great impact on culture and politics. It appeared soon after Unification and has not been resolved after more than 150 years. Internal migration has produced important population shifts: southern Italians in northern Italy have often been the victims of discrimination and widespread hostility by the native population. (Campani, Lapov 2004: 1)

Small territorial and linguistic minorities have also maintained their specificities in different regional areas both in the north and the south of the country. A former country of emigration, Italy has become the destination of new migratory movements from Africa, Asia and Eastern Europe from the mid-1970s onwards<sup>18</sup>.

Until 1922, Italy was a constitutional monarchy with a parliament, mostly elected with universal suffrage. The so called ‘Albertine Statute’<sup>19</sup> conceded in 1848 remained unchanged, even if the kings usually abstained from abusing their extremely large powers. For example, senators were not elected but chosen by the king.

This period was rather characterised by political disputes than by changes in the life of the people<sup>20</sup>. Italy faced much political instability, while most of the people were suffering from illiteracy, sanitary problems, excessive rates of emigration, regional differences, and economic backwardness of the rural south. The situation remained unchanged until the times of Mussolini.

#### ***1.2.3.4. The First World War (1914-1918)***

At the beginning of the First World War Italy remained neutral, claiming that the Triple Alliance had only defensive purposes and the war was started by the Austro-Hungarian Empire. However, both the central empires and the Triple Entente tried to attract Italy on their side, and in April 1915 the Italian government agreed to declare war on the Austro-Hungarian Empire in exchange for several territories (Trento, Trieste, Istria, Dalmatia).

In October 1917, the Austrians, with German reinforcements, broke the Italian lines at Caporetto, but the Italians, with the help of their allies, stopped their advance on the river Piave, not far from Venice. After another year of war and a successful Italian offensive in autumn 1918, the exhausted Austro-Hungarian Empire surrendered to the allies on 4 November 1918. It was soon followed by the German Empire.

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<sup>18</sup> [http://www.emz-berlin.de/projekte\\_e/pj50\\_pdf/italy.pdf](http://www.emz-berlin.de/projekte_e/pj50_pdf/italy.pdf) - accessed 31 October 2005.

<sup>19</sup> (It.) Statuto Albertino.

<sup>20</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History\\_of\\_Italy\\_as\\_a\\_monarchy\\_and\\_in\\_the\\_World\\_Wars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Italy_as_a_monarchy_and_in_the_World_Wars) - accessed 4 October 2006.

Only by the end of the World War I did Friuli and Trieste become a part of Italy. Without its former function as the port of the Hapsburg Empire, Trieste lost its traditional prosperity. The dream of the *friulani* during the Hapsburg domination was not accomplished until after the First World War<sup>21</sup>. Even then it lasted only for a short period of time, because a significant part of the territory to the east and south of Trieste was awarded to the state of Yugoslavia in recognition of its fight against the Nazis in World War II.

The whole region of Friuli became part of Italy in 1921, but strong ties with Austria still remain today. The Friuli region still has relations with the other regions of the Mitteleuropa (Central Europe). This identity is the reason for the autonomous status of the region and a policy of promoting the region's own customs, language and traditions.

The Treaty of Saint-Germain of 1919 gave back Venezia Giulia to the Kingdom of Italy. The new provinces of Gorizia, Trieste, Pula and, later Fiume (in 1924) were created. Thus, Italy emerged from the resettlement of Europe with a substantial increase in territory, a fine strategic boundary both north and east, and a firmer position than before over the Dalmatian coast (Hearder, Waley 1966: 196).

At that moment the two populations of Romance and Slavic language had roughly the same size in the new region. Italians lived mostly in the main cities and along the coast, while Slavs inhabited the other parts. Nationalist persecutions, however, caused the emigration of thousands of Slovenians and Croatians. The inverse phenomenon took place after World War II, when most of it became part of Yugoslavia, and more than 250,000 ethnic Italians were displaced from the region<sup>22</sup>.

#### ***1.2.3.5. The Roots of Fascism (1922-1943)***

According to the postwar settlement, Italy received most of the territories promised in the 1915 agreement, except for Dalmatia, which was mostly given to the newly formed Kingdom of Yugoslavia. Many Italian workers went on strikes for more rights and better working conditions. Some of them began taking over their factories, mills, farms and workplaces.

The small National Fascist Party led by Benito Mussolini reacted violently to those strikes. Over the next few years, Mussolini eliminated all political parties.

The period between 1870 and 1922 is very important for understanding the roots of fascism that developed in Italy and of the progressive abandonment of the idea of nation based on

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<sup>21</sup> <http://www.initaly.com/regions/friuli/friuli.htm> - accessed 1 August 2006.

<sup>22</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Venezia\\_Giulia#History](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Venezia_Giulia#History) – accessed 16 August 2006.

the liberal and democratic ideals which prevailed in the Resurrection, as well as for understanding the new nationalism based on ethnicity. It is particularly interesting to see that an important part of the irredentist movement grew within the radical movements, the historical left, and against the policies of the historical right. Thus, the idea of a war against Austria appeared in these radical milieus. The aim was for Italy to find its place among nations (Campani, Lapov 2004: 2).

Actually, the ideas of the fascist legislation referred to the repression of the minorities through various measures or of the Jewish population. This attitude especially concerned specific minority groups, such as the Germans of the Alto Adige Region or the Slovenes of the Venezia-Giulia. The alliance with Nazi Germany was a direct consequence of the fascist ideology and policies (Campani, Lapov 2004: 3).

#### ***1.2.3.6. The Second World War (1939-1945)***

At the beginning of the Second World War Italy remained neutral, but it declared war on France and Britain on 10 June 1940, when the French defeat was obvious. With the exception of the navy, the Italian armed forces were a major disappointment for Mussolini and Hitler and German help was constantly needed in Greece and North Africa<sup>23</sup>.

After the invasion of the Soviet Union failed (1941-1942), and the United States entered the war (December 1941), the situation started to deteriorate. In May 1943 the Anglo-Americans completely defeated the Italians and the Germans in North Africa, and in July they landed in Sicily. King Victor Emmanuel III reacted by arresting Mussolini and appointing the army chief of staff, Marshal Badoglio, as Prime Minister.

The new government officially continued the war against the Allies, but started secret negotiations with them. On 8 September 1943, the Badoglio government announced an armistice with the Allies, but did not declare war on Germany, leaving the army without instructions. Hitler did not trust Badoglio, and moved a large German force into Italy. The Germans quickly occupied all central and northern Italy, as the south was already controlled by the Allies. Soon after this moment, Mussolini formed the fascist Italian Social Republic in the areas controlled by the Germans.

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<sup>23</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History\\_of\\_Italy\\_as\\_a\\_monarchy\\_and\\_in\\_the\\_World\\_Wars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Italy_as_a_monarchy_and_in_the_World_Wars) - accessed 4 October 2006.

While the Allied troops slowly pushed the German resistance to the north, the monarchic government finally declared war on Germany and an anti-fascist popular resistance movement grew, harassing German forces before the Anglo-American forces drove them out in April 1945.

After World War II, the Istrian Peninsula, the hinterland of Trieste, and the Karst plateau became part of Yugoslavia, while Trieste and the area surrounding it became a free territory divided into northern and southern (A and B) zones under American–British and Yugoslavian administration<sup>24</sup>.

### ***1.2.3.7. The History of Italy as a Republic***

In the final phases of the Second World War, king Victor Emmanuel III tried to raise the prestige of the monarchy by nominating his son and heir Umberto II ‘general lieutenant of the kingdom’ and promising that after the end of the war the Italian people could choose its form of government through a referendum.

A new Constitution was written for the new Republic, taking effect on 1 January 1948. However, the referendum at the origin of the Italian Republic was the object of heated discussions because there were some contested results.

The post-war period saw in better times for minorities in Italy: their rights were progressively recognized even if not uniformly and for all. The Italian Constitution belongs to a legal tradition based on an idea of protecting individuals’ rights independently of the community to which they belong. To guarantee their rights, it must protect the social formations, both cultural and religious, which the individuals produce.

All citizens have equal social dignity and are equal before the law, without distinction of sex, race, language, religion, political opinions, personal and social condition.

(Campani, Lapov 2004: 20)

In the ‘50s Italy became a member of NATO and an ally of the United States, which helped to revive the Italian economy through the Marshall Plan. During that period Italy also became a member of the European Economic Community (EEC), which later transformed into the European Union (EU). At the end of the ‘50s an impressive economic growth was termed ‘Economic Miracle’, a term that is still recognized in Italian politics.

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<sup>24</sup> <http://members.aol.com/waynewwill/fri-home.html> - accessed 1 August 2006.

During the First Republic, the Christian Democracy slowly but steadily lost support, as society modernised and the traditional values of its ideology became less appealing to the population. Christian Democracy was most supported by the rural areas in southern and central Italy, whereas the industrial North had more left support because of the larger working class. There were also the 'red regions'<sup>25</sup> where the Italian Communist Party and the Democrats of the Left afterwards had historically had a wide support.

From 1992 to 1997, Italy faced significant challenges as voters demanded political, economic, and ethical reforms. All major parties got involved in scandals, especially those in the government coalition. This 'revolution' of the Italian political landscape happened at a time when some institutional reforms<sup>26</sup> were taking place. For this reason, Italian political commentators refer to the post-1992 period as the 'Second Republic', despite the absence of any major constitutional change.

Major political parties lost the voters' confidence because of the scandals. The main changes in the political landscape were the following<sup>27</sup>:

- The left-wing vote seemed to be close to a majority. As of late 1993, it appeared that a coalition of left-wing parties may have won 40% of the vote;
- The fascist Italian Social Movement changed name and symbol into National Alliance. Some new members entered into the newly formed party; The new party managed to gather a large part of the Catholic vote in the south and centre;
- The xenophobic movement Northern League greatly increased its support, with some polls indicating up to 16% on national basis;
- In the meantime, Silvio Berlusconi was studying the possibility of making a political party of his own to avoid what seemed to be the unavoidable victory of the left wing at the next elections. Only three months before the elections, he presented on TV his new party Forza Italia. He employed his power in communication and advanced communication techniques.

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<sup>25</sup> Emilia Romagna, Tuscany, Umbria.

<sup>26</sup> Changes in the electoral laws intended to diminish the power of political parties.

<sup>27</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History\\_of\\_Italy\\_as\\_a\\_republic](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Italy_as_a_republic) - accessed 4 October 2006.

#### 1.2.4. The Issue of Minorities

For the bulk of its history, the Italian port of Trieste was an incontestable part of Central Europe as the Slovene center called Trst, within the Austrian empire. The city fell firmly under Italian control in 1954, though it remains home to a sizable Slovene minority<sup>28</sup>.

Until relatively recently, this corner of Italy was decidedly Slovene, not Italian. The 1911 census showed that almost 30% of the population of the city of Trieste was Slovene, while almost 95% of the rural areas surrounding the city were inhabited by Slovenes. In fact, at that time Trieste was home to the largest urban Slovene community in the world<sup>29</sup>.

Today, the total population of Friuli-Venezia Giulia is 500,000 and only 20% is ethnically Slovene.

##### 1.2.4.1. Minorities' Languages

The number of ethno-linguistic minorities appeared more important in the 1921 census: Albanians, Catalans, Croats, French, Greeks, Slavs, Rumanians, Slovenians, Germans and Ladins (Tyrolean and Friulan) (Campani, Lapov 2004: 20).

It is worth mentioning that the 1921 census mentioned two minorities which would not appear in the future censuses or texts on minorities in Italy. It is about Istrian Rumanians whose traces 'disappeared' once Istria was annexed to Yugoslavia after World War II. The same happened with the Slavs who in the census document of 1921 appeared together with Croats and Slovenians as representing the historical Slavonic minorities of Italy. This was the last census to consider spoken language covering the whole national territory (Campani, Lapov 2004: 21).

Migration processes on the Italian territory over centuries have left deep traces visible to this day. They are to be seen in the variety of minority languages spoken in the country which differ from the official variant of Italian and its dialects. The minority languages of Italy all belong to the Indo-European linguistic branch. Most of them belong to the three large linguistic families of Europe – Romance, Germanic and Slavic. Moreover, there are Greeks and Albanians, who are still speaking Indo-European languages, but they do not belong to any of the large families. The minorities which speak languages of the Romance or Neo-Latin group are mostly spread in the north-western parts of the country: Friulan in Friuli-Venezia Giulia and in the

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<sup>28</sup> Brian Pozun, *Trieste's Burden of History*, <http://triestehostels.wordpress.com/2006/10/09/triestes-burden-of-history-2/> - accessed 2 March 2007.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibidem*.

province of Venice including the German-speaking islands in Carnia and in the Tarviso area. (Campani, Lapov 2004: 23). The Slavic group is represented by two communities: the Slovenians living in the border zone next to the Republic of Slovenia, and the Croats inhabiting the centre-north of the Molise Region.

#### ***1.2.4.2. Protection of the Minorities***

Despite the guarantees offered by the Constitution, the situation of minorities and regional autonomies remained unclear until the end of the '90s, when a national law was voted. The question of minorities became important in the public debate during the '70s, when some minorities mobilized for the recognition of their linguistic and cultural specificity. The debate on minorities in Italy stimulated some Italian regions to pass specific laws in favour of the Roma and Sinti communities (Campani, Lapov 2004: 36) in order to protect and preserve their language and culture.

In the second half of the '80s, similar regional laws were passed by the Lazio Region (1985), the autonomous Province of Trent (1985), The Piedmont Region (1986), the Sardinia Region (1988), the autonomous Region of Friuli-Venezia Giulia (1988), the Tuscany Region (1988), the Emilia-Romagna Region (1988), the Lombardy Region (1989). The Friuli-Venezia Giulia Region issued the first law on the protection of the linguistic minority in 1988. The other regions also adopted such laws, most of which were approved in the '90s (Campani, Lapov 2004: 36). At present, Article 6 of the Italian Constitution stipulates that 'The republic protects linguistic minorities by special laws'.

The issue of minorities became of European importance in the '90s. Borders were opened through the Schengen agreement, which meant greater ease of movement but which required new European and local laws on various types of minorities that were part of the new European context. The international community continues to address the topic through the common European legislation now in force.

The Friulian issue is important for the whole Italy. It is a national subject because of its strategic position on the Italian territory. The Friuli-Venezia Giulia region was important in the past, for the genesis and the affirmation of the Italian people, but it is still important today, by its links with the rest of Europe. It is all the more important and interested to be studied as it is one of the autonomous regions of Italy. This situation is very particular and it differentiates Friuli-Venezia Giulia even more from the other regions in Europe.

## 1.3. Common Historical Moments between Romania and Italy

### 1.3.1. The Union with the Church of Rome

Catholicism has always been present in Transylvania due to the existence of Hungarians, Saxons, and Szecklers. The Greek-Catholic Church unified with the Church of Rome in 1698 after the Hapsburg conquest of the region (Motta 2004: 273). Such an event had a great importance in the life of the Romanians in Transylvania. By becoming unified, they could benefit from the privileges that the other inhabitants of the region had known. By the creation of the United Church, the links that constituted the basis of the Romanian civilisation were strengthened. The 'Mother Church' was the centre of Catholicism and the point of any religious reference (Motta 2004: 273).

Catholicism also represented the hope of the people who saw the unification with Rome as an element of continuity with its own origin, and natural character in the fight to affirm its own identity (Motta 2004: 274).

### 1.3.2. Romanians in the Occident (18<sup>th</sup> - 20<sup>th</sup> Century)

Unlike the Italians who had been formed in the environment of the Occidental civilisation, the Romanians belonged, until the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, to the area dominated by the Oriental Christian culture. The second half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century meant for the Romanians new options that asked for new efforts (Cipăianu 2004: 37). The splendour of the Occidental culture appeared to their eyes at a time when they were waiting for it and were ready for the evolutions that followed.

The Europe of the Enlightenment became a model for the Romanians.

For the Romanians, revival meant modernisation, and modernisation was tantamount to Europeanisation. The Romanians realised that a state structure, a culture, and a modern dynamic civilisation could not be created unless the institutions, customs and morals of the Turkish-Phanariot East were abandoned.

(Cipăianu 2004: 38)

The Unification with the Church of Rome opened new horizons for the Romanians. Rome, with its schools and libraries, with its incredible historical remnants, attracted them as it is

their cradle. The Romanians, as descendants of the Dacia's conquerors, had the right to benefit from their historical rights as a people of Latin origin.

Thus, the Romanians of the Austrian Empire knew Europe directly. Due to their adhesion to the Hapsburgs' religious policy, they were the first to open new perspectives for themselves and benefit from new influences. Learning abroad (in Vienna and Rome), they formed a European option, which was an essential element of their westernisation. Coming back home, they changed their ideas and arguments in their fight for emancipation.

By their European contacts, Romanians such as Gheorghe Șincai, Samuil Micu, and Petru Maior spoke for the first time in a modern speech about the history of all the Romanians. They laid the bases of a solid Romanian national movement, opening new ways towards freedom and a better life, under the influence of the lights from the Occident (Cipăianu 2004: 39).

In Transylvania, where Europe was more present, important changes took place even in everyday life. This happened through schools, books, and direct contacts. The Romanians' geographical horizon became wider and they changed their views on space and time due to the more evolved European systems.

### **1.3.3. Italians in Romania: Catholic Migrants between the End of the 19<sup>th</sup> Century and the Beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup>**

For the Italian emigration, Romania presented a special interest for its historical, social, and political movements that determined its further development. Most of the Italians who came to Romania during that period were from the Italian parts under the Hapsburg rule or from the Adriatic regions. They were called to go to Romania in order to provide specialised labour force.

In fact, this phenomenon started from the middle of the 17<sup>th</sup> century when Italian artists were needed on the Romanian territory, especially in Transylvania. Sometimes Italian workers came with their families and formed real 'colonies'. The Italian presence in Romania influenced visibly the local culture and arts (Ricci 2004: 208). Moreover, there were Italians from the Friuli and Trentino regions who came to Romania to work with woods.

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Austria-Hungary encouraged internal migrations in the empire. Thus, people from the Veneto region came to Romania because of similar climate conditions, territory, language, and customs. All these elements favoured Italians' integration (Ricci 2004: 208).

### 1.3.4. The Visit of Pope John Paul II in Romania in 1999

During the '90s Romania underwent through particular historical moments. Its preparations to join the European Union did not only have a political significance, but also a cultural one. The Romanian society feels its links with Europe as an element of national identity of a "Latin island in the Slavic ocean" (Motta 2004: 277, our translation). Thus, Rome represents a point of reference for the Romanians, who closely keep their ties with Italy and the 'Mother Church'.

At this point we speak about the definition of the Romanian Latin origin and the search for an identity that is being built, among others, on confessional bases. The Pope's visit in Romania can be seen as a fundamental element in this process of cultural reconstruction.

### 1.4. Comparative Aspects. Similarities and Differences

We should mention that our choice to present separately the history of the two regions was motivated by the fact that there is not a perfectly comparable table of the events that took place there. However, given the aim of our research, we find it useful to present the comparative aspects of the historical evolution of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia at the end of the chapter, insisting both on similarities and on differences.

First of all we should define the place of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia on the European continent. We sustain the idea that both Transylvania and FVG belong to Central Europe and they have many *similar elements*. We will further bring arguments in this respect by analysing the situation of the two regions from several perspectives.

*Geopolitically* speaking, we should first take a look at their common points in history. The presence of the Romans on both territories was extremely important given the military power of the Roman Empire at that time. The Romans achieved world fame with their incredible army. The vast Roman Empire spread over three continents.

The Barbarian invasions brought the people closer in order to fight against a common enemy. Thus, they became stronger in front of the danger.

If we think of the 1848 Revolution we will see that the movements began in Sicily and spread to France, Germany, Italy and the Austrian Empire, stopping in Transylvania. They did not involve the southern and eastern parts of Europe. The 1848 Revolutions were a series of revolts against European monarchies and had common causes. The 1848 Revolutions were based

on the principles of liberalism and nationalism. The international complex circumstances, the geopolitical situation, the juridical peculiarities of Transylvania and from the two Principalities imposed some limits to the revolutionary programmes and a certain course of events, but national solidarity and the Romanians' will to unify represented the major feature which remained deeply rooted in the conscience of contemporaries. All 1848 Revolutions ended in failure and repression because of the lack of support from the peasants and the resistance of the reactionary powers. However, their programmes lie at the basis of all the events of modern history.

We all know that Transylvania was part of the Hapsburg Empire. The glorious period of the Hapsburgs led to the development of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia at a higher speed than the other parts of Romania and Italy. Maria Theresa and Joseph II gave many rights to the minorities in their empire. In the later part of her rule, Maria Theresa focused more on human concerns, and less on financial and administrative issues. She became deeply involved in the problem of serf reform. In 1771, Maria Theresa issued the Robot Patent, the serf reform designed to regulate the peasants' labour payments in all of the Hapsburg lands<sup>30</sup>. Some historians considered Maria Theresa as the saviour of the Hapsburg Dynasty. Her efforts to transform her empire into a modern state strengthened the Hapsburg rule. Maria Theresa provided a strong foundation for the continuation of the Hapsburg Dynasty into the modern era. Empress Maria Theresa inaugurated the bureaucratic centralisation that was carried forward by her son Joseph II. An enlightened despot, Joseph II instituted reforms that included abolition of serfdom, revision of the penal code, religious toleration, and reduction of the power of the church<sup>31</sup>. The measures of emancipation of the peasantry which his mother had begun were carried on by him. Here are some of his measures: the spread of education, the secularisation of church lands, the reduction of the religious orders and the clergy in general, the issue of the Patent of Tolerance (1781), the promotion of unity by the compulsory use of the German language. He strove for administrative unity and abolished serfdom in 1781<sup>32</sup>.

If we follow the historical evolution of the Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia we will find out similar national liberation movements. Transylvania, as part of Romania, experienced the communist period and, like other countries from Central Europe such as Poland, Hungary, or Czechoslovakia, it was a satellite of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics.

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<sup>30</sup> [http://departments.kings.edu/womens\\_history/mariatheres.html](http://departments.kings.edu/womens_history/mariatheres.html) - accessed 12 October 2006.

<sup>31</sup> <http://www.bartelby.com/65/ha/Hapsburg.html> - accessed 12 October 2006.

<sup>32</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph\\_II,\\_Holy\\_Roman\\_Emperor](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph_II,_Holy_Roman_Emperor) – accessed 12 October 2006.

The Unification of Italy in 1861 influenced all Italian regions including Friuli-Venezia Giulia. The economic north-south division had a great impact on culture and politics. It appeared soon after the Unification and has not been resolved after more than 150 years (Campani, Lapov 2004: 1). Small territorial and linguistic minorities maintained their specificities in different regional areas both in the north and the south of the country. The whole region of Friuli became part of Italy in 1921, but strong ties with Austria still remain today. The Friuli-Venezia Giulia region still has relations with the other regions of Central Europe. This identity is the reason for the autonomous status of the region and a policy of promoting the region's own customs, language and traditions.

At present, both regions are part of the European Union. Italy is a founding member of the European Union in 1958, while Romania joined the European family on 1 January 2007. They both play a very important role in the construction of Europe from the regional level, cultivating local brands and traditions.

Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia are *economically* more developed than the rest of the country to which they belong. This might be due to the fact that both suffered the influence of the Hapsburgs and were part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. This allowed them to develop more quickly than the other regions.

If we analyse the *cultural* aspects of the two regions, we will see that Both Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia belong to Mitteleuropa. The peoples of Mitteleuropa were spiritually, culturally, and psychologically different. But it is exactly that difference that brought them closer as Mitteleuropa represents an articulated area, rich of peculiarities and individualities (Principe 1996: 40). The concept of 'Mitteleuropa' defines a social, economic, and cultural relation that characterises the present European identity that survived after the big old Hapsburg monarchy. This economic and cultural region was separated by national borders and divided by the Iron Curtain. However, this link still remains in the historical and social conscience, and in culture. Socially speaking, there is still the feeling of a common belonging to a certain period (Lipowicz 1996: 109). Mitteleuropa does not only mean a common past at the cultural level, but also at the administrative level. The classical models of European administration, such as bureaucracy, developed in this region.

Ever since ancient times the Romans left in both regions very deep elements of their culture and contributed a lot to the development of the infrastructure in these areas. Perhaps more than any other civilisation the Romans are famous for their incredible constructions. The remnants of the most spectacular Roman roads and bridges, as well as fortified cities can still be

seen nowadays both in Transylvania and in Friuli-Venezia Giulia. All over the continent they founded cities which still exist today. Some of their old roads are even still in use today. The Romans also brought with them their language. The Latin was the language of their army, the governors and office workers in the provinces of the empire. From this language, which was once spoken all over the ancient empire, derived the Romance languages: French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, and Rhaeto-Romantsch. All these languages have developed out of Latin. The Catholic Church still speaks and prays in Latin today. The Roman alphabet is what most of us still use today in the western world. Roman numerals are still used in certain occasions. Roman law was indeed a great institution. They developed many of the ideas of justice which we take into account today in the western world. Justinian adapted many of those laws and collected them into the Justinian Code which was completed in AD 529. The Roman mentality and language have been preserved up to the present in Italy and Romania. All in all, Europe would not be the same without the Romans.

Another similar aspect of the history of both regions is the presence of the Barbarian peoples on their territories. There are many things that we owe Barbarians for our culture today. Many things that we take for granted would not be part of our life if it had not been for their influence. The local people adopted several words from the language of the Barbarians, which are still part of their vocabulary. Our holiday traditions come from the Barbarian festival of Jul – the Festival of the Winter Solstice<sup>33</sup>: the Christmas tree and gifts, the mistletoe, New Year's Eve at the end of December, Santa Claus, the colouring of eggs for Easter, the rabbit, etc. At the same time, Barbarians had an extensive mathematical system, based upon base-12 rather than base-10 such as the Arabic. It proves that Barbarians were able to perform complex calculations, such as predicting eclipses and other astronomical phenomena. Barbarian people also contributed to classic literature: Beowulf, the tales of King Arthur, and the Ring of the Nibelungen survived from those times. Many of the European fairy tales, such as those of the Brothers Grimm, are inspired from the ancient legends and wisdom teachings of the Barbarians.

Since those times the issue of minorities has become very important. Both Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia are characterised by the existence of important minority groups. In Transylvania there are Hungarians, Germans, Jews, Roma, Italians, etc. who live and work together with the Romanians. Their rights are protected by the Romanian Constitution. The region of Friuli-Venezia Giulia is characterised by the presence of Slovenes, Croatians,

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<sup>33</sup> <http://www.wizardrealm.com/barbarians/history4.html> - accessed 12 October 2006.

Albanians, Germans, and, lately, Romanians. The statute of the autonomous region and the Italian Constitution refer to the protection of their rights. The minorities of these two regions have the right to use their mother tongue and their religions are officially recognised.

The territories of these two regions have always been the crossroads between past and future and the place where different peoples, mentalities, customs, habits, and languages met.

*Geo-strategically* speaking, Transylvania may be characterised as a bridge between the west and the east of the continent, while Friuli-Venezia Giulia is an oasis of Latin roots between the Slavic realm and the Austrian mentality.

There are, however, several *differences* between Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia. We should first of all mention the Iron Curtain. The Iron Curtain was the boundary which symbolically, ideologically, and physically divided Europe into two separate areas from the end of World War II until the end of the Cold War (1945 to 1991). The term was introduced by Joseph Goebbels and made famous by Winston Churchill. The Iron Curtain separated the countries of Eastern and Central Europe that were under the political influence of the Soviet Union<sup>34</sup>. Romania and, implicitly, Transylvania was on this side of the curtain. To the west of the Iron Curtain, the countries of Western Europe, Northern Europe and Southern Europe, along with Austria, West Germany, Liechtenstein and Switzerland, operated market economies and, with few exceptions, were ruled by democratic governments. Most states to the west of the Iron Curtain (with the exception of neutral Switzerland, Liechtenstein, Austria, Sweden, Finland and Ireland) were allied with the United States within NATO<sup>35</sup>. Italy and, implicitly, Friuli-Venezia Giulia was on this other side of the curtain.

It is also worth mentioning the Marshall Plan as opposed to the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA or COMECON). The Marshall Plan<sup>36</sup> (1947) was the primary plan of the United States for rebuilding the allied countries of Europe and repelling communism after World War II. The Marshall Plan was seen as one of the first elements of European integration, as it erased tariff trade barriers and set up institutions to coordinate the economy at continental level<sup>37</sup>. The Marshall Plan also played an important role in European integration. Almost all European nations outside the Soviet bloc benefited from the Marshall Plan, Italy included.

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<sup>34</sup> Timothy J. White, 'Cold War Historiography: New Evidence behind Traditional Typographies' in *International Social Science Review*, 22.09.2000, <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1G1-70378602.html> - accessed 2 March 2007.

