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The Correlation Analysis Between the Public Debt, the Budget Deficit and GDP in Romania

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Abstract:

The way in which the state manages the public debt represented always and will continue to represent a subject of real importance, and the discussions regarding the level of budget deficit, the degree of indebtedness and their implications on social prosperity are of important actuality as much as national level as also at European Union level. In this paper it is presented the dependence between the Romanian public debt and its budget deficit, the dependence between the Romanian public debt and its GDP, in tandem with the ARX model time variation, rendering evident the residuum.

Keywords: public debt, budget deficit, GDP

JEL: H62, H63

1. Introduction

According to a prestigious international world wild organization, The World Economic Forum, based on a public report regarding the economic situation of European Union member states concerning the prosperity level and the economic development, Romania occupies the last place (Brezeanu, 1998; Andrei & Bourbonnais, 2008 Stancu, Andrei, Iacob & Tusa, 2008; Dumitru, Budică & Motoi, 2016). Concerning the level of economic performance, Romania is unfortunately surpassed even by Bulgaria. In these circumstances Romania is situated among the last countries in European Union with the perspective of achieving the 2020 Europe Strategy objectives, being situated at a significant distance from her Nordic colleague, Sweden (Matei & Marcel, 2008; Moisica Preda, 2009; Dima, 2014). As we can see in the Table 1, Romania has reached a budget deficit of 2,96% from GDP in 2012, and 2,22% from GDP, in 2013. Comparing the percentages realized by Romania in 2013, in what regards the budget deficit, with those realized by countries with a strong economic growth as Holland, Sweden and Denmark we can say that the Romania budget deficit as a GDP percentage, is one close to that of Holland, it is 0,89% bigger than the one of Sweden and with 1,84% bigger than that of Denmark. Unfortunately, same as Hungary, Romania has not succeeded to achieve in any year budget excess. However, in 2014, Romania was one of the E.U. member states which had budget excess. The biggest value of Romanian budget deficit, between 2000-2013 was in 2009, and the lowest, in 2004. Concerning the public debt, Romania has reached a percentage of 37, 46% from GDP in 2012, and one of 37,44% from GDP in 2013, reduced by 0,02% from the precedent year. Unlike Romania, Holland's public debt, in 2013, is almost double. Up against Sweden, Romanian public debt is by 0,23% smaller, and regarding Denmark, the Romanian public debt has decreased by 7, 56%.

In what regards our western neighbor, Hungary has a public debt larger than Romania by 76,06%. The Romanian public debt has registered the lowest value in 2000, and the highest in 2013.

Table 1. Romania's Budget deficit, GDP and public debt between 2000-2013

Year	Budget deficit		GDP Millions Euro	Public debt Millions Euro
	Millions Euro	%GDP		
2000	-1.897,30	- 4,65	40.797,20	7.532,80
2001	-1.582,70	-3,47	45.503,50	10.917,20
2002	-973,00	-1,99	48.810,90	10.757,10
2003	-786,20	-1,48	52.931,60	10.309,50
2004	-744,30	-1,21	61.404,50	11.768,70
2005	-923,60	-1,15	80.225,60	12.397,60
2006	-2.186,60	-2,22	98.418,60	12.585,60
2007	-3.632,50	-2,89	125.403,40	14.763,00
2008	-7.940,60	-5,57	142.396,30	17.158,60
2009	-10.677,30	-8,86	120.409,20	27.970,50
2010	-8.424,10	-6,64	126.746,40	37.451,20
2011	-7.288,70	-5,46	133.305,90	44.688,30
2012	-3.973,30	-2,96	133.806,10	50.128,60
2013	-3.224,00	-2,23	144.664,40	54.170,00

Source: Eurostat

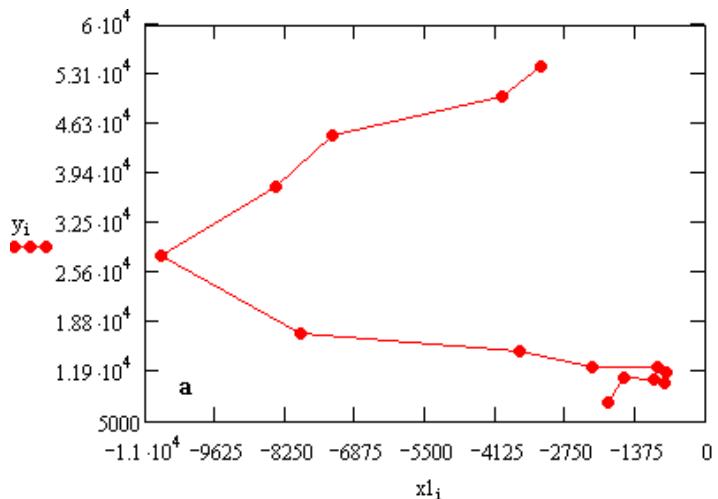


Figure 1. Dependence graphic between Romania's public debt and budget deficit

Source: Author processing

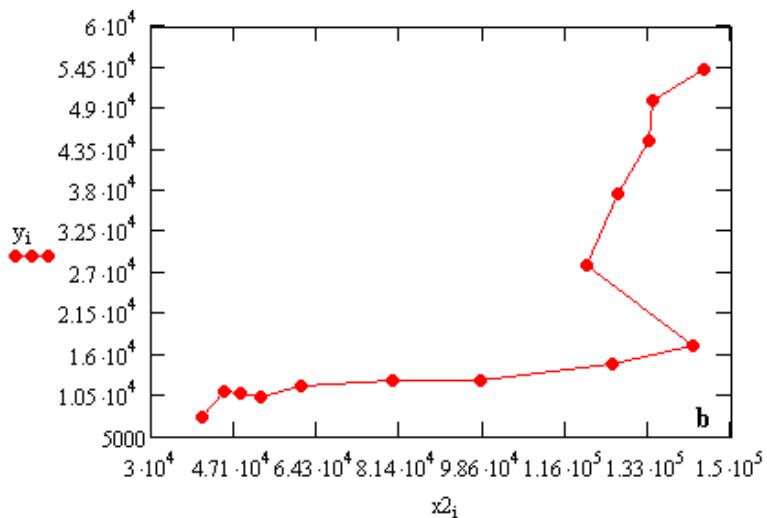


Figure 2. Dependence graphic between Romania's public debt and its GDP
Source: Author processing

From Figure 1 and Figure 2 it can be observed that the relation which settles the link between dependent variable Y (public debt) and the independent variable X_1 (budget deficit), respectively the independent variable X_2 (GDP), it is one nonlinear which determines the utilization of a nonlinear regression

model. Also, it can be observed that the analyzed it is a MISO type model (more entry variables and only one output variable).

The dependence analysis between the three variables is realized with the help of an **ARX** type model, because this model brings the best results to approximate the data series of the three variables which come between the model's frames. The **ARX** model parameters will be determined with the help of least squares method (LSM), using EViews program. The **ARX** model is described in this case, by the following equation:

$$y_t = c_1 \cdot y_{t-1} + c_2 \cdot y_{t-2} + c_3 \cdot y_{t-3} + c_4 \cdot y_{t-4} + c_5 \cdot (x_1)_{t-1} + c_6 \cdot (x_1)_{t-2} + \\ + c_7 \cdot (x_2)_{t-1} + c_8 \cdot (x_2)_{t-2} + c_9 \cdot (x_2)_{t-3} + e_t \quad (1.1)$$

The **ARX** model parameters (**4, 2, 3, 1**), c_1, c_2, \dots, c_9 will be determined with the help of least square method. The values of these coefficients are:

$$c_1 = -0,109066; c_2 = 0,9800226; c_3 = -0,5197041; \\ c_4 = 0,4891018; c_5 = -2,269792; c_6 = -0,165641; \\ c_7 = -0,0511268; c_8 = -0,0433414; c_9 = 0,03357105 \quad (1.2)$$

Table 2. The estimated values of the ARX model parameters (4,2,3,1)

Dependent Variable: Y Method: Least Squares Date: 05/28/15 Time: 15:16 Sample (adjusted): 2004 2013 Included observations: 10 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Y(-1)	0.602113	0.455258	1.322576	0.4121
Y(-2)	0.137983	0.242420	0.568777	0.6708
Y(-3)	-0.519704	0.364915	-1.424180	0.3897
Y(-4)	0.462543	0.308675	1.498477	0.3746
X1(-1)	-0.080853	0.476413	-0.169713	0.8930
X1(-2)	-0.600425	0.573896	-1.046226	0.4856
X2(-1)	0.105393	0.123902	0.850623	0.5513
X2(-2)	0.360313	0.137108	2.627954	0.2315
X2(-3)	-0.228304	0.229695	-0.993944	0.5019
R-squared	0.996486	Mean dependent var	68515.25	
Adjusted R-squared	0.968371	S.D. dependent var	10232.86	
S.E. of regression	1819.858	Akaike info criterion	17.34832	
Sum squared resid	3311882.	Schwarz criterion	17.62065	
Log likelihood	-77.74160	Hannan-Quinn criter.	17.04958	
Durbin-Watson stat	2.931724			

Source: Author processing

For seeing how strong the link between the analyzed variables is, we calculated the R correlation report. After the conducted calculations we obtain the value of R 0,998241. The R value close to 1 indicates a very strong direct link between public debt, budget deficit and GDP.

From table 2 it can be observed that R-squared is 0, 99. The high value of this indicator demonstrates that the public debt dynamic between 2000-2013 it is well specified through included variables in the models frame.

The standard errors (Std. Error) of the estimated parameters are calculated. These errors are used for the t statistics calculations in order to test the parameters signification. All these are calculated in the t-statistic column as a report between the coefficient and the standard error. Because the associated p values are close to 0 (Prob.), it can be said that the estimators are significant.

On the other hand, in the table there are presented the values of the two criteria: Akaike criterion and Schwartz criterion, these values presenting the fact that the chosen model is a very good one.

2. Five scenario

The **Durbin-Watson** test is applied for verifying the hypotheses through which the residuum series are uncorrelated. The actual value of this statistic

$(DW=2, 931724)$ is compared with the table values of this statistic. In this case, for a significance threshold of 5%, and for a number of 15 observations, the table values of the Durbin-Watson statistic are $d_1=0, 95$ $d_2=1, 54$. Because the test is accomplished, one can conclude that the residuum series are independent.

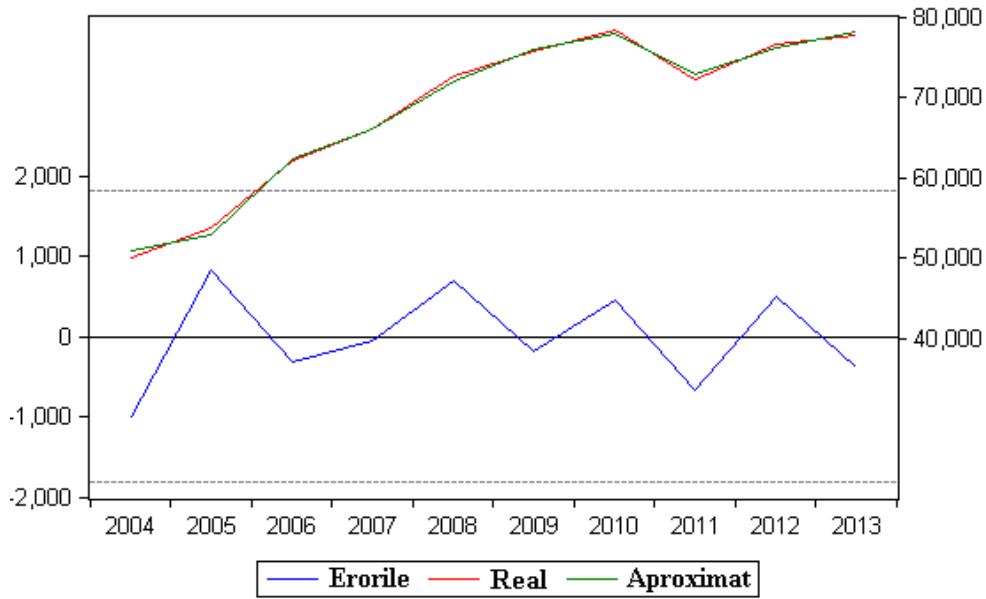


Figure 2. The time variation of the real public debt series for Romania (red), in tandem with the variation in time of the ARX model (green), highlighting the residuum (blue)

Source: Author processing

In figure 2, it is shown a comparison between Romania's public debt variation in time and the ARX model variation in time. As it can be observed in the residuum graphic, the proposed model has a good approximation, the residuum being small enough.