<sup>35</sup> M. R. Woolley, 'The Cold War – A Military History' (book review) in *Armor*, 1.01.2006, <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1G1-141534085.html> - accessed 2 March 2007.

<sup>36</sup> The European Recovery Programme.

<sup>37</sup> <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1947marshallplan1.html> - accessed 2 March 2007.

Moreover, it was one of the founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community. Both the Americans and many of the European leaders agreed that European integration was necessary to secure the peace and prosperity of Europe. Eastern Europe did not receive money from the Marshall Plan. The Soviets did establish the CMEA (1949) as opposed to the Marshall Plan, but it was less generous<sup>38</sup>. Romania, as a satellite of the USSR, together with Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and East Germany, was included in the CMEA. Economic recovery in the east was much slower than in the west. Some argue that the economies never fully recovered in the communist period. Thus, there resulted a wealth gap between east and west<sup>39</sup>.

All in all, the history of the two regions shows very many similar elements that make both Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia important territories not only for their countries, but also for the whole Europe. They both contribute to a unified Europe, given their comparative advantage that we will emphasize in the next chapters while speaking about regional programmes in these areas and the cooperation at different levels.

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<sup>38</sup> Liviu Țăranu, *C.A.E.R., cronică unui eșec*, <http://www.cid.harvard.edu/archive/caer/> - accessed 2 March 2007.

<sup>39</sup> Iacob Răileanu, 'Drumul de la CAER la Uniunea Europeană' in *Revista Bilanț* nr. 29, februarie 2007, <http://www.revistabilant.ro/articole.php?sect=531> – accessed 2 March 2007.

## CHAPTER 2 - ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION IN TRANSYLVANIA AND FRIULI-VENEZIA GIULIA

### 2.1. The Administrative Evolution of Transylvania

Public administration is more and more present on the list of priorities of the whole society, thus gaining greater importance. The radical changes that took place in public life and the efforts of building a real democracy in Romania place public administration among the most important issues of the institutional system, state authorities, civil, society and public opinion.

In Transylvania, the main concerns about territorial division date especially from the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century when territorial units acquire important functions due to the increasing number of the population, social movements, technical progress and fights for national independence (Nistor 2000: 5). At that time, territorial divisions were called 'comitate', 'districts' and 'scaune'<sup>40</sup>. The 'comitate' became the strength of the noblemen who transformed them abusively in national Hungarian territories. Consequently, Emperor Joseph II intervened by administrative reforms in order to eliminate these unusual things (Nistor 2000: 6).

The situation changed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century when new and modern organisation principles appeared as a response to the democratic will of chasing away monarchic absolutism. Several attempts to give a legislative status to the local administrative network and role were made by the central power, local authorities or political groups. The 1848/1849 Revolution underlined the necessity of radical changes in the field of public institutions.

During the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century the role of these institutions was better defined and a modern and stable administrative system built on the French and Belgian models was instituted.

Several changes took place in the rural life, which determined the passage from the 'traditional village' to the 'rural commune'<sup>41</sup> as a stable administrative unit. It is a vigorous reality with its own wishes and objectives. This made the issue of the local administration much more important, so that it became a main factor of the internal politics. That is why political parties started to be interested in this aspect. First of all, it was the result of the necessity to improve a system that evolved rapidly and proved useful and strong. Second of all, Nistor, I.S.

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<sup>40</sup> Seats.

<sup>41</sup> A division of the local government, larger than the village but smaller than the county.

(2000: 6, our translation) estimates that ‘the successive governments tried to give it a shape that corresponded to their doctrines and interest’.

The Unification of 1918 was a historic moment in the Romanian history, but also in the administrative field. It initiated a long and complex process of institutional, administrative and legislative reorganisation of the country. The whole further development of the administrative and territorial system evolved under the influence of this big moment.

During the interwar period public life was very agitated, as it focussed on the improvement of the organisation and practices of public administration, which was in fact a competition between the two parties that governed during that period. According to Nistor, I.S. (2000: 7), both of them wanted to impose their own ideas on the configuration of this important sector of public life.

Between 1945 and 1950 local administration became one of the hottest topics for the communist authorities who wanted and succeeded in dominating it. Beginning with 1950, the whole national administrative and institutional system was replaced by the Soviet system of the ‘regions’ and ‘raioane<sup>42</sup>’. These structures were totally subordinated to the regime and led by incompetent persons, who were selected only according to their total adhesion to the communist doctrine (Nistor 2000: 8).

One can see a certain revival after 1964-1965, which brought a major change in the administrative and territorial organisation: the Soviet system of the ‘regions’ and ‘raioane’ was abandoned, while the former traditional Romanian system of counties was adopted. At the same time, communes are reorganized. They are vigorous and made up of several villages (10-15). Excessive bureaucracy is avoided. However, Nistor (2000: 8, our translation) states the following:

Of course, beside the positive effect of counties and big communes, the aim was a stronger centralization, with fewer circles, than could be controlled more easily.

After a first step of confusions and protests, the period following the 1989 Revolution is characterised by a tendency of reconstitution and correction, which made local administration functional and competent.

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<sup>42</sup> Administrative and territorial units in Romania between 1950 and 1968 inside a region.

## 2.2. The Present Situation

### 2.2.1. Legislative Framework

The present system of administrative and territorial institutions is made up of 42 counties (including the municipality of Bucharest, the capital of the country, which is considered a county), 276 towns and municipalities (of which 103 municipalities), 2,727 communes, 13,042 villages<sup>43</sup>. This system started the process of defining its own identity and it is supported by the democratic regime.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION OF THE ROMANIAN TERRITORY ON 31 DECEMBER 2003						
Regions	Years	Total area (sqkm)	Number of towns and municipalities	of which: municipalities	Number of communes	Number of villages
<b>ROMANIA</b>		<b>238,391</b>				
	2001		265	96	2,686	13,092
	2002		268	97	2,698	13,089
	2003		276	103	2,727	13,042
<b>1. North-East</b>		<b>36,850</b>				
	2001		32	17	463	2,445
	2002		32	17	466	2,445
	2003		34	17	478	2,436
<b>2. South-East</b>		<b>35,762</b>				
	2001		33	11	332	1,455
	2002		33	11	332	1,455
	2003		33	11	339	1,455
<b>3. South Muntenia</b>		<b>34,453</b>				
	2001		43	15	481	2,030
	2002		43	15	482	2,030
	2003		43	16	488	2,030
<b>4. South-West Oltenia</b>		<b>29,212</b>				
	2001		32	11	387	2,080
	2002		34	11	386	2,078
	2003		35	11	385	2,072
<b>5. West</b>		<b>32,034</b>				
	2001		37	10	266	1,334
	2002		37	10	266	1,334
	2003		38	12	265	1,332
<b>6. North-West</b>		<b>34,159</b>				
	2001		35	13	386	1,823
	2002		35	13	392	1,823
	2003		35	15	399	1,823

<sup>43</sup> Institutul Național de Statistică, 31 decembrie 2003, <http://www.insse.ro/> - accessed 9 August 2006.

<b>7. Center</b>	<b>34,100</b>				
2001		50	18	334	1,823
2002		51	19	337	1,822
2003		55	20	336	1,792
<b>8. Bucharest - Ilfov</b>	<b>1,821</b>				
2001		3	1	37	102
2002		3	1	37	102
2003		3	1	37	102

As we can see from the statistics offered by the Romanian National Institute of Statistics, Romania is divided into communes, towns, municipalities, and counties. This territorial structure is also defined by the Romanian Constitution of 2003: ‘Administratively, the territory is organised into communes, towns, and counties. According to law, some towns are declared municipalities’<sup>44</sup>.

Administratively, villages are not independent structures, but they belong to the communes. According to the Romanian Constitution, the public administration from the administrative and territorial units is founded on the principles of decentralisation, local autonomy and deconcentration of public services<sup>45</sup>. The authorities of public administration, through which local autonomy is achieved in communes and towns are the elected local councils and the elected mayors, according to law<sup>46</sup>.

Local authority means the right and the effective capacity of the authorities of the local public administration to solve and tackle with, on behalf and in the interest of the local communities they are representing, public issues<sup>47</sup>. This right is exercised by local councils and mayors, as well as by county councils, which are authorities of the local public administration elected by universal, equal, direct, secret and freely expressed vote.

Local authority is only financial and administrative and is exercised according to the provisions of law. It refers to the organisation, functioning, competences, as well as to the administration of the resources that belong to the commune, town, or county<sup>48</sup>.

The relations between the authorities of the local public administration from communes and towns and the authorities of the public administration at the county level are based on the principles of autonomy, responsibility, cooperation, and solidarity in front of the problems of

<sup>44</sup> Constituția României din 2003, Art. 3, par. 3.

<sup>45</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 120, par. 1.

<sup>46</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 121, par. 1.

<sup>47</sup> Legea administrației publice locale nr. 215/2002 publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 275 din 24 aprilie 2002, Art. 3, par. 1.

<sup>48</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 4, par. 2.

each county. There is no subordination relation between the authorities of the local public administration and the county council, on the one hand, and between the local council and the mayor, on the other hand<sup>49</sup>.

The authorities of the central public administration cannot establish or impose any kind of responsibilities for the authorities of the local public administration in the process of decentralisation of public services or in the case of the creation of new public services without providing the necessary financial means in this respect. In the national economic policy the communes, the towns and the counties have the right to their own resources; these are administered by the authorities of the local public administration according to their attributions as stipulated by law. According to Art. 9 of the Law on the Local Public Administration, financial resources of the local public authorities must be proportional to their competencies and responsibilities.

In the administrative and territorial units where the percentage of the citizens belonging to national minorities is bigger than 20% out of the total number of inhabitants, the authorities of the local public administration shall use, in their relations with these persons, their mother tongue<sup>50</sup>, as per the provisions of the Romanian Constitution, of the present law and of the international conventions signed by Romania.

The authorities of the public administration through which local autonomy is exercised in communes and towns are the local councils (commune and town councils), acting as deliberative authorities, and the mayors, acting as executive authorities<sup>51</sup>. The people elected at the local level are the mayor, the local councillors and the county councillors. Art. 24 of the Law on the Local Public Administration stipulated that their mandate lasts for 4 years.

In order to assure local autonomy, the authorities of the local public administration are entitled to introduce and levy local taxes, to elaborate and approve the budget.

We will further try to define each of these territorial units and provide information on their present structure, functions and powers.

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<sup>49</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 6, par. 2.

<sup>50</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 21, par. 1.

<sup>51</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 17.

### 2.2.2. The Village

According to Nistor (2000: 17), the village as a community is a natural association of several families linked together by neighbouring relations and/or blood, who live together out of the need of sociability and for economic reasons. Born spontaneously, the village is the embryo of society and the fundamental element of its structure. It has an extremely important cultural function, as it has always been the cradle of education, art, literature, traditions, customs, stories, and legends. It is an infinite source of energies, vigour and national authentic values.

The main character of the village is the peasant, a free man who cultivates his land in order to make a living out of it. The village has always been for the peasant the clear evidence of his belonging, the only sign of his identity and the argument of his courage.

As it has no legal status, the village is represented at the level of the commune. It has some elected councillors in the local councils. Those that do not have their elected councillors will be represented in the meetings of the local council by a representative of the village<sup>52</sup>. This representative is elected by a village meeting, made up of a member of each family. This village meeting is called and organised by the mayor and it takes place in the presence of the mayor or the deputy mayor. Their vote has a consultative character<sup>53</sup>.

The great Romanian poet Lucian Blaga affirmed that 'eternity was born in the village'. Indeed, the inhabitants of Romanian villages inherit a rich material and spiritual culture along the centuries and gain experience in various fields of activity. Having a close relation with the necessities of its inhabitants, the village has permanently changed along history. That is why it has played a very important role in the formation of geographical landscapes of the Romanian territory<sup>54</sup>.

Despite all the changes it suffered, the Romanian village has remained the same place of mystery, with its oral traditions and customs kept from one generation to the other and with its unwritten rules that are stronger than those imposed by formal laws.

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<sup>52</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 55, par. 1.

<sup>53</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 55, par. 2 and 3.

<sup>54</sup> E. Nicolaescu, *Satul așezare umană permanentă*, [http://www.carpati.org/geografie\\_articol/satul](http://www.carpati.org/geografie_articol/satul) - accessed 9 August 2006.

### 2.2.3. The Commune

Communes are territorial and administrative units in which local autonomy is exercised and authorities of the local public administration function. Communes can be formed of one or several villages. Communes are legal entities of public law. They have their own patrimony and full legal capacity<sup>55</sup>.

In 1997, the communes in Romania formed the Association of the Romanian Communes (ARC) in order to create stronger relations among them. It promotes the principles and ideals of the European Chart of Local Autonomy<sup>56</sup>. Here are the values of the ARC:

- close to the people and together with the people to solve local public issues;
- the capacity to develop sustainable partnerships with the other associative structures;
- the affirmation of local identity in the national and European context.

### 2.2.4. The Town

Towns are territorial and administrative units in which local autonomy is exercised and authorities of the local public administration function. They are legal entities of public law with their own patrimony and full legal capacity.

In 1994, the towns in Romania formed the Association of the Romanian Towns (ART). It is a non-political and non-governmental body, whose aim is the development of the Romanian society by strengthening the role of local authorities. Its aims are the supervision of the Government's legislative agenda on the local public administration and the defence of the common interests of towns. It proposes to favour and strengthen the capacity of action of the public administration<sup>57</sup>.

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<sup>55</sup> Legea administrației publice locale nr. 215/2002 publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 275 din 24 aprilie 2002, Art. 19.

<sup>56</sup> <http://www.acor.ro/despre.php> - accessed 14 August 2006.

<sup>57</sup> <http://www.aor.ro/corpuri.html> - accessed 14 August 2006.

### 2.2.5. The Municipality

Certain big towns can be declared municipalities. As in the case of communes and towns, the municipalities in Romania formed the Association of Romanian Municipalities (ARM) in 1990. Its main aims are<sup>58</sup>:

- the promotion of a real decentralisation of public administration;
- the elaboration of proposals, legislative and normative acts in order to modify the existing laws in the field;
- the cooperation with several Romanian and foreign governmental and non-governmental institutions.

### 2.2.6. Common Features of Communes, Towns, and Municipalities

#### 2.2.6.1. The Local Councillors

As the administrative structure of the communes, towns and municipalities is the same, we will further present it for the three of them under a single umbrella. Thus, local councils are made up of *councillors* elected by universal, equal, direct, secret and freely expressed vote. The number of members of each local council is established by a prefect's order, according to the population of the commune or town, transmitted by the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies on 1 January of that year or on 1 July of the year preceding the elections, as follows<sup>59</sup>:

Number of inhabitants of the commune or town	Number of councillors
- up to 1,500	9
- between 1,501 and 3,000	11
- between 3,001 and 5,000	13
- between 5,001 and 10,000	15
- between 10,001 and 20,000	17
- between 20,001 and 50,000	19
- between 50,001 and 100,000	21
- between 100,001 and 200,000	23
- between 200,001 and 400,000	27
- more than 400,000	31

<sup>58</sup> <http://www.amr.ro/desprenoi.prezentare.amr> - accessed 14 August 2006.

<sup>59</sup> Legea administrației publice locale nr. 215/2002 publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 275 din 24 aprilie 2002, Art. 29, par. 1.

The General Council of the Municipality of Bucharest is made up of 55 councillors. According to Art. 30, paragraph 1, of the Law on the Local Public Administration, the function of *councillor* is incompatible with the following:

- the quality of prefect and deputy prefect;
- the quality of civil servant of the central and local public authorities, of the county council, of public services of local or county interest, of decentralised public services of the ministries and of the other authorities of the central public administration; the quality of employee of that particular authority of the local public administration or of the prefect's team from that particular county;
- the quality of manager or member in the administration council of autonomous state-owned companies<sup>60</sup> or manager of companies founded by the local or county councils;
- the quality of mayor;
- the quality of senator, deputy, minister, secretary of state, deputy secretary of state.

The councillors' mandate ends in one of the following situations<sup>61</sup>:

- resignation;
- incompatibility;
- change of address in another administrative and territorial unit;
- impossibility to exercise his mandate for a period longer than 6 consecutive months;
- when it is proved that his election was done by electoral fraud or any other infringement of law;
- sentence by final court decision to prison;
- loss of electoral rights;
- the non-motivated absence from 3 consecutive ordinary meetings of the local council;

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<sup>60</sup> In the fields of water, transports, electricity, etc.

<sup>61</sup> Legea administrației publice locale nr. 215/2002 publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 275 din 24 aprilie 2002, Art. 72, par. 1 and 2.

- death.

### 2.2.6.2. *The Local Council*

The *local council* has the right of initiative and it decides in the matters of local interest. It has the following attributions<sup>62</sup>:

- it elects among the councillors the deputy mayor or mayors; it establishes, according to the provisions of law, the number of its personnel;
- it approves the statute of the commune or town, as well as the internal rules of organisation and functioning;
- it approves studies, forecasts and programmes of social and economic development, of territory organisation, as well as documents related to them;
- it approves the local budget, loans, credit transfers and the way of spending this money; it establishes local taxes, as well as special taxes;
- it approves, upon proposal of the mayor, the organisation chart, the number of the personnel, as well as the internal rules of organisation and functioning of the specialty departments, public institutions and services and autonomous state-owned companies of local interest;
- it administers the public and private ownership of the commune or town;
- it establishes public institutions, companies and public services of local interest; it supervises and controls their activity; it introduces rules of organisation and functioning for the public institutions and services of local interest; it appoints and dismisses the heads of the public services of local interest, as well as those of the public institutions subordinated to it; it gives sanctions to the persons it appointed;
- it approves the use of funds from the local budget for defence actions, such as floods, fires, natural calamities, and dangerous weather phenomena;
- it adopts the necessary measures for the building and modernisation of routes, bridges and the communication infrastructure of local interest;
- it assures the material and financial resources necessary for the proper functioning of public institutions and services of education, health, culture, youth and sports, the defence of public order, the defence against fires and the civil protection;

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<sup>62</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 38, par. 2.

- it contributes to the organisation of scientific, cultural, artistic, sports and leisure activities;
- it analyses the activity of public guardians, the police, the firemen and proposes measures in order to improve their activity;
- it contributes to the protection, preservation and restoration of historic and architectural monuments, parks and natural reserves;
- it assures protection and social aid; it assures the protection of child's rights; it establishes and assures the functioning of charity institutions of local interest;
- it establishes and organises fairs, markets, amusement parks, sports clubs and it assures their good functioning;
- it gives or changes names of streets, squares and objectives of local public interest;
- it confers to natural Romanian or foreign persons with special merits the title of 'citizen of honour' of the commune or town;
- it decides on the cooperation or association with Romanian or foreign legal persons, with NGOs and other social partners in order to finance and achieve common actions, works, services or projects of local interest; it decides on the twinning of the commune or town with similar territorial and administrative units from other countries;
- it supports the activity of religious cults;
- it assures the freedom of trade and encourages free initiative.

The local council is elected for a mandate of 4 years, which can be prolonged by organic law in case of war or catastrophe<sup>63</sup>. According to Article 40, paragraphs 1 and 2 of the Law on the Local Public Administration, the local council meets every month for ordinary meetings, upon mayor's request. It can meet for extraordinary meetings upon mayor's request or upon the request of at least a third of the total number of its members. The local council is called by written notification of the secretary of the administrative and territorial unit at least 5 days before the ordinary meetings and at least 3 days before the extraordinary meetings. In case of emergency the local council can be called on the spot.

The meetings of the local council are chaired by a councillor. These meetings are public, except for the cases in which the majority of councillors decide to have it with the doors closed.

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<sup>63</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 39, par. 1.

Meetings are held in Romanian, the official language of the state. In the local councils in which the councillors belonging to a national minority represent at least a third of their total number, their mother tongue may be used. In this case the mayor will assure the translation into Romanian. In all situations the documents of the meetings are drafted in Romanian<sup>64</sup>.

While exercising its duties, the local council adopts decisions with the majority of the members present, except for the cases in which the law or the rules of organisation and functioning of the council asks for another type of majority. Councillors are obliged to organise periodical meetings with the citizens and to receive them in audience. Every councillor, as well as the deputy mayor, is obliged to present an annual activity report, which will be made public by the secretary<sup>65</sup>. The local council organises special commissions for its main activities.

### **2.2.6.3. The Mayor**

Communes and towns have one mayor and one deputy mayor, while the towns having the role of county capital have two deputy mayors. The mayor takes part in the meetings of the local council and has the right to express his opinion on the issues discussed. The mayor and the deputy mayor receive, for the whole duration of their mandate, a special income, established according to the provisions of law.

The quality of *mayor* and *deputy mayor* is incompatible with the following<sup>66</sup>:

- the quality of prefect and deputy prefect;
- the quality of civil servant of the central and local public authorities, of the county council, of public services of local or county interest, of decentralised public services of the ministries and of the other authorities of the central public administration; the quality of employee of that particular authority of the local public administration or of the prefect's team from that particular county;
- the quality of manager or member in the administration council of autonomous state-owned companies<sup>67</sup> or manager of companies founded by the local or county councils;
- the quality of councillor;

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<sup>64</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 43, par. 3.

<sup>65</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 52, par. 3 and 4.

<sup>66</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 62.

<sup>67</sup> In the fields of water, transports, electricity, etc.

- the quality of senator, deputy, minister, secretary of state, deputy secretary of state;
- any management function in the companies in which the state or a administrative and territorial unit is the main shareholder or in the national companies or autonomous state-owned companies;
- any other activities or public functions, except for didactic functions or functions inside foundations and NGOs.

The mayor is a public authority. He is the chief of the local public administration and of the authorities of this administration. He leads and controls them. He is responsible for the good functioning of the local public administration. The mayor represents the commune or town in their relations with public authorities, natural or legal Romanian or foreign persons, as well as in front of the court<sup>68</sup>. The distinct mark of the mayor is a scarf with the colours of the Romanian flag. He is obliged to wear this scarf at public ceremonies, receptions, as well as at marriages.

The mayor has the following attributions<sup>69</sup>:

- he assures the respect of citizens' fundamental rights and freedom, of the provisions of the Constitution, as well as the implementation of laws, of the decrees given by the President of Romania, and of Government's decisions and orders;
- he assures that the decisions of the local council are implemented;
- he proposes to the local council to ask people's opinion through referendum on the important issues of local interest;
- he presents to the local council, annually or whenever necessary, information regarding the economic and social situation of the commune or town;
- he drafts the project of the local budget and the situation at the end of the budgetary year and submits them for approval to the local council;
- he is the main credit authorized official;

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<sup>68</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 67, par. 1.

<sup>69</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 68.

- he checks automatically or upon request the way in which the money from the local budget is collected and spent and communicates his results to the local council;
- together with specialised bodies of the state, he takes measures in order to prevent or stop calamities, catastrophes, fires, or epidemics; in this respect, he can mobilize the population, the economic agents and the public institutions from the commune or town, which are obliged to execute the measures stipulated in the protection and intervention plans elaborated according to the types of disasters;
- he assures public order and the peace of the inhabitants through the police, public guardians, firemen and departments of civil protection, who are obliged to answer his requests;
- he can forbid or suspend shows or other public manifestations that are against the legal order or that do harm to the moral conduct or to public order and peace;
- he controls hygiene and cleanness of public restaurants and food sold to the population, with the help of specialised services;
- he assures that the general town's plan is elaborated and submits it to the local council for approval;
- he assures the granting of social dwellings;
- he assures the maintenance and rehabilitation of public routes, the installation of traffic indicators, and the normal circulation flux ;
- he controls the activities of fairs, markets, and amusement parks and takes measures for their good functioning;
- he has the quality of registrar;
- he issues certificates, approvals and authorisations;
- he submits the organisation chart, the number of the personnel and the rules of internal organisation and functioning for approval to the local council;
- he appoints and dismisses the specialised personnel of the authorities of the local public administration, except for the secretary; he proposes to the local council the appointment or dismissal of the directors of the autonomous state-owned companies, of the public institutions and services of local interest;
- he administers the goods belonging to the public and private domain of the commune or town;

- he takes measures for the control of domestic or industrial wastes in order to assure the cleanness of the rivers that cross the commune or town;
- he can delegate some of his powers to the deputy mayor or deputy mayors;
- he cannot delegate to anyone his attributions as a representative of the state.

The mayor's mandate lasts for 4 years. This mandate can be prolonged by organic law in case of war or catastrophe. The mayor's mandate ends in one of the following situations<sup>70</sup>:

- resignation;
- incompatibility;
- change of address in another administrative and territorial unit;
- impossibility to exercise his mandate for a period longer than 6 consecutive months;
- when it is proved that his election was done by electoral fraud or any other infringement of law;
- sentence by final court decision to prison;
- loss of electoral rights;
- death.

#### ***2.2.6.4. The Deputy Mayor***

Deputy mayors cannot be councillors at the same time<sup>71</sup>. The local council elects among its members the deputy mayor or the deputy mayors by the secret vote of the majority of councillors. The duration of the deputy mayor's mandate is the same as in the case of the local council. The deputy mayor can be replaced by the local council upon proposal of one third of the total number of councillors or of the mayor, by a decision taken with two thirds of the number of councillors.

The deputy mayor exercises the attributions conferred to him by the mayor. When the mandate of the deputy mayor expires, the local council elects a new one. In case of mayor's holidays or if the mayor is suspended, his attributions are exercised by the deputy mayor or one

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<sup>70</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 72, par. 1 and 2.

<sup>71</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 61, par. 1.

of the deputy mayors, appointed by the local council through secret vote of the majority of councillors<sup>72</sup>.

#### **2.2.6.5. The Secretary**

Every commune, town or administrative and territorial division of the municipalities has a secretary paid by the local budget. The secretary is a public servant with a university degree in law or administration. Exceptionally, the secretary may hold another university degree or a high school diploma<sup>73</sup>.

The secretary cannot be a member of a political party. He cannot be the husband, wife or first degree relative of the mayor or deputy mayor. According to Article 84, paragraphs 1 and 2 of the Law on the Local Public Administration, the position of secretary is occupied by contest or exam, while his appointment is made by the prefect. The contest or exam is organised by the mayor within 30 days from the date when the position became vacant.

The secretary has the following attributions<sup>74</sup>:

- he is obliged to participate in the meetings of the local council;
- he coordinates the juridical departments and activities, the registrar's office, as well as the social aid department of the local council;
- he approves the drafts of the local council's decisions, being responsible for their abiding by the law;
- he approves mayor's orders;
- he checks that mails are answered within the legal deadline;
- he prepares the works for the debates of the local council;
- he assures within a period of maximum 10 days the communication to the interested authorities, institutions and persons of the documents issued by the local council;
- he makes sure that normative decisions and provisions are made public;
- he issues copies or abstracts of any document kept in the archives of the local council, except for those with secret character;

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<sup>72</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 82, par. 1.

<sup>73</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 83, par. 1.

<sup>74</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 85, par. 1.

- he legalises signatures on the documents presented by the parties and confirms the authenticity of the copies with the originals.

The secretary is dismissed, replaced or sanctioned by the prefect upon proposal of the local council, adopted by the vote of at least two thirds of the total number of councillors, following the mayor's initiative or the initiative of two thirds of the councillors.

### **2.2.7. The County**

The county is one of the oldest administrative units in Romania. It dates back in history before the feudal state and it gained a very important role in the modern era. Initially, the counties were units of the patriarchal community which were created for the defence of local interests. After the organisation and centralisation of feudal states they were integrated in the official institutional network and subordinated to the interests of the state (Nistor 2000: 73).

The county with its previous versions ('districts', 'comitate' and 'scaune') clearly illustrated the evolution of the Romanian society with references to state structures and political tendencies. The role of the county became more and more important in time. It conferred cohesion and strength to the fight for national freedom and political unity, as well as to the organisation of the administrative and territorial system, based on democratic principles.

Counties are territorial and administrative units in which local autonomy is exercised and authorities of the local public administration function. Counties are legal entities of public law with their own patrimony and full legal capacity.

#### **2.2.7.1. The County Councillors**

The county council is made up of councillors elected by universal, equal, direct, secret and freely expressed vote<sup>75</sup>. The number of the members of each county council is established by the prefect, according to the population of the county; this information is provided by the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies on 1 January of that year or on 1 July of the year preceding the elections, as follows<sup>76</sup>:

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<sup>75</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 101, par. 2.

<sup>76</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 102.

Number of inhabitants of the county	Number of councillors
- up to 350,000	31
- between 350,001 and 500,000	33
- between 500,001 and 650,000	35
- more than 650,000	37

The meetings of the county council are legal if the majority of councillors take part in them. It is compulsory that the county councillors participate in the meeting of the county council. If a councillor is absent twice in a row without objective reasons, he may be sanctioned according to the internal rules of organisation and functioning of the county council<sup>77</sup>.

The councillors' mandate ends in one of the following situations<sup>78</sup>:

- resignation;
- incompatibility;
- change of address in another administrative and territorial unit;
- impossibility to exercise his mandate for a period longer than 6 consecutive months;
- when it is proved that his election was done by electoral fraud or any other infringement of law;
- sentence by final court decision to prison;
- loss of electoral rights;
- the non-motivated absence from 3 consecutive ordinary meetings of the county council;
- death.

### ***2.2.7.2. The County Council***

The county council is the authority of the local public administration at the county level; it coordinates the activity of commune and town councils in order to provide services at the county level.

The county council has the following main attributions<sup>79</sup>:

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<sup>77</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 107, par. 1 and 2.

<sup>78</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 112.

<sup>79</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 104, par. 1.

- it elects among the councillors a president and 2 vice-presidents;
- it approves, upon proposal of the president, the internal rules of organisation and functioning of the county council, the number of personnel, the organisation chart, the internal rules of organisation and functioning of the specialty departments, public institutions and services and autonomous state-owned companies of county interest;
- it adopts strategies, forecasts and programmes of social and economic development of the county or of certain areas inside the county; it approves the necessary measures for their solving;
- it coordinates the activity of local councils of communes and towns in order to provide public services of county interest;
- it approves the county budget, loans, credit transfers and the way of spending this money; it establishes taxes, as well as special taxes; it decides the quotas of the money granted to every commune or town;
- it administers the public and private ownership of the county;
- it decides on the opening of public institutions and public services of county interest; it supervises and controls their activity; it appoints and dismisses the heads of these public institutions and services; it gives sanctions to the persons it appointed;
- it establishes, by consultation with the authorities of the local public administration, the projects for the organisation of the county territory;
- it approves the building and modernisation of routes, bridges and the communication infrastructure of county interest; it provides specialty technical assistance to the local authorities;
- it assures the material and financial resources necessary for the proper functioning of cultural institutions, public educational institutions and services; it provides social care and social aid, as well as services of public transport;
- it assures financial support for cultural or religious actions, as well as for educational, sports and scientific activities;
- it establishes social and cultural institutions, as well as institutions for child's protection;
- it decides on the cooperation or association with other authorities of the Romanian or foreign local public administration legal persons, as well as on the adhesion to

national or international associations of the local authorities in order to promote common interests;

- it decides on the cooperation or association with Romanian or foreign legal persons, with NGOs and other social partners in order to finance and achieve common actions, works, services or projects of county interest;
- it coordinates the activities of the public guardians' body.

The county council is elected for a mandate of 4 years. It can be prolonged by organic law in case of war or catastrophe<sup>80</sup>. The county council meets every other month for ordinary meetings, upon request of its president. It can meet also for extraordinary meetings whenever necessary, upon request of its president or of at least one third of the council's members, or upon request of the prefect submitted to the president of the county council in exceptional cases for the prevention or diminution of calamities, catastrophes, fires, epidemics, as well as for the defence of public order (Nistor 2000: 140).

The county council is called by written notification of the county secretary general, at least 5 days before ordinary meetings or at maximum 3 days before the extraordinary meetings. In case of emergency it can be called on the spot. The agenda of the county council is made public through the media or any other means of advertising. In the counties where the councillors belonging to a national minority represent more than 20% of the total number of inhabitants, the agenda is made public in their mother tongue as well<sup>81</sup>.

The meetings of the county council are chaired by the president or, in his absence, by the vice-president. The county council adopts decisions by the vote of the majority of the members present, except for the cases in which law or the internal regulations of the council asks for another type of majority<sup>82</sup>. Decisions are signed by the president or vice-president that chaired the meeting, while the county secretary general countersigns.

According to Article 111, paragraph 1 of the Law on the Local Public Administration, if the county council does not meet for 6 consecutive months or does not adopt in 3 consecutive ordinary meetings any decision, or if the number of councillors is lower than two thirds, it is legally dissolved. During this period, the issues related to the county administration will be

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<sup>80</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 105, par. 1.

<sup>81</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 106, par. 6, 7 and 8.

<sup>82</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 109, par. 1.

solved by the secretary general according to a special power of attorney given by the Government.

### ***2.2.7.3. The Prefect***

The Government appoints a prefect for each county and for the municipality of Bucharest, as its representative in the territory. The prefect is helped by a deputy prefect. In the case of Bucharest, there are 2 deputy prefects. Prefects are appointed and dismissed by a decision of the Government. The prefect must have a post-university degree<sup>83</sup>. The prefect and the deputy prefect cannot be deputies or senators, mayors, local councillors or county councillors and they cannot occupy a public function or work in a state-owned or private company (Nistor 2000: 141).

As a government's representative, the prefect assures that the activity of the local councils and mayors, as well as the activity of county councils and their presidents be performed according to law. Between prefects, on the one hand, and the local councils and mayors or the county councils and their presidents, on the other hand, there are no subordination relations<sup>84</sup>. The prefect leads the activity of decentralised public services of the ministries and of the other authorities of the specialised central public administration (Nistor 2000: 141).

The prefect has the following main attributions<sup>85</sup>:

- he assures the fulfilment of national interest, the observance of the Constitution, Government's laws, decisions and ordinances, as well as of public order;
- he controls if the decisions or the administrative documents adopted by the authorities of the local and county administration, as well as those of the county president are legal;
- he takes all necessary measures for the prevention of crimes and the protection of citizens' rights;
- together with the specialised authorities, he prepares and applies the defence measures that do not have a military character, as well as the civil ones;
- he presents annually a report on his tasks and on his control over the local public administration;
- he issues documents of normative character;

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<sup>83</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 132, par. 1 and 2.

<sup>84</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 130, par. 2 and 3.

<sup>85</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 134, par. 1.

- he may propose to the ministries or to the other authorities of the specialised central public administration measures for the improvement of their activity at the county level.

In order to fulfil his duties, the prefect is helped by a specialised body, whose structure and functions are established by the Government upon proposal of the Ministry of Public Administration. In the big counties where towns and communes are far from the county capital or in big urban areas the prefect may organise, with the consent of the Ministry of Public Administration, prefect's offices. They are led by a director appointed by the prefect<sup>86</sup>.

#### ***2.2.7.4. The Deputy Prefect***

The deputy prefects are appointed and dismissed by decision of the Prime Minister, upon proposal of the prefect or the Ministry of Public Administration. The deputy prefect must have a university degree<sup>87</sup>. The deputy prefect performs his attributions given by normative acts, as well as the tasks delegated to him by prefect's order. In the prefect's absence, the deputy prefect performs his attributions.

#### ***2.2.7.5. The President of the County Council***

The county council elects among its members a president and two vice-presidents. They are elected by secret vote of the majority of councillors. The president of the county council is dismissed by secret vote of at least two thirds of the councillors upon the proposal of at least one third of them if he issued, during 3 months, at least 3 dispositions that were irrevocably cancelled by the court as they were against the general interests of the states or the county or they infringed the provisions of the Constitution and the country's laws<sup>88</sup>.

The president and the vice-presidents get a special salary for the duration of their mandate. During this period, they cannot work for autonomous state-owned companies, national companies or state-owned companies. The president of the county council represents the county in its relations with the other public authorities, the Romanian or foreign natural and legal persons, as well as in front of the court<sup>89</sup>. The president is responsible in front of the county council by the good functioning of the county public administration.

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<sup>86</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 142, par. 1 and 2.

<sup>87</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 130, par. 4.

<sup>88</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 113, par. 2.

<sup>89</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 114, par. 1.

The president of the county council has the following main attributions<sup>90</sup>:

- he assures that the provisions of the Constitution are complied with and that laws, the Romanian President's decrees, the Government's decisions and ordinances, as well as the decisions of the county council are applied ;
- he drafts the agenda of the county council's meeting;
- he takes the necessary measures for the adequate development of the county council's meetings;
- he drafts and submits for approval to the county council its internal rules of organisation and functioning;
- he assures that the decisions of the county council are applied;
- he chairs the meetings of the county council;
- he coordinates and controls the activity of public institutions and services of the county council;
- he drafts the budget of the county council and the situation of the budgetary year and submits them for approval to the county council;
- he proposes to the county council the organisation chart, the number of personnel and the internal rules of organisation and functioning;
- he presents to the county council, annually or upon request, reports on his attributions and council's decisions;
- he issues certificates and authorisations according to his attributions;
- he offers support and technical and juridical assistance to the authorities of the local public administration;
- he coordinates and controls the activity for the protection of children's rights.

While exercising its attributions, the president of the county council issues dispositions with normative or individual character. They become compulsory only after they are made public<sup>91</sup>. The president and the vice-presidents of the county council keep their quality of councillors. The duration of their mandate is equal to the one of the county council.

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<sup>90</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 116, par. 1.

<sup>91</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 117, par. 1.

#### ***2.2.7.6. The Vice-presidents of the County Council***

If the president is suspended, his attributions shall be exercised by one of the vice-presidents, who is appointed by the county council through the secret vote of the majority of councillors. In case of absence of the president, his attributions shall be exercised by one of the vice-presidents, who is appointed by the president. The vice-president is dismissed in the same conditions as the prefect.

#### ***2.2.7.7. The Secretary General of the County Council***

The prefect's specialised service has a secretary general, who is a civil servant. The secretary general must have a university degree (usually law or administration). The secretary general is appointed and dismissed by the Ministry of Public Administration, upon proposal of the president of the county council.

He is appointed after a contest or exam, organised by the Ministry of Public Administration, with the participation of the prefect or deputy prefect<sup>92</sup>. The secretary cannot be a member of a political party. He coordinates the departments of the registrar's office (births, marriages and deaths) of the county council.

#### ***2.2.7.8. The Consultative County Commission***

Every county, as well as the municipality of Bucharest, has a consultative commission. The consultative commission is made up of the following:

- the prefect and the president of the county council;
- the deputy prefect and the vice-presidents of the county council;
- the secretary general of the prefect's office and the secretary general of the county;
- the mayor of the county capital;
- the mayors of the communes and towns in the county;
- the chiefs of the decentralised public services of the ministries and of the other central bodies organised at the county level;
- the chiefs of the specialised departments of the county council;

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<sup>92</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 141, par. 4.

- the directors of the autonomous state-owned companies of county interest and of the national companies in that county;

The consultative commission is called by the prefect and the president of the county council every other month or whenever necessary. The works of the consultative commission are chaired through rotation by the prefect and the president of the county council. The consultative commission has two secretaries from the prefect's office and two secretaries from the county council<sup>93</sup>. The consultative commission debates on the annual orienting programme of economic and social development of the county on the basis of the governing programme accepted by the Parliament.

In order to elaborate and debate on operating solutions at the level of the county, every county has a consultative committee, formed by the prefect and the president of the county council, the deputy prefect and the vice-presidents of the county council, the secretary general of the prefect's office, the secretary general of the county and the mayor of the county capital<sup>94</sup>. The consultative committee meets every week, usually on Monday, while its meetings are chaired through rotation by the prefect and the president of the county council. The consultative committee may initiate projects of Government's decisions, issue prefect's orders, dispositions of the president of the county council, and decisions of the county council in order to make effective the measures commonly established.

### 2.3. The Administrative Evolution of Friuli-Venezia Giulia

Friuli-Venezia Giulia is one of the twenty Regions of Italy, and one of the five regions with administrative autonomy.

This process through which certain powers are transferred from the central level to the regional level is called "devolution". In the case of Italy it appeared from the need to assign powers traditionally belonging to the state to distinct entities. The rigid Italian administration, the fall of fascism and of the monarchy, as well as the popular will expressed in the 1946 institutional referendum, sustained this process that became an imposing reality (Martines 2002: 425).

The devolution in Italy was supported by several factors, among which geography and history are the most important. The geographical factor is mainly related to the configuration of

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<sup>93</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 146, par. 1, 2 and 3.

<sup>94</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 178, par. 1.

the Italian peninsula and to the presence of the two big islands, Sicily and Sardinia. The historical factor is linked to the political evolution throughout the centuries, which influenced Italy's fate, by making it subject to foreign domination. It also has to do with the ethnic minorities that were present on the territory of certain regions.

The discourse on local autonomy gained ground during the period of transition from fascism to the Republican Constitution. It was mainly based on the creation of regions, as intermediary entities between the state and the local autonomies of the pre-fascist tradition. During the discussions of the post-unity period, the creation of regions was meant to give an answer to federalist tendencies; thus, it became a passage from the state pluralism of the Resurrection to the national unity gained after the second war of independence, which resulted in the proclamation of the Italian Kingdom in March 1861 (Cuocolo 1983: 471).

Starting with 1946, the region completed the list of the existing territorial units (provinces and towns). The tendency went towards a clear and substantial decentralisation rather than to the creation of a real federal state. At the end of the Second World War, while preparing the Constitution, a clear necessity to invigorate public institutions was felt. Under these circumstances, as Cuocolo says (1983: 472), the binary system that characterised the state during the Resurrection did not correspond anymore to the present and real needs of the country; both the state and local communities complained about a loss of efficiency and the capacity to tackle with the existing problems.

The regions primarily served to decentralise the state government machinery. The constitutional reform of 2001 remarkably widened the competences of the regions, in particular concerning their legislative powers; most of state controls on the regions were abolished.

In 2005 the centre-right government led by Silvio Berlusconi proposed a major reform of the constitution which would have increased the powers of the regions in areas such as health and education. In June 2006, as the proposal had been associated with Berlusconi's governing partners and seen by some as leading to a federal state, it was rejected in a referendum by a margin of 61.7% to 38.3%<sup>95</sup>.

Thus, as Cuocolo explains (1983: 472):

The regional dimension became, at least to a certain extent, the optimal dimension of the new administrative organisation, the meeting point of and the possible solution to the need of efficiency and participation in the public life.

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<sup>95</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions\\_of\\_Italy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions_of_Italy) - accessed 16 August 2006.

We will further see how central and local powers collaborate through their functions and competencies for the development of the national society.

## 2.4. The Present Situation

### 2.4.1. Legislative Framework

The Italian Republic is made up of communes<sup>96</sup> (8,100)<sup>97</sup>, provinces (110)<sup>98</sup>, metropolitan cities (14)<sup>99</sup>, regions (20), and the state. Communes, provinces, metropolitan cities, and regions are autonomous entities with their own statutes, powers, and functions according to the constitution<sup>100</sup>. Communes, provinces and metropolitan cities have regulatory powers with respect to the organisation and the fulfilment of the functions assigned to them<sup>101</sup>.

*Administrative functions* belong to the communes except when they are conferred to provinces, metropolitan cities, regions, or the state in order to guarantee uniform practice; the assignment is based on the principles of subsidiarity, differentiation and adequacy<sup>102</sup>. Communes, provinces and metropolitan cities have their own administrative functions and those conferred to them by the law of the state or the region according to their respective fields of competence. State, regions, metropolitan cities, provinces and communes support autonomous initiatives promoted by citizens, individually or in associations, in order to carry out activities of general interest; this is based on the principle of subsidiarity<sup>103</sup>.

Communes, provinces, metropolitan cities and regions have *financial autonomy* regarding revenues and expenditures. Communes, provinces, metropolitan cities and regions have autonomous resources. They establish and implement their own taxes and revenues according to the Constitution and the principles of coordination of the public finances and the taxation system. They receive a share of the proceeds of state taxes related to their territory<sup>104</sup>. Communes,

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<sup>96</sup> By the term “commune” we will further refer to structures similar to the Romanian village, commune, town, and municipality. There is no such distinction in Italy; that is why we decided to use a generic term.

<sup>97</sup> [http://www.eurometeo.com/english/forecast/italia\\_meteo](http://www.eurometeo.com/english/forecast/italia_meteo) - accessed 21 August 2006.

<sup>98</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Provinces\\_of\\_Italy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Provinces_of_Italy) - accessed 21 August 2006.

<sup>99</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Demographics\\_of\\_Italy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Demographics_of_Italy) - accessed 21 August 2006.

<sup>100</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 114, par. 1 and 2.

<sup>101</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 117, par. 6.

<sup>102</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 118, par. 1.

<sup>103</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 118, par. 3.

<sup>104</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 119, par. 2.

provinces, metropolitan cities and regions have their own assets, assigned to them according to general principles established by state law. They may only contract loans in order to finance investment expenditure. State guarantees on such loans are excluded<sup>105</sup>.

Regions are considered to have greater autonomy, as they obey the principles of the Constitution, while communes and provinces are governed by general laws of the Republic (Coucolo 1983: 477).

#### 2.4.2. The Fraction

Although in the Italian Constitution the fraction is not mentioned as an administrative and territorial unit, we would like to present some general lines on it, as it corresponds more or less to the Romanian village.

A fraction<sup>106</sup> in Italy is the name given in administrative law to a type of territorial subdivision of a commune. Most of the communes have several fractions, occasionally several dozens. However, the subdivision is optional. In practice, most fractions are small villages or hamlets, occasionally even some houses.

In some occasions fractions can be more populated than the principal town of the commune<sup>107</sup>. Very occasionally, due to unusual circumstances or to the depopulation of the principal town, the town hall and its administrative functions can move to one of the fractions<sup>108</sup>.

Historically, many fractions came into being during the Fascist period, when a major effort was made to consolidate and rationalize the territorial subdivisions of the country. Formerly, they were established, and their borders defined, by the central government, except in the case of the five autonomous regions, where this was done at the regional level. However, under the terms of the Legislative Decree no 267/2000 for the implementation of the amendments to Title V of the Italian Constitution, fractions are now defined at the commune level.

Under the former legislation, a fraction had the option of having a deputy mayor, who was appointed by the mayor of the commune, often on the recommendation of deliberative bodies, such as the local council or the executive committee, or as a result of a petition by the residents of the fraction involved<sup>109</sup>.

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<sup>105</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 119, par. 6.

<sup>106</sup> (It.) Frazione.

<sup>107</sup> (It.) Capoluogo.

<sup>108</sup> <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Frazione> - accessed 23 August 2006.

<sup>109</sup> *Ibidem*.

Under current law, however, Article 54 of the Constitution provides that a mayor may delegate his functions at the fraction level to a councillor of the commune. In many communes, in addition to their advisory function, the fractions are endowed with their own clerks and recorders of deeds, but do not maintain their own civil records<sup>110</sup>.

### **2.4.3. The Commune**

Being a minor territorial entity, from the point of view of its size, the commune is the oldest local body of the Italian state, with its origins in the medieval period. It has the oldest traditions and the most complex functions in the very different sectors.

Communes have several functions. According to Cuocolo (1983: 564), these are of two types: their own functions and delegated functions (the commune acts as a representative of the state or region). The first category contains the local police, health, hygiene, urban planning, land development, public assistance and benefits, trade, etc. The second category includes general issues of the community, such as water supply, public markets, public transport, lighting, sewerage, etc.

The governing bodies of the commune are the local council, the executive committee<sup>111</sup> and the mayor. Each commune is attached to a province but it has direct access to its region and to the central state. Communes are called cities if the head of state grants them this title<sup>112</sup>. From the capital Rome to the smallest village, the communes coexist on an equal basis, although the mayors of Rome and Milan can be seen as national political figures in their own right. They also enjoy high levels of allegiance from their local populations, making their boundaries hard to amend or reform (Fracaroli 2005: 1).

Regions have some control over the activity of the communes. Local councils may be dissolved for reasons of public order or for continued neglect of their duties<sup>113</sup>.

#### **2.4.3.1. The Local Council**

The local council is the most important deliberating body of the commune. It directly represents the population residing on the territory of that particular commune. Made up of a variable number of councillors (minimum 15 – maximum 80) (Cuocolo 1983:563), the local council is elected by

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<sup>110</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>111</sup> (It.) La Giunta.

<sup>112</sup> [http://www.ccre.org/italie\\_en.htm](http://www.ccre.org/italie_en.htm) - accessed 22 August 2006.

<sup>113</sup> <http://www.britannica.com/eb/article-27015> - accessed 22 August 2006.

the direct universal suffrage for five years. It is the legislative and the main decision-making body. It votes the budget<sup>114</sup>.

#### **2.4.3.2. *The Executive Committee***

The executive committee is elected separately by the local council. It is made up of a variable number of permanent councillors (from 2 to 14) and supply councillors (from 2 to 4) (Cuocolo 1983: 563). Its members are designated by the mayor who delegates some of his competences to it.

Besides its deliberating functions, the executive committee has also executive functions; it implements the local council's decisions.

#### **2.4.3.3. *The Mayor***

The mayor is elected by direct universal suffrage for five years. He designates the deputies<sup>115</sup> who are the members of the executive committee. The mayor is the head of the local civil service. He chairs the meetings of the local council and the executive committee and has several attributions clearly stipulated by law.

### **2.4.4. The Province**

The province is the local territorial unit between the commune and the region. It contains the territory of several communes, but its operative importance is inferior to the one of the communes (Cuocolo 1983: 565). The province has competencies in the field of the environment, civil protection, culture, waste collection, employment, and education.

The institutional bodies of the province are the same as in the case of the communes: the provincial council, the provincial executive<sup>116</sup>, and the president.

#### **2.4.4.1. *The Provincial Council***

The provincial council is made up of 24 to 45 councillors, according to the population of the province. It is elected by direct universal suffrage for five years. It decides on the province's broad policy lines and votes the budget.

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<sup>114</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>115</sup> (It.) Assessori.

<sup>116</sup> (It.) La Giunta.

#### ***2.4.4.2. The Executive Committee***

The executive committee is designated by the president of the province. Its members cannot be members of the council. The executive committee implements the council's decisions.

#### ***2.4.4.3. The President***

The president is elected by universal direct suffrage for five years. He designates the members of the executive committee.

### **2.4.5. The Metropolitan City**

The metropolitan city is a new Italian administrative unit, stipulated for the first time in the provisions of Law 142/90. Nowadays it is regulated by the Single Text on Local Entities (the Legislative decree no 267/2000)<sup>117</sup>. It corresponds to the international concept of 'metropolis'. It has the functions of the province and some functions of supra-communal interest, peculiar to the communes.

Here follows the list of the metropolitan cities of Italy: Turin, Milan, Venice, Genova, Bologna, Florence, Rome, Naples, Bari, Trieste, Cagliari, Palermo, Catania and Messina. Their status is determined by territorial and economic reasons, as well as by social, environment and cultural factors.

### **2.4.6. The Region**

Five of the twenty Italian regions have a special status (Aosta Valley, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Sardinia, Sicily, and Trentino-South Tyrol), while two have the status of autonomous province (Trent, Bolzano).

After some general considerations on the Italian regions, we will further present the situation of Friuli-Venezia Giulia, as it is the subject of our research. That is why we will make reference to the status of this autonomous region, contained in the Constitutional Law no 1/ 31 January 1963 modified by the Constitutional Law no 2/2001.

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<sup>117</sup> [http://it.wikipedia.org/wiki/Citt%C3%A0\\_metropolitana](http://it.wikipedia.org/wiki/Citt%C3%A0_metropolitana) - accessed 21 August 2006.

#### **2.4.6.1. General Considerations**

The regions of Italy were granted a degree of regional autonomy in the 1948 Constitution, which states that the constitution's role is to recognize, protect and promote local autonomy, to ensure that services at the State level are decentralised as much as possible, and to adapt the principles and laws establishing autonomy and decentralisation.

However, the abovementioned five regions have been granted a special status of autonomy; they can establish their own regional legislation on some specific local matters, based on cultural grounds, the geographical location and the presence of an important number of ethnic minorities.

The regions primarily served to decentralise the state government machinery. The constitutional reform in 2001 remarkably widened the competences of the regions, especially concerning legislative powers, while most of state controls were abolished<sup>118</sup>.

Every region must have a statute determining the form of government and the fundamental principles of the organization and functioning of the region in accordance with the Constitution. The statute is adopted and amended by the regional council by a law approved twice by a majority of its members, votes being taken within an interval of no less than two months<sup>119</sup>. The statute defines the exercise of initiative and of referendum on regional laws and regional administrative decisions and the publication of regional laws and regulations.

The statute has to be submitted to a popular referendum when, within three months of its publication, a request is made by one fiftieth of the electors of the region or by one fifth of the members of the regional council. The statute submitted to referendum may not be promulgated unless approved by a majority of valid votes<sup>120</sup>.

#### **2.4.6.2. The Statute of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia Region**

Friuli-Venezia Giulia is an autonomous Region, having legal identity, within the unity of the Italian Republic, on the basis of the principles of the Constitution, in accordance with its Statute<sup>121</sup>. The region comprises the territories of the present provinces of Gorizia and Udine and of the municipalities of Trieste, Duino-Aurisina, Monrupino, Muggia, San Dorligo della Valle,

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<sup>118</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions\\_of\\_Italy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions_of_Italy) - accessed 16 august 2006.

<sup>119</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 123, par. 2.

<sup>120</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 123, par. 3.

<sup>121</sup> Legge costituzionale 31 gennaio 1963, n. 1, pubblicata nella G.U. n. 29 dell'1 febbraio 1963, Art. 1.

and Sgonico. The capital of the region is the city of Trieste. The region has its own official banner and seal, approved by decree of the President of the Republic<sup>122</sup>.

Equality of rights and treatment for all citizens, regardless of the linguistic group to which they belong, must be recognised in the region<sup>123</sup>, safeguarding their ethnic and cultural characteristics. The regions have exclusive legislative power with respect to any matters not expressly reserved to state law. In harmony with the Constitution, with the general principles of the juridical system of the Republic, with standards of socio-economic reform and the international obligations of the State, the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region has *legislative powers* in the following areas<sup>124</sup>:

- the regulation of regional offices and agencies and of the financial and legal status of their personnel;
- the regulation of local agencies and their respective districts;
- agriculture and forests, regulation of minimum cultivation units and land division, irrigation, farm and land improvement, zootechnics, the fishing industry, the mountain-area economy, the forestry crops;
- hunting and fishing;
- pasturage and wood-cutting on public land;
- establishment and maintenance of land records;
- trade and industry;
- craft industry;
- markets and trade fairs;
- roads, aqueducts and public works under local and regional management;
- the tourist and hotel trade;
- means of transport under regional management;
- urban planning;
- mineral waters and hot springs;
- cultural, recreational and sports institutions; museums and libraries under local and regional management.

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<sup>122</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 2.

<sup>123</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 3.

<sup>124</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 4.

The region has the right to adapt the provisions of the laws of the Republic to its own specific needs, issuing measures of integration and implementation in the following areas<sup>125</sup>:

- 1) nursery schools, primary schools and middle schools; classical, scientific, teacher-training, technical and artistic high schools;
- 2) employment, social security and social work;
- 3) antiquities and the fine arts; conservation of the countryside, flora and fauna; the other areas in which the laws of the State confer this right upon the region.

As far as their field of competence is concerned, the regions and the autonomous provinces of Trento and Bolzano participate in any decisions about the formation of community law. The regions and autonomous provinces also provide for the implementation and execution of international obligations and of the acts of the European Union in observance of the procedures set by state law. Should the regions fail to fulfil their responsibilities in this respect, State law establishes procedures for the State to act in substitution of the regions<sup>126</sup>. Regions may establish agreements with foreign states and understandings with territorial entities that belong to a foreign state, in the cases and forms provided for by state law.

The region exercises *administrative powers* in the areas in which it has legislative authority, except in those assigned to local agencies by national law. The region has the power to contribute to the development of university education within its own boundaries. The State may delegate by law the exercise of its administrative functions to the region, its provinces and communes<sup>127</sup>. The region shall normally exercise its administrative functions by delegating them to the provinces and the communes (Martines 2002: 454), their consortia and other local agencies, or by its own services. Regions support autonomous initiatives promoted by citizens, individually or in associations, in order to carry out activities of general interest; this is based on the principle of subsidiarity<sup>128</sup>.

Regions also have *financial autonomy*. They establish and implement their own taxes and revenues, according to the Constitution and the principles of coordination of public finances and the taxation system. They receive a share of the proceeds of state taxes related to their territory (Cuocolo 1983: 547). They have their own assets, assigned to them according to general

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<sup>125</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 6.

<sup>126</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 117, par. 5.

<sup>127</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 8, 9 and 10.

<sup>128</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 118, par. 4.

principles established by state law. They may only contract loans in order to finance investment expenditure. State guarantees on such loans are excluded<sup>129</sup>.

The regional bodies are: the regional council, the executive committee and the president.

#### **2.4.6.3. The Regional Council**

The regional council<sup>130</sup> is the legislative body. The Regional Council shall be elected by direct, equal and secret universal suffrage for a period of five years. It is made up of fifty to eighty councillors. The office of regional councillor is incompatible with that of membership of either chamber of Parliament, another regional council, a provincial council, the office of mayor of a municipality with more than 10,000 inhabitants, or the European Parliament (Cuocolo 1983: 507).

The regional council members shall represent the entire region and not be bound by any mandate. They may not be prosecuted for any opinions expressed or votes cast in the exercise of their functions. As its first act the regional council shall proceed with the establishment of the office of the presidency, with the election of the president, two vice-presidents and the secretaries, in accordance with the rules to be established by the procedural rules of the council<sup>131</sup>.