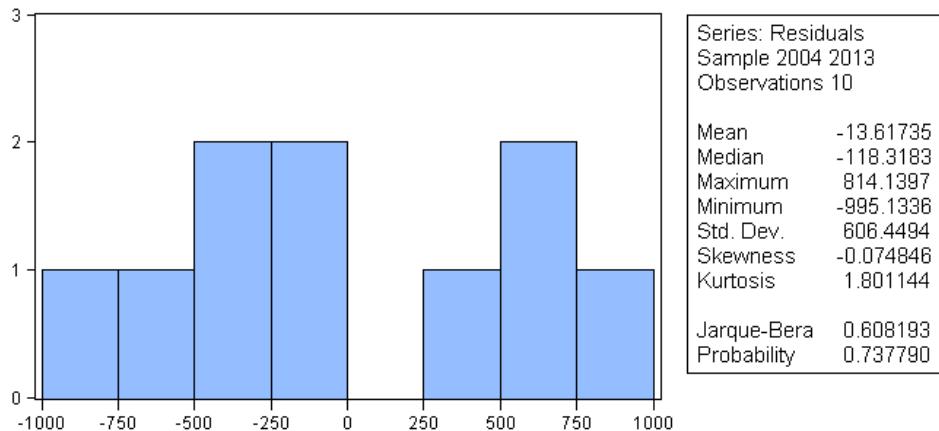


Figure 3. The Histogram and the characteristics of the estimated residuum

Source: Author processing

In order to verify the residuum normality, hypothesis one will be apply the Jarque-Berra test. Utilizing the Eviews programs packet we can ascertain that the calculated value of this statistic is JB = 0,608193. The table value of the statistic χ^2 for a significance threshold of 5% and for a number of 10 observations (see Figure 3), is 3,940. Comparing the calculated value of the Jarque-Berra statistic, with the statistic table value χ^2 , it can be observed that $JB < \chi^2$, that is to say the residuum normality hypothesis is accomplished. Based on the ARX model equation we will analyze if the ascending tendency of a variable implies an ascending tendency, descending or none tendency of the others variables (Spircu & Ciumara, 2007; Stoicuța & Mândrescu, 2012; Voinea, Busu, Opran & Vladutescu, 2015). Based on the obvious link between the model variables, we will realize more scenarios regarding the output variable values from model's frame, depending on the imposed values of the two other values which enter in the model (Duran, 2006; Dima & Man, 2015; Zhuravskaya, M., Morozova, E., Anashkina & Ingaldi, 2016).

In other words, we will study the public debt modification depending on the budget deficit modifications and/or on those of GDP.

Scenario 1: Will be determined the estimated value of the public debt in 2014 based on the data from Table 1, utilizing the ARX model equation (1.1):

$$\begin{aligned} y_{2014} = & c_1 \cdot y_{2013} + c_2 \cdot y_{2012} + c_3 \cdot y_{2011} + c_4 \cdot y_{2010} + c_5 \cdot (x_1)_{2013} + c_6 \cdot (x_1)_{2012} \\ & + c_7 \cdot (x_2)_{2013} + c_8 \cdot (x_2)_{2012} + c_9 \cdot (x_2)_{2011} \end{aligned} \quad (1.3)$$

Based on the data obtained, it can be observed that the public debt in 2014 will be 37.567,39 million euro given that the budget deficit in 2013 represents 2,23% of GDP, and the GDP is 144.664,40 million euro.

Scenario 2: Will be determined the estimated value of the public debt for 2014 based on the data from Table 1, using the ARX model equation (1.1), given that the budget deficit in 2013 will decrease with 1% from GDP, that is 3.182,6 million euro, and the GDP will remain unchanged.

Based on the relation (1.3), we will obtain a public debt value of 37.483,63 million euro. It can easily be observed that the Romanian public debt for 2014, is decreasing by 0,22% (comparing with the obtained value in the first scenario), given that the GDP remains unchanged for the precedent year, and budget deficit decreases with 1%.

Scenario 3: Will be determined the estimated value of the public debt for 2014 based on the Table 1 data, utilizing the ARX model equation (1.1), given that the budget deficit in 2013 will remain unchanged, and the GDP will grow with 10%.

In the specified conditions in this scenario, the public debt of Romania will decrease at 36.827,7 million euro, that said with 1,97% comparing with the estimated value in the first scenario. One can conclude that along with the GDP growth with a certain percentage (10% in this case), the public debt of Romania will decrease, given that the budget deficit does not change. This conclusion is correct from an economic perspective, the GDP growth leading to public debt decrease, when it is desired.

Scenario 4: Will be determined the estimated value of the public debt in 2014 based on the Table 1 data, utilizing the ARX model equation (1.1), given that the budget deficit in 2013 will grow with 1% from GDP, and the GDP will grow by 10%.

From this relation (1.3), given the specified conditions in this scenario, we will obtain a public debt value of 36900, 96 million euro. It can be observed that at a budget deficit growth of 1% from GDP, and at a GDP growth of 10%, this does not lead to a public debt decrease but at a growth of it by 0,19% from the obtained value in the precedent scenario. Practically, if the deficit grows with the GDP's growth, but in a smaller percentage, the public debt decreases compared with the estimated value in the frame of the first scenario, but grows compared with the obtained value in the Scenario 3, where only the GDP grows with 10%.

Scenario 5: Will be determined the estimated value of the public debt for 2014 based on the Table 1 data, using the ARX model equation (1.1), given that the budget deficit in 2013 will grow with 1% from GDP, and the GDP will decrease by 2%.

Based on this relation (1.3), we will obtain a public debt value of 37.492,33 million euro. In this case, it can be observed that public debt value is close to the obtained value in the scenario 2 (greater by 0, 02%), there where the GDP decreases by one percentage. This growth is owed equally, to budget deficit growth by 1%.

Based on the five scenario analyzed previously, one can conclude that Romania's public debt will decrease given that the Romania's GDP is growing with a certain percentage, and the budget deficit will decrease with a certain percentage. From an economic perspective this conclusion is the most plausible, given that it is desired a decrease of the public debt. But, on the other hand, a public debt decrease does not signify a higher standard of living or a life improvement (Ristea & Trandafir, 2005; Văcărel, 2007; Moșteanu, 2011).

3. Conclusions

In this article is presented the dependence analysis between Romania's public debt through a period of 14 years, and its budget deficit and GDP. As a result of this analysis, as also from the proposed scenarios previously, regarding the managing way of the public debt level for Romania, it is observed that, depending on the government's complaints to grow or to decrease the public debt, this is not reflected in the living standard growth for the Romania's population. We can observe this from the situation review of some countries, where the public debt is very large comparing with the one in Romania, but the living standard/capita it is much higher than in our country. In other words, the Romania's public debt must be kept under control, first for respecting the imposed normative through the Growth and Stability Pact (GSP) of E.U., through which the budget deficit cannot exceed 3% from GDP, and its public debt cannot exceed 60% from GDP, and second along with the growth of GDP and the decrease of budget deficit, this can be reduced from year to year.

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Methods of Rehabilitation of the Power Plant Settling Ponds Paroseni

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Abstract

One of the environmental problems caused by Thermal Power plants in Romania is the waste generated from the combustion of fossil fuels. The ash produced from the combustion process is stored in settling ponds associated to the plants. Paroseni Thermal Plant ash is deposited in tailings ponds of Caprișoara Valley. Upon completion of these tailing ponds, they have to be rehabilitated and reintroduced in the natural cycle. In this paper we present some natural methods of rehabilitation of tailing pounds and reintroduction of them in natural circuit by re-cultivation.

Keywords: rehabilitation, thermal power plant, ash

1. Introduction

The main source of electricity generation is represented by Thermal Power Plants which operate with coal as fuel base (Fodor & Lazăr, 2006; Fodor, 2008). About 23% of the electricity used is produced from burning coal in power plants (figure 1).

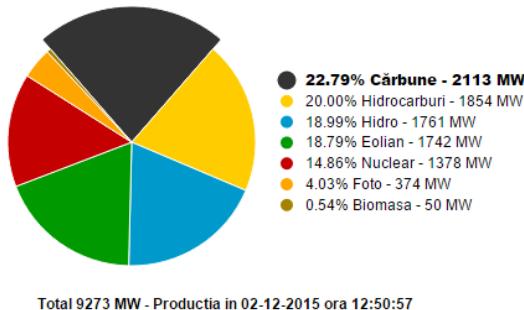


Fig. 1 – Instant consumption in Romania

In Romania there are several Thermal Power Plants, and among them is also Thermal Power Plants Paroseni.

Thermal Power Plan Paroseni is a cogeneration power plant supplying heat and power generation. [3] Works with coal as fuel base and provide heat for the residents of the four mining towns in the area, namely: Petrosani, Vulcan, Lupeni and Aninoasa.

For the electricity production, as the primary energy source, the Thermal Power Plant Paroseni, is using solid fuels, coal base from the Jiu Valley.

Solid fuels, in addition to fuel, contain more sterile, which will be found after the combustion process in the form of slag and ash.

In of Thermal Power Plant Paroseni, ashes from the burning of coal is accumulated and transported hydraulically and deposited in ponds associated to the plant.

Paroseni Thermal Power Administration has in administration several tailings, slag and ash ponds derived from burning coal. Part of tailings ponds is decommissioned and some are operational. At the moment it is functional emergency pond and one of tailing ponds Caprișoara Valley (figure 2).



Fig. 2 - Caprișoara Valley pond

Upon completion of deposition ponds they should be rehabilitated and reintroduced in natural circuit for lowering the level of environmental pollution.

2. Theoretical Considerations

Ponds of Thermal Power stations are a major source of pollution.

Due to very fine particles of slag and ash, they are carried by wind. To reduce air pollution levels they have to be rehabilitated and reintroduced in natural circuit (Petrilean, Irimie, Băleanu & Stănilă, 2014).

Need of redevelopment of areas affected by ponds is given by the following factors:

- improvement of environment by reducing air pollution
- elimination of negative visual impact
- the need to reintegrate these land surface into production or ecological region that are leading to a potential economic regeneration of the area [2].

Choosing a green reuse depends on available resources, and the attitude of the owners and the local community. Depending on the distance to the local community, he's requests, technical possibilities, we can distinguish some types of reuses, such as:

- naturalistic recovery;
- recreational and leisure recovery;
- productive recovery;
- residential recovery;
- cultural recovery;

- other recoveries (Fodor, 2008).

Due to the location of ponds of the Thermal Plant Paroseni, the best ways to rehabilitate of ponds is the naturalistic recovery or productive recovery.

Naturalistic recovery comprises all reuses aimed at adapting to the most generous ecosystem that must be within the affected area (Dima & Man, 2015)

. Naturalist recovery is a recovery that is used both in mountain areas and in places away from urban areas.

Production recovery involves the use of land for crops or fruit trees and vines.

3. Results and discussion

To set the reintroduction to natural circuit of the tailings ponds of the Thermal Power plant Paroseni, we conducted a study on two specific types of vegetation: lawn grass – for the naturalistic recovery, and wheat - for the production recovery.

In this study we used wheat and grass seeds that were planted in the ashes taken from the tailings pond of Thermal Power Plant Paroseni. To have the control plants, these were sown in gardening soil.

Wheat and grass samples were watered with spring water at room temperature and one of sample from each plant for each soil were helped with complex fertilizers. The conditions of temperature, humidity and light were identical and watering was done once every 3 days with 120 ml of water.

In figure 3 is observed increasing wheat support of fly ash compared to natural growth in garden soil.



Wheat in ashes



Wheat



Grass in ashes



Grass

Fig.3 - Germination of wheat and grass

Germination of wheat grain was more pronounced in the case of wheat sown in the garden soil, in comparison with the wheat grain sown in the ashes. Although humidity of ash was higher due to small granulation that retains water, germination was lower due to soil radioactivity. A similar effect occurred and on the grass seed.

During the growth and development of the studied plants may be seen influence of the lack of biological natural nutrients of the ash. Plants grown in the ashes from the ponds of Thermal Power Plant Paroseni are short and thin, reduced vegetal mass compared to those grown in garden soil (fig. 4).



Wheat



Grass

Figure 4 - Plant growth and development



Fig. 5 - Germination of wheat and grass in the presence of complex fertilizer

In Figure 6 you can see the growth and development of wheat and grass vegetation in the two supports used, but this time being used complex fertilizer.

Due to nutrient inputs from fertilizer, may be observed a difference in mass of plant produced during plant growth and development. In the same time we observe that wheat grown on sterile this time, has a thickness comparable to that of wheat grown in garden soil but without fertilizer.



Wheat

Grass

Fig. 6 - Germination of wheat and grass in the presence of complex fertilizer

From studies conducted in the laboratory it can be seen that the two types of plants can grow in support of ash from the ash ponds of the Thermal Power Plant Paroseni, but for better development is necessary that the soil be helped a complex of fertilizers to compensate lack of nutrients.

The analysis of rehabilitation of the tailings ponds of the power plant can be achieved both by: naturalistic recovery and productive recovery (Mangra & Dumitru, 2015; Šoltés & Nováková, 2016; Paget, Daniell, Rubio Zuazo & Barreteau, 2016).

4. Conclusions

Ponds of the Thermal Power Plant Paroseni is a source of pollution and demands rehabilitation measures and reintroduction in natural circuit after completion of the deposition of ash and slag.

For reintroduction in natural circuit tailings ponds, we have proposed two methods, namely naturalist and productive recovery.

The plants used in the experiment is wheat for the productive recovery and grass that was for naturalistic recovery, and for better growth and development is required to be helped with a complex fertilizers.

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The Relation of Managerial Communication - Public Management Conflicts and Crisis

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Abstract. Being a basic function of management, communication is a process of transforming the information as symbolic messages between two or several individuals, some with the status of transmitter and others with the status of receiver, by means of some specific channels. Over time, the concept of communication has experienced several very different meanings. In literature, the exact meaning of the concept of communication is still the topic of some lively debates, and the perspectives addressed and the methods are particularly varied.

Keywords: organizational communication, public administration, managerial communication, conflict situations, crisis management.

1. Theoretical considerations

The concept of communication has not been rigorously defined, but rather approximated from different angles. The etymology of the word “communication” originates from the Latin word “communis”, which can mean contact, relationship, connection, news, although the term circulated in the ancient vocabulary with the meaning of “also transmitting to others”, “to share something with the others”.

In 1949, the mathematicians Shannon and Weaver published in “*The Mathematical Theory of Communication*” an elementary model of communications, a model that subsequently generated a strong influence on the analysis of human communication. According to the model they elaborated, a communication process is performed according to a scheme (Fig. 1). In essence, the model they proposed includes three fundamental elements: an emitter (speaker, transmitter) that emits messages; a receiver (listener) that receives messages; the messages, which are distinct and ordered structures of signs that bear meanings, are formed of the elements of a code that is common to the two partners who communicate.

The paper “*Introduction to Management*” of Malcom Peel provides a more complete scheme, compared to his predecessors. Thus, any act of communication has six elements: the emitter, the message, the means of communication, the language, the receiver, the context. For human communication, these representations emphasise that, alternatively, the emitter and the receiver change their functions. According to this theory, the context is an adjacent component, but it can influence greatly the quality of the communication. He refers to space, time, mental state, interferences of noises, temperatures, visual images that can distract the attention, cause disruptions, confusions.

The communication channels are the routes whereby the messages circulate, and the means of communication are the technical support of the process. The language is another component of the communication process. One should note that the fact that the spoken language and the written one are not exactly the same language, in relation to this element. In addition, other possible “languages” can be visual images of any kind (a diagram, a drawing, a graph are more efficient than words), etc.

Frederick Cohen proposes a definition of communication in his book “*Protection and Security on the Information Superhighway*”, which exceeds the simple exchange of messages, namely: “a process by which a source of information A influences on the receiver of information B in a manner able to cause thereto the occurrence of some actions or feelings, which allow a

regularisation of the activities of B or of the group which A and B belong to. In a broad sense, by communication, we understand the “change of messages between two or several people, within an organisation, in order to achieve the objectives”, or more simply, a “a change of messages between an emitter (E) and a receiver (R)”.

When we think of communication, the very general meaning refers to a possible or real reaction between two or more individuals (elements, units, systems) between whom a change occurs, be it in substance, energy or meaning and a sense that implicitly involves the change of parameters under the intrinsic action of the very change.

people, achieved in articulated language or by other codes, in order to transmit an information, obtain stability or some changes of individual or group behaviour (Bandler & Grinder, 1982; Dahrendorf, 1996; Carnall, 2007, Dumitru, Avram & Siminică, 2015).

Therefore, communication is people's ability to transform the meaningless words into spoken and written words, by which they are able to make the needs, desires, ideas and feelings known. People who understand the process of communication have greater control on the changes and less failures.

Thus, one may conclude that almost every problem, every conflict or each misunderstanding is based on a problem of communication, generated by the violation or incorrect administration of the aforementioned elements.

Human communication operates with a complex set of stimuli, configured broadly of the following three large categories of language: *verbal* language, meaning the articulated speech and meaning transmitted by the words of a language; the *paraverbal* language, which is the meanings beyond the words, the entire luggage of stimuli and signals transmitted by the tone, volume and rhythm of the voice; the *body* language, meaning the entire complex of stimuli and signals transmitted by posture, physiognomy, mimics, gestures, looks and distances.

There are many forms of communication. Depending on various criteria, there are: *the form of communication* exists, verbal communication, written communication, non-verbal communication; *the way of conduct*, we distinguish the direct communication and indirect (mediated) communication; *the number of individuals participating in the communication process*, there is intrapersonal communication (communication to the self), interpersonal communication (with others), group communication, mass communication (through specialised institutions, with general addressability) or global communication; *the direction* in which it is conducted, we distinguish vertical communication (ascending or descending), horizontal communication or oblique communication; *its*

objectives exist incidental communication (without a well set purpose), consumer communication (consequence of emotional states), instrumental communication (when a precise purpose is pursued); the *hierarchical position in the organisation*, we identify the ascending communication (with the superiors), descending communication (with the subordinates), horizontal communication (the emitter and the receiver have equal positions); *frequency of communication* can be a permanent communication, periodical communication or occasional communication; the *status of individuals or the position of the institutions involved* can be an official or a non-official communication; *importance*, we can identify communication at reduced level, average communication or strategic communication; *the reference area* can be political communication, economic communication, social communication, cultural communication; *territory* can be local communication, regional communication, national communication, international communication.

The communications at the level of the organisation can be: *external communication*: with the economic and financial partners (with the suppliers of raw materials, services, capitals – banks, customers, competitors, etc.); with social partners (trade unions, associations and various organisations, local communities and public opinion), with political partners (local administration, political parties, central power), with the press; *internal communication*: with subordinates, superiors, managers of other departments.

Non-verbal communication involves the use of means other than the language (for writing) or the voice. The following are included into this category: *kinetic communication*, by body motion, such as: posture, gestures, facial expressions, look, etc.; *object communication*; *colour communication*, etc.

Paraverbal communication refers to: tone of voice (to support/ reinforce the verbal message, to contradict the message, to distort the message, to replace the message); the speed of speech and inflections of utterance; the intensity, volume of voice, pauses, emphases; other sounds produced (onomatopoeia, groan, grumble, sigh, laughter).

Paraverbal communication supports the verbal message and shows the nature of the relationships between the sender and the receiver. It can also be used to differentiate the meaning of the words.

According to Albert Mehrabian, specialist in body language and non-verbal communication, the share of the three ways of transmitting the messages is as follows: words would be only 7% of communication, the rest being the tone of voice - 38% and body language - 55%.

Many specialists believe that for the internal and external communication activities carried out by an institution, terms like “business communication” and “public affairs” can be used.

According to Stephen D. Bruning and John A. Ledingham, many researchers of recent training perceive the communication as a function to elaborate policies within the institution. These professionals use the term of “public affairs” to broaden the spectrum of communication, also including here the interaction with the governmental groups or structures, which leads to formulating public policies.

According to Grunig and Hunt, communication in an institution is “the interaction between an organisation and its publics, be they internal or external”.

Organisational communication is usually an intentional process of message exchange between people, groups and organisational levels within the organisation, with the aim to accomplish both the individual and collective objectives.

It is essential that within the organisation, some efficient communication would be achieved, which “appears when the right people receive the right information on time”.

The organisational functions of communication are as follows: *control* – to clarify the duties, to establish the authority and responsibilities; *information* – to provide the basis for decisions; *coordination* – to make the efficient common action possible; *motivation* – to stimulate the cooperation and involvement in reaching the objectives; *emotional* – to allow the expression of the feelings, etc. The complexity of communication, its purposes, objectives and implications imposed a number of particularities to the managerial communication (compared to the communication in other fields such as journalism, arts, medicine, etc.), which should meet a number of rules required by the managerial culture and policy of the organisation.

Managerial communication is a fundamental process of mutual interaction based on feedback, in which managers from any level transmit to their subordinates ideas, feelings, decisions, with the possibility to verify the manner in which they receive the message. It influences and changes the perceptions, attitudes, behaviours, feelings, opinions of individuals and groups and therefore it is a way by which people synergistically correlate their efforts.

In this complex and continuous process of communication, both the managers and subordinates “discover themselves and converse, calm down and incite, disagree and agree, reject or accept each other both in major and current problems of the organisation.

Bell, R.L., & Martin, J. define the managerial communication as being the “exchange of information on the lower level, horizontal level and superior level and the transmission of a content via informal and formal channels, which enable the managers to meet their objectives”.

Managerial communication is therefore the decisive tools by means of which a manager fulfils their responsibilities and duties and it requires skills and abilities relevant to their role in the organisation and in relation to the business/ working partners.

The efficient management of the communication process when one should act as a contact person who ensures the interpersonal communication with the employees in the organisation, as well as with the business partners, generally with the partners outside the institution, is a serious responsibility for a manager. The effective and efficient managerial communication is a factor of competitiveness, a strategic advantage of the institution, because it can positively contribute to increasing employees' morale and the profile and reputation of the institution.

Managerial communication acts as an integrating factor of the relations within the institution, as well as of the relations outside it, with the business partners, aiming to harmonise the interests and create the prerequisites necessary to achieve the objectives. The competitive institutions understood this and promoted the abilities and skills of communication as philosophy assumed by the management and by the whole team. In many such companies, communication is considered to be (and is used as such) one of the most valuable tools of management strategies. At the opposite pole, the faulty transmission of information, the communication errors and lack of transparency and honesty most often lead to the failure of the organisation.

The purposes of the managerial communication are closely related to the overall objectives of the organisation: information, control and training, influence and persuasion, guidance and counselling, integration and maintenance. The manager makes the information circulate, which is useful to achieve these objectives, coordinates the intermediary sources of communication, makes it possible for the useful information to arrive at the right time and at the right person, uses the information in order to make clear the purposes of the institution for employees, to co-interest them and create the satisfaction of reaching the goals for them.

In many of the institutions in the advanced economies, the trend of organisational structure decentralisation and switching from that performed vertically to that performed horizontally are currently observed; there is a tendency to adopt the TQM principles, the idea of empowerment and

involvement of employees and teamwork. The efficient internal communication becomes a key element of the organisation's strategy because: communication must occur also take place by other means; communication must operate at emotionally rather than intellectually.