Council meetings shall be public, with the exception of those cases provided for in the regulations. The Council shall decide and approve its own procedural rules by an absolute majority vote of the Council members allotted to the Region.

The regional council elects the president from within its ranks. The regional council exercises the legislative powers granted to the region and all other functions conferred to it by the Constitution and by law. It may propose bills to the chambers and can dismiss the president of the executive committee<sup>132</sup>.

The Regional Council may be dissolved whenever it commits acts contrary to the Constitution or the present Statute, or serious violations of the law, or whenever it fails to respond to a request by the national government to replace the executive or its president in the event that they have committed similar acts or violations<sup>133</sup>.

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<sup>129</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 119, par. 2 and 6.

<sup>130</sup> (It.) Consiglio regionale.

<sup>131</sup> Legge costituzionale 31 gennaio 1963, n. 1, pubblicata nella G.U. n. 29 dell'1 febbraio 1963, Art. 16.

<sup>132</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 121, par. 2.

<sup>133</sup> Legge costituzionale 31 gennaio 1963, n. 1, pubblicata nella G.U. n. 29 dell'1 febbraio 1963, Art. 22.

#### **2.4.6.4. The Executive Committee**

The executive committee<sup>134</sup> is the executive body of the region. It holds a central position in the regional organisation. It is made of the president and the regional councillors. The councillors are designated by the council or the president. They have a five-year mandate. The executive committee must resign if it loses the confidence of the council. The executive committee has overall administrative competences; it can propose regional bills. It prepares and implements the regional budget, and implements the council's decisions (Cuocolo 1983: 513).

This body administers regional assets and supervise the management of the regional public services assigned to special agencies; it draws up the preliminary budget and presents the final accounts; it decides to bring, defend, abandon and settle legal actions and carries out the other duties assigned to it by the present Statute and other laws<sup>135</sup>.

The executive committee of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region meets once a week, usually on Friday, in its headquarters in Trieste. Extraordinary meetings may be held in special situations. The meetings of the executive committee are not public. Only the president of the region, the regional councillors, and the secretary general take part in these sessions<sup>136</sup>.

However, the decisions adopted by the executive committee are public. They may be consulted in the secretariat. The decisions related to the organisation, functions, and objectives of the regional administration shall be published in the Official Journal of the Region or in another publication. Since 2003, the texts of the decisions adopted by the executive committee can be accessed also on the region's website.

#### **2.4.6.5. The President**

The president<sup>137</sup> is elected by direct universal suffrage for five years. He designates and dismisses the members of the executive committee. He represents the region and directs the region's policies. The president enacts regional laws and regulations; he assumes the administrative functions that the state delegates to the regions and must follow government's directions in this respect. He conducts and is responsible for the general policy of the regional cabinet; he promulgates regional laws and regulations<sup>138</sup>. Within ten days of his appointment, the president appoints the councillors.

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<sup>134</sup> (It.) Giunta regionale.

<sup>135</sup> Legge costituzionale 31 gennaio 1963, n. 1, pubblicata nella G.U. n. 29 dell'1 febbraio 1963, Art. 46.

<sup>136</sup> <http://www.regione.fvg.it/istituzionale/giunta/txt-comelav.htm#uno>, accessed 25 August 2006.

<sup>137</sup> (It.) Il Presidente.

<sup>138</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 121, par. 4.

The President of the Region shall participate in sessions of the government Council of Ministers so as to be heard in the discussion of matters of particular relevance to the Region.

#### **2.4.6.6. Regional Form of Government**

The electoral system, as well as the cases of ineligibility and incompatibility of the president and other members of the executive committee and the regional council, are defined by the laws of the region within the limits of the fundamental principles determined by a state law.

Nobody may be at the same time a member of a regional council or a regional cabinet and of either chamber of parliament or of another regional council or another regional cabinet or of the European parliament<sup>139</sup>.

A government commissioner shall be established in the region and reside in the regional capital. The commissioner shall be a State official with a rank no lower than Director General or its equivalent, appointed by Presidential Decree on the nomination of the Prime Minister with the agreement of the Minister of the Interior and after consultation with the Council of Ministers<sup>140</sup>.

The government commissioner shall have the following duties<sup>141</sup>:

- coordinate the performance of the duties of the State within the region, in compliance with government directives;
- supervise the performance by the region, provinces and municipalities of the functions delegated to them by the State, and communicate any observations to the heads of the respective administrations;
- constitute the channel for relations between the State and the region, with the exception of the functions assigned by existing regulations to administrative bodies outside the State whose offices are not expressly transferred to the region.

Participation in national government is one of the main functions of the regions. Regional councils may initiate parliamentary legislation, propose referenda, and appoint delegates to assist in presidential elections.

The legislative powers of both special and ordinary regions are subject to certain constitutional limitations. Thus, regional acts may not conflict with national interests. The regions

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<sup>139</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 122, par. 2.

<sup>140</sup> Legge costituzionale 31 gennaio 1963, n. 1, pubblicata nella G.U. n. 29 dell'1 febbraio 1963, Art. 61.

<sup>141</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 62.

can also enact legislation necessary for the enforcement of State laws when the latter contain the necessary provisions.

The regions have administrative competence in the same fields in which they have legislative competence. Additional administrative functions can be delegated by State laws. The regions have the right to acquire property and the right to collect certain revenues and taxes.

The government has the power to dissolve regional councils that have acted contrary to the Constitution or have violated the law. In such case, elections must be held within three months<sup>142</sup>.

Italy's thriving system of local democracy represents a triumph for both federalism and localism, with its post-war republican Constitution recognising its autonomy and promoting decentralisation. Having set the scene in 1948, a process of decentralisation has seen new regions established and powers devolved ever since (Fracaroli 2005: 1).

## 2.5. Comparative Aspects

By presenting the administrative organisation of the two regions that make the object of our research we could identify many similar elements, as we did in the case of their history. However, there are, of course, some differences, too. We will further try to list our conclusions for this chapter.

1. First of all, it is worth mentioning that there is a difference as far as the term of "region" is concerned in the case of the two countries. When we speak about regions in Romania we refer either to historical or geographical regions or to development regions. On the contrary, when we speak about regions in Italy, we might think of historical and geographical regions, but also to autonomous regions. The latter are one of the main issues of the Italian administrative system. They are sub-national entities with a certain amount of legislative, administrative, and financial autonomy. The status of autonomous region in Italy is based on cultural grounds, the geographical location, and the presence of important ethnic minorities on those territories.

2. Second of all, history played a very important role in defining the administrative structure of both regions. All main events that took part on the territories of these two countries influenced the further development of their regional organisation. We should mention here the Hapsburg domination on both regions, the Resurrection in Italy and the 1848 Revolution in the

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<sup>142</sup> <http://www.britannica.com/eb/article-27015> - accessed 22 August 2006.

Romanian principalities, the 1861 Unification of Italy and the 1918 Unification of Romania, the two world wars in both countries, the fascist period in Italy and the Soviet domination in Romania, the communist period and the 1989 Revolution in Romania.

3. At present, there are similar administrative divisions in the two countries: the village, the commune, the town, the municipality, the county, the geographical and development regions, and the State in Romania, and the fraction, the commune, the province, the metropolitan city, the region, and the State in Italy. The Romanian village corresponds more or less to the Italian fraction. The Italian commune would be the equivalent of the Romanian town. The metropolitan city in Italy has similar functions with the municipality in Romania, while the structure of the Italian province resembles the structure of the Romanian county.

4. By analysing the internal structure of these administrative units in both regions, we discover almost the same composition. There are the local council, the local councillors and the mayor at the level of both the Romanian towns and the Italian communes. The only difference is that in Italy there is one more body – the executive committee -, with different attributions. The Italian provincial council corresponds to the Romanian county council. They are both made up of councillors and a president. Here comes another difference: the institution of the prefect in Romania does not exist in the Italian province. It would rather correspond to the Italian president of the region.

Once again, many common characteristics are to be found in Transylvania and in Friuli-Venezia Giulia, as far as their administrative structure is concerned. This makes us come back to the idea of the common past of the two regions and their countries and the same Latin roots.

# **CHAPTER 3 - REGIONS IN ROMANIA AND REGIONS IN ITALY. CASE STUDY: TRANSYLVANIA AND FRIULI-VENEZIA GIULIA. COOPERATION AT DIFFERENT LEVELS**

## **3.1. The Concept of 'Region'**

Nowadays the concept of *region* is used very often, as it starts to play a very important role in our lives. The world undergoes a process of continuous changes and transformations, which have a strong impact at the international, national, regional and local levels.

Regions can have different meanings. There are several criteria that contribute to the definition of a region, such as physical, social, economic, linguistic, etc. One can speak about several types of regions: crowded regions, geographical regions, historical regions, natural regions, planning regions, underdeveloped regions, etc (Pascariu 2000: 75).

Given the importance of regions, we find it necessary to give some definitions for this term. Hornby, A.S. (1995: 982) defines the region as 'an administrative division of a country', while the Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1993: 984) sees it as 'an administrative area, division, or district'. Robert, P. (2002: 2139) defines the region as a relatively expanded territory, with particular physical and human characteristics, which make it a distinct unit from other neighbour regions, and then as an administrative territorial unit. Marcu, F. (2002: 742) defines the region as a territorial and administrative unit with several districts.

There are a number of essential criteria for each community. The region should exist at the juridical level, on the basis of a sociological reality. By decentralisation, the region allows changes in the administrative system and the control of the citizens and the elected authorities (Ivan, A. L. 2004: 43).

From all these definitions, we can conclude by saying that the region is an administrative unit with specific geographical, economic and cultural peculiarities which encourages decentralisation and involves the citizens in the decision-making process.

In the case of Romania we will speak about historical and development regions, while in the case of Italy we will speak about autonomous regions.

The European Union offers funds for the regional development, so that cooperation at this level should be strengthened. Consequently, regions and regional actors need to be approached in a coherent way. Practically speaking, regions start to have greater and greater influence on the national and European policies.

At this particular point, the regional actors will have to find not only the strategies, but also the means through which they could become competitive, thus contributing to the diminution of development discrepancies among the regions and to the achievement of economic and social cohesion (Puşcaş 2004: 10).

### 3.2. The European Union's Regional Development Policy

There are huge regional differences in the fields of the unemployment rate, training and professional training, the level of infrastructural systems and research and technology (Süli-Zakar 2006: 26). The regional development policy is one of the European Union's most important and complex policies. By its objective that aims at reducing the existing social and economic disparities between Europe's different regions (Dolghi 2004: 75), it influences several significant development fields, such as economic growth and the SMEs<sup>143</sup>, transport, agriculture, urban development, environmental protection, jobs and professional training, education, gender equality, etc. Conceived as a solidarity policy at the European level, the regional policy is mainly based on financial solidarity, more exactly on redistributing a part of the community budget achieved by the contribution of the Member States towards the poorer regions and social groups<sup>144</sup>.

In fact, we can affirm that the regional development policy has a strong instrumental character. Through its solidarity funds (The Solidarity Fund, The Cohesion Fund, Structural Funds), it contributes at financing other sectoral policies, such as the agricultural policy, the social policy, or the environmental protection policy. Moreover, the regional policy is also related to the European Union's enlargement policy through the creation of the special pre-accession funds: PHARE (aid for the economic reconstruction), ISPA (instrument of structural policies) and SAPARD (special programme for agriculture). These funds can be accessed by acceding

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<sup>143</sup> Small and medium-sized enterprises.

<sup>144</sup> [http://europa.eu.int/comm/regional\\_policy](http://europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy) - accessed 19 November 2006.

countries in order to get help in their transition to the European standards and organisation structures.

The complex character of the regional development policy is also underlined by the way in which it integrates three of the EU's main objectives: economic and social cohesion, the extension of the scope of the subsidiarity principle and sustainable development<sup>145</sup>.

Social and economic cohesion is part of the objectives of structural funds. Its importance is due to the Cohesion Fund. The subsidiarity principle refers to the Member States' involvement in the development and the implementation of community policies. Sustainable development is a priority of the European solidarity programmes, especially because of the importance given to environmental protection and the decision making process in this field. Mention should be made that this strategy is not only European, but also global, as it is promoted all over the world through international agreements. This reveals once more the complex character of the regional development policy and the internal cohesion of community objectives.

### **3.2.1. Institutional Actors of the Regional Development Policy**

As the regional development policy refers to several fields of activity, many institutional actors are involved in its elaboration and.

#### ***3.2.1.1. The European Commission***

The European Commission is the executive body of the European Union. Alongside the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union, it is one of the three main institutions governing the Union. Its primary roles are to propose and implement legislation and to act as 'guardian of the treaties' which provides the legal basis for the EU.

The Commission consists of 27 Commissioners, one from each Member State of the EU supported by an administrative body of about 23,000 European civil servants divided into departments called Directorate-General<sup>146</sup>.

The European Commission is directly responsible for preparing and assuring the implementation of the EU's regional development policy. Its role is to initiate and define new legislative acts in this field and to make sure that the Member States will implement the measures that have been taken. *The Directorate General (DG) for Regional Policy* is the main responsible for assistance

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<sup>145</sup> [http://europa.eu.int/comm/regional\\_policy](http://europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy) - accessed 19 November 2006.

<sup>146</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/index_en.htm) - accessed 8 March 2007.

measures that refer to the economic and social development of regions at the European level<sup>147</sup>. The *DG Regional Policy* is supported by other Directorates General involved in the implementation of the regional policy, such as *DG Agriculture, DG Fisheries, DG Education and Culture, DG Environment and DG Employment and Social Affairs*.

### **3.2.1.2. The European Parliament**

The European Parliament is the parliamentary body of the European Union, directly elected by EU citizens every five years. Together with the Council of Ministers, it composes the legislative branch of the institutions of the Union. The Parliament has restricted legislative power. It cannot initiate legislation, but can amend or veto it in many policy areas. In certain other policy areas, it only has the right to be consulted. It also supervises the European Commission; it must approve all appointments to it, and can dismiss it with a vote of censure. It also has the right to control the EU budget. The European Parliament has no power to interfere with or overrule laws made in any member state country of the EU<sup>148</sup>.

The European Parliament is involved in the development of the community regional policy at the decision making level by the *Committee for Regional Policy, Transport and Tourism*. At the same time, this committee controls the instruments for the achievement of economic and social cohesion, the national economic policies and community policies and actions for the achievement of the Internal Market, as well as *Structural Funds, The Cohesion Fund and the European Investment Bank*.

### **3.2.1.3. The Council of the European Union**

The Council of the European Union contains ministers of the governments of each of the European Union Member States. It is sometimes referred to in official European Union documents simply as the Council or the Council of Ministers. It seeks to achieve a common economic policy for the Member States.

The Council is a single body, but, according to the subject being discussed, it meets in different 'configurations', which are attended by the Ministers from the Member States and the European Commissioners responsible for the areas concerned. In the 1990s there were 22 configurations; this number was reduced to 16 in June 2000 and then to 9 in June 2002<sup>149</sup>.

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<sup>147</sup> The Treaty on European Union, Part V, Title I, Chapter 1, Section 3, Art. 214 and 216.

<sup>148</sup> [www.europarl.europa.eu/news/public/default\\_en.htm](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/news/public/default_en.htm) - accessed 8 March 2007.

<sup>149</sup> <http://www.consilium.europa.eu/showPage.asp?id=426&lang=en&mode=g> - accessed 8 March 2007.

However, regardless of the Council configuration that adopts a decision that decision is always a Council decision and no mention is made of the configuration.

Council decisions are prepared by a structure of some 250 working parties and committees comprising delegates from the Member States. They resolve technical issues and forward the dossier to the Permanent Representatives Committee (Coreper), made up of the Member States' ambassadors to the European Union. It ensures consistency in the work and resolves technical-political questions before submitting the dossier to the Council.

The Council takes decisions by a vote of Ministers from the Member States. There are three types of vote depending on the Treaty provisions for the subject being dealt with: simple majority (for procedural decisions), qualified majority (a weighted voting system based on the populations of Member States; used for many decisions concerning the internal market, economic affairs and trade) and unanimity (for foreign policy, defence, judicial and police cooperation, and taxation)<sup>150</sup>.

In a great majority of cases, the Council takes decisions on a proposal from the European Commission and in association with the European Parliament, either through the consultation procedure (e.g. in the areas of agriculture, judicial and police cooperation, and taxation) or through codecision (e.g. the internal market).

#### **3.2.1.4. The Committee of the Regions**

The Maastricht Treaty introduced a new body: the Committee of the Regions. According to Art. 198A, this committee is a consultative body, made up of the representatives of regional and local communities (Dolghi 2004: 92).

The Committee of the Regions (CoR) aims at increasing the participation of European regions in community life. Its seat is in Brussels. It is made up of 317 representatives of regional and local governments. The Committee of the Regions (CoR) is the political assembly that provides the voice of local and regional authorities at the heart of the European Union.

Established in 1994 under the Treaty on European Union, the CoR was set up to address two main issues<sup>151</sup>. First of all, about three quarters of the EU legislation is implemented at local or regional level, so it local and regional representatives must have a say in the development of new EU laws. Second of all, there were concerns that the public was being left behind as the EU went ahead. Consequently, the elected government had to be closest to the citizens.

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<sup>150</sup> *Ibidem.*

<sup>151</sup> <http://www.cor.europa.eu/en/presentation/bringing.htm> - accessed 9 November 2006.

The Treaties oblige the Commission and Council to consult the Committee of the Regions whenever new proposals are made in areas that interest the regional or local level. The Maastricht Treaty set out 5 such areas<sup>152</sup>: economic and social cohesion, trans-European infrastructure networks, health, education and culture. The Amsterdam Treaty added another five areas to the list: employment policy, social policy, the environment, vocational training and transport, which now covers much of the EU's activity.

Outside these areas, the Commission, Council and European Parliament have the option to consult the CoR on issues of regional and local importance. The CoR can also draw up an opinion on its own initiative, which enables it to put issues on the EU agenda.

The Committee's work is based on three main principles<sup>153</sup>:

1. **Subsidiarity** – it means that decisions within the European Union should be taken at the closest practical level to the citizen. Thus, the European Union should not perform tasks which suit better national, regional or local administrations.
2. **Proximity** - all levels of government should be 'close to the citizens' by organising their work in a transparent way, so that people know who the bodies in charge of their problems are and how to make their voices heard.
3. **Partnership** - sound European governance means European, national, regional and local government working together. All these levels are indispensable and should be involved in the decision making process.

The Committee of the Regions has 317 members and the same number of alternate members. They are all appointed for a four years by the Council upon proposals from the Member States. Each country chooses its members in its own way, but the delegations all reflect the political, geographical and regional or local balance in their Member State. The members are elected members of or key players in local or regional authorities in their home region. This keeps them in touch with the views and concerns of the people they represent, and they are able to bring those issues to the heart of the EU process when they come to Brussels for meetings of the CoR.

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<sup>152</sup> The Maastricht Treaty, Part III, Title XI, Chapter 3, Art. 149, Title XII, Art. 151, Title XIII, Art. 152, Title XIV, Art. 153, Title XVII, Art. 159.

<sup>153</sup> <http://www.cor.europa.eu/en/presentation/Role.htm> - accessed 9 November 2006.

The Committee's work is performed by six specialised Commissions, made up of CoR members, who examine the proposals on which the CoR is consulted and draw up a draft opinion. It underlines the points where there is agreement with the European Commission's proposals and those where changes are needed.

The draft opinion is then discussed at one of the five CoR plenary sessions which take place each year. If a majority approves it, the draft is adopted as the opinion of the Committee of the Regions and then it is sent on to the Commission, Parliament and Council. The CoR also adopts resolutions on certain political issues<sup>154</sup>.

There are four political groups represented in the CoR, reflecting the main European political families: the Party of European Socialists (PES), the European People's Party (EPP), the European Liberal Democrat and Reform Party (ALDE) and the European Alliance (EA).

#### ***3.2.1.5. The European Investment Bank***

The European Investment Bank is the financing institution of the EU policies. It plays a double role in this respect: it is both an institutional actor of the regional development policy and its financing and implementing instrument<sup>155</sup>. The bank grants loans and guarantees with low interest to all Member States in order to finance projects in all economic sectors. In this way it sustains the regional development policy at the community level, the objectives of the Structural Funds and of the other EU financial instruments.

#### **3.2.2. Solidarity Instruments**

The European Union's solidarity and cohesion policy is implemented with the help of solidarity instruments or funds, which address mainly to the EU Member States and regions, but does not exclude acceding countries. Special instruments and funds were created for the latter, too.

##### ***3.2.2.1. The Solidarity Fund***

The European Union Solidarity Fund is the most recent fund of the regional policy and it was created in November 2002<sup>156</sup>, as a consequence of the floods that affected France, Germany,

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<sup>154</sup> [http://www.cor.europa.eu/en/presentation/member\\_mandate.htm](http://www.cor.europa.eu/en/presentation/member_mandate.htm) - accessed 9 November 2006.

<sup>155</sup> <http://www.eib.org/about/> - accessed 19 November 2006.

<sup>156</sup> Council Regulation (EC) No 2012/2002 of 11 November 2002 establishing the European Union Solidarity Fund, [Official Journal L 311 of 14.11.2002].

Austria and the Czech Republic. Its objective is to facilitate the expression of EU solidarity with the population of a Member State or acceding country that had been affected by a major natural calamity. Thus, it allows immediate, efficient and flexible reactions, depending on the nature and gravity of the situation.

This fund will only be used in case of major natural calamities, such as floods or spontaneous fires with important negative consequences on life conditions, the environment or the economy. There are two criteria used to estimate the proportions of such a natural calamity and to justify the use of this fund<sup>157</sup>:

1. in the case of a state: losses estimated at 3 billion euros<sup>158</sup> or at more than 0.6% of the Gross National Income;
2. in the case of extraordinary regional disasters: losses lower than 3 billion euros, that affect most of the population and have major and long lasting consequences on life conditions and the economic stability of that particular region; special attention is granted to far and isolated regions.

The maximum sum granted annually to the Solidarity Fund is 1 billion euros. The assistance given with this fund consists in one financing installment for the country/region that asks for it. It is complementary with national efforts and does not need co-financing from that particular state. In order to obtain this help, the state has to submit a demand to the European Commission within 10 weeks from the first loss caused by the disaster. This application should contain information on the proportions and impact of the damages, the estimated sum needed and other national, community and /or international financing.

Should the final estimates be lower than established initially by that particular state, the European Commission will ask for the reimbursement of the difference. Usually, the fund finances repairing actions for damages that cannot be insured.

Here are the *actions eligible* for financing inside this fund (Pascariu 2000: 76):

- the immediate rehabilitation of the infrastructure, electric plants, water plants, telecommunications, transport, health, and education;

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<sup>157</sup> Council Regulation (EC) No 2012/2002 of 11 November 2002 establishing the European Union Solidarity Fund, [Official Journal L 311 of 14.11.2002].

<sup>158</sup> As per 2002.

- temporary dwellings and rescue services in response to the immediate needs of the affected population;
- the immediate consolidation of structures and immediate protection measures for the cultural heritage;
- the immediate cleaning of the affected areas, including natural areas.

The allocated sum shall be spent in one-year time, while the remaining part shall be reimbursed. The evaluation of the impact, utility and efficiency of this fund is to be done annually. Thus, every year, on the 1 July the Commission must present a report on the activity of the Solidarity Fund.

### **3.2.2.2. The Cohesion Fund**

The Cohesion Fund is a special instrument of the solidarity policy and it makes direct reference to one of European Union's main aims: the promotion of economic and social progress and the elimination of the differences among living standards in the EU's regions and Member States.

The Cohesion Fund was created in 1993 to support the four poorest Member States: Spain, Portugal, Greece, and Ireland (Süli-Zakar 2006: 27). This fund has two functioning steps: 1994-1999 and 2000-2006. The eligible countries in this case are those with a Gross Domestic Product per capita lower than 90% of the EU average.

The reform of 1999 did not bring any major changes and did not modify the characteristics of this fund; it rather dealt with administrative aspects, promoting subsidiarity and strengthening the role of the Member States in the financial control; it encourages the use of supplementary private funds and the "the pollutant pays" principle<sup>159</sup>.

The Cohesion Fund refers to the environmental protection and trans-European networks of transport infrastructures. Financial help is based on projects. Every project receives 80-85% financing from the total eligible costs. The financing of the two fields is balanced, each of them receiving 50% of the budget allocated to this fund. Projects are selected and implemented by the beneficiary Member States, which are also responsible of their management and financial monitoring.

For the first period (1994–1999) the budget was estimated at 15.15 billion euros<sup>160</sup> and 16.7 billion euros were allocated. For the second period (2000-2006) the estimated budget of the

<sup>159</sup> <http://europa.eu.int/scadplus/leg/en/lvb/160018.htm> - accessed 25 November 2006.

<sup>160</sup> The value in 1992. The difference was due to the inflation rate.

Cohesion Fund is of 18 billion euros<sup>161</sup> with an annual average of 2.5 billion euros. The budget allocated for the 2000-2006 period is distributed among the four beneficiaries according to the percentage established by the European Council of Berlin in March), as follows<sup>162</sup>:

- Spain: 61-63.5%
- Greece and Portugal: 16-18.0%
- Ireland: 2-6%.

As far as the *environment* is concerned, projects that will be financed must contribute to achieving the EU's environmental objectives, such as:

- the preservation, protection and improvement of the environmental quality;
- the protection of people's health;
- the creation of the necessary conditions for the cautious and rational use of natural resources.

There are some priority directions inside this field, such as:

- reserve of potable water;
- treatment of waste waters;
- storage of solid wastes;
- reforestation;
- control of soil erosion;
- preservation of nature.

In the case of *transport infrastructure*, the eligible projects are those that propose to create or develop the infrastructure of the Trans-European Transport Network (TEN) or those that provide access to that network.

Economic and social cohesion remains an essential dimension of the European Union's policy. The addressability of the Cohesion Fund will change according to the progress of the present beneficiaries and the needs of the new Member States.

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<sup>161</sup> The value in 1999.

<sup>162</sup> <http://europa.eu.int/scadplus/leg/en/lvb/160018.htm> - accessed 25 November 2006.

### **3.2.2.3. Structural Funds**

While the Solidarity Fund and the Cohesion Fund are based on projects, Structural Funds function according to programmes. Programmes are structured according to the fields and the priority objectives of the regional policy.

#### **3.2.2.3.1. Composition**

Structural Funds are made up of the following parts (Dolghi 2004: 81):

- a) The European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) – it was created in 1975 to offer assistance to poorer regions; it mainly refers to the investments in the fields of production, infrastructure, and the development of the SMEs<sup>163</sup>;
- b) The European Social Fund (ESF) – it was created in 1960 for professional training and material support in the field of labour force; it is aimed to prevent and fight unemployment, offer social and professional reorientation, and create new jobs;
- c) The European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF) – it was created in 1962 and promotes the development of agricultural structures and rural areas by supporting the young farmers and the small agricultural households; it also helps the entrance of small producers on the market and the preservation of the rural cultural heritage;
- d) The Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance (FIFG)<sup>164</sup> – it was created in 1993 for the restructuring of the fisheries sector.

The rules and procedures for the allocation of Structural Funds were modified successively. Thus, there were the reforms of 1987-1992 and 1999. The operational principles for the 1994-1999 period were the following (Pascariu 2000: 83):

- partnership;
- programming and internal coherence;
- additionality and the external coherence;
- concentration.

In the new Agenda 2000<sup>165</sup>, the operational principles transformed into:

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<sup>163</sup> Small and medium-sized enterprises.

<sup>164</sup> Council Regulation (EC) No 1263/1999 of 21 June 1999 on the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance.

- partnership;
- programming;
- additionality;
- monitoring, control and evaluation.

The change that occurred does not refer to substance, but rather to orientation. It promotes the simplification and decentralisation of the structural funds' management by a clearer division of responsibilities and the strengthening of the general subsidiarity principle. Thus, national and local authorities acquire a more important role in the implementation of the Structural Funds' programmes.

*The partnership principle* supposes a close collaboration between the Commission and the national, regional and local authorities, economic and social partners and other competent bodies. They all get involved in the elaboration and approval of development plans, as well in their implementation and monitoring.

*The programming principle* is one of the essential elements of the Structural Funds and it refers to the preparation of multi-annual development plans based on the decisions taken with the Member States at successive stages. Thus, for the first stage, Member States will submit to the European Commission national development and reconversion plans based on national and regional priorities. For the following stage Member States will provide the Commission with the programming documents. The European Commission and the Member States will then negotiate on the basis of these documents. Therefore, Structural Funds are allocated for each state separately (Pascariu 2000: 83).

*The additionality principle* is based on complementary national financing funds. Structural Funds shall not replace the national funds allocated for the development of a particular sector, but they shall complete those funds (Pascariu 2000: 83).