II. Specificity of Managerial Communication in Public Administration

The concept of public administration has its source within the state, Aristotle distinguished three forms for expressing the power: the legislative, executive and judicial power. With the emergence of Enlightenment, some practical relevance of the differentiation of state power forms was also gained. Administration thus became a component of the executive power, being separated from the legislative and judicial powers. At the same time, the "government" had no more room to be an independent source of power, getting the role of leadership, managerial role within the state, belonging to the field of administration.

Thus, in the organisational sense, public administration includes all the institutions that achieve administrative activities in order to satisfy the public interest.

Managers in the public sector face four major constraints compared to the private sector: a more complicated and unstable environment, legislative and formal restrictions, more rigid procedures, more diverse services and objectives. These constraints involve the fact that the public institutions that communicate about policies and actions in this regard face specific communication problems, like the interference of the press, the need for a democratic communication, time and budget constraints, as well as supporting the teams of the institutions, their dedication for supporting the mission and achieving the objectives.

A great variety of the sources of internal communication and the lack of support for the central message issued by the manager of the public institution can lead to an external fragmented or even contradictory manifestations, generating true situations of crisis for the institution. Lately, the organisations, as collective actors, seem to have become aware of the dangers of a fragmented communication, therefore they make efforts for a better coherence of all forms of internal and external communication.

The importance of communication within the institution continues to be difficult to perceive or understand, particularly in the public structures with strongly outdated mentalities, while the authoritarian management continues to be implemented in institutions, without a mature strategy of human resources (Bogathy, 1999; Bogathy, 2002; Glasl, 2011; Basic, 2016; Motoi, 2016).

The quality of the services provided by the public administration is for the citizen a consequence of people's quality and of the way of working inside the institution.

The managers of public institutions transmit messages and receive feedback regarding the performance of the institution. They are responsible for the growth of governmental institutions and agencies, ensuring that those customers of the institution receive the best services. There is no doubt that managers are an important value for public institutions. Thus, those that are not able to appreciate their vital role will face the consequences of weak performances and depopulation of the institution by talented employees.

Brewer is one of the specialists who observed that managers play a key role in the performance and efficiency of the institution, and the supervision management is a determinant tool for the high performance of the organisations in the public sector. In developed countries, they cannot afford to lose valuable labour force, so that they tend to hire proficient managers who would inspire the employees, providing them with the favourable context for the development of personal contributions in the service of the organisation and citizens.

Riccucci specified that good policies and laws definitely motivate the employees to reach the desired goals in any institution. Moreover, an optimistic approach to the coordination and supervision of employees helps to mobilise and energise the employees following an open communication and placing themselves above the rules and laws that affect the way in which managers supervise the subordinates.

Public institutions must rely on its managers' ability to act correctly. Special emphasis should be placed on the role of managers as an important tool to establish connections between (upper and lower) levels vertically and horizontally and top management, other managers and respectively employees. The managers in the public sectors should receive the necessary authority, responsibility and necessary level of training due to their optimistic and constructive roles to monitor the employees in the state institutions. Moreover, the expectations are that they could induce among the employees that state of wilful mobilisation to contribute to the organisational growth of the institution.

Managers need to appreciate that the authority indirectly resides in the employees' perception.

Managers have the de facto power, but the employees have the de jure power. Wisely using the authority helps to gain employees' trust without pressure. It is desirable that employees would be given the authority and power of decision required to train for a potential role at a higher level of management. Thus, employees contribute to improving the performance of those institutions.

Communication in public institutions is a bilateral process that involves both the transmission of orders, information and advice to a decision centre (meaning an individual vested with the responsibility for taking decisions) and the transmission of the taken decisions from this centre to other parts of the institution. Moreover, it is a process that occurs upwards, downwards and sideways in the institution.

The organisational communication can be: *formal* (achieved on channels imposed by the structure of the organisation, by the existing rules and functional relations between people, groups, departments) and is mainly related to the joint activity; *informal* (information not directly related to the activity, with a strong emotional touch), the channels used are others than the formal ones, the rules of communication are less strict. The formal and informal communication networks coexist and sometimes interfering, in the sense that the informal ones can block the circulation of the information in the formal network, can distort it depending on the relations and interests of those involved or, on the contrary, can flex and improve the formal communication.

Depending on the nature, purpose and content of messages, form of presentation, communication can be: *written communication* used in the institution in the case of messages that must last in time, every time forgetting must be prevented or the responsibility set in an unequivocal manner; *oral communication* is faster and causes an increased satisfaction, but in the case of some standard messages (instructions, regulations, rules, reports), the written one is more suitable, both for the possibility of a faster and more uniform distribution and for it can be more useful in establishing the responsibilities in cases of dispute.

Institutional communication is an extra-organisational communication by which the institution in the public administration aims to strengthen its image, attract around it a confidence and sympathetic climate from citizens.

The external communication of the public institution contributes to its notoriety and image.

Thus, it also fulfils the function of promoting the public institution of the state and administrative-territorial units.

The communication with the role of promotion is in fact a special case, because although the literature considers it without exception, as part of the external communication, it is conducted unilaterally, from the public institution to its external environment. In this situation, the members of the public body are no longer those who maintain the connection with the outside, but the organisation as institution. It gives information on the services it provides, tries

to improve the overall image or it simply wants to make its values known and promote them.

By its very nature, public administration depends on: the communication between the various levels of the public administration; the communication on the same level; the communication between the administration and the social executive office; the communication between the administration and political authority; the communication in the social environment.

It becomes increasingly more important both for the administration and for its customers – the taxpayers, citizens, groups of interests, political authority – the development of the communication channels with the business environment.

The public administration institutions seek to obtain a relation of proximity with the citizen, by means of communication; by coming closer to them and entering into dialogue, they get to know their requirements and grievances

(Badea, 2008; Cerban, 2011; Strechie, 2015).

Observing and implementing the principles and rules of efficient communication have to do with managers' personality, the specificity of the moment, as well as with the type of the communication strategy they adopt.

The following communication strategies can be practiced: *the control strategy* – used especially in emergency situations, when the manager expresses their full authority, imposing severe restrictions; *the structuring strategy* – used in the process of restructuration, complex organisation and modernisation, planning for ensuring the order and discipline by information, guidance and persuasion; *the dynamic strategy* – successfully practiced in allied environments in rapid change, is oriented towards immediate activities; *participatory strategy* – characterised by bilateral transfer of information with mutual influence, ensuring the decision making by consensus; *the acceptance strategy* – aims at accepting the opinion of the partner who was asked to advise the manager; *the avoidance strategy* – accepted only in special situations that impose restrictions in providing information (Farnham & Horton, 1993; Dima & Vladutescu, 2012; Ioana, 2014).

Choosing the communication strategy at each moment of evolution of the public institution and its implementation depending on the actual conditions is the manager's responsibility, who must use it with maximum efficiency in reaching the goals set.

Taking into account the specificity of the public domain, the following types of communication are known in public administration:

Interpersonal communication in public administration

One of difficulties of performing an efficient communication process is generated by the *cognitive dissonance*, which involves the selection of the information sources in accordance with the own convictions of the entities involved in transmitting or receiving the message communicated.

The phenomenon of cognitive dissonance is very common in public administration. Thus, when a group is formed to discuss various problems, we observe that, from the heads of departments to ministries, to general managers, to secretaries of state, etc., everyone finds the group where the others have the same vision of problems. When the meeting begins and the members of the group express their personal opinions, they hear their own points of view presented in different words and leave being reinforced in their initial convictions, which are similar to those of others.

Moreover, a psychological mechanism is also manifested among public officials, a mechanism acting in the sense of rejection and distortion of information and realities that are inconsistent with their own convictions.

Situations where the official gives the impression to listen are encountered frequently, although in reality he/ she does *not* pay attention. They are just polite, remaining calm until it is their turn to speak, a time when they review their own arguments. Their answer is almost entirely inappropriate with what the previous speaker said, fully ignoring the points of view expressed by the citizen. Therefore, such obvious rejection gives rise to a real problem of communication and must be recognised as such;

- External communication of public administration

Being under a permanent and direct contact with the social environment, the public institution faces sensitive situations generated by this and tries to respond to them by organisationally initiating some approaches oriented to changes, transformations, rebalancing (Bozeman & Straussman, 1990; Binney, 1992; Teodorescu & Bușu, 2015; Hart, 2016). On the other hand, any transformation or change is felt also on the outside, in its turn, the administration influencing and shaping the social environment. Within the processes of external communication of public administration, it is possible to appear *communication barriers*: between the various institutions of the public administration, due to the high level of specialisation of each one of them, to not giving the proper importance to the collaboration between institutions; between the public administration and citizens:

- Communication between the public institution and citizens

In all their activity, public authorities must aim to satisfy the general interest of the population, and the institutions of the public administration are

bound to get closer to the members of local communities and maintain a permanent contact with them. In this regard, the public administration must communicate, be open to dialogue, respect and consider the citizen.

The institutions of the public administration use the communication in the actions undertaken or in the relations they establish.

Public communication is the form of communication that accompanies the activity of the public institutions in order to satisfy the general interest. The messages transmitted include information of public utility. Thus, the public communication must inform the citizens on the existence of the institutions in the public sector, way of operation and their attributions, legality and opportunity of decisions adopted. By public communication, it is also aimed to know the needs and desires of the population so that public institutions, through the role and attributions they have, would come to meet them, thus achieving a general interest.

Public communication has the role to convince that through the institutional policies achieved, as well as through the public decisions adopted, a general interest is pursued, thus obtaining the adhesion of citizens.

By internal communication, the personnel is continuously informed on all that goes on in the public institution. Internal communication plays an important role also in the terms of training and motivating the personnel, thus contributing to the achievement of the quality of the performances and to a better satisfaction of citizens' needs and demands. Public institutions may use a wide range of techniques and means of communication, such as: publications, specialised brochures, display, TV channels, the press;

- Communication between the public official and the citizen

In the process of communication, the public official – citizens relationship is a substance of the action of public administration. The communicational units, respectively the public official (as emitter) and the citizen (as receiver of messages) have clear objectives: the emitter aims to inform, to convince, to instruct, to capture the interest, to be efficient, and the receiver shall endeavour to *be* attentive, to understand, to retain.

Communication with citizens is achieved by: exposures, activities of informing, debates, sessions of communications, investigation programs, cultural-educative activities, participation in competitions, own publications, billboards, transmission of various information through written or oral ways to and from the management and specialised structures of the public administration institutions. Communication is absolutely essential for organisation. It is obvious that without communication there can be no organisation, because then there is no possibility for the group to influence the

individual's behaviour. In addition, the availability of certain techniques of communication will broadly determine the way in which the functions of decision-making can and must be distributed in the institution.

In terms of the legislation in force, public institutions have the responsibility to inform the citizens (accurate and simple information), to have an audience with them and consult them on the issues that concern them.

The role of communication in manager's activity is special because managerial communication includes complex issues related not only to processes of internal communication, with the employees, but also to the external communication, with the suppliers, the investors, etc. Thus, communication is motivated by the following needs within the institution: to set the objectives and achieve the consistency with the organisational structure; to establish and maintain the relationships among the employees; to develop fair and efficient relationships of mutual understanding and acceptance among heads and subordinates, colleagues, individuals inside and outside the organisation; to express the transparency in the decision-making system; to create the internal and external credibility of the organisations; to change the perception of investors towards the organisation; to develop partnerships with the trade unions, etc.

Communication is involved in almost all aspects of managers' work. It serves as a facilitator of managerial actions. Communication tends to influence or change the perceptions, behaviours, feelings, people's opinions, all the activities that include the human factor, using the communication.

Thus, managerial communication does not only have the role of transmitting the messages of information, training, persuasion or motivation. It becomes a dynamic and independent force, which is shaped by the environment where it operates. The communication system creates powerful tools to continuously adjust the institution's structure and processes to the continuously changing conditions. Managers' basic role becomes that of developing and maintaining alive the communication system, meant to support the implementation of the institution's strategy, of the organisation's "nervous system" and "body". The need to improve the manager's skills of both interpersonal and group communication inside as well as outside the organisation resulted from here.

As a general rule, managers in the helm of the organisation are required to develop the best possible working relationships with the teams they manage, providing them a comfortable working environment and applying solutions to rapidly solve the problems that could be obstacles in obtaining performances. The success in management decisively depends on the manager's ability to

communicate. In this regard, managerial communication is correlated with the inspirational leadership role of management, creating an organisational atmosphere that encourages the exceptional efforts, high commitments, intellectual stimulation and acceptance of risks.

In essence, the leadership in an organisation involves the following roles: to establish a clear vision, to share that vision with the other members of the organisation so that they could follow it voluntarily, to provide information, knowledge and methods in order to fulfil the strategic vision and to coordinate and balance the conflicts of interests between the members of the organisation.

Therefore, the truly efficient managers use managerial communication in order to lead and motivate their teams to perform and reach the objectives and purposes the organisation sets.

As form of inter-human communication, managerial communication has certain particularities imposed not only by the purpose, objectives and its role, but also by the organisational environment and organisation structure.

Within a public institution, managerial communication can be: *internal managerial communication* which refers to the exchange of messages that occurs within the institution, involving individuals or groups and can be formal and informal. Communication is formal when the messages are transmitted through preset channels and can take the form of, e.g.: reports, notes, circular letters, presentations, meetings. Formal communication is characteristic especially to large institutions, much of the communication activities occurs systematically and in a formalised manner and many times bear specificities related to the profile and purpose of the organisation (Ionescu, 2008; Ionescu, 2013; Negrea, 2013; Cox, 2016). Informal communication is any communication that occurs outside the formal channels of communication. Informal communication includes two main components: the communication that occurs through informal channels created spontaneously and the communication the manager has outside the context of subordination imposed by the organisational structure; the *external managerial communication* is increasingly more accentuated because the operating environment of the institution is characterised nowadays by a high degree of computerisation and by an extremely rapid change. Connecting the institution to this environment is possible only through an efficient and effective external managerial communication. The more rapidly the environment of the institution changes, the more important is the communication conducted constantly, permanently and in every possible way. Outside the institution, the manager communicates with elements from the economic, social and political environment: customers, suppliers, competitors, shareholders, associates, local community, general

public, mass-media, government, parties. The manager must be the connecting link of the institution with this environment in order to provide the guidance of the institution, the process of continuous change and progress. The external managerial communication therefore materialises in the relationships established with those who are linked in any way to the organisation and the public in general. The manager is also the representative of the organisation externally and in representing its interests, they support the creation of the organisation's image.

In public administration, there is a close connection between managerial communication and the styles of management. A leader can use various styles of management to fulfil his/ her role. During the years of study in many groups and organisations, a number of theories of leadership has developed. The "situational leadership" is a very popular and frequently addressed model. It explains that the style a leader chooses depends very much on the group's level of training. In other words, on how cooperating and experienced are in assuming the responsibility as a group. Situational leadership is aware of the fact that the leader must be flexible, and the members of the group are the most important factor.

According to the situational leadership theory, in a group, the appropriate management style depends on the mix between "cooperation and skills". In general, the more cooperative and capable is the group, the more authoritarian and exclusively oriented towards the resolution of tasks should the leader be.

Taking into account the possible situations in public institutions, the following styles of management are known: the style based on the **leader model**, which accurately indicates what is to be done is appropriate when the team members are either new or inexperienced and need major support, guidance and encouragement to solve a task. The connections within the group are not explored to a great extent. This type of leader structures the tasks and guides the members of the group. The leader defines the roles of each member of the group and guides them to what, how, when and where they should perform a task. An important role of the manager in such situations is to reward and encourage; the style based on the **trainer leader model** is applied when the group is more responsible, more experienced and cooperative. The main role of the leader is to assist the members of the group to achieve a task for which they do not have the necessary skills. The leader prepares the members of the group by training the skills necessary for that task, directs and guides if needed, encourage and inspire in order to maintain the attitude of the group; the style based on the **participative leader model** is practiced by the leaders who are

aware that the group has the skills necessary to fulfil the tasks. However, the group can be uncooperative (hesitant, bored, etc.) in order to start or complete the task. In this case, the members of the group and the leader participate together in taking the decisions and brings them together. The leader focuses on the relationships within the group and on the emotions of the individuals within the group. The members feel important when the leader provides them with moral support and encourages them. In this role, the leader is a resource-person, a saviour; the style based on the ***model of the leader who delegates is adopted by*** a leader who will choose to delegate the tasks when the members of the group are also cooperative, but also have the necessary skills to assume the responsibility and guide their decisions. The leader is confident that the group fulfils its tasks, and observes it remotely.

In principle, no model can be appropriate for any situation or occasion. To be a good leader, it is important to thoroughly know the group – where they are in terms of skills, knowledge, desire for cooperation (Iorgulescu & Marcu, 2015).

Taking into account the management style, it is necessary to propose a profile of the efficient public manager. The current crisis of confidence in the governmental structures of Romania after the revolution is growing continuously. The dissatisfaction to the public service is deep and profound and turned into a collective Romanian consensus. The common view is that the government rather create than solve public problems, and that the governmental programs and policies contribute to lowering and *not* to improving the quality of life.

To define the public management and implicitly the public manager, it is important that we understand where the perception comes from, that public management is inefficient by definition. It is however good to also know that while the public sector encounters difficulties in implementing the programs, the private management is not a panacea either. An unsuccessful public program is targeted much more by the press compared to the private sector. The failures of the public sector are more difficult to hide, particularly if the failure involves a subject that is in the public eye, such as public health. Most of the time, the mass-media assumes it is a fraud.

Thus, in a quite hostile environment, the image of the public manager is a “sure recipe for failure”, with the following characteristics thereof: *the insecure bureaucrat* because nowadays, the public manager and the public official in general, suffer from a serious image issue, which is nourished with all kinds of stereotypes such as the profile of an inept bureaucrat, an image reflected particularly in the press and in the anti-governmental rhetoric, *the tool*

of politicians because one of the most serious problems public managers face is the lack of control on setting the objectives. Public managers cannot control their Board of Directors or the forum it that manages them. Unfortunately for the public manager, the interests of elected leaders are difficult to design and most of the times change without prior notice. Because the political interests determine the purposes of the institutions, public managers often face changes of priorities. The most efficient public managers are those who learn to adjust the programs so that they can reflect the change of priorities. Efficient public managers learn to foresee the changes in the policy directions and build an agile organisation able to rapidly change the direction; *a sure recipe for failure*. One reason for the negative perception of public management is the very image of the public manager. Public managers are not isolated from the society. They are the subject of the same symbols and images in the media that bombard the society. The negative image can become a strong self-perception in the mind of the public manager. This may leave room to a psychology of the loser who can monopolise the subject; *the mistake to allow the constraints “to constrain”*. Attitude is an essential factor to influence the success. Instead of mobilising to find a solution, they blame the barrier to be the reason for failure. Any of the issues public managers face can be overcome. Sometimes, the solutions are complicated, but they exist. The passivity of some of the public managers is partly a function of their inability and partly an attribute of the Romanian culture; *the mistake to allow the precaution become inertia*. *Efficient public managers are cautious people, while less efficient public managers are shy people*. *Attentive managers understand that the unprepared actions can have unpredictable consequences. However, it is very easy for precaution to become a generalised paralysis. New projects are often abandoned when managers face negative signals; the mistake to hide behind ambiguity*. The bureaucratic language is recognised as being unintelligible. Public managers learnt to hide their actions behind the elaborate phrases, acronyms, evasive formulations, passive voice. These techniques are used to prevent those outside the system to understand who does what (Gioroceanu, 2015; Ianoş Stănescu, 2015; Sandu, 2016). Unfortunately, some public managers try to hide their incompetence, inaccurate assumptions of responsibility or inaccurate performance indicators behind some vague statements. Managers of this type can create an even better personal image. They can receive many promotions, even if they are undeserved; *the mistake to ignore that people matter*. The last attribute of the “recipe for failure” is that of ignoring that people matter.

Management can be defined as the art of determining people to do things. Efficient management means to determine people to do what is right.

The manager must obtain resources in order to provide incentives. Incentives are used to determine people reach organisational objectives.

III. Involvement of Managerial Communication in Public Management Crisis

Crises have become increasingly more a regular component of the social, political, economic life and of the institutional scene. Most often, a crisis deeply affects the image of the organisation. The management of crises cannot be improvised, but it is based on the correct assessment of the circumstances and mastery of appropriate response strategies, which are prepared and even experienced long before the crisis outbreak.

Thus, the crisis can be defined as any event or circumstance that endangers the continuation of the organisation's activity. Examples of this kind can be financial collapses, epidemics, disasters, accidents, injury of people, to attacks on people's lives.

On other words, crises are complex phenomena that can affect either the whole social assembly, or certain sectors thereof (economic life, political system, international relations, financial and banking systems, social structure, educational and cultural institutions, etc.).

Specialists in various fields know the definitions given to the concept of crises, namely: in the Dictionary of Sociology coordinated by Cătălin Zamfir and Lazăr Vlăsceanu, crisis is defined as: "a period in the dynamics of a system, characterised by the increased accumulation of difficulties, conflict outbreak of tensions, which makes its normal operation difficult, triggering some strong pressures for change".

Psychologically, crises can be moments in life that: are part of the normal evolution of the human being, corresponding to stages or phases of its genetic development. In the papers devoted to the management of crisis, it is considered that it occurs when: "the whole system is affected, so that its physical existence and basic values of the system members are threatened to such an extent that the individuals are required to either realise the erroneous feature of these values, or to develop mechanisms of defence against these values".

From this managerial perspective, crisis is the result of threats in the environment, which are related to the weaknesses of the institution and appears when the threats in the environment interact with the weaknesses within the organisation.

In recent researches, debates and practices in the field of public relations – the crises or pre-crises – are defined as phenomena of interrupting the normal

operation of an institution and as moments of blockage or of poor organisation of the exchange of information between the organisation and its internal or external public.

From the perspective of the professionals of public relations, the crisis occurs therefore as a rupture, as an undesirable situation, which interrupts the normal operation of an institution and affects its image at the level of the public. Therefore, it is necessary to have a global strategy to meet the crisis (crisis management), a group of well trained specialists (the crisis cell) and a proper policy of communication (crisis communication).

However, an interesting opinion is based on Richard Nixon's observation according to whom "within every crisis lies the seeds of success", prefiguring that a skilful manager can see an opportunity where others only see the crisis.

In literature, special attention is paid to the typology and stages of the crisis, as well as to their decomposition into specific stages and, based on this, to the identification of suitable strategies to manage them.

Crises are classified according to: *causes* (due to some internal or external, conjectural or structural factors); *the development over time* (sudden or slow); *magnitude* (superficial or deep); *level where they operate* (operational – they affect the current activity, strategic – they affect the development of strategies, identification – they affect the identity of the organisation, consequences – they affect the personnel, customers, partners, public opinion).

Generally, there are three types of crises the organisation may encounter: *the immediate crisis* - is the most unpleasant type of crisis that occurs suddenly and therefore there is no more time for research or planning (fire, collapse etc.) For this type of crisis, depending on the specificity of the institution, it needs to create early action plans in case of disasters, avoiding panic and confusion when the crisis emerges; *the urgent crisis* - is the kind of crisis that can be triggered suddenly, but after a period of boiling. During this period, public relations specialists have the time to prepare an action plan developed from the research and evaluations carried out; *the sustained crisis* - is lengthy and may persist for months, even years, despite all the effort of public relations specialists for the extinction thereof.

Crises affecting institutions take place over several stages: preparation of the crisis (the warning stage), the identification of crisis potential of some events can lead to preventive measures or even cancellation of the crisis; the acute crisis - this is the time to identify a crisis; the chronic stage of the crisis, it may take more or less time and it may contain investigations from various survey courts, public debates, exoneration actions and attempts to regain public

confidence; end of the crisis. The aim of crisis management actions should be to reach this stage as soon as possible. If the preparation stage of the crisis is well exploited, then the crisis is under control and the organisation quickly reaches the end stage of the crisis.