*The monitoring, control and evaluation principle* is the new element brought by the 1999 reform in the field of structural funds. Thus, Member States have administrative attributions and they are obliged to found a national authority corresponding to every programme of Structural Funds, as well as monitoring committees. National authorities are responsible for the correct implementation and administration of a programme. Thus, they have to gather statistical and

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<sup>165</sup> The 2000-2006 period.

financial information, prepare and submits reports to the Commission and organise intermediary evaluations.

### **3.2.2.3.2. Objectives**

The objectives of Structural Funds are specific for every programming period and they are established according to the main priorities identified in order to reduce economic and social discrepancies at the community level. Thus, they are called priority objectives and directly refer to the sectors that need structural intervention.

The 1993-1999 period had 6 priority objectives (Dolghi 2004: 79):

- Objective 1 – the development of poorer regions, where the GDP per capita is less than 75% of the EU average for the last three years;
- Objective 2 – the economic reconversion of the regions undergoing an industrial decline by the development of alternative industries and business;
- Objective 3 – the fight against long-term unemployment and the professional integration of the youth and the persons excluded from the labour market;
- Objective 4 – the increase of employment opportunities for the youth;
- Objective 5
  - Objective 5a – the adaptation of the agricultural and fisheries structures according to the reforms of the Community’s agricultural policy;
  - Objective 5b – the promotion of economic development and diversification of under-developed rural areas;
- Objective 6 – the structural development and adjustment of the less-populated areas in the countries from north-eastern Europe<sup>166</sup>.

The objectives of the 2000-2006 period are, as follows (Pascariu 2000: 85):

- Objective 1 – the structural development of the poorer regions; these regions are characterised by few investments, an unemployment rate bigger than the EU average, the lack of service providing, and scarce basic infrastructure;

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<sup>166</sup> Sweden and Finland.

- Objective 2 – the economic and social reconversion of the regions with structural difficulties; structural difficulties refer to the evolution of the industrial sector and service providing, the decline of traditional activities in rural areas, crises in urban areas, and the difficulties in the fisheries sector;
- Objective 3 – the development of human resources; it supports the modernisation of educational and training systems, as well as of occupational policies on the EU territory.

### **3.2.2.3.3. Community Initiatives**

Community initiatives are forms of financial assistance provided by the European Commission to the Member States. They are complementary to other types of community financing.

Between 1994 and 1999, 15 types of community initiatives were elaborated and implemented. For the 2000-2006 period, their number was reduced to four (Dolghi 2004: 82).

- INTERREG III – it is financed by ERDF and promotes three components: trans-border, trans-national and inter-regional cooperation;
- LEADER + - it is financed by EAGGF and promotes rural development by supporting the local groups' initiatives;
- EQUAL – it is financed by the ESF and supports the development of new ways of combating discrimination and inequalities related to the access on the labour market;
- URBAN II – it is financed by ERDF and encourages innovative strategies for the economic and social regeneration of cities and declining urban areas.

**INTERREG III** aims at stimulating the regional initiative and it contributes to the economic and social cohesion inside the European Union. It approaches regions as distinct geographical and cultural entities, irrespective of their belonging to one state or another. The implementing strategy of this programme is similar to that of Structural Funds and is based on the following operational principles<sup>167</sup>:

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<sup>167</sup> [www.interreg3c.net/web/detail.php?id=1572](http://www.interreg3c.net/web/detail.php?id=1572) – accessed 1 December 2006.

- programming – its programming document is the Community Initiative Programme (CIP) that contributes to the development of mechanisms and structures needed for trans-border cooperation;
- partnership – it refers to the involvement of local, regional and national authorities, as well as of economic and social partners, in order to encourage the participation of the public or private interested parties;
- synchronization with other financial instruments – it is complementary with other community programmes and instruments; the operations developed on the EU territory are financed by the ERDF budget, while those performed outside the community borders are financed through the Phare, Ispa<sup>168</sup>, Tacis<sup>169</sup>, and Meda<sup>170</sup> programmes and by other financial instruments, such as CARDS<sup>171</sup>, EDF<sup>172</sup>, or EIB<sup>173</sup>.

**LEADER +** developed on the basis of the community initiatives *Leader I* (1991-1994) and *Leader II* (1994-1999). It deals with the involvement of active groups from rural societies and economies in finding new strategies of sustainable development at the local level. Thus, the beneficiaries of LEADER + are the Local Action Groups (LAG) that encourage rural actors to evaluate the long-term potential of their area and implement their own strategies in order to strengthen its cultural and natural heritage. Furthermore, it stimulates the local economic environment and the improvement of the organisational capacity of those communities.

This programme has three main action lines:

- Action 1 – pilot integrated strategies of rural development for small areas with a strong regional identity;
- Action 2 – support for trans-national and intra-territorial cooperation;
- Action 3 – building of a network of EU rural areas.

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<sup>168</sup> Phare and Ispa are special programmes created for the acceding countries.

<sup>169</sup> For the countries of the ancient Soviet space.

<sup>170</sup> For the countries of the eastern Mediterranean space.

<sup>171</sup> Community Assistance for Reconstruction, Development and Stability.

<sup>172</sup> European Development Fund.

<sup>173</sup> European Investment Bank.

A very important aspect of the LEADER + programme is enhanced cooperation and the dissemination of the best models of rural development.

**EQUAL** appeared as an experimental community programme in 2000. It is based on the previous *Adapt* and *Employment* community initiatives. It has a double aim:

1. to discover and promote new ways of fighting the discrimination forms on the labour market by trans-national cooperation;
2. to facilitate immigrants' social and professional integration.

In order to get financing inside this programme, every Member State must submit to the European Commission a Community Initiative Programme (CIP), in which it presents the strategy and national arrangements for the implementation of EQUAL. The activities financed by the CIP are divided into thematic areas and implemented through development partnerships. The latter can be of two types<sup>174</sup>:

- geographical development partnerships – they represent the end beneficiaries of this financial aid and bring together the actors from a certain geographical area;
- sectoral development partnerships – they refer to a particular industrial sector.

The activities of this programme can be classified according to the four pillars of the European Employment Strategy<sup>175</sup>:

1. Employability - bridging the skills gap in Europe in an attempt to prevent the long-term unemployed and other disadvantaged groups from becoming increasingly excluded;
2. Entrepreneurship - encouraging the development of self-employment, reducing administrative formalities and identifying new sources of employment;
3. Adaptability - increasing the ability of workers to cope successfully with changes in the labour market;

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<sup>174</sup> [www.equal.ecotec.co.uk/](http://www.equal.ecotec.co.uk/) - accessed 1 December 2006.

<sup>175</sup> [http://www.scottish.parliament.uk/business/research/pdf\\_res\\_brief/sb02-98.pdf](http://www.scottish.parliament.uk/business/research/pdf_res_brief/sb02-98.pdf) - accessed 1 December 2006.

4. Equal opportunities - facilitating the entry of more women into the labour market.

Every thematic area contains four types of actions, as follows:

1. Action 1: establishing trans-national development and cooperation partnerships;
2. Action 2: implementing the schedule of the development partnerships;
3. Action 3: thematic networks and good practice dissemination and their impact on national policies;
4. Action 4: technical assistance.

**URBAN II** started from an EU programme of 1994 in order to answer the needs of poor urban areas. Between 1994-1999, it functioned under the names of *Urban Community Initiative* or *Urban I*. The very good results of this initiative made it continue between 2000-2006, under the name of **URBAN II**. The aim of this programme is to promote the creation and implementation of innovative development models for the economic and social revival of those poor urban areas. It also improves the exchange of information and experience on the urban sustainable development on the EU's territory.

The action principles of this programme are based on the following aspects<sup>176</sup>:

- the existence of a critical mass of population<sup>177</sup> and of corresponding supporting structures in order to facilitate the creation and implementation of innovative programmes of urban development;
- the existence of strong local partnerships in order to define intervention projects, as well as the monitoring and the evaluation of strategies;
- an integrated territorial approach;
- the integration of economic, social and environmental aspects;
- the promotion of equal chances for men and women;
- the complementarity with Structural Funds and the other Community initiatives.

These principles establish the general action framework and are based on the priorities identified for the 2000-2006 period. An important characteristic of the **URBAN II** programme is

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<sup>176</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/regional\\_policy/urban2/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/urban2/index_en.htm) - accessed 2 December 2006.

<sup>177</sup> Eligible values range from 10 to 20,000 inhabitants.

the special involvement of local authorities, which directly derives from their position and responsibilities. Another particular aspect that is worth mentioning is the project of creating a network of the URBAN projects (URBACT), in order to exchange information and experience in the field of sustainable urban development at the community level.

### 3.3. The Status of Transylvania – Historical and Development Regions

Given the purpose of our thesis, we consider it useful to have a look on the administrative evolution of Transylvania in order to focus on the differences between the Romanian tradition and the foreign elements imposed in this province by the Austrian and Hungarian domination.

We hear very often nowadays the term of ‘region’ in Romania in connection with different parts of the Romanian territory. This is mainly because mutual benefits resulted from cooperation can be seen at the regional and local level (Pușcaș 2004: 7). Therefore, people think that the ancient historical regions (Transylvania, Wallachia, and Moldavia) could as well influence the new regional directions of cooperation.

This subject has been debated more and more in the context of Romania’s accession to the European Union, as we had to negotiate the chapter 21 related to the “*Regional Policy and Coordination of Structural Instruments*”. Professor Pușcaș (2004: 8) estimates that candidate countries have to create a functional legislative framework at the regional level in order to allow the efficient use of structural funds ever since the first day of accession.

Pascariu offers a definition given by the European Parliament to the development region:

The development region is a territory that forms, geographically speaking, a clear unit or a similar group of territories characterised by continuity, where the population has certain common features and wants to preserve its specificity, while developing it in order to stimulate cultural, social and economic progress.

(2000: 76, our translation)

Geographically speaking, Transylvania contains three regions: the western region (made up of the counties of Arad, Caraș-Severin, Hunedoara, and Timiș), the north-western region (made up of the counties of Bihor, Bistrița-Năsăud, Cluj, Maramureș, Satu Mare, and Sălaj), and the central region (made up of the counties of Alba, Brașov, Covasna, Harghita, Mureș, and Sibiu) (Nistor 2000: 145).

If we analyse in details the case of Romania, we will find out that its administrative organisation corresponds to a semi-centralised structure, which took some forms of decentralisation after 1990; these forms could correspond to the regions. According to the Romanian Constitution, from the administrative point of view, Romania's territory is organized in towns, cities and counties.

Law 151/1998 concerning the regional development in Romania stipulated that 8 development regions were to be created, each of them grouping several counties (Pușcaș 2004: 150). The basic principle of this law was the voluntary association of the existing counties. They constitute the framework for the elaboration, implementation and evaluation of the regional development policies. Each region is formed by six or seven counties, except for Bucharest, that contains one county and the city of Bucharest. They are relatively similar as to the total area and the number of the population.

The abovementioned law sets the institutional framework, the objectives, the competencies and instruments of the regional development policy in Romania. Here follow the objectives: to decrease the existing regional unbalance by stimulating a balanced development and to prevent the formation of new disequilibria. In order to achieve these objectives programmes are financed by the *National Fund for Regional Development*.

Law 151/1998 was modified by Law 315/2004<sup>178</sup>. This new law contains the names of the counties that form each development region. These structures are led by a *Council for Regional Development*, formed by representatives from each county appointed for the duration of their mandate. It has no legal status and is made up of the presidents of the district councils and of one representative of each category of the local councils in every county of the region. This Council coordinates a series of actions, such as:

- the analysis and approval of the regional development strategy and plans;
- the elaboration of the Plan for Regional Development;
- the proposal to the National Council for Regional Development of the amount of the annual contributions for financing the objectives of the regional policy, as well as their destination and instalments;

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<sup>178</sup> Legea privind dezvoltarea regională în România, Monitorul Oficial al României nr. 615, Partea I, 28 iunie 2004, p. 9.

- the approval of half-yearly activity reports drafted by the agencies for regional development;
- the coordination and support of the development of regional partnerships;
- the approval of contracts, conventions, agreements, and protocols signed by the Agency for Regional Development with third parties and further notification to the National Council for Regional Development (Puşcaş 2004: 151).

Beside each development region, there is an *Agency for Regional Development*. It is a non-governmental and non-profit body of public utility, which has a legal status and acts in the field of regional development; it is subordinated to the Council for Regional Development. The main attributions of the *Agency for Regional Development* are:

- the elaboration of the strategy, the plan and regional development programmes, as well as of the plans for the administration of funds;
- the proposal for the approval of the above-mentioned elements;
- the achievement of regional development programmes and of the plans for the administration of funds, in accordance with the decisions adopted by the Council for Regional Development and according to the regulations in force;
- the financial and technical management of the fund for regional development in order to achieve the goals stipulated by the regional development programmes;
- the responsibility in front of the Council for Regional Development, of the national institutions with which it signs contracts, as well as in front of the legal bodies responsible with the correct fund management;
- the implementation and the control of the execution of the projects financed by the European Union inside the framework of regional development programmes and of the projects contained in the national programmes, which are implemented at regional level by the Agency for Regional Development;
- the organization and development, with the help and coordination of the Council for Regional Development, of regional partnerships and the promotion at regional level of the policies and practices of the European Union, as well as of the principles of the regional development policies;

- the identification and promotion of regional and local interest projects, as well as of intraregional cooperation projects;
- the promotion of the region, with the help of the Council for Regional Development;
- foreign investments;
- collaborations with similar bodies and institutions from the European Union and the participation in the implementation of international projects of local and regional interests;
- coordinates the use of European funds and proposes to the Council for Regional Development plans of economic revival for the towns with economic and social problems;
- twining activities, which allow the granting of European financial subsidies for the collaboration between regions from the European Union and Romania (Puşcaş 2004: 152-153).

*The National Council for Regional Development* ensures the national coordination of these bodies, as it is the supreme authority in the field of regional development. It is made up of 33 members, out of which 16 come from the regions; these members are the president and vice-president of each Council for Regional Development. Another 16 members are appointed by the government, while the President of the National Council for Regional Development is the Prime Minister, as stipulated by law (Nistor 2000: 143).

The Agencies for Regional Development propose the strategies and programmes for regional development and present them to the Councils for Regional Development. Should the latter adopt these documents, they will be further submitted to the final approval of the National Council for Regional Development.

The Romanian development regions are not administrative and territorial units, but they correspond to the model of the European Union and have the competencies necessary for the regional development. Local autonomy has to be respected, as well as the principle of subsidiarity, by developing local autonomy and using financial sources (Puşcaş 2004: 8). The regional policy in Romania is based on the voluntary association of the counties, according to the models promoted by the Council of Europe. Consequently, the Romanian model of regional development is definitely a European one, as it is situated at the crossroads of the models promoted both by the European Union and the Council of Europe.

However, there are not distinct administrative regions in Romania at the level of its historical provinces. As they do not correspond to the idea of territorial, linguistic, and economic unity, it would be very expensive to create them as such. Only in Transylvania are there several local peculiarities due to the Romanian, Hungarian, and German cities existing there.

As Romania joined the European Union on 1 January 2007, it should continue to make progresses in this field, in order to reach a strong and efficient structure of Romania's regional development.

### 3.4. The Status of Friuli-Venezia Giulia – Autonomous Regions in Italy

As in the case of Transylvania, we would like to have a look on the administrative evolution of Friuli-Venezia Giulia in order to focus on the differences between the local tradition and the new foreign elements brought in this province by the Hapsburgs.

An autonomous entity is a sub-national entity that has a certain amount of autonomy. Typically, an autonomous entity contains a national minority which is different from the national majority, or is geographically distinct<sup>179</sup>.

The Regions of Italy were granted a degree of regional autonomy in the 1948 Constitution, which states that the Constitution's role is to recognize, protect and promote local autonomy, to ensure that services at the state level are as decentralised as possible, and to adapt the principles and laws establishing autonomy and decentralisation.

There are 20 regions in Italy. Each region has its own capital. Here follows the list of the Italian regions and their capitals:

1. Abruzzo – L'Aquila
2. Aosta Valley (Valle d'Aosta) - Aosta
3. Apulia (Puglia) – Bari
4. Basilicata - Potenza
5. Calabria – Catanzaro
6. Campania – Naples
7. Emilia-Romagna – Bologna
8. Friuli-Venezia Giulia – Trieste

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<sup>179</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autonomous\\_entity](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autonomous_entity) - accessed 16 August 2006.

9. Latium (Lazio) – Rome
10. Liguria– Genoa
11. Lombardy – Milan
12. Marches (Marche) – Ancona
13. Molise – Campobasso
14. Piedmont (Piemonte) – Turin
15. Sardinia (Sardegna) – Cagliari
16. Sicily (Sicilia) – Palermo
17. Trentino-South Tyrol (Trentino-Alto Adige) – Trent
18. Tuscany (Toscana) – Florence
19. Umbria – Perugia
20. Veneto – Venice

However, five regions (Aosta Valley, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Sardinia, Sicily, and Trentino-South Tyrol) have been granted a special status of autonomy<sup>180</sup> to establish their own regional legislation on some specific local matters, based on cultural grounds, geographical location and on the presence of important ethnic minorities. The other 15 ordinary regions were effectively established only in the early 1970s<sup>181</sup>.

Regions have exclusive legislative powers<sup>182</sup> and powers that compete with the state in the fields recognised by Art. 117 of the Italian Constitution. At the same time they have administrative functions in the fields in which they have legislative competencies, while the state can delegate by law the execution of other administrative functions (Ceuşan 2004: 98).

The legislative power belongs to the state and the regions in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution<sup>183</sup> and within the limits set by the European acquis. The following matters are subject to concurrent legislation of both the state and the regions<sup>184</sup>:

- international and European Union relations of the regions;
- foreign trade;

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<sup>180</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 116, par. 1.

<sup>181</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions\\_of\\_Italy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions_of_Italy) - accessed 16 August 2006.

<sup>182</sup> These competences are recognised only for the regions with special status in the fields mentioned in their own statutes and they refer to any matters not reserved to the state.

<sup>183</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 117, par. 1.

<sup>184</sup> *Ibidem*, Art. 117, par. 3.

- protection and safety of labour;
- education, without infringement of the autonomy of schools and other institutions (except for vocational training);
- professions;
- scientific and technological research and support for innovation in the productive sectors;
- health protection;
- food;
- sports regulations;
- land-use regulation and planning;
- harbours and civil airports;
- major transportation and navigation networks;
- regulation of media and communication;
- production, transportation and national distribution of energy;
- complementary and integrative pensions systems;
- harmonization of budgetary rules of the public sector and coordination of public finance and taxation system;
- promotion of the environmental and cultural heritage, promotion and organization of cultural activities;
- savings banks, rural co-operative banks, regional banks;
- regional institutions for credit to agriculture and land development.

Within its field of competence the region may establish agreements with foreign states and understandings with territorial entities that belong to a foreign state, in the cases and forms provided by state law<sup>185</sup>. Regions may not charge import or export duties, nor duties on transit between regions, nor adopt provisions which may hinder in any way the free movement of persons and goods between regions, nor limit the right to work in any part of the national territory<sup>186</sup>.

By means of a constitutional act and after consulting the regional councils, the existing regions may merge or new regions may be created, provided that the population of any new

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<sup>185</sup> Costituzione italiana di 1948, Art. 117, par. 9.

<sup>186</sup> Idem, Art. 120, par. 1.

region is at least one million; this happens when it is so requested by as many municipal councils as represented by at least one third of the population involved and when the proposal has been approved by the majority of the population involved in a referendum<sup>187</sup>.

There are three types of autonomy related to the region (Martines 2002: 427):

- a) normative autonomy – the power to issue constitutive norms;
- b) organisational autonomy – a certain juridical independence;
- c) political autonomy – the power of certain entities to have a diverse political status than the state.

At the same time, the region is characterised by three constitutive elements (Martines 2002: 429):

- a) the territory – the region is a territorial entity – the centre of reference for the community's interests;
- b) the regional community – the people on the territory of the region is the recipient of both regional and state norms; the region has its own personal services: urban and rural police, fairs and markets, sanitary and medical assistance, arts and crafts;
- c) the authority mechanism – the region is a subject of law (a legal person) – it has its own “government” and organisation.

Regions can enter into contact with the EU institutions in order to participate in the drafting and implementation of regional interest initiatives of the Community, the better use the Community funds for regional matters, regional cooperation and regional programmes (Ceuşan 2004: 98).

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<sup>187</sup> Idem, Art. 132, par. 1.

### 3.5. Regional Cooperation

From the social point of view the topic of regional development is considered relevant as a region exists by partnerships, which has positive social consequences. Partnerships are concluded between counties in order to have development projects outside the administrative limits, with different beneficial effects. Thus, new social links are being created between the representatives of administrations and different regional actors. In this way development interests are defined at the regional level.

Relations between social partners and the advantages of such collaborations are determined by the way in which regions are represented, by the communication on this issue, by the perception of a common identity, and the cohesion of the region's counties (Pascaru 2004: 1). Counties' association in development regions is usually appreciated as positive, as it brings advantages. Of course, first, there are economic advantages from which benefit poorer counties. By the regional policy disparities are reduced in order to achieve a balanced development at the level of the whole region.

Beside economic advantages, there are other advantages related to the use of resources, increased competitiveness, the formation of a common economic space, decentralisation in using funds, and the building of a common infrastructure. However, the most important advantages are the cultural ones.

#### 3.5.1. Transylvania

If we take for example the Centre Region in Romania that includes Transylvanian counties, cultural benefits derive from the heterogeneous ethnic structure. It favours the exchange of expertise between Romania and Hungary with visible effects in the regions with a big number of Hungarians (Pascaru 2001: 3).

The Centre Region is characterised by a great ethnic, linguistic, and religious diversity. As compared to the other regions, it is here that lives the biggest number of persons belonging to ethnic and religious minorities. Romanians coexist with Hungarians, Roma people, and Germans.

Belonging to the same historical region is another advantage. There is also the possibility to create a common tourist market. Counties inside regions have different traditions and territorial characteristics. Diversity in this case is seen as a plus.

Although for the time being we only speak about economically-based associations, there are discussions about administrative regionalisation. It would favour the development of the infrastructure, provide new jobs, start collaboration programmes, access funds, and align to the European model. It entails decentralisation, financial autonomy, and the efficient use of funds.

### **3.5.2. Friuli-Venezia Giulia**

Regions have administrative autonomy and the right to issue normative acts in several fields. The authorities of the regions' public administration have the right to organise public services with regional character, the local police, professional education, medical care, local trade, transport inside the region, public library networks, regional tourism, etc. However, the regulations of the regional administrative authorities must comply with the laws of the Italian state. Every region has its own budget and financial means, collected through regional taxes and fees, as well as from subsidies from the state budget.

Maybe the best example of cooperation between Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia (and not only) at the academic level is the existence of the International University Institute for European Studies (IUIES) Consortium. It was founded in 2000 and is an international university consortium among the universities of Trieste (Italy), Udine (Italy), Klagenfurt (Austria), Eötvös Loránd of Budapest (Hungary), Babes-Bolyai of Cluj-Napoca (Romania), Comenius of Bratislava (Slovakia), Jagiellonian of Kraków (Poland), MGIMO of Moscow (Russia), Nova Gorica University (Slovenia) and the Institute of International Sociology of Gorizia (Italy).

In its mission statement, the Consortium aims to encourage the international academic cooperation and form professionals and scholars in some of the most significant fields of the New Europe. The Consortium organises every academic year three postgraduate programmes: a PhD "Transborder Policies for the Daily Life" (180 credits), an MA "Methods in European Policy Making" (120 credits), and an MA "International Peace Operators" (120 credits) offering a variety of courses led by international Professors, scholars and experts from various European Union DGs and international NGOs<sup>188</sup>.

IUIES objectives:

- to ensure high quality training comparable to the programmes offered by the best training institutions in Europe;

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<sup>188</sup> <http://www.interuniv.isig.it> – accessed 9 March 2007.

- to train participants to be able to manage challenges of regional/cross-border/European integration and international affairs in a period of great changes;
- to join existing networks of expertise by exploiting opportunities of international networking and co-operation;
- to foster intercultural relations and promote inter-regional/international cooperation between universities and scientific research institutions located in Central and East Europe and those in the EU;
- to develop specific measures of good practice on the role of higher education institutions in preparation for democratic citizenship;
- to enhance an area of study and research concerning the EU and border regions;
- to give a broader view on the European processes with a main emphasis on regional problems and cross-border policies linked to the cohesion and integration of border areas including political, economic, social and cultural dimensions;
- to develop selected knowledge and skills and thus train participants to be able to perform research and development work in related fields;
- to enable participants to undertake projects and assignments initiated at their own or upon specific request of local, regional and state authorities;
- to enable participants to analyse the current state of affairs and develop solutions to the problems which are faced under the conditions of institutional adjustment to the EU and regional/cross-border/European integration processes.

A variety of EU, Central-Eastern European, Asian, African and North American countries are represented in the student body which contributes to the IUIES international scope. As its motto says, IUIES is a “Centre of academic excellence in the heart of Europe, a bridge between people and cultures, a think-tank for the European vision”<sup>189</sup>.

### **3.5.3. The New Regionalism**

The renewed interest in regionalism is emerging from several sources. First, globalisation of the economy. The end of the Cold War accelerated the globalisation of a post-industrial economy. International trade agreements like NAFTA, and the development of the European Community

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<sup>189</sup> *Ibidem.*

demonstrate reduced economic competitiveness on a country-by-country basis, and increased competitiveness on a region-by-region basis<sup>190</sup>. Second, the aim of sustainable development. Part of the solution requires acting regionally.

We will present the features of the new regionalism in comparison with old regionalism. First of all, the old regionalism basically referred to government and about how to insert a new level in the hierarchy of state-local relations. By contrast, the new regionalism is about governance. This means establishing vision and goals and setting policy to achieve them. The work of governance involves private, nonprofit and public interests. Ensuring the future quality of life and competitiveness of a region is a shared responsibility of all sectors. Moreover, it requires the shared powers and talents of these sectors.

The old regionalism was concerned with defining boundaries and jurisdictions. It wanted to clearly demarcate the region in terms of boundaries. The region was practically closed<sup>191</sup>. The new regionalism accepts that boundaries are open and elastic. This helps putting together the type of cross-sectoral governing policies.

### 3.6. Conclusions

All over the world regions have evolved in different ways and at different speeds. Europe became aware of this process since the beginning of the European construction. The causes of these disparities are different levels of economic growth, demographic unbalance, different natural factors and economic resources, the unemployment rate, production, income per capita, professional training, the lack of infrastructure, etc. (Dolghi 2004: 76).

Nevertheless, regions and regionalisation are the common values of the united Europe. Regional balance and cohesion are among the basic principles of the European Union. The victory of regionalisation also meant the accomplishment of democracy in the developed European countries and an increased number of chances in the peripheral areas (Süli-Zakar 2006: 30). Consequently, these important European values must be exploited for the sake of the United States of Europe for the benefit of its citizens.

Regions of Europe have the possibility to cooperate in order to obtain mutual advantages at the national, transnational, and international levels. The European Union recognizes regions

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<sup>190</sup> [http://www.munimall.net/eos/2002/wallis\\_regionalism.ncll](http://www.munimall.net/eos/2002/wallis_regionalism.ncll) - accessed 10 March 2007.

<sup>191</sup> *Ibidem* - accessed 10 March 2007.

from the Member States as active participants in its policies. That is why regions have representatives in the EU's institutions. Regions have to apply the community acquis, while decisions taken by regions must comply with it.

Coming back to the object of our research on Romania and Italy, we draw some very clear conclusions as far as the European issue is concerned. Italy, by being a founding member of the European Union and a rich country at the same time, could tackle with the idea of regionalisation without any problems. On the contrary, Romania, which joined the European Union on 1 January 2007, is still finding ways to implement this process.

That is why Romania strongly believes that cross-border cooperation through Euroregions is a very important instrument that will lead to the existence of an area characterised by stability, security and prosperity in the near future (Puşcaş 2006: 100). Enhanced regional cooperation will contribute to the economic, social, and cultural development of both EU Member States and candidate countries.

# CHAPTER 4 - THE ECONOMIC AND BEYOND. REASONS FOR DELOCALIZATION

## 4.1. The Process of Delocalization

We would like to start this chapter by mentioning the fact that what we are really interested in is the cultural phenomena and the communicational processes that take place between Romanians and Italians as representatives of two peoples with Latin roots and Romance languages.

Although delocalization is mainly due to economic reasons, our intention is to reveal the other aspects of the Italian presence in Romania, such as the similar mentalities of the two peoples, their languages belonging to the same family, as well as their customs and traditions.

### 4.1.1. Defining Delocalization

During the latest years, the general evolution of the world's economy has been characterised by the tendency of economic actors to overpass the national dimension and extend progressively at the international level.

This led to an enhanced competition among regions or territorial systems, changing in a certain way the approach: from the issue of choosing the best location for a new investment to the one of finding the most suitable initiative for developing a certain area. The latter is made possible even by the creation of institutions or agents dealing with attracting foreign direct investments or the internationalisation of national firms (Gasparini 2005: 9).