Usually, in order to have as few consequences as possible, a crisis must be led through methods of crisis management. Timothy W. Coombs identified the following stages of crisis management:

Stage 1. Anticipation or detection of crisis signals. Most crises signal their approach in various ways. Therefore, specialists in crisis management should develop a system to detect and identify these signals, then collect information about those signals and analyze this information;

Stage 2. Crisis prevention. It includes problem management, risk avoidance and building relationships. The key to this operation is open, honest communication, through the exchange of information and opinions, joint effort to seek solutions to the crisis.

Stage 3. Crisis preparation. At this stage it is necessary to identify vulnerable elements of the crisis in question, to create the crisis cell, to elect a spokesperson, to draft a Crisis Management Plan, to structure a Crisis Communication Plan, etc.

Stage 4. The implementation and instrumentation stage of the crisis. It begins when a trigger event marks the beginning of the crisis. At this stage, crisis management specialists must apply crisis management programs in particular for crisis communication with the public involved. It comprises three stages: crisis acknowledgement. At this time, the members of the organisation must accept that they are facing a crisis and they should adopt appropriate behaviour; mastering the crisis. This period is dominated by measures taken to respond to the crisis; in the communication plan, it is particularly important that these answers are explained to various audiences; resuming work. This period involves actions whereby the organisation shows it has overcome the crisis and will resume its activity at a normal rhythm;

Stage 5. Post-crisis stage. Actions in this stage enable verification that the real crisis is over, verification of the way the public concerned perceived the crisis and the behaviour of the organisation during the crisis, preparing the organisation to successfully cope with another crisis. During these moments, crisis management is assessed, conclusions are drawn, communication with the public involved is continued and monitoring of post-crisis actions is carried out.

There are no well-defined recipes for mastering a crisis situation. Correct management of the crisis is a sum of measures prepared in time, allowing the organisation to coordinate unexpected situations, namely: efficient

crisis management enables an organisation to maximize its chances and reduce the dangers it faces; crisis management is a set of factors designed to tackle crises and to reduce damage from future crises; crisis management is a strategic planning process, aiming to remove some of the risk and uncertainty due to adverse events and thus allows the organisation to have its evolution under control.

The rules underlying the composition of a Crisis Plan are: it is particularly important to make up a crisis team able to work continuously; the crisis team must be familiar with its structure; choosing a spokesman who is aware of the key strategies and messages of the institution is fundamental; the list of rescue personnel should be established well in advance. In a crisis, there are various emergency situations, which call for the involvement of specialists in various business areas; it is also useful to have the data from government representatives and local administration; wording press releases beforehand and making up press kits; considering the worst case scenario and sketching the next steps in its management (Arhip & Arhip, 2013).

Specialists in the practice of public relations focused their attention mainly on the basic principles and rules of the behaviour in crisis situations: say it all and quickly; communicate as much as possible; coordinate information; refresh information; check out the amplitude of the situation; prepare for a crisis in advance; prepare top management for crisis management; be honest; maintain close relations with the mass media; keep a humane attitude; go as far as possible to put things right; never say no comment.

It may be concluded that during crisis, it is very important to take certain steps in order to manage the situation: making up a crisis cell, separated from the rest of the organisation, avoiding panic, and having a single spokesperson; electing members of the crisis cell among the management of the organisation, and including experts in such situations; establishing a coherent and unified strategy of crisis management.

4. Conclusions

In terms of communication in crisis situations, we must have regard to the following order of priorities: care for human beings; respect for the environment and limiting the risks or effects; economic and financial approach (damage).

There are several theories stating how managers should respond in case of an external crisis, but even these theories seem to be inconsistent. The approach "stiff response to threats," "crisis denial" and "environmental scan" are some of the theories that analyze managers' attention and response to crises.

In case of rigid response patterns and crisis denial, the crisis situation shifts the manager's attention from the hot spot of the crisis because it creates disturbances which may prevent the managers from being able to consider relevant information on the items in the organisation's environment, which are the source of the crisis. The environmental scan model and stress theories show the idea that managers will pay more attention to the external crisis (external environment) by considering the importance, immediacy and uncertainty of the problem.

Most often, managers are members of the crisis cell that oversees the management of special situations.

The crisis cell is a transversal functional group comprising those persons designated to deal with any crisis. It has the following tasks: to devise a Crisis Management Plan. This is done after the vulnerable aspects of the organisation have been set by means of different research methods. This plan must anticipate and respond to most types of crises the organisation may face; it must implement this plan. The implementation of the plan is first carried out in crisis simulation and then, when facing real crises; to react effectively to unanticipated problems not included in the plan. No plan can anticipate every detail of a crisis, therefore, the crisis cell must be able to provide solutions to those problems that were not foreseen in the plan, but can occur at any point in a real crisis.

The crisis cell is headed by a crisis manager (usually the public relations manager), working with the directors of the organisation, coordinating the work of other team members and taking the decisions, designing, sketching and checking texts to be sent out. The crisis cell also includes an assistant manager, a coordinator of the crisis control centre, other specialists in public relations with various responsibilities.

Obviously, the structure of this team will vary from event to event. Besides the people mentioned above, depending on the nature of the crisis, it will also include the head of the financial department, the human resources manager, the head of the marketing department, lawyers and other professionals with skills within the scope of the crisis.

This list also includes the tasks of each team member during the crisis (during the crisis, the members of this team will be relieved from their routine). Crisis management is a group activity, where crucial decisions are taken collectively.

Election of crisis cell members will be based on the tasks they have to perform, namely: to act as a team in order to facilitate the achievement of crisis objectives; to devise and implement the crisis management plan so as to

facilitate effective organisational responses; to collectively take the decisions necessary to solve problems encountered by the crisis cell; to listen to the views of others in order to collect as much information as possible on the crisis.

Most of the times, the manager is involved in the public communication of the institution's messages and these messages relate to what happened, what the organisation does to remedy the situation and what the organisation's directors feel about what happened. The communication of these messages, especially to the media during crisis situations will be done only in line with the crisis plan and the measures taken at the institution level.

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Residual Lifetime of Lifting Instalation Established by Non-Destructive Methods

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Abstract

The paper present theoretical studies and practical determinations in machines operating in dynamic mode fatigue. After expiry of the normalized lifetime of lifting equipment (overhead cranes, cranes, etc.). arises determination of residual functioning so that under normal safety to function at a normal operating capacity or diminished but not more than 15-20%. For exemplification is considered the investigation of a high gantry crane, MPT 20/5 – 20/4/4 m. In conclusion, after our determinations, the machine can operate with kinematics parameters set initially, but with reduced nominal load of 133 kN, i.e. approx. 13 t, and the lifetime of approx. 7.5 years

Keywords: fluctuating stress, deformation, crane, bearing structure, fatigue

JEL: A19, Q40

1. Introduction

As defined in ASTM E 1150-93, fatigue is "the process of structural permanent change, localized and gradual, occurring in a material subjected to conditions that produce fluctuating stresses and deformations specific to one or more points, which may culminate in cracks or complete break after a sufficient number of fluctuations".

Two phases are crucial for determining the remaining duration of life on some machines operating in dynamic mode (Verschoof, 1999; Lu & Mäkeläinen, 2003; Nakasone, Yoshimoto & Stolarski, 2006):

- a. Technical inspection phases: visual inspection, non-destructive control (PL, US)
- b. Expertise phases: static and dynamic calculations, and remaining duration of life.

After expiry of the normalized lifetime of lifting equipment (overhead cranes, cranes, etc.). arises determination of residual functioning so that under normal safety to function at a normal operating capacity or diminished but not more than 15-20%.

2. Technical inspection/examination

Necessity and opportunity of this procedure is in accordance with HG 2139/30.11.2004, regarding the classification and the useful life of equipment and in accordance with L64/21.03.2008 regarding the safe operation of pressure vessels, installations and high fuel consuming equipment.

For exemplification is considered the investigation of a high gantry crane, MPT 20/5 – 20/4/4 m, with the following characteristics:

MPT - gantry crane type 20/5 - hook load: main mechanism rated load = 20 t; rated load auxiliary mechanism = 5 t

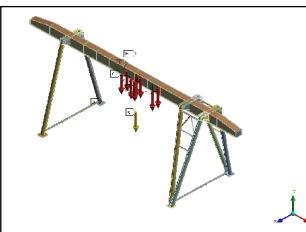
The crane has an effective workduration of 19 years and it's wanted to establish remaining duration of life in full security and working conditions.

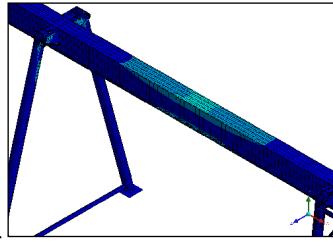
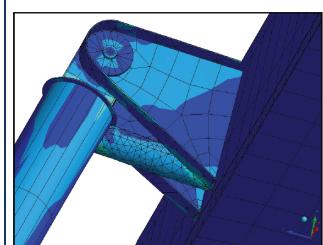


Figure 1. MPT 20/5 gantry crane

Investigation works / technical examinations will be held as follows:

Table 1. Steps for investigation/technical examination

<p>A. Equipment inspection - which consists of a visual inspection of the entire load bearing structure, on parts, fig. A1,2,3,4, visual inspection (VT), check load cables.</p>	 <p>A.1</p>  <p>A.2</p>  <p>A.3</p>  <p>A.4.</p>
<p>B. Static / dynamic analysis by FEM of strong stressed areas [7], and determining areas for non-destructive testing (PL, US), where:</p> <p>2.1 Establishing input parameters:</p> <p>B.1. - calculation model (fig.)</p> <p>B.2. - forces acting on the structure (fig.)</p>	 <p>B.1.</p>  <p>B.2.</p>

<p>2.2 Analysis of results</p> <p>B.3. - The most stressed zone, the central one (fig.)</p> <p>B.4. - the most stressed zone between the crane foot and clamping beam; the correlation between the calculation model and the real cracks (fig.)</p>	 	<p>B.3.</p> <p>B.4.</p>
<p>C. Non-destructive investigation /examination of previously established areas, fig. C.1. - US control of welding of main carriage taxiways, fig. C.2. - PL control of the main beam welding area/ running trolley</p>	 	<p>C.1.</p> <p>C.2.</p>
<p>D. Calculation to estimate the remaining duration of life [5], [6]</p>	<p>Loads used to verify the fatigue may be determined according to EN 13001, SR CENT_TS 13001-3-1, SR EN 13001-2 + A3, EN 1993-1-9-2006 (see paragraph 3).</p>	
<p>E. Technical Report writing. Conclusions.</p>		

3. Methods for fatigue calculation

When applying the procedure for calculating the approximative residual lifetime, two distinct cases may occur:

I. There exists complete documentation for developing the calculation model, then it can be applied as calculation manner:

Finite element method or analytical method:

- for welded constructions – establishing welding details;
- for mechanisms or elements in movement: shafts, bolts etc. – safety coefficients method;

II. Complete documentation for developing the calculation method does not exist – electroresistive tensimetry analysis method.

There are currently three different methodologies for calculating fatigue, which correspond to three "theories" distinct approach (Fisher, Kulak & Smith, 1998; Lee, 2005; Lu & Mäkeläinen, 2003).

a. Method $\sigma - N$

Method based on stress analysis is used to calculate the unlimited durability. Primary experimental data are presented as diagrams of sustainability in coordinates "maximum stress - number of cycles to failure" (Wöhler curve). Failure is defined by the total separation of the two parts of the specimen tested.

b. Method $\varepsilon - N$

The method is based on the analysis of specific strains used for calculating the limited durability. It is applicable to the parts without initial cracks, stressed under elastic-plastic regime, usually made of forged steel or materials without defects. Primary experimental data are in the form of charts of little sustainability in coordinates "cyclic strain - number of cycles to failure" (Coffin-Manson curve), caused by constant amplitude tests on specimens axially tested. Failure is defined differently by the appearance of visible cracks, by sudden variations in the load or dynamic stiffness of the specimen, which define what is considered to be the period of "initiation" of fatigue cracks.

c. Fault Tolerance Method

The method is based on the analysis of crack propagation for parts with initial cracks (usually welded or riveted structures). In this case, the stress singularity at the crack tip requires the use of fracture mechanics sizes.

Primary experimental data are in the form of charts "crack propagation speed - variation of intensity of stress" drawn in logarithmic coordinates (Fisher, Kulak & Smith, 1998; Lee, 2005). Method permits calculating of length of a crack extending from an original size, detected by non-destructive methods, to a final dimension, comprising a safety factor to a critical value (Enachescu & Rosca, 2014; Dumitru, Budică & Motoi, 2015). Method involves regular inspection and acceptance of the existence of the initial crack. In practice, the application of variable amplitude solicitation decomposes into blocks of solicitation, repeated over time, each block consisting of several groups of constant amplitude stress. In Figure 2. is considered a block composed of 3 groups of sinusoidal stress of different levels (amplitudes).

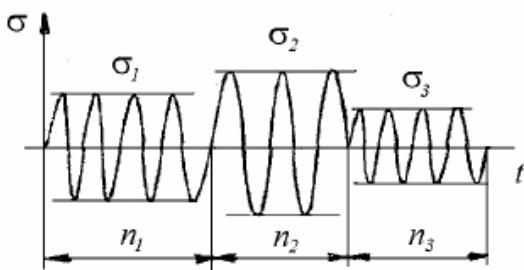
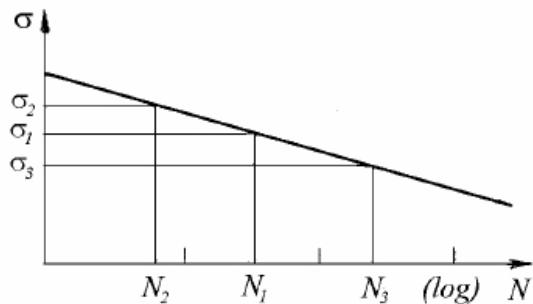


Figure 2. Block of solicitation

If \bar{n}_i is the number of cycles for which correspond the N_i durability, then each group of stress produce the damage $D_i = \bar{n}_i/N_i$, and the damage caused by the three groups of distinct sinusoidal block is:

$$D = n_1/N_1 + n_2/N_2 + n_3/N_3 = \sum (n_i/N_i) \leq 1 \quad (1)$$

4. Conclusions

By following the steps described in first part of the paper, based on metal fatigue theory and practice, one can perform a full study of an equipment (here the lifting crane MPT 20/5).

Therefore, it is stated that following presented methodology it can be done the estimation of remaining duration of life of studied equipment, according to recommendation of STAS 11694-83 and SR EN ISO 13920.

The machine can operate with kinematics parameters set initially, but with reduced nominal load of 133 kN, i.e. approx. 13 t, and the lifetime of approx. 7.5 years.

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Mining Technological System's Performance Analysis

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Abstract. The mining production systems, both for underground and open pit extraction consist mainly in a string of equipment starting with the winning equipment (shearer loader, in case of underground longwall mining or bucket wheel excavator in case of open pit mining), hauling equipment (armored face conveyor in longwall mining or the on-board belt conveyor in case of excavators), main conveying equipment (belt conveyor in both cases), transfer devices, stock pile or bunker feeding equipment. This system of mainly serially connected elements is characterized by the throughput (overall amount of bulk coal respectively overburden rock produced), which is dependent on the functioning state of each involved equipment, and is strongly affected also by the process inherent variability due to the randomness of the involved processes (e.g. the cutting properties of the rock). In order to model and simulate such production systems, some probabilistic methods are applied arising from the artificial intelligence approach, involving unit operations and equipment, as the overall system as a whole, namely the Monte Carlo simulation, neural networks, fuzzy systems, and the Load Strength Interference methods. The results obtained are convergent and offer the opportunity for further developments of their application in the study of mining production systems.

Keywords: mining, technology, system, analysis, performance

JEL: A19, Q40

1. Introduction

The continuous mining production systems consist mainly in a string of equipment starting with winning equipment (shearer loader, in case of underground longwall mining or bucket wheel excavator in case of open pit mining), hauling equipment (armored face conveyor in longwall mining or the on-board belt conveyor in case of excavators), main conveying equipment (belt conveyor in both cases), transfer devices, stock pile or bunker feeding equipment (Kovacs, Iliaș & Nan, 2000).

This system of mainly serially connected elements is characterized by the throughput (overall amount of bulk coal respectively overburden rock), excavated, conveyed and sent to stock pile or next user, which is dependent on the functioning state of each involved equipment, and is affected also by the process inherent variability due to the randomness of the cutting properties of the rock (Andras, Nan, Kovacs, Cristea & Tomescu, 2006; Andraș, Nan& Kovacs, 2007 ; Teodorescu, 2015).

The functioning state of the involved elements is also randomly switching between uptime/downtime, having different probabilities of occurrence and duration. In order to model and simulate such production systems, some probabilistic methods are applied arising from the artificial intelligence approach, involving unit operations and equipment, as the overall system as a whole, namely the Monte Carlo simulation, neural networks, fuzzy systems, and the Load Strength Interference methods. For the performance assessment, new reliability tools can be used, as AMSAA-CROW or Douanne charts. Some of these methods will be exemplified on data obtained from long time observation of Bucket Wheel Excavators from Romanian open pit coal mines in order to demonstrate the viability of such new analysis tools in the monitoring and diagnosing mining production systems.

2. Reliability analysis by simulation

In Fig. 1 the diagram of the monthly production of a bucket wheel excavator based production system operating in a Romanian open pit mine (Nan, 2007) is presented, in comparison with another, presented in Fig. 2.

The first one has a more intensive operating regime (throughput larger with about 50% then the second one, due to the smaller ratio coal/ overburden produced). Also we can see the breakdown total hours are greater for the first one then the second one, working mainly in overburden rock. Starting from the main reliability parameters determined on the basis of these recorded data, such as MTBF and MTTR, respectively the exponential distribution associated

parameters, the rate of failure λ and the rate of repair m , using the Monte Carlo simulation method, we simulated the operating cycles during one month.

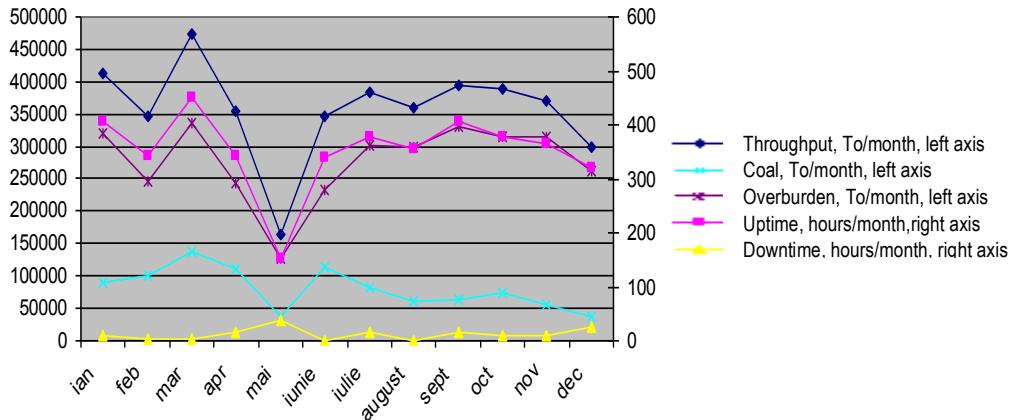


Fig. 1. Operation diagram of the Excavator no. 1

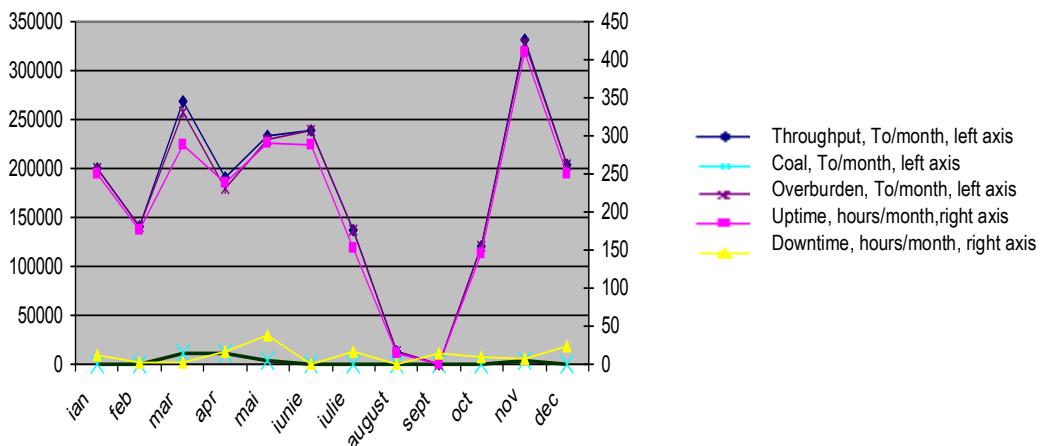


Fig. 2. Operation diagram of the Excavator no. 2

This kind of continuous production system is producing a variable material flow until the breakdown of an element at the moment t_{fi} which causes the stop of the system. After a certain period of time t_{ru} , the system is repaired and restarts, until the next breakdown is produce at the moment t_{fi+1} .

In order to perform simulation, the production flow can be seen as weighted with a series of Heaviside functions containing binary values 1 and 0, the cadence of breakdowns, the duration of operating times and the duration of

repair times being random variables.

The alternating uptimes and downtimes are cumulated until they reach the simulation period T. The simulation is repeated many times using different values for Q_m and σ , describing the inherent variability (fluctuation) of the production and for λ and μ , characterizing the random behavior of the cadence of uptimes and downtimes. The simulation model was realized using MathCAD.

By processing recorded data, we use the following input values:

- average monthly production: $Q_{\text{month med}} = 357 \text{ } 400 \text{ m}^3/\text{month}$;
- average hourly production: $Q_{\text{hour med}} = 1117 \text{ m}^3/\text{hour}$;
- monthly production standard deviation: $\sigma_{\text{month}} = 96 \text{ } 998 \text{ m}^3/\text{month}$;
- hourly production standard deviation : $\sigma_{\text{hour}} = 303 \text{ m}^3/\text{hour}$;
- average monthly operating time: $T_{fm} = 320 \text{ hours /month}$
- working time standard deviation: $\sigma_{tf}=91 \text{ hours}$;
- overall available time: $T= 744 \text{ hours}$;
- Breakdown rate : $\lambda=1/(320/30) = 0,09375$;
- repair rate: $\mu = 0.071$
- Average number of breakdowns: $n_{\text{def}} = 30$.

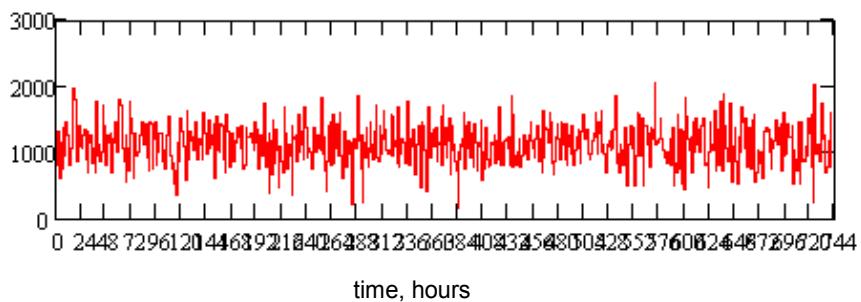


Fig. 3 The inherent production fluctuation

The simulated variability of the production system, with above data, considering breakdown-safe operation is given in figure 3.

This case of simulation has been realized an average hourly production $Q_{\text{med hour}} = 1094 \text{ m}^3/\text{hour}$ and a standard deviation of $\sigma_{\text{hour}} = 302 \text{ t(m}^3\text{)/hour}$

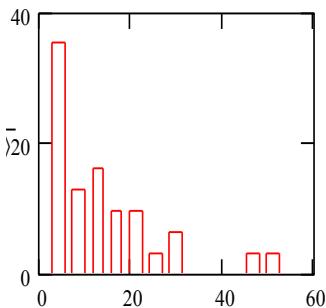


Fig.4 Histogram of uptimes

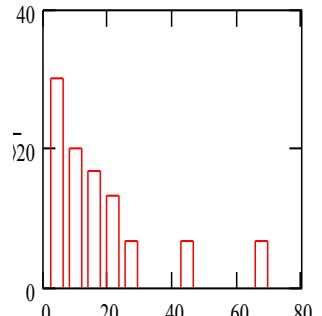


Fig.5 Histogram of downtimes

Using the exponential distribution law, we obtained by simulation the histograms of the distribution of operating and repair times shown in figures 4 and 5.