Alfred Weber estimated that transportation costs are a fundamental factor in choosing a place for a business (Gasparini 2005: 13). However, he emphasized the necessity of minimising all costs whatsoever. Thus, Weber studied the optimum localization of industrial capacities by the minimisation of production costs all throughout the process, from products supply to product distribution. In this way he distinguishes between the different types of costs of a company (Gasparini 2005: 18):

- *fix costs* – do not depend on distance but on loading, unloading, and acquisition of transportation means;
- *variable costs* – depend on distance, tariffs, and fuel costs.

The relation between the two types of costs changes considerably according to distance. Longer the distance, lower the fix costs. Moreover, he defines three types of places: 'places with raw materials', 'places with energy', and 'places of consumption' (Gasparini 2005: 14). All this in order to explain localization in general terms.

For some years, the term "delocalization" has been used by the public opinion especially when making reference to the companies from north-eastern Italy. However, its definitions and appreciations are often contradictory.

On the one hand, some people see delocalization as a menace for the national economy through which that particular country is impoverished. Others define it as a development instrument by the internationalisation of the Italian companies (Gasparini 2005: 35). On the other hand, the term "delocalization" is used to identify any type of internationalisation due to companies, with special focus on production, organisation and the division of the labour force.

In fact, delocalization implies the following processes (Gasparini 2005: 35):

- Demounting the internal installations and relocating them in third countries;
- Building or using a foreign installation to extend production;
- Entrusting parts of the production process to the foreign companies;
- Substituting local distributors with external distributors.

Thus, it becomes obvious that it is very difficult to elaborate a definition that can assume and explain the delocalization phenomenon.

Usually, in order to measure the international openness of national companies, we traditionally use data provided by the analysis of foreign direct investments (FDI) and the passive perfecting traffic (PPT). However, if we take into account the explosive dynamics of the Italian exports and imports in the '90s, and especially in the north-eastern part of it, we can see that the phenomenon of delocalization takes places in parallel with the one of exports (Gasparini 2005: 36). Thus, between 1990 and 1996 Italian exports in the fields of textiles, ready-made clothes, and shoes increased by 50%, while delocalization movements by 80-90%.

Coming back to the Italian case, there are three regions in the north of the country where the process of delocalization is very much present. Thus, in the '90s, the Veneto region registered the biggest number of productive delocalization processes. It was followed by Friuli-Venezia

Giulia and Trentino-South Tyrol. In all three cases, the natural geographical predisposition influenced their relations with the exterior (Gasparini 2005: 41).

In 2002, the Institute for Foreign Trade in Bucharest published the situation of the Italian foreign direct investments in Romania. According to these data, 43% of the Italian investments in Romania come from the north-eastern part of the country, 36% from the north-west, 15% from the centre and 6% from the south and the islands.

During the last decade, the most important international development of the Italian companies was registered for the SMEs. We speak about traditional sectors, such as textile, ready-made clothes, leather and wood. If in 1993, 53% of the exports from the north-eastern part of Italy were oriented towards the EU, in 2001 this value decreased as a consequence of a higher number of exchanges with countries from Eastern Europe, the USA and Canada (Gasparini 2005: 43).

#### **4.1.2. Reasons for Delocalizing**

There are no major differences between big companies and SMEs when it comes to investing abroad. Gasparini (2005: 53) quotes Dunning for defining four types of strategies:

- Market seeking – it aims at investing in a country in order to benefit from the force of its internal market and/or to use that country as a platform to attack the markets of its neighbours, especially if they are associated through a contract for the free movement of goods, such as the EU, NAFTA or CEFTA;
- Resource seeking – it refers to investments in the countries with available natural resources as far as price and/or quality is concerned;
- Efficiency (low cost) seeking – it aims at reducing costs by investing in countries where the labour force, the raw materials or the equipment are cheaper or where there are related firms, specialised in a productive input with which collaboration is possible;
- Strategic asset seeking – it refers to investments in regions with available intellectual resources necessary to develop and protect the investor's specific advantages.

In 1990 Romania started a gradual process of economic opening and diminishing of the state's participation. There are several factors that make Romania attractive for the foreign investors, such as<sup>192</sup>:

- the existence of raw materials and the soil richness;
- the low labour costs;
- the access to the Black Sea and the Danube;
- the advanced privatisation programme;
- the necessity to invest in the infrastructure;
- the solid industrial basis and the available workers and technical staff;
- the equal treatment given to Romanian and foreign investors;
- the existence of roads, railways, ports and airports;
- the huge internal market and the geo-strategic position;
- the presence on the Romanian territory of the branches of the main international banks.

There are also reasons related to the Italian economy that push the investors delocalizing in Romania (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 96):

- difficulties in finding labour force, especially in the north-east of Italy;
- the big competition based on prices, especially for the products with a low added value;
- the necessity of a bigger flexibility of the labour market;
- high level of taxes.

The Romanian economic situation favours foreign investments. The Romanian government tries to relaunch the economy through a policy of strong tax incentives for the foreign investments on its national territory. The Romanian laws make investments in Romania profitable. They try to simplify both the foundation of foreign companies and the partnerships with national companies.

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<sup>192</sup> [http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10\\_Nota\\_Italia-Romania.pdf](http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10_Nota_Italia-Romania.pdf) - accessed 11 August 2006.

In the case of Italy we have as final destination transition or developing countries. In the countries of Eastern Europe, the attraction point was the low cost of the labour force. Moreover, delocalization was due to the companies' necessity to extend and enter new markets. Sometimes it is also due to the fact that it is recommended to keep a direct contact with the markets providing raw materials (Gasparini 2005: 56).

Countries such as Romania, that are chosen for the delocalization of the Italian companies, benefit from this phenomenon by the network of close relations they establish with the investors and by the birth of the spirit of initiative. However, Andrea Pittini, the President of the Federation of the Industrial People in Friuli-Venezia Giulia, states that Romania needs to create its own infrastructure of roads, harbours and railways in order to facilitate the access of foreign investors to this region.

From the very beginning, it is obvious that the investors' tendency is to take profit out of cultural and geographic similarities. This is explained by the fact that most of the investors are represented by SMEs that want to delocalize in countries which are historically close to theirs. Moreover, investors prefer to come to countries where language and cultural barriers are easily surpassed. Thus, the costs needed to enter the foreign market are reduced to the minimum (Gasparini 2005: 65).

The Italian investor can benefit from a series of international agreements signed between Italy and Romania that encourage the economic exchanges between the two countries and avoid double taxation.

The major opportunities for the Italian companies arise in the following fields<sup>193</sup>:

- textile, clothes, shoes – Romania has competitive labour force in these fields; they represent traditional sectors of the Romanian-Italian collaboration that can develop on a short and medium term;
- tourism – Romania has a spectacular landscape potential (monuments, museums, the seaside, the mountains, the delta, monasteries, spas, hunting, fishing areas, etc);
- IT – Romania has developed extremely quickly in this field after the 1989 Revolution; it is well known for its professional experts in this sector;

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<sup>193</sup> *Ibidem* - accessed 11 August 2006.

- constructions – this field has remarkably evolved especially in the urban areas with the government’s support and the loans given by banks;
- infrastructure and transport – this field could develop on a medium and long term by the modernisation of the railways and national roads, as well as by the construction of highways;
- agricultural industry – it is a sector that has undergone a period of crisis lately; it could bring money given the soil richness, but it needs investments, new techniques and new equipment;
- environment – it is a sector in which Romania is closely monitored by the European Union; it will need foreign investments on a long term;
- defence industry – as a member of NATO, Romania needs to adapt its military structures to the international demands; military forces should be modernised and equipment should be improved to have an important local military capacity that could be also used abroad.

As far as the Italian investments in Romania are concerned, they tend to settle in the western part of the country. This area is accessible either for transportation costs or for duration. From this point of view, investing in countries from Central and Eastern Europe does not make a significant difference. However, the difference lies in the efficient exploitation of Central European infrastructures (Gasparini 2005: 114). Thus, investing in Transylvania is profitable for any type of high intensity production either in the case of SMEs or of big enterprises.

#### 4.2. Economic and Commercial Links between Romania and Italy

Romania and Italy are two European countries, both members of the European Union. We will further briefly present some information on the economic and commercial exchanges between the two countries. Moreover, we will shortly present the issue of the Romanian presence in Italy. However, we will only underline the general aspects, as our intention is to analyse the situation of the Italian companies delocalizing in Romania at present.

In Romania there is a high concentration of Italian companies. According to the Romanian data provided by the Institute for Foreign Trade, between 1990 and 2004 more than 17,100 Italian companies were registered in the Romanian Trade Register, most of which SMEs.

Italy is one of the main investors in Romania. As far as the process of hiring Romanian labour force is concerned, Italy can be considered the first investor in this country<sup>194</sup> with a total number of more than 500,000 jobs created directly by Italian companies.

Initially, the Italian investments in Romania were done in the '*lohn*' system. It involves production by using local unqualified or little qualified labour force, which is considered cheap at the international level. Raw or semi-finite materials are imported from Italy, used in Romania and then reexported. Such an economic activity does not create a sustainable advantage for the local economy, as it is not accompanied by technological transfer or decision making. On the contrary, jobs created through the '*lohn*' system are insecure, as they can be quickly transferred in another country at any time<sup>195</sup>.

Recently, we have assisted to an evolution of the Italian presence in Romania, with the setting up of *joint ventures* or the signing of contracts with local producers for supplying or assembling machine parts or equipment. On 31 December 2004, 15,302 mixed Italian-Romanian companies were registered, with an invested capital of 519 million euros<sup>196</sup>. This number shows a particular interest of the Italian investors for Romania, with an average of about 1,000 new companies coming on this market every year.

The Italian presence is generally spread over the whole Romanian territory, but there is a tendency to concentrate more in certain geographical areas, such as north-western regions like Timișoara, where a genuine Italian industrial district was created (around 1,600 registered Italian and mixed companies). This is mainly due to the geographical proximity of the Timiș county to the north-eastern regions of Italy, where most of the investors come from<sup>197</sup>. Another reason is the existence of adequate transport infrastructure and local skilled labour force.

At the end of 2004, Italy occupied the first place in the total volume of Romania's commercial exchanges with 19.03%, that is 7,808 million euros<sup>198</sup>.

Lately, Italian banks have become interested in the Romanian market. This interest is also to support the actions of the Italian companies that delocalized here. Some Italian credit institutions bought local banks or opened their own branches. It is the case of the Banca Italo-Romena, belonging to the Gruppo Veneto Banca, the Banca di Roma, Unicredit Romania,

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<sup>194</sup> [http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10\\_Nota\\_Italia-Romania.pdf](http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10_Nota_Italia-Romania.pdf) - accessed 11 August 2006.

<sup>195</sup> [http://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regim\\_de\\_lohn](http://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regim_de_lohn) - accessed 5 January 2007.

<sup>196</sup> Data provided by the Institute for Foreign Trade in Bucharest.

<sup>197</sup> [http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10\\_Nota\\_Italia-Romania.pdf](http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10_Nota_Italia-Romania.pdf) - accessed 11 August 2006.

<sup>198</sup> *Ibidem*.

S.PAOLO/IMI Romania, or Daewoo Bank. Other Italian banks participate with shares in Romanian banks, such as Monte dei Paschi di Siena and Banca Popolare di Vicenza<sup>199</sup>.

The Italian exports to Romania are mainly concentrated on the hand-made sector. It includes textiles (38.7%), leather and leather products, as well as shoes (5.7%). According to the data provided in 2002 by the Institute for Foreign trade in Bucharest, the main Italian regions exporting to Romania are Veneto, Lombardy, Tuscany, Marches, Emilia-Romagna, Piedmont, Latium, and Abruzzo.

The same sector prevails in the case of the Italian imports from Romania: clothes (33.8%), shoes (24.9%). The Italian regions importing from Romania are as follows: Veneto, Lombardy, Tuscany, Marches, Emilia-Romagna, Piedmont, Latium, and Umbria.

Since 1997, Italy has been Romania's the first commercial partner. Romania directs around 73% of its exports towards the European Union and imports 60% from it. The main market both for imports and exports is Italy, followed by Germany, France, and the United Kingdom (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 88).

By analysing the economic aspect of the Romanian-Italian relationship, we find out that not only are these two countries linked by economic ties, but also by strong cultural and linguistic similarities.

### 4.3. Italian Companies in Transylvania

Generally speaking, the Italian companies demonstrated a reduced capacity of foreign investments, which is explained by the structure of the Italian industry, mostly made up of SMEs. These companies have a structural difficulty of investing abroad, caused by several factors: the social capital, difficulties in accessing international financing, little knowledge about the international operations and procedures, the spirit of the family (Gasparini 2005: 81), etc.

According to the data provided by the Institute of Foreign Trade of the Italian government, in 2004 Italy continued to be the first as far as the total volume of Romanian commercial exchanges is concerned. On 31 May 2004, 15.302 mixed Romanian-Italian companies were registered in Romania with an invested capital of 671.1 million dollars<sup>200</sup>. This

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<sup>199</sup> Data provided by the Institute for Foreign Trade in Bucharest.

<sup>200</sup> [http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10\\_Nota\\_Italia-Romania.pdf](http://www.ice.gov.it/editoria/APPROFONDIMENTI%20PER%20PAESE-AREA/2003-10_Nota_Italia-Romania.pdf) - accessed 11 August 2006.

proves a particular interest of the Italian investors for Romania. Every year, around 1,000 new companies set their activity on this market.

#### **4.3.1. History of the Italian-Romanian Relations**

The Italian-Romanian relations started a long time ago. During the Middle Ages the Romanian princes used to invite to their court Italian secretaries, doctors, military experts or musicians in order to educate their children. At that time, the Italians came in the harbours of Galați and Constanța bringing cereals, silk and other products.

However, the most important moment of the Italian emigration to Romania was the 18<sup>th</sup> century when Italian constructors, decorators, artists, and sculptors arrived in Romania for the reconstruction of the country (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 106). Practically speaking, all big Romanian cities have city halls, hospitals, private houses, railway stations, aqueducts, and railways that were built by the Italian artists of that time. Most of these Italians returned to Italy, but some of them remained on the Romanian territory, as they found here a country and a people very similar to theirs.

At present, the Italian community of Romania, that had been founded in 1990, aims at reconstituting the ancient communities that existed on the Romanian territory (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 106). The cultural initiatives, the monthly publications and the books on the history of the Italians contribute to the preservation of the national identity. Moreover, there are Italian Cultural Centres all over Romania, in all big cities.

In conclusion, Italy and Romania have a long-lasting relationship based on economic reasons, but also a common history, cultural and linguistic similarities, and Latin mentalities.

#### **4.3.2. The Situation of the 1990s**

During the 1990s the number of the Italian SMEs that chose to delocalize increased significantly. Thus, Romania is for sure the most suitable example of this new internationalizing trend. There are some numbers that illustrate this tendency: 11,614 joint ventures with Italian capital were constituted in Romania during this period, while they had commercial exchanges of 5,937 million USD in 2001 and 4,170 million USD in the first 7 months of the year 2002<sup>201</sup>.

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<sup>201</sup> Data provided by the External Relations Department of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Romania and Bucharest in December 2002.

The number of commercial exchanges between Italy and Romania increased in a spectacular way: on 31 July 2002, Italy occupied the first place as to the total volume of commercial exchanges with Romania with 24.11%, the first place as to the exports with 26.76%, and the first place as to the imports with 22.05%<sup>202</sup>.

The main products exported from Italy to Romania were textiles, shoes, agricultural and industrial equipment and spare parts, chemical products, electronic devices, and metals. The main goods exported from Romania to Italy were ready-made clothes, knit-wear, leather and shoes, ferrous and nonferrous minerals, chemical products, wood, wooden furniture, and plastic materials (Gasparini 2005: 82).

#### **4.3.3. Strong and Weak Points of the Italian Companies in Romania**

There are some strong points that need to be mentioned when speaking about the Italian companies delocalizing in Romania.

The cultural similarities between Romania and Italy and the capacity of communication and interaction of the two peoples certainly constitute an advantage for the Italian companies that delocalize in Romania as compared with their foreign competitors on this market.

The elasticity of the Italian SMEs model is a fundamental characteristic that makes the Italian investors adapt easily to daily Romanian realities. They try to overcome the difficulties inherited from an industrial system based on big productions (Gasparini 2005: 87).

However, there are also some disadvantages of the SMEs. They cannot assume the great risks of the productive investments as compared to their foreign competitors who are represented by big companies with a high financial capacity. Usually, foreign companies make important investments for training the local personnel, thus defending more easily themselves (Gasparini 2005: 87). This is a very important element in the commercial strategy.

We must say that the main cause of the failure of the foreign companies that came to Romania was the partial evaluation of the investment projects. These investors over-evaluated the advantages resulting from the low costs of the labour force, while underestimating financial, environmental and legislative risks (Gasparini 2005: 87).

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<sup>202</sup> *Ibidem*, 31 July 2002.

#### 4.3.4. Romanian Regions Favourable to Foreign Investments

When deciding to make foreign investments, it is very important to take into account the geographical position of a country. Thus, in the case of Romania, the western and north-western regions are favoured, as they are closer to Western Europe. Moreover, these regions have a better infrastructure<sup>203</sup>.

At present, Romania has a quite efficient network of national roads, but, unfortunately, there are no highways for the time being in Transylvania. There are only two small parts of highway that link the capital to the city of Pitești and to the seaside. However, they started to build one that links the centre of the country with Hungary, so it will cover most of Transylvania.

If we were to classify the Romanian counties according to the advantages of investments, the situation will be the following (Gasparini 2005: 89):

- the first area is represented by the capital Bucharest, the counties of Timiș, Cluj, Constanța and Arad;
- the second area is represented by the counties of Alba, Suceava, Iași, Bistrița, and Bihor.

It is important to mention the cultural differences existing among the different regions in Romania. Transylvania and the Banat constitute the most active and developed areas of the country from the economic point of view. For a long time they were dominated by the Hapsburgs, who imposed their own order and rules. Property is well defined here. On the contrary, Walachia was under Turkish influence for many years and this caused many differences in the land division system. Thus, huge differences might occur from one region to the other in this respect.

We will further see through questionnaires where and why the Italian companies delocalize to Romania and what are their links with their mother country, Italy, but also with their welcoming country, Romania.

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<sup>203</sup> Angelo Antognetti, General Manager of Pro.Svi.Rom Consulting and official representative of UNIEXPORT PADOVA in Romania.

#### 4.4. Romanians in Italy

According to the Caritas Association, in Italy there were more than 75,000 Romanians detaining the permit to stay<sup>204</sup>. Half of them are concentrated in Central Italy (42.2%). They are followed by those in the north-west (29.2%) and north-east (22.6%). In the south and on the islands their presence is reduced: 4.4% and 1.7%<sup>205</sup>.

The same survey shows that most of the Romanians emigrated in order to find a job (64.9%), 28% for family reasons, 4.6% for individual activities, and 1% to study. Most of the men come for finding a job (85.1%), while women come to Italy for family reasons (46.1%) and then for working (45.2%).

Most of the Romanians in Italy are between 19 and 40 years old (76.7%), 29% have been living in Italy for at least five years, while 53.4% are married and their number is increasing permanently<sup>206</sup>. As shown by the above-mentioned study of 2003, Romania ranks first in the top of Italian citizenship acquiring. Thus, in 1998, more than 1,000 Romanian citizens got Italian citizenship, of which 90% women due to their marriage to an Italian man.

Mass emigration is quite a new phenomenon in Romania. It started in the '90s under the form of small trade in countries such as Poland, Hungary and Turkey. It continued with work emigration and emigration for study. Economic reasons were fundamental for the beginning of this process. The first destination countries for the Romanians that looked for a job were Germany, France and Israel (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 100).

However, in the following years, the emigration flow towards these countries decreased for several reasons, such as stronger controls, family links, restrictions imposed by the governments, etc. (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 101). Thus, Italy and Spain became the main new destinations for the Romanian people who wanted to work abroad.

With the occasion of the last regularization done in 2002, there were 141,673 demands of the Romanian citizens out of a total of 188,498 demands of the citizens from Central Europe (75.17% of the total number) (da Forno, Emiliani, Guardigli 2005: 104).

Most of the Romanians immigrating to Italy are young people between 18 and 40 years old. This phenomenon might be also a consequence of the Italian delocalization in Romania. It is a circle that involves the two countries and links them more strongly.

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<sup>204</sup> (It.) Permesso di soggiorno.

<sup>205</sup> <http://www.alef-fvg.it/articoli/2003/20sett2003-rumeni.htm> - accessed 11 August 2006.

<sup>206</sup> *Ibidem*.

## 4.5. Conclusions

In this chapter we have seen the situation of the Italian companies that delocalize in Romania and, very briefly, some aspects related to the Romanian migration to Italy. The biggest number of Italian companies is to be found in the western and central parts of Romania, mostly in Transylvania. Counties such as Timiș, Arad, Cluj, or Bihor are known for an impressive number of Italian companies mostly in traditional fields, such as textiles, clothes, shoes, and fine mechanics.

Italian companies are attracted by low costs and infrastructure, but also by good quality resources. The woods sector has long traditions in the western and northern parts of Romania. Thus, many Italian companies activate in this field. In this case the strategy of cost minimising by the proximity of resources is clear. Transylvania also benefits from these investments as it has the possibility to exploit different traditional industrial sectors.

Foreign investments could be an advantage for the territorial balance of development. The enlargement of the European Union with new members with inferior salary levels as compared to the other Member States could modify the geography of the economic activities inside Europe.

## **CHAPTER 5 - QUESTIONNAIRES FOR THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE ITALIAN COMPANIES IN TRANSYLVANIA**

According to specialists, the Italian investments in Transylvania are based on several fundamental reasons<sup>207</sup>, such as low labour costs and low costs of natural resources, the strategic position as compared to other countries from Central and Eastern Europe, and the number of inhabitants<sup>208</sup>.

However, there are some more reasons for the delocalization of the Italian companies in Transylvania. They will be further discovered by analysing the set of questionnaires we applied to the representatives of these firms.

### **5.1. The Sociological Inquiry and the Survey**

Given the fact that our training is not based on sociology and, consequently, we are not a specialist in the field, we will not insist on the theoretical aspects of the sociological inquiry and the survey. We will just explain briefly some terms with the aim of interpreting more easily the results of our questionnaire.

According to Rotariu and Iluț (2001: 44), the inquiry and, implicitly, the survey, as a form of it, is only one of the several sociological methods. That is why they do not have universal applicability. They are used only in some research situations, as they have certain limits. However, these limits can be surpassed by using other methods at the same time.

There are several differences between the sociological inquiry and the survey, as Rotariu and Iluț (2001: 53) illustrate them:

- surveys (or opinion polls) focus on the subjective aspect of the social reality; they try to find what people think, feel, appreciate, or intend to do;
- while the social inquiry is rather explicative, the survey has a clear descriptive character, without details and peculiarities;
- surveys are inquiries made in a very short period of time, with simple and clearly structured questionnaires, on representative samples;

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<sup>207</sup> Paolo Lemma, Vice-president of the Institute for Foreign Trade in Bucharest.

<sup>208</sup> Romania comes second in this part of Europe, with about 22 million people, after Poland.

- as opposed to the inquiry, the results of surveys are presented to the beneficiary or the public in a simple form, without using sophisticated means of analysis and interpretation;
- the survey is a popular form of inquiry, based on a topic of general interest;
- sometimes the results expressed in percentages are represented by graphs.

If we were to speak about inquiry techniques, there are two ways of transmitting the information from the inquired persons to the researcher: the *oral (direct) inquiry*<sup>209</sup> and the *written (indirect) inquiry*<sup>210</sup> (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 54). In the first case, subjects are read the questions and they give oral answers to them, which are recorded by the inquiry operators. In the second case, communication is indirect, as the subject reads the questions himself and gives answers, without having a direct link with the inquiry operator.

### 5.1.1. The Oral (Direct) Inquiry

The oral inquiry is the most used technique. Its results are presented and commented by the media. This type of inquiry has a series of advantages and two forms: the *face-to-face inquiry*<sup>211</sup> and the *inquiry by phone* (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 54).

It was proved that the face-to-face inquiry, and especially the inquiry made at home, has better results when it comes to a longer questionnaire. People feel more comfortable at home, as it is their own territory. The quality of the results is the best in this case (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 55). At the same time, the specialised literature shows that direct inquiry is less affected by the ‘don’t know/don’t answer’ phenomenon. According to the same authors (2001: 56), the success of this type of inquiry is due to three main factors:

1. politeness – it is difficult to refuse someone that speaks with you politely and asks you to help him or her with his or her work;
2. the need to influence – the more we convince the subject of his or her role in changing a situation, the more he will be willing to answer our questions;

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<sup>209</sup> The message is transmitted directly to the recipient.

<sup>210</sup> The message is transmitted to the recipient by filling in questionnaires.

<sup>211</sup> Done at home, at the working place, on the street or after collective manifestations, such as shows, concerts, football matches, etc.

3. the need to talk – the need to communicate, to be understood is one of the man's basic needs.

The inquiry by phone was very much used in America in the '30s and '40s. It is still used in the western countries. However, its results might not be real, as not everybody has a phone at home (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 57). Thus, researchers need to choose their samples attentively. Fortunately, the IT field has developed in an extraordinary way lately, which makes their task easier.

The inquiry by phone still preserves a series of advantages, such as (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 58):

- velocity;
- cost;
- accuracy;
- real conditions;
- constant control of the area.

### **5.1.2. The Written (Indirect) Inquiry**

The written inquiry has several forms (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 59). The first one is very similar to the direct inquiry made at home. The subject can fill in the questionnaire on the spot or the operator can come back in one or two days to receive the questionnaire. The second form involves the simultaneous application of questionnaires to a big number of people gathered in one room<sup>212</sup>. The third variant is the inquiry by postal mail. In this case the researcher and the subject do not come into contact at all. The fourth form is the inquiry made through a questionnaire published in newspapers or magazines. This last technique has a reduced applicability in the case of scientific research (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 59).

As compared to the oral inquiry, the written inquiry has several advantages:

- reduced costs;
- the disappearance of the operator's disturbing influence;

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<sup>212</sup> People working in the same place, pupils, students, etc.

- the elimination of the mistakes done by the operator while recording and interpreting the answers;
- the possibility to think more before giving the answer.

However, it also has a series of disadvantages that have to be taken into account:

- the operators cannot be sure that the questionnaire is filled in by the right person<sup>213</sup>;
- answers are not spontaneous anymore, they might be contaminated;
- a bigger possibility to get 'don't know/don't answer' answers;
- a bigger quantity of lost information;
- the fear of written answers;
- the operator has no chance to eliminate imprecision, ambiguity, or inconsistency (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 61).

## 5.2. Questionnaires – General Aspects

One of the most important characteristics of the empirical research in the social and humanities field is that, practically speaking, for every new investigation the researcher is obliged to build his or her research instruments, the use of which is limited to the object of that particular study at that particular moment (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 70).

The creation of any questionnaire must start by the clear and detailed presentation of the researched topic. That topic is divided into several dimensions (indicators), each dimension being a question.

Making a questionnaire means first of all to know the topic that one wants to investigate. The more solid the knowledge, the more efficient the questionnaire. However, this does not necessarily mean that only specialists can make questionnaires. Anybody who is interested in making an inquiry can do that, as any individual develops his or her sociology at the level of the common sense (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 73).

It is also our case. Of course, we do not want to pretend that our work is exhaustive, but we consider that the idea of a questionnaire for this type of research is very useful. We tried to

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<sup>213</sup> Especially in the case when the operators come to collect the questionnaires after a period of time.

establish our own indicators and interpret the results according to our own common sense and perception of the topic.

### 5.2.1. Types of Questions

We have to take into account the fact that, when drafting a questionnaire, we have to use a language that is understood by everybody in the same way. This demand comes from the need to communicate in the same manner with all the subjects (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 73). All specialised books insist on the use of simple words and phrases and short sentences, so that they should be understood in the same way by all the interview persons, irrespective of their sex, age, cultural background, or geographical area.

According to the *content of the information*, there are three big categories of questions:

1. facts questions – the information refers to the interviewed persons' behaviour; the answer to these questions can be judged in terms of 'true' or 'false', as they refer to an objective situation that can also be checked by other means;
2. opinion questions – they refer to aspects of the individual's inner universe, such as opinions, attitudes, beliefs, expectations, evaluations, justifications, etc.; in this case the information can be obtained only directly by the verbal communication with the subjects; it is quite difficult to check their statements;
3. knowledge questions – these questions aim at helping the researcher characterise the interviewed person; their role is to measure the level of people's knowledge in a certain field; they show people's intellectual interests in certain situations.

(Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 74)

According to *the way answers are registered*, there is a distinction between closed and open questions (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 78):

1. *closed questions* offers possible answers to the subject; the latter only has to choose the one that corresponds to his or her situation or opinion;
2. *open questions* need a free answer that must be registered in the most complete way by the researcher;
3. *mixed questions* (semi-closed or semi-open) refer to the cases in which the list of answers is not complete, as there are very many possible answers; thus, the answer

is of the following types: 'other case', 'other', 'other situation'; in this case the interviewed person must fill in the gaps, while the researcher registers the answer.

Of course, there are questions that need a 'Yes/No' answer. In other cases, the researcher may introduce the 'Don't know/Don't answer' variant, which we also tried to do in our questionnaire.

Practice has shown that closed questions are used more often in almost all types of inquiry given the fact that answers need to be made public quickly. Open questions are used in explorative research when there is the necessity to complete, present into details or clarify the content of the answers given to special closed questions or the will to get details on the subjects' motivations (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 87).

Moreover, there are several advantages of closed questions as compared to the open questions:

- results can be quickly and easily interpreted;
- questionnaires can be quickly and easily filled in;
- the content of the questions is clarified by the possible answers;
- closed questions facilitate the finding of an adequate answer.

The supporters of open questions argue (Foddy 1993: 127) that they allow the subjects to say what they really have in mind without being influenced by the researcher's suggestions, while closed questions offer the subjects only limited answering possibilities.

### **5.2.2. Samples**

One of the most important issues that need to be solved in the case of a questionnaire is that of samples. This means that from the total population chosen as a target for our research, we choose only a part, called sample. The choice has to be made carefully in order to reach generally valid conclusions, appropriate for the whole number of individuals in that particular category of research.

The sample must be representative and reproduce as faithfully as possible the structures and characteristics of the population it represents (Rotariu, Iluț 2001: 125). The choice of the

representative sample depends on the topic researched. Geographically speaking, it might be taken at the national, regional, or local levels. Furthermore, the sample can be chosen according to age, gender, cultural background, religion, social category, etc.

There are several ways of defining a sample, but we would not insist on these aspects, as they are not the object of our research. We do not want to enter into such details that belong to specialists in the field of sociology.

### 5.3. Case Study: Italian Companies in Transylvania

As we have already mentioned, for the purpose of our research, we decided to make a questionnaire for the representatives of the Italian companies that are delocalizing in Romania. Given the fact that our study is a comparison between two regions – Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia - , we found it useful to research only on the situation of the Italian companies in Transylvania and not on the whole Romanian territory.

As in the case of any empirical research, we followed all of its three big steps: preparation, collection of data, and interpretation of results. We will further describe each step we took with our questionnaire.

#### 5.3.1. Preparation

The preparation for our research consisted in dealing with theoretical aspects, methodological aspects, and research organisation.

*Theoretical aspects* refer to the object of our research and our hypotheses. The *object* of our research is to prove the cultural similarities (traditions, habits, language, ethnic minorities, traces left by the Hapsburgs, etc.) of the populations living in the two abovementioned regions. We proposed to research on the possible non-economic reasons that make the Italian investors delocalize in Transylvania. We drafted the questionnaire as we sustain the following *hypothesis*: although the economic situation of the two regions is different, it seems that there are some common elements related to the Latin roots of the two peoples. Italian investors delocalize in Transylvania for economic reasons, but also because they feel good here and like the Romanian food, language, mentalities, and culture. The same goes for the Romanians that leave their country in order to go to work in Italy.

*Methodological aspects* are related to the research techniques, the drafting of the questionnaire, and the sample. The *research technique* we chose was the written inquiry. We went on the field and gave the questionnaires to the representatives of the Italian companies in Transylvania. They filled them in after having understood the explanations I provided. When *drafting the questionnaire*, we took into account both form and content aspects. The first category refers to the number of questions, their order and page setup, the way of registering the answers, and illustrating possible answers. Thus, our questionnaire is made up of 59 questions, divided into 8 subcategories: 1. Socio-demographic Variables, 2. Social Identity, 3. Social Capital, 4. Business in Italy, 5. Business in Romania, 6. Reasons for Coming in Romania to Do Business, 7. Supporting Bodies, 8. Social Relations in Romania. The second category refers to the choice of words, the types of questions (closed or open), and the possible answers. We tried to use a language accessible to every person in the category we chose, with clear questions and answers. Furthermore, we used both closed (46) and open (13) questions. From the total of 46 closed questions, 12 are 'yes/No' questions. Moreover, we provided answers for 46 questions, while 13 questions required an elaborate answer from the subject. Our *sample* was made up of 40 persons, either managers or administrators of Italian companies in Transylvania. Geographically speaking, our sample covers 9 Transylvanian counties: Alba, Arad, Bihor, Cluj, Hunedoara, Maramureş, Sălaj, Sibiu, and Timiş.

*The research organisation* contained the following elements: drafting of the research calendar, providing of all necessary means and instruments for the field trip, and solving of the problems met on the field. The research was done during a period of two months in all the abovementioned Transylvanian counties.

### **5.3.2. Collection of Data**

After having collected the questionnaires from the subjects, we started to process the data and extract the percentages.

First of all, we checked if all questionnaires were complete, exact and uniform. We read all the answers and tried to see if they were coherent and did not contradict one another. In some cases we found out that the subjects did not understand correctly the questions and, consequently, provided unclear answers. Our decision in these cases was not to take into account those questionnaires.

Thus, we could easily see the result for each question and make the corresponding comments on them.

### 5.3.3. Interpretation of Results

Before interpreting the results of our questionnaire, we will present the percentages obtained. We should mention that the questionnaires filled in by the subjects were either in Italian or in Romanian, as our sample was made up of Italian people, some of whom knew Romanian very well. That is why we will insert those versions with some interesting answers in the Appendices<sup>214</sup>. However, given the fact that our thesis is written in English, we considered it useful to attach also an English version of the questionnaire<sup>215</sup>.

After having collected all data, we obtained the following results:

#### A. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

1.	a. 95%	b. 5%			
2.	27%	25-35 years old			
	20%	36-45 years old			
	42.5%	46-60 years old			
	7.5%	more than 60 years old			
	3%	DA <sup>216</sup>			
3.	a. 57.5%	b. 7.5%	c. 7.5%	d. 5%	e. 22.5% f. 0%
4.	a. 45%	b. 55% of which		52.5% - 1-3 children	
				2.5% - more than 4 children	
5.	a. 7.5%	b. 87.5%	c. 5%	d. 0%	
6.	a. 97.5%	b. 2.5%	c. 0%		
7.	a. 95%	b. 0%	c. 2.5%	d. 2.5%	
8.	a. -	b. 45% Cluj		12.5% Bihor	
		10% DA		7.5% Alba	
		7.5% Sălaj		5% Hunedoara	
		5% Maramureş		2.5% Sibiu	

<sup>214</sup> See Appendices 2 and 3.

<sup>215</sup> See Appendix 1.

<sup>216</sup> Don't answer.

9. a. - b. 2.5% Arad 2.5% Timiș  
 10% Bologna 7.5% Padova  
 5% Vicenza 77.5% others  
 c. 20.5% Emilia-Romagna 20.5% Veneto  
 12.5% Lombardy 12.5% Tuscany  
 7.5% Abruzzo 26.5% others
10. a. 15.4% b. 59% c. 23% d. 2.6%

## B. SOCIAL IDENTITY

11. a. 22.5% b. 15% c. 15% d. 20.5% e. 27%
12. a. 23.1% b. 76.9%
13. a. 66.7% b. 8.3% c. 8.3% d. 0% e. 0%

The remaining 16.7% don't think the number is big.

14. a. family 41.5% b. home 20%  
 c. traditional food 18.3% d. friends 10.2% e. culture 10%
15. a. fun 25% b. opportunities 22.5%  
 c. beautiful women 20.3% d. intelligent people 16.2% e. Dracula 16%
- 16.

	Totally agree	Rather agree	Rather disagree	Totally disagree
a	2.6%	25.6%	15.4%	56.4%
b	12.8%	7.7%	79.5%	0%
c	33.3%	35.9%	15.4%	15.4%
d	61.5%	23.1%	7.7%	7.7%

17. I. have Italian as mother tongue 31% II. respect Italian traditions 20.5%  
 III. feel Italian 8.5% other 40%
18. I. have Romanian as mother tongue 19% II. respect Romanian traditions 16.2%  
 III. have Romanian citizenship 13.8% other 51%
19. a. civilised 32% b. hard-working 31.3%  
 c. proud 21.7% d. DK/DA 15%
20. a. 55.6% b. 44.4% c. 0%
21. a. welcoming 28.9% b. proud 26.6%  
 c. religious 20% d. DK/DA 24.5%
22. a. 73.5% b. 26.5% c. 0%

### C. SOCIAL CAPITAL

23. a. 43.2% b. 56.8%

24.

	Very much	Much	Little	Very little	At all	DK/DA
a	10%	52.5%	22.5%	12.5%	2.5%	0%
b	0%	23.1%	46.2%	17.9%	12.8%	0%
c	0%	15.8%	34.2%	31.6%	18.4%	0%
d	2.7%	37.8%	29.7%	16.3%	13.5%	0%

25.

	a	b
a	23.5	76.5
b	33.3	66.7
c	27.8	72.2
d	11.8	88.2
e	35.3	64.7
f	38.9	61.1
g	38.9	61.1
h	5.6	94.4

26.

	Very much	Much	Little	Very little	At all
a	11.2%	33.3%	36.1%	19.4%	0%
b	8.3%	38.9%	33.3%	16.7%	2.8%
c	11.4%	37.1%	28.6%	11.4%	11.5%
d	0%	25.7%	45.7%	8.6%	20%
e	5.7%	42.9%	40%	11.4%	0%
f	11.8%	52.9%	32.4%	2.9%	0%
g	22.9%	37.1%	34.3%	5.7%	0%
h	0%	22.9%	51.4%	20%	5.7%

27. a. 0% b. 29.7% c. 56.8% d. 8.1% e. 5.4%

28.

	Very good	Fairly good	Poor	Zero
a	53.8%	35.9%	10.3%	0%
b	13.2%	60.5%	26.3%	0%
c	11.4%	25.7%	62.9%	0%

29. a. 17.5% b. 82.5%

30. a. 5% b. 5% c. 7.5% d. 82.5%

31. a. 95% b. 0% c. 5%



11.1% ready-made clothes and shoes      11.1% food industry  
 7.4% constructions      40.8% others

45. -  
 46. -

**F. REASONS FOR COMING TO ROMANIA TO DO BUSINESS**

47. I. low costs 75.8%  
 II. less bureaucracy 52.4%  
 III. a language easy to be learned 46.7%  
 IV. Latin traditions 40.5%  
 V. a favourable political situation 37.5%  
 VI. welcoming people 28.1%  
 VII. -  
 VIII. -

**G. SUPPORTING BODIES**

48. a. -  
 b.

I	Very much	Much	Quite a lot	Rather little	Little	At all
Ia	0%	12.1%	21.2%	21.2%	9.1%	36.4%
Ib	12.1%	12.1%	24.2%	15.2%	9.1%	27.3%
IIa	0%	0%	9.7%	12.9%	12.9%	64.5%
IIIa	19.4%	27.8%	11.1%	5.6%	2.8%	33.3%
IIIb	19.4%	22.6%	6.5%	3.2%	0%	48.3%

49. a. 11.4%      b. 45.7%      c. 11.4%      d. 14.3%      e. 17.2%  
 50. a. 67.5%      b. 17.5%      c. 7.5%      d. 7.5%

**H. SOCIAL RELATIONS IN ROMANIA**

51. a. 61.5%      b. 38.5%  
 52. -  
 53. -

54.

	Perfectly accommodated	Accommodated	I am still accommodating to the country	I will never accommodate to the country	DK/DA
a	7.5%	40%	30%	22.5%	0%
b	30%	47.5%	20%	2.5%	0%
c	20%	57.5%	20%	2.5%	0%
d	32.5%	50%	17.5%	0%	0%

55. a. 35%      b. 65%      c. 0%

56. a. 90%      b. 10%

57.

	Similarities	Differences
I	language 40%	mentality 35%
II	traditions 20%	gastronomy 30%
III	the bureaucratic system 15%	the political system 18%
IV	the political system 15%	the bureaucratic system 15%
V	gastronomy 5%	traditions 2%
VI	mentality 5%	language 0%
VII	-	-
VII	-	-

58.

	Yes	No
a	59%	41%
b	18.4%	81.6%

59.

	Yes	No
a	14.3%	85.7%
b	25.7%	74.3%
c	13.9%	86.1%

We should start by saying that there are ten questions<sup>217</sup> that have no answer. This is because of the fact that the subjects did not want to answer or they misunderstood the question. Consequently, we considered that the sample that provided valid answers was not representative for the final interpretation of the results.

<sup>217</sup> Questions no 8, 9, 35, 38, 39, 41, 45, 46, 52, and 53.

Moreover, three questions<sup>218</sup> have only partial answers. In the case of questions 47 and 57 this was due to the fact that the subjects were allowed to choose from six answers only and to add some other two if they could. Consequently, the box contained eight possible answers, while they filled in only six. As far as question 48 is concerned, we refer only to point a. Our subjects did not answer this question, as it refers to the help they were given in order to start their business in Italy. As the questionnaire was mainly referring to their business in Romania, they decided not to answer in this case.

We will further analyse some of the answers provided for each section: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, and H. Of course, we will refer only to those questions that are the most representative for the aim of our research.

### **Section A:**

*Question 1.* The results of our questionnaire proved that 95% of the subjects are men. This shows a greater flexibility in the case of male subjects when it comes to living and working abroad. Women tend to be closer to their family and home.

*Question 2.* 42.5% of the subjects were 46-60 years of age. This category is followed by those between 25-35 years old with 27%. This might mean that older investors go to foreign countries after having already conducted a business in their own country. In this case their experience pushed them to risk by investing on new markets with the aim of obtaining bigger profits. On the contrary, the second category contains young people whose inexperience and desire of adventure brought them in Romania.

*Question 3.* 57.5% of the answers refer to married people. There might be two possibilities: either they are married to Romanian citizens or they had already married in Italy and brought their family in Romania. In both cases it is obvious that the Italians were attracted by this country and its culture, as it is similar to theirs. The second category (22.5%) is represented by the single people. Of course, there is no doubt that it is easier to go and work in a foreign country when one does not have a family and obligations.

*Question 8.* As the questionnaire was applied exclusively to Italian investors in Transylvania, it is obvious that they all live in Transylvanian countries. According to the results, the order is the following: Cluj (45%), Bihor (12.5%), Sălaj and Alba (7.5% each), Hunedoara and Maramureş (5% each), Sibiu, Arad and Timiș (2.5% each).

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<sup>218</sup> Questions no 47, 48, and 57.

*Question 9.* Veneto and Emilia-Romagna (20.5% each) are first on the list of Italian regions of origin of our subjects. They are followed by Lombardy and Tuscany (12.5% each), and Abruzzo (7.5%).

### **Section B:**

*Question 12.* 76.9% of our subjects think that the number of the Italians living in Romania today is big. This shows that they are all aware of the important Italian presence on the Romanian territory and they are part of it.

*Question 13.* Out of the abovementioned subjects 66.7% think that the big number of Italian investors in Transylvania is due to low business costs. 8.3% speak about low living costs, while another 8.3% about less bureaucracy. Consequently, we can easily see that the main reasons for the Italian presence in Transylvania are the economic ones.

*Questions 14 and 15.* When they think about Italy, 41.5% of the subjects refer to their family, 20% to their home, 18.3% to their traditional food, 10.2% to their friends, while 10% to their culture. This shows clearly the Italian personality characterised by strong links with the origin, customs, and traditions. When they think about Romania, 25% of the Italian investors refer to fun, 22.5% to opportunities, 20.3% to beautiful women, 16.2% to intelligent people, while 16% to Dracula. This means that, beside the economic reasons for their coming to Transylvania, there are also other reasons related rather to cultural and traditional aspects. Romanian women are well known for their beauty, Romanian people for its intelligence, while Dracula has become the symbol of Transylvania for the foreigners.

*Questions 17 and 18.* In the opinion of our subjects, language (31% and 19%) and traditions (20.5% and 16.2%) are the two most important things for someone to be considered Italian, respectively Romanian. This proves once again the similarities between the two countries, mostly related to their common Latin roots.

*Question 21.* The fact that 28.9% of the subjects think that Romanians are considered welcoming by the Italian investors is a clear proof that the latter feel at home in Transylvania.

*Question 22.* 73.5% of the answers refer to the difference in perception when it comes to the way in which the Italians in Romania see the Romanians as compared to the Italians in general. This proves that, after having lived and worked in Romania for a while, Italians' impressions change. They start to see the Romanians as their friends.

### **Section C:**

*Question 24.* 37.8% of our subjects trust much the Romanians in Romania, which is a sign of the friendly and sincere relationship they have with the latter.

*Question 28.* The fact the Italian and Romanian are two very similar Romance languages is underlined once again by the answers provided to this question. Thus, 53.8% of those who filled in the questionnaire understand Romanian very well, while 60.5% speak it fairly well.

*Question 29.* Most of the Italian investors did not take Romanian lessons when they came to Romania, which proves how easy Romanian seemed to them from the very beginning.

*Question 31.* 95% of the subjects agree with the fact that it is important for an Italian living in Romanian to know Romanian very well. It is a sign of the respect the Italians show for the language and the authorities of this country.

*Questions 32, 33 and 34.* The answers to these questions prove that the new means of communication are gaining ground also in the case of the Italian investors in Transylvania. 35.5% send daily e-mails to their family in Italy, while 40.6% send e-mails to their business partners in Italy. 45.9% make daily phone calls to their family, while 48.6% call their business partners. This means that both family and business are important for them. Nonetheless, letters have become obsolete lately, as most of our subjects use them only several times a year (56% to their family, 58.3% to their friends, 32% to their business partners, and 79.2% to ancient colleagues or other relatives).

### **Section D:**

*Question 36.* 68.4% of the subjects were employers in Italy before coming to Romania. This means that not only professional subordination determine people to invest abroad, but also the need to become more prosperous as an employer.

### **Section E:**

*Question 40.* Most of the Italian investors who answered our questionnaire (73.6%) came to Transylvania between 1996 and 2006. During this period Romania developed very much in all fields. That is why it is a market appropriate for competition.

*Question 42.* When asked about the reasons of their coming to Romania, 56.4% of our subjects admitted that they were financial reasons.

### **Section F:**

*Question 47.* Among the most important reasons of the Italian presence in Romania there are low costs (75.8%), less bureaucracy (52.4%), and language (46.7%).

### **Section G:**

*Question 49.* Most of the Italian investors (45.7%) were supported by Italian friends or people that had already been in Romania at that moment. This shows how important it is to have someone to support you when starting your business abroad.

*Question 50.* 67.5% of our subjects are alone in Romania, 17.5% are with some members of their family, while 7.5% came here with the whole family. As we have already mentioned, it is easier to come alone in a foreign country for a person who has no family obligations. However, those who have a family try to bring all its members in the foreign country. In the case of Romania this proved easier, given the similar mentalities, traditions, customs, and language.

### **Section H:**

*Question 51.* As for their first impression when coming to Romania, it was positive in 61.5% of the cases. Once more, we can see that Italians felt comfortable in Romania from the very beginning.

*Question 54.* Private relations and language prevail over bureaucracy and business in the case of the Italian investors in Romania. Thus, 32.5% feel perfectly accommodated from the point of view of private relations against 7.5% in the case of bureaucracy and 30% in the case of the business environment. Furthermore, 57.5% feel accommodated with the language against 40% with bureaucracy and 47.5% with the business environment.

*Question 56.* As we had expected, 90% of our subjects declare to have Romanian friends. We can easily understand that common roots bring people together.

*Question 57.* Language (40%) and traditions (20%) are considered the most similar elements of the Romanian and Italian culture. As far as differences are concerned, gastronomy (30%), the political system (18%) and bureaucracy (15%) prevail.

### **5.3.4. Problems Encountered with the Research**

We had to face several problems while doing the research with the questionnaires. We will further present a list of them.

First of all, it was difficult to make the questionnaire itself given the fact that we are not a sociologist. It seemed quite problematic to define the sections and the number of questions. So we thought of both form and content. We read theoretical aspects about the sociological inquiry and we also asked the advice of a specialist. Then we decided on the length of the questionnaire, the types of questions and the representative sample. The final version of the questionnaire contains 59 questions that we were supposed to apply to 100 persons.

Second, we hesitated on what language to choose for the questionnaire. Of course, as our thesis is written in English, it is obvious that the version included in the paper is in English. However, given the fact that our subjects were Italian people, we also drafted an Italian version of the questionnaire. Moreover, some of the Italian investors in Transylvania already know Romanian very well, so we have a third version in Romanian. Both the Italian and the Romanian version of the questionnaire are attached in the appendices.

Furthermore, another big problem that we would classify as the most important of all was the fact that people did not want to answer our questions. This happened because they had neither the time nor the will to do it. Consequently, our sample was reduced to only 40 persons.

Finally, in some cases people did not understand properly the questions. That is why they gave only partial answers that were either incomplete or unclear. This rendered our task of interpreting the results even more difficult. We decided then not to take into account some of those answers.

## **5.4. Conclusions**

After having studied the phenomenon of delocalization of the Italian companies in Transylvania, we can draw some conclusions in this respect.

We could see that the most important delocalization movement took part between 1996 and 2006, that is during the last ten years. The Italian companies that come to Transylvania for business usually come from the north-eastern, north-western and the central parts of Italy. The

Italian investors mostly settle their business in counties such as Arad, Timiș, Bihor, Cluj, Alba, Sibiu, etc.

Beside this phenomenon of the Italian delocalization in Romania, there is a process that is taking place the other way round: the Romanian migration to Italy for work. Practically speaking, it is a circular movement based on economic matters but also on a common cultural background, Latin traditions and mentalities, and a Romance language.

Moreover, studying the long history of the Italian-Romanian relations we found out that they started in the Middle Ages and continued up to the present. Nowadays, Italy is Romania's first commercial partner. An example of this long tradition was given by Italy's Prime Minister Romano Prodi, who was the first EU minister that has come to Romania after its accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007.

As far as the questionnaire is concerned, we found it useful to introduce such an instrument in our research despite the difficulties we encountered with its drafting and filling in. It was interesting to learn how to combine open and closed questions in a quantitative research in order to obtain the expected results.

All in all, it was a real challenge for us to study this very interesting topic of the Italian-Romanian relations.

## CONCLUSIVE REMARKS

We could not end our study without some conclusive remarks on the importance of Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia in the local, regional, European, and international context.

As we have seen throughout the chapters, *local* brands and traditions are still cultivated nowadays and they preserve states' and peoples' peculiarities. Our research proved that Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia are indeed of such importance. Here, history, administrative units, and economic issues really contribute to the local development. The local actors from those regions are interested in the perspective of an increased competitiveness at the national and European level.

The importance of the two regions that make the object of our research is also seen at the *regional* level. Nowadays, the enlarged European Union confers a greater and greater role to regions. There are not only pre or post-accession funds for regional development, but also opportunities given by enhanced regional cooperation. Thus, regions and regional actors are approached in a more coherent way. They become more and more aware of the mutual benefits that derive from cooperation at regional level.

Transylvania, as a Romanian historical region and, at the same time, as a part of several development regions, has competencies for the regional development, as the principles of local autonomy and subsidiarity are abided by in Romania. This type of regional development also applies to Friuli-Venezia Giulia, as regional policy attributions are exercised by the local communities, the expansion of power, or cooperation through decentralised institutions. Moreover, the Italian case is even more relevant given the existence of autonomous regions with clearly regulated functions, powers, and rights.

The third level to be discussed is the *European* one. The creation of the European Union will go down in history as one of the most remarkable achievements of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In the space of just forty years Europeans fought two appalling wars among themselves, finally appreciated the dangers of nationalism and the futility of violence, and sat down to design a system that would make it inconceivable that they would ever take up arms against each other again.

The results have been substantial. A body of treaties and laws has been agreed and a set of institutions has been created that have altered the political, economic and social landscape of Europe, changed the way Europeans relate to each other, redefined the balance of power in the

world by creating a new economic superpower, and helped bring to Europe the longest uninterrupted spell of peace in its recorded history. The European Union is one of the two largest markets in the world, which expresses itself ever more forcefully in global trade negotiations, and has planted the seeds of a common foreign and security policy.

Free trade and the free movement of EU citizens have steadily dissolved the barriers that for so long reminded Europeans of their differences, and while national and regional identities are still alive, they no longer contain the seeds of the kinds of competition and conflict that have so often brought war and destruction to Europe. If the single market has taken Europe to the brink of economic union, then the completion of the single currency in 2002 pushed it over the brink, and took it closer to political union.

It is obvious from our research that Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia are really important European actors. They are the proof of the fact that Europe's map also contains important regional and local actors whose voice is heard in the different cooperation programmes. Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia do not only have the strategies, but also the means to become competitive at national and European level, contributing thus to the reduction of development discrepancies among regions and the fulfilment of economic and social cohesion.

In the introduction we set out to prove two theories. After having done the research and analysed the data we collected through questionnaires, we can state that, indeed, Europe builds its identity from the regional level. The idea of 'unity in diversity' is thus confirmed. It is clear that the European Union is not a group of states with sovereign claims, but Europe develops better by cultivating its local and regional brands and traditions. Thus, our hypotheses proved true and well founded.

By being European actors, Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia automatically become worldwide protagonists, as the European Union is also a competitive structure at the international level. Both regions are famous for their impressive number of ethnic minorities, educational system, research programmes, and economic development.

In conclusion, Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia belong to two countries whose common historical heritage is still seen today. There are both similarities and differences. However, the comparative analysis proved that the first prevail. Common historical roots starting from the Romans' time until present are worth mentioning. Both regions that make the object of our research are border areas characterised by the presence of ethnic minorities. Transylvania and FVG have always played a very important role in the history of their country, as they have been a

bridge between east and west, a place where civilisations met and dialects developed. They are both characterised by multiculturalism and multilingualism.

The administrative structure of the two regions we analysed is rather similar. However, there are also differences. In this respect we can speak about Transylvania either as a historical region or as a development region, while Friuli-Venezia Giulia is an autonomous region of Italy with well defined power structures. The status of the autonomous regions in Italy is based on cultural grounds, the geographical location, and the presence of important ethnic minorities on those territories. At present, there are similar administrative divisions in the two countries. By analysing the internal structure of these administrative units in both regions, we discovered almost the same composition.

The EU regional policy involves both Romania and Italy, as they both are European Member States. Regions and regionalisation are the common values of the united Europe. Consequently, these important European values must be exploited for the sake of the United States of Europe and for the benefit of its citizens. Enhanced regional cooperation will contribute to the economic, social, and cultural development of both Transylvania and Friuli-Venezia Giulia.

However, the most important conclusion of our research is the fact that besides the economic aspect there are also cultural links between the two regions and their population. On the one hand, Italian investors delocalize in Transylvania for financial reasons but also because they feel good and at home here. They mentioned the Romanian food, language, mentality and culture in their answers. On the other hand, the Romanians who left their country and went to work in Italy feel the same there.

There are, however, several questions that arise: Will the situation stay the same given Romania's accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007 and the subsequent changes that will take place here? Will we see Romanian companies delocalizing in Italy? Will the Romanians that are now working in Italy come back home? All these issues could be debated in a future research.

# APPENDIX 1

## QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE ITALIAN COMPANIES THAT DELOCALIZED IN ROMANIA

### A. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

1. Gender:

- a. masculine    b. feminine

2. Age.: \_\_\_\_\_ years old

3. Marital status:

- a. married    b. cohabitation    c. divorced    d. separated    e. single    f. widower/widow

4. Do you have children?

- a. No  
b. Yes. How many? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Citizenship

- a. Romanian    b. Italian    c. double Romanian-Italian    d. Other \_\_\_\_\_

6. Nationality

- a. Italian    b. Romanian    c. Other \_\_\_\_\_

7. Religion

- a. Catholic    b. Protestant    c. Orthodox    d. Other \_\_\_\_\_

8. Where do you live in Romania?

- a. town/city.....    b. county.....

9. What is your residence of origin? (city, province and region in Italy)

- a. city.....    b. province.....    c. region.....

10. Education:

- a. secondary school    b. high school    c. university    d. post-graduate (master's degree, PhD)

### B. SOCIAL IDENTITY

11. According to your information, how many Italians are living in Romania today?

- a. less than 3,000    b. 3,000-5,000    c. 5,000-8,000  
d. 8,000-10,000    e. more than 10,000

12. In your opinion, the number of the Italians living in Romania today is:

- a. small    b. big

13. If you have chosen the latter, what would be the reasons for this choice in your opinion?

- a. low business costs    b. low living costs  
c. less bureaucracy    d. a favourable political situation  
e. they feel like home here (traditions, language, peoples, culture similar to those in Italy)

14. Which are, according to their importance, the first five words that come to your mind when you think of Italy?

a. \_\_\_\_\_  
 b. \_\_\_\_\_  
 c. \_\_\_\_\_  
 d. \_\_\_\_\_  
 e. \_\_\_\_\_

15. Which are, according to their importance, the first five words that come to your mind when you think of Romania?

a. \_\_\_\_\_  
 b. \_\_\_\_\_  
 c. \_\_\_\_\_  
 d. \_\_\_\_\_  
 e. \_\_\_\_\_

16. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Having been born in Italy

	Totally agree	Rather agree	Rather disagree	Totally disagree
a. Makes my life more difficult				
b. Makes me feel ashamed				
c. Makes my life easier				
d. Makes me feel proud				

17. What are, in your opinion, the 3 most important things for someone to be considered Italian? Please choose from the list above and fill in the table according to their importance; I is the most important characteristic, while III is the least important one:

I	
II	
III	

- a. have Italian as mother tongue
- b. have Italian citizenship
- c. be Catholic
- d. live in Italy
- e. respect Italian traditions
- f. having been born on the Italian territory
- g. feel Italian

18. What are, in your opinion, the 3 most important things for someone to be considered Romanian? Please choose from the list above and fill in the table according to their importance; I is the most important characteristic, while III is the least important one:

I	
II	
III	

- a. have Romanian as mother tongue
- b. have Romanian citizenship
- c. be Orthodox
- d. live in Romania
- e. respect Romanian traditions
- f. having been born on the Romanian territory
- g. feel Romanian

19. How do you think Romanians see the Italians in Romania? Choose 3 variants.

Honest	Civilised	Neglectful	Selfish	Hard-working	Thieves
Old-fashioned	Intelligent	Hypocrite	Lazy	Modest	Proud
Hostile	Welcoming	Religious	United		

a. \_\_\_\_\_ b. \_\_\_\_\_ c. \_\_\_\_\_ d. DK/DA<sup>219</sup>

20. Do you think that Romanians see differently the Italians in Romania as compared to the Italians in general?

a. Yes b. No c. DK/DA

21. How do you think the Italians in Romania see the Romanians? Choose 3 variants.

Honest	Civilised	Neglectful	Selfish	Hard-working	Thieves
Old-fashioned	Intelligent	Hypocrite	Lazy	Modest	Proud
Hostile	Welcoming	Religious	United		

a. \_\_\_\_\_ b. \_\_\_\_\_ c. \_\_\_\_\_ d. DK/DA

22. Do you think that the Italians in Romania see differently the Romanians as compared to the Italians in general?

a. Yes b. No c. DK/DA

### C. SOCIAL CAPITAL

23. Do you think we can trust most of the people?

a. Yes b. No

24. How much do you trust ...	Very much	Much	Little	Very little	At all	DK / DA
a. The Italians in Italy						
b. The Italians in Romania						
c. The Romanians in Italy						
d. The Romanians in Romania						

25. Have you had any relation with one of the following institutions during the last 6 months?

26. How much do you trust the following institutions in Romania?	Very much	Much	Little	Very little	At all	a. Yes	b. No
a. Police							
b. City hall							
c. Church							
d. NGOs							
e. Chamber of Commerce							
f. The Italian Cultural Centre							
g. Embassy, Consulate							
h. Media							

<sup>219</sup> Don't know/Don't answer.

27. In your opinion, how much do the Romanians trust the Italians in Romania?

- a. Very much    b. Much    c. Little    d. Very little    e. At all

28. What is your proficiency in Romanian?

	Very good	Fairly good	Poor	Zero
a. Comprehension				
b. Speaking				
c. Writing, reading				

29. Did you take Romanian lessons when you came to Romania?

- a. Yes    b. No

30. How efficient proved those courses for you?

- a. very efficient    b. efficient    c. not very efficient    d. not at all efficient

31. Do you think it is important for an Italian living in Romania to know Romanian very well?

- a. Yes    b. No    c. DK/DA

32. How often do you write letters to people in Italy?

	Several times a year	Once a month	Several times a month	Every week	Every day
a. Family					
b. Friends					
c. Business partners					
d. Ancient colleagues or other relatives					

33. How often do you contact Italy by e-mail?

	Several times a year	Once a month	Several times a month	Every week	Every day
a. Family					
b. Friends					
c. Business partners					
d. Ancient colleagues or other relatives					

34. How often do you make phone calls to people in Italy?

	Several times a year	Once a month	Several times a month	Every week	Every day
a. Family					
b. Friends					
c. Business partners					
d. Ancient colleagues or other relatives					

#### D. BUSINESS IN ITALY

35. What was your job in Italy before coming to Romania? -----

36. Were you an employee or an employer in Italy?

- a. employee    b. employer



and Industry						
<i>II. Formal private bodies</i>						
a. NGOs						
<i>III. Informal private bodies</i>						
a. friends						
b. relatives						

**b. IN ROMANIA**

<i>I. Formal public bodies</i>	Very much	Much	Quite a lot	Rather little	Little	At all
a. public institutions						
b. Chamber of Commerce and Industry						
<i>II. Formal private bodies</i>						
a. NGOs						
<i>III. Informal private bodies</i>						
a. friends						
b. relatives						

49. Your coming to Romania was supported by:

- a. Your relatives that had already been here
- b. Italian friends or people that had already been here
- c. Work contract
- d. Tourist visa
- e. Others. Who / What exactly?

50. Are you alone or with your family in Romania?

- a. Alone
- b. With some members of my family
- c. With my whole family
- d. Other situation. Which exactly? -----

**H. SOCIAL RELATIONS IN ROMANIA**

51. What was your first impression when coming to Romania?

- a. Positive
- b. Negative

52. If your first impression was positive, please give details:-----

53. If your first impression was negative, please give details:-----

54. How do you feel now in Romania?

	Perfectly accommodated	Accommodated	I am still accommodating to the country	I will never accommodate to the country	DK / DA
a. From a bureaucratic					

and institutional point of view					
b. From the point of view of the business environment					
c. From the linguistic point of view					
d. From the point of view of private relations					

55. How do get along with the Romanians?  
a. very well      b. well              c. bad

56. Do you have Romanian friends?  
a. Yes    b. No

57. Fill in the table, according to their importance - (I) the most important, (VIII) the least important – the similarities or differences between the Romanian and Italian culture. Please choose from the list above, or, if you think there are others, please insert them, too.

	Similarities	Differences
I		
II		
III		
IV		
V		
VI		
VII		
VIII		

- I. mentality                      II. traditions
- III. language                    IV. gastronomy
- V. the political system        VI. the bureaucratic system

58. For the next two or three years do you intend to do the following?	Yes	No
a. Redecorate your house / change your lodgings for a better one		
b. Enrol in a Romanian public or private educational institution or participate in certain courses		
59. If your answer was positive, give details about the types of courses you would like to attend and why...-----		
a. Change your marital status (by getting married, for example)		
b. Have one or more children		
c. Change your job or the field of your activity		

## APPENDIX 2

### QUESTIONARIO PER I RAPPRESENTANTI DELLE AZIENDE ITALIANE IN ROMANIA

#### A. VARIABILI SOCIO-DEMOGRAFICI

Sesso:

X 1. maschile    2. femminile

Età:   56   anni

Stato civile:

X 1. coniugato    2. compagno    3. divorziato    4. separato    5. celibe/nubile    6. vedovo

Ha dei figli?

1. No

X 2. Sì. Quanti?   2  

Cittadinanza:

1. Romena    X 2. italiana    3. romeno-italiana    4. altra-----

Nazionalità

X 1. Italiana    2. romena    3. altra-----

Qual è la sua religione?

X 1. Cattolica    2. protestante    3. ortodossa    4. altra-----

Dove abita in Romania?

1. città...**Cluj-Napoca**.....    2. provincia.. **Cluj**.....

Residenza di origine (città, provincia, regione in Italia)

1. città.....**Cosenza**.....    2. provincia....**Cosenza**.....    3. regione....**Calabria**.....

Studi

1. scuola media    X 2. scuola superiore    3. università    4. post universitari (master, dottorato di ricerca)

#### B. IDENTITA' SOCIALE

Quanti italiani crede che abitino in Romania?

1. meno di 3000    2. 3000-5000    X 3. 5000-8000    4. 8000-10000  
5. più di 10000

Nella sua opinione, il numero degli italiani che vivono in Romania è:

X 1. piccolo    2. grande

Se ha scelto la seconda variante, quali sono le motivazioni della sua scelta:

1. ottimi affari    2. basso costo della vita  
3. poca burocrazia    4. situazione politica favorevole  
5. si sentono a loro agio (tradizioni, lingua, popolo, cultura simili a quelle italiane)

Quali sarebbero, nell'ordine della loro importanza, le prime 5 parole che le vengono in mente quando pensa all'Italia?

1. **Storia**

2. **Cultura**

3. **Turismo**

4. **Natura**

5. **Democrazia**

Quali sarebbero, nell'ordine della loro importanza, le prime 5 parole che le vengono in mente quando pensa alla Romania?

1. **storia**

2. **lingua**

3. **popolazione**

4. **terme**

5. **foreste**

E' d'accordo con le seguenti affermazioni?: Il fatto di essere nato in Italia:

	Totalmente d'accordo	Parzialmente d'accordo	Non sono troppo d'accordo	Disaccordo totale
Rende la mia vita più difficile		X		
Mi mette in imbarazzo			X	
Rende la mia vita più facile			X	
Ne sono fiero		X		

Quali sono, secondo lei, le tre cose più importanti per le quali qualcuno possa essere considerato italiano? La preghiamo di scegliere dalla lista di caratteristiche e di completare la tabella, in base alla loro importanza (il primo posto è assegnato alla caratteristica più importante, il terzo, a quella meno importante).

I	<b>Cittadinanza italiana</b>
II	<b>Residenza in Italia</b>
III	<b>Madrelingua italiana</b>

1. madrelingua italiano

2. cittadinanza italiana

3. religione cattolica

4. residenza in Italia

5. adotta i costumi degli italiani

6. è nato sul territorio dell'Italia

7. si sente italiano

Quali sono, secondo lei, le più importanti tre cose per le quali qualcuno possa essere considerato romeno? La preghiamo di scegliere dalla lista di caratteristiche e di completare la tabella, in base alla loro importanza, dove il primo posto è assegnato alla caratteristica più importante, e il terzo, a quella meno importante:

I	<b>Cittadinanza rumena</b>
II	<b>Residenza in Romania</b>
III	<b>Madrelingua rumena</b>

1. madrelingua romeno

2. cittadinanza romena

3. religione ortodossa

4. residenza in Romania



Quanto si fida delle seguenti istituzioni romene?

I media

Moltissimo Molto Poco Molto poco Affatto

X

Ha avuto negli ultimi 6 mesi qualche rapporto con questa istituzione?

Si No

X

Quanto si fidano i romeni degli italiani che vivono in Romania?

1. Moltissimo X 2. Molto 3. Poco 4. Molto poco 5. Affatto

Conosce bene il romeno?

	Benissimo	Bene	Poco	Affatto
Comprensione				X
Parlato				X
Scritto, lettura				X

Quando è venuto in Romania ha fatto corsi di romeno?

1. si X 2. no

Qual è stata l'efficienza del corso per lei?

1. molto efficiente 2. efficiente 3. poco efficiente 4. affatto efficiente

E' importante che un italiano che vive in Romania conosca bene il romeno?

X 1. si 2. no 3. NS/NR

Quanto spesso scrive ai suoi conoscenti in Italia?

	Qualche volta all'anno	Una volta al mese	Più volte al mese	Ogni settimana	Ogni giorno
Famiglia					
Amici					
Partner d'affari					
Ex compagni o altri conoscenti					

Quanto spesso scrive e-mail ai suoi conoscenti?

	Qualche volta all'anno	Una volta al mese	Più volte al mese	Ogni settimana	Ogni giorno
Famiglia					X
Amici				X	
Partner d'affari				X	
Ex compagni o altri conoscenti			X		

Quanto spesso parla per telefono con i suoi conoscenti?

	Qualche volta all'anno	Una volta al mese	Più volte al mese	Ogni settimana	Ogni giorno
Famiglia				X	
Amici				X	
Partner in affari				X	
Ex compagni o altri conoscenti			X		

#### D. AFFARI IN ITALIA

Di che cosa si occupava in Italia prima di venire in Romania?-----

Era ingaggiato:

X 1.si            2.no

Ha un affare personale in Italia? (Lei o la sua famiglia)

1. Si            X 2. No

Se si, in quale settore? -----

Qual era il suo reddito mensile in Italia? ----- (euro)

#### E. AFFARI IN ROMANIA

In quale anno è venuto in Romania per affari?---2000-----

Qual è stato il suo primo mestiere in Romania?---

E' venuto in Romania per ragioni economiche?

1. si        X 2. no

Ha un affare personale in Romania (Lei o la sua famiglia?)

X 1. si    2. no

In quale settore? ---immobiliari-----

Qual è il suo reddito mensile in Romania? ----- (euro)

Il nome della sua azienda è:-----

#### F. RAGIONI DELLA SUA PRESENZA IN ROMANIA PER AFFARI

La preghiamo di scrivere le ragioni nella tabella, a seconda della loro importanza; se ce ne sono altre, può inserirle. Nella tabella, il primo posto è assegnato alla ragione più importante, e l'ottavo, a quella che ritiene meno importante:

1. bassi costi
2. poca burocrazia
3. situazione politica favorevole
4. costumi latini
5. lingua facilmente da imparare
6. gente accogliente

1	Bassi costi
2	Gente accogliente
3	Costumi latini
4	Situazione politica favorevole
5	Poca burocrazia
6	Lingua facilmente da imparare
7	
8	

## G. SUPPORTI

Chi l'ha aiutato all'inizio del suo affare?

### ÎN ITALIA

<i>Publici formali</i>	Moltissimo	Molto	Abbastanza	Abbastanza poco	Poco	Affatto
1. istituzioni pubbliche						
2. Camera di Commercio						
<i>Privati formali</i>						
ONG						
<i>Privati informali</i>						
1. amici						
2. parenti						

### IN ROMANIA

<i>Publici formali</i>	Moltissimo	Molto	Abbastanza	Abbastanza poco	Poco	Affatto
1. istituzioni pubbliche				X		
2. Camera di Commercio	X					
<i>Privati formali</i>						X
ONG						X
<i>Privati informali</i>						X
1. amici	X					
2. parenti						X

Il suo arrivo in Romania si è realizzato con l'aiuto:

1. dei parenti che erano già qui
- X 2. degli amici o dei conoscenti italiani che erano già qui
3. contratto di lavoro
4. turista
5. altri . Quali?

E' solo in Romania o insieme alla famiglia?

1. Solo X	2. Con alcuni membri della famiglia	3. Con tutta la famiglia	4. Altro. ....
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## H. RAPPORTI SOCIALI IN ROMANIA

La sua prima impressione all'arrivo in Romania è stata una:

- X 1. Positiva
2. Negativa

Motivate: **la gente rumena è molto accogliente e piacevole.**

Come si sente in Romania?

	Perfettamente adattato	Adattato	Sto per adattarmi	Non mi adatterò mai	NS / NR
Dal punto di vista burocratico e istituzionale		X			
Dal punta di vista del campo degli affari	X				
Dal punto di vista linguistico			X		
Dal punto di vista dei rapporti privati		X			

Come comunica con i romeni?

1. molto bene    X 2. bene    3. male

Ha degli amici romeni?

X 1. si    2. no

Inserisca nella tabella, nell'ordine dell'importanza, le assomiglianze e le differenze tra la cultura romena e quella italiana. Scegli dalla lista di sotto oppure ne aggiunga altre.

	Assomiglianze	Differenze
1	<b>mentalità</b>	
2	<b>costumi</b>	
3		<b>lingua</b>
4		<b>sistema politico</b>
5	<b>sistema burocratico</b>	
6		<b>gastronomia</b>
7		
8		

- |                     |                        |
|---------------------|------------------------|
| 1. mentalità        | 2. costumi             |
| 3. lingua           | 4. gastronomia         |
| 5. sistema politico | 6. sistema burocratico |

Per i seguenti due-tre anni pensa di ....	Si	No
1. attrezzare /cambiare la sua casa		X
2. seguire corsi in Romania (insegnamento statale o privato)		X
Se la risposta alla domanda precedente è stata positiva, che tipo di corsi vorrebbe seguire e perché ...		
3.cambiare lo stato civile (matrimonio, per esempio)		X
4. avere uno o più figli		X
5. cambiare posto di lavoro o campo degli affari		X

## APPENDIX 3

### CHESTIONAR PENTRU REPREZENTANȚII FIRMEI ITALIENE CARE AU DELOCALIZAT ÎN ROMÂNIA

#### A. VARIABLE SOCIO-DEMOGRAFICE

Sexul:

1. masculin      2. feminin

Vârsta dvs.: 52 ani

Starea civilă:

1. căsătorit      2. concubinaj      3. divorțat      4. separat      5. necăsătorit      6. văduv

Aveți copii?

1. Nu  
2. Da. Câți? 2

Ce cetățenie aveți?

1. Română      2. italiană      3. dublă româno-italiană      4. alta -----

Ce naționalitate aveți?

1. Italiană      2. român      3. alta -----

Ce religie aveți?

1. Catolică      2. protestantă      3. ortodoxă      4. alta -----

Unde aveți rezidența în România?

1. localitate      2. județ....Cluj.....

Care este rezidența dvs de origine? (localitate, provincie și regiune în Italia)

1. localitate      2. provincie..      3. regiune      Veneto.....

Ce studii aveți?

2. mai puțin decât liceul      2. liceu      3. facultate      4. post-universitare (masterat, doctorat)

#### B. IDENTITATE SOCIALĂ

După informațiile pe care le aveți, câți italieni credeți că locuiesc în România?

1. mai puțin de 3000      2. 3000-5000      3. 5000-8000      4. 8000-10000  
5. mai mult de 10000

După părerea dvs, numărul italienilor care trăiesc în România este

1. mic      2. mare

Dacă ați ales a doua variantă, indicați care ar fi, după părerea dvs, motivele pentru această alegere:

1. costuri reduse ale afacerii      2. costuri reduse de trai  
3. birocrăție mai puțină      4. situația politică favorabilă  
5. se simt ca acasă aici (tradiții, limbă, oameni, cultură asemănătoare cu Italia)

Care ar fi, în ordinea importanței, primele cinci cuvinte care vă vin în minte atunci când vă gândiți la Italia?

1. familie

2. drumurile bune

3. armonie

4. casa

5. mancare

Care ar fi, în ordinea importanței, primele cinci cuvinte care vă vin în minte atunci când vă gândiți la România?

1.natura

2.drumurile proste

3.prieteni

4.serviciu

5.taxele scazute

În ce măsură sunteți de acord cu următoarele afirmații: Faptul că m-am născut în Italia

	Total de acord	Mai degrabă de acord	Nu prea sunt de acord	Dezacord total
Îmi face viața mai grea		x		
Îmi dă un sentiment de jenă		x		
Îmi face viața mai ușoară		x		
Îmi dă un sentiment de mândrie	x			

Care sunt, după părerea dvs, cele mai importante 3 lucruri pentru ca cineva să fie considerat italian? Vă rugăm să alegeți din lista de caracteristici înșirate mai jos și să completați în tabel conform importanței, unde pe primul loc (I) este caracteristica cea mai importantă și pe III cea mai puțin importantă:

I	5
II	7
III	2

1. să aibă limba maternă limba italiană
2. să aibă cetățenie italiană
3. să fie catolic
4. să locuiască în Italia
5. să respecte obiceiurile italienilor
6. să se fi născut pe teritoriul italian
7. să se simtă italian

Care sunt, după părerea dvs, cele mai importante 3 lucruri pentru ca cineva să fie considerat român? Vă rugăm să alegeți din lista de caracteristici înșirate mai jos și să completați în tabel conform importanței, unde pe primul loc (I) este caracteristica cea mai importantă și pe III cea mai puțin importantă:

I	5
II	7
III	2

1. să aibă limba maternă limba română
2. să aibă cetățenie română
3. să fie ortodox
4. să locuiască în România
5. să respecte obiceiurile românilor
6. să se fi născut pe teritoriul românesc
7. să se simtă român

Cum credeți că îi văd românii pe italienii din România? Alegeți 3 variante.

Cinstiți                      Civilizați                      Delăsători                      Egoiști                      Harnici                      Hoți  
 Înapoiți                      **Inteligenți**                      Ipocriți                      Leneși                      Modești                      Orgolioși  
 Ostili                      Primitori                      **Religioși**                      Uniți

1. \_\_\_\_\_ 2. \_\_\_\_\_ 3. \_\_\_\_\_ 4. NS/NR

Credeți că românii îi văd diferit pe italienii din România față de italienii în general?

1. da    2. nu    3. NS/NR

Cum credeți că îi văd italienii din România pe români? Alegeți 3 variante.

Cinstiți                      Civilizați                      Delăsători                      Egoiști                      Harnici                      Hoți  
 Înapoiți                      Inteligenți                      Ipocriți                      **Leneși**                      **Modești**                      **Orgolioși**  
 Ostili                      Primitori                      Religioși                      Uniți

1. \_\_\_\_\_ 2. \_\_\_\_\_ 3. \_\_\_\_\_ 4. NS/NR

Credeți că italienii din România îi văd diferit pe români față de italienii în general?

1. da    2. nu    3. NS/NR

### C. CAPITAL SOCIAL

Dumneavoastră credeți că se poate avea încredere în cei mai mulți dintre oameni?

1. Da    2. Nu

Câtă încredere aveți dumneavoastră în ...	Foarte multă	Multă	Puțină	Foarte puțină	Deloc	NS / NR
Italienii din Italia					x	
Italienii din România					x	
Românii din Italia					x	
Românii din România					x	

Câtă încredere aveți dumneavoastră în următoarele instituții din România?	Foarte multă	Multă	Puțină	Foarte puțină	Deloc	Ați avut în ultimele 6 luni vreo relație cu această instituție?	
						Da	Nu
Poliție			x				
Primărie			x				
Biserică			x				
ONG-uri			x				
Camera de comerț			x				
Centru cultural Italian			x				
Ambasadă, Consulat			x				
Mass media			x				

Câtă încredere credeți că au românii în italienii din România.?

1. Foarte multă 2. Multă 3. **Puțină** 4. Foarte puțină 5. Deloc

Cât de bine vă descurcați cu limba română?

	Foarte bine	Destul de bine	Nu prea bine	Deloc
Înțelegeți	<b>x</b>			
Vorbiți		<b>x</b>		
Scriveți, citiți		<b>x</b>		

Când ați venit în România ați luat lecții de limba română?

1. da 2. **nu**

Cât de eficiente au fost aceste cursuri pentru dvs?

1. foarte eficiente 2. eficiente 3. puțin eficiente 4. **deloc eficiente**

Credeți că este important pentru un italian din România să cunoască limba română foarte bine?

1. **da** 2. nu 3. NS/NR

Cât de des le scrieți scrisori celor din Italia?

	De câteva ori pe an	O dată pe lună	De mai multe ori pe lună	Săptămânal	Zilnic
Familie	<b>x</b>				
Prieteni	<b>x</b>				
Parteneri de afaceri	<b>x</b>				
Foști colegi sau alți cunoscuți	<b>x</b>				

Cât de des îi contactați prin intermediul e-mail-ului pe cei din Italia?

	De câteva ori pe an	O dată pe lună	De mai multe ori pe lună	Săptămânal	Zilnic
Familie	<b>x</b>				
Prieteni	<b>x</b>				
Parteneri de afaceri	<b>x</b>				
Foști colegi sau alți cunoscuți	<b>x</b>				

Cât de des îi contactați telefonic pe cei din Italia?

	De câteva ori pe an	O dată pe lună	De mai multe ori pe lună	Săptămânal	Zilnic
Familie				<b>x</b>	
Prieteni			<b>x</b>		
Parteneri de afaceri					<b>x</b>
Foști colegi sau alți cunoscuți	<b>x</b>				

#### D. AFACEREA DIN ITALIA

Ce ocupație ați avut în Italia înainte de a veni în România? -----

Erați angajat sau lucrați pe cont propriu în Italia?

1. **angajat** 2. pe cont propriu

În Italia dvs. sau familia dvs. dețineți o afacere proprie ?

1. Da 2. Nu

Dacă da, în ce domeniu este această afacere? -----

Care era venitul dvs. lunar în Italia? ----- (euro)

### E. AFACEREA DIN ROMÂNIA

În ce an ați venit în România pentru a face afaceri?----1993----

Ce ocupație ați avut prima dată în România?-----

Ați venit în România din motive economice?

1. Da 2. Nu

În România dvs. sau familia dvs. dețineți o afacere proprie ?

1. Da 2. Nu

În ce domeniu este această afacere? -----

Care este venitul dvs. lunar din România?----- (euro)

Numele firmei dvs din Romania:-----

### F. MOTIVE ALE VENIRII ÎN ROMÂNIA PENTRU A FACE AFACERI

Vă rugăm așezați în tabel, în ordinea importanței, motivele dvs: dintre cele înșirate mai jos sau, dacă credeți că există și altele, vă rugăm numiți-le și pe acelea. În tabel, primul loc (1) revine motivului pe care dvs îl considerați cel mai important și 8 motivului pe care dvs îl considerați cel mai puțin important.

- |                                 |                          |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. costuri reduse               | 2. birocrăție mai puțină |
| 3. situația politică favorabilă | 4. tradiții latine       |
| 5. limbă ușor de învățat        | 6. oameni primitori      |

1	costuri reduse
2	limbă ușor de învățat
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	

## G. INSTANȚE DE SUPORT

Cine v-a sprijinit în demararea afacerii dvs.?

### ÎN ITALIA

<i>Publice formale</i>	Foarte mult	Mult	Destul de mult	Destul de puțin	Puțin	Deloc
1. instituții publice					x	
2. Camera de Comerț și Industrie					x	
<i>Private formale</i>			x			
ONG-uri						x
<i>Private informale</i>						
1. prieteni						
2. rude						

### ÎN ROMÂNIA

<i>Publice formale</i>	Foarte mult	Mult	Destul de mult	Destul de puțin	Puțin	Deloc
1. instituții publice						x
2. Camera de Comerț și Industrie						x
<i>Private formale</i>			x			
ONG-uri						x
<i>Private informale</i>						
1. prieteni						
2. rude						

Venirea dvs. în România s-a realizat cu ajutorul:

1. Rudelor care erau deja aici
2. Prieteni sau cunoscuți italieni care erau deja aici
3. Contract de muncă
4. **Turist**
5. Altele. Care anume?

În România sunteți singur sau împreună cu familia

1. <b>Singur</b>	2. Cu câțiva membri ai familiei	3. Este toată familia	4. Altă situație. Care?
------------------	---------------------------------	-----------------------	-------------------------

## H. RELAȚII SOCIALE ÎN ROMÂNIA

Prima dvs impresie pe care ați avut-o la sosirea în România a fost una:

1. Pozitivă
2. **Negativă**

Dacă prima dvs impresie a fost una pozitivă, vă rugăm să detaliați motivele:

Dacă prima dvs impresie a fost una negativă, vă rugăm să detaliați motivele:  
**Drumurile grele, birocrație**

Cum vă simțiți acum în România?

	Perfect acomodat	Acomodat	În curs de acomodare	Nu mă voi acomoda niciodată	NS / NR
Din punct de vedere birocratic și instituțional			x		
Din punct de vedere al mediului de afaceri			x		
Din punct de vedere lingvistic	x				
Din punct de vedere al relațiilor private		x			

Cum vă înțelegeți cu românii?

1. foarte bine    2. bine    3. rău

Aveți prieteni români?

1. da    2. nu

Inserați în tabel, în ordinea importanței - (1) cel mai important, (8) cel mai puțin important - asemănările sau deosebirile care credeți că există între cultura românească și cea italiană. Vă rugăm să alegeți din lista pe care o găsiți mai jos, sau dacă, după părerea dvs mai există și altele, vă rugăm să le inserați.

	Asemănări	Deosebiri
1	limba	mentalitate
2		gastronomie
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		

1. mentalitate                      2. tradiții  
 3. limbă                                4. gastronomie  
 5. sistemul politic                6. sistemul birocratic

Pentru următorii doi-trei ani aveți în plan să....	Da	Nu
1. să vă îmbunătățiți locuința / să o schimbați cu una mai bună		x
2. să urmați cursurile vreunei instituții de învățământ de stat sau private din România sau să participați la diferite cursuri		x
Dacă răspunsul la întrebarea anterioară a fost unul pozitiv, detaliați ce gen de cursuri ați dori să urmați și de ce...		

3. Să vă schimbați starea civilă (prin căsătorie, de ex)		<b>x</b>
4. Să aveți unul / mai mulți copii		<b>x</b>
5. Să vă schimbați locul de muncă sau domeniul de desfășurare al afacerii		<b>x</b>

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