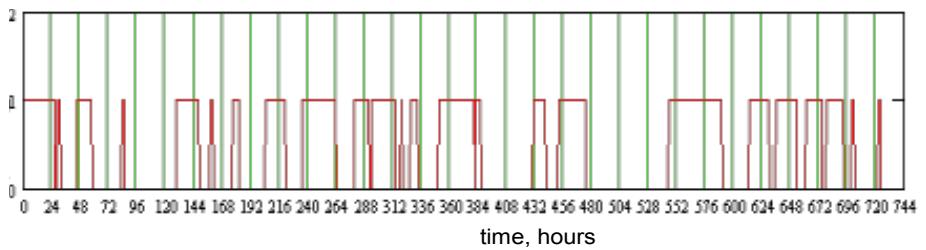


Fig. 6 Simulated state diagram of the system

The state diagram showing the transition cadence from operating to downtimes and vice versa is presented in fig. 6.

Superposing the two diagrams (Fig. 3 and Fig. 6) we obtain the hourly production diagram which takes into account the up and downtimes, as in fig. 7.

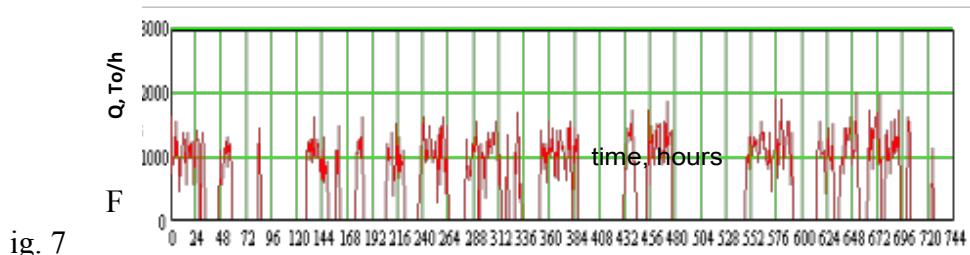


Diagram of simulated hourly production during 1 month

If we realize a number high enough of iterations, by averaging, we obtain in the average results near to start input data considered. In this way, we

calibrate the model to reflect the actual situation. Now, we can study different scenarios changing the input parameters, as reduction of the average repair time, or reducing the fluctuation of the production rate (Ferencová, Jeleňová & Kakalejčík, 2015).

3. Stress strength interference

In the literature (Rao, 1992), the influence of operating regime, load, stress, requirement, as independent variables, on the safety of work, reliability, probability of failure, and degree of damage of the failure as dependent variables are considered in the conditional reliability theory using the stress-strength interference method.

The method is originated in the sizing methods based on probability of the variable loaded systems, as a response to the limits of classical sizing procedures.

In the frame of the classical method, the yield value of strength S and the estimated value of load L are defined. It is presumed that L is always less than S , the difference $S-L$ being called safety range while the ratio S/L is called safety factor. By designing a system based on this theory, the reliability of a system is considered infinity, and the probability of failure is equal to zero. The failure occurrence after a time period is considered due to the decrease of S over time due to the fatigue, or the occurrence of an accidental load greater than L . Mining equipment is facing both causes of probability of failure due to the randomness of the sources of load, accidental overloads and fatigue due to wear of components. We propose and demonstrate the application of this method to the analysis of the safety of operation of mining production systems (Andra, Nan & Kovacs, 2006; Andras, Nan & Kovacs, 2008).

In the fig. 8 the principle of the method is presented. The strength S , in general meaning, is a metric of the capacity of a component to resist to loads without damaging, and has not a constant value, being a random variable (Andras, Dinescu & Andras, 2008). On the horizontal axis we have compatible meanings, such as load, requirement, capacity, flow rate, in physical values, at yield values. On the vertical axis we have probabilities or probability densities, of the occurrence of the given values.

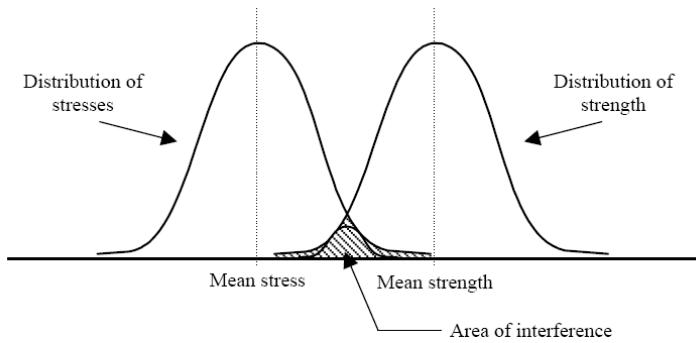


Fig. 8. Principle of the stress-strength interference

Similarly to strength, the load has also a random variation, so we can represent both distributions on the same picture.

As it can be seen, the two probability fields present an area of interference, which signify that it is possible to occur situations in which the load is greater than the strength. From here it results a third distribution, the probability of the event $L \geq S$, which is the conditional failure probability, given by:

$$P_f(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_L(s) * F_S(s) ds. \quad (1)$$

Where: $f_L(s)$ is the probability density of load and $F_S(s)$ is the cumulative probability of strength.

As an example, using a MathCAD program, we drawn up the Load Strength interference diagrams for the Bucket Wheel Excavators discussed before.

In our study, we consider as load the specific cutting energy is considered, which is between 0,08 and 0,4 kWh/m³ for lignite, with a larger spread of values, respectively 0,18 and 0,2 kWh/ m³ for overburden rock, with narrower spread.

As strength, the nominal value of the excavator was considered, as 0,35 kWh/m³, with a normally distributed variability, due to variability of working conditions.

With these values, the Load-Strength interference diagrams were drawn up for the two cases, presented in figs. 9 for overburden and 10 for lignite.

As it can be noticed, the degree of non-reliability is greater for the excavator operating in lignite, about 15%, then for the excavator working in overburden, where is practically zero.

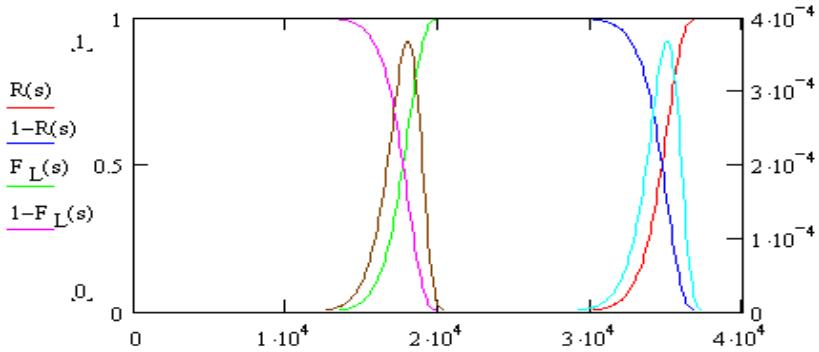


Fig. 9. The L-S interference charts for the excavator working in overburden rock (Specific energy consumption in 10^5 kWh/m^3 on x axis)

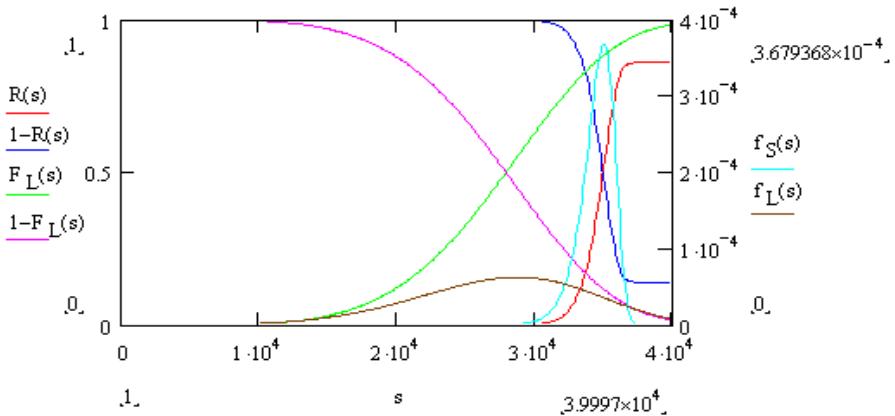


Fig. 10 . The L-S interference charts for the excavator working in lignite (Specific energy consumption in 10^5 kWh/m^3 on x axis)

4. Conclusion

In order to find out new methods for the quick assessment of large production systems used in coal mining, we presented and tested by real world examples two alternative-complementary methods of reliability analysis, namely the Monte Carlo simulation and the Load Strength Interference methods.

These methods are useful for the retro analysis of the production systems, characterized by two kind of uncertainty, i.e. the inherent random variability of continuous operation, due to the in-situ characteristics of the mined-out rock, and by the uptime/downtime random alternation in the equipment chain state. The results obtained are convergent one with the other, and offers the opportunity for further developments of their application in creation of an intelligent system of performance prediction.

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About The Romanian Way of Branding

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Abstract

To build a brand in Romania is not an easy or accomplished task. All the attempts after 1990 failed as they offered too general and unspecific features conveying no meaning about the country and its people. The present contribution mainly comments upon the campaign for Sibiu as a cultural capital in 2007. Although quite a long period passed and another Romanian city will have another chance in 2021, nothing seems to be improved. In 2007, the strategy was not coherent in its readability, listenability and visual presentation as a persuasive presentation of Romania. Too many foreign themes, subjects and structures were mixed up neglecting Romanian specificity or imposing an external perspective in which the target market cannot be found. No matter how well is crafted or superbly presented your message/brand, its communication value is defined by its own unique context.

Keywords: brand, Romania, icon, strategy, culture.

JEL: Z1, M37

1. Introduction

The word *brand* has no perfect equivalent in the Romanian language; it is used as such. Unfortunately, not only the words are “borrowed”, but the logos, logotypes, outdoor panels, icons, taglines, graphic signatures prove to be as well mere mimicry or less inspired variants of the European and American patterns. At the first go-off, for example, the brand of our country tries, in a naïve and mimetic modality, to render the common shape of waves, sun, mountains, using the same colors (blue, yellow, green, and red) as those met in the brands of Malta, Cyprus, Greece, Spain etc. This means that our country is included in the paradigm of the so-called holiday destinations (Gombrich, 1973; Adorno, 2006). Getting closer and observing the details, anyone may see a symbolic, better said a rather stylized cut-out of a statue (Cyprus), of the Maltese Cross (Malta), of the specific volute of an Ionic Greek column, of the solar symbol taken from the famous Spanish painter Joan Miró (Spain) – the tagline “Everything under the sun” connotes the same acceptance, etc. The shape of the letters goes after the peculiar alphabet of the country or the typical handwriting (Edeline, Klinkenberg & Minguet, 1992; Adamson, 2007). Taking into account the logotype for Romania, we observe the annoying iteration of the semantic chain *sea- mountains-sun-leaf* using the national colors, which is very predictable. In all these examples, if you imagine the national specificity as a circle and the efforts to establish a mark for tourism easy to remember as another circle, we observe a big distance in between highlighting the incapacity to reveal a few peculiar Romanian structures. During the latest decades, there were quite many, but failing tentatives.

2. Building a brand

All the first attempts to create a brand were far away from the real Romanian specificity and had no narrator from inside (Klein, 2006; Oliver, 2007). The country is presented almost exclusively from a touristic point of view, and it looks rather as a “cheap” and alike holiday location. The Romanian endeavor did not prove to be as successful as that of Spain, especially after the Football Championship (1982), the Olympic Games or the International Exhibition from Seville (1992). We choose Spain as a comparison-item because these countries gave many political, linguistic and historical features in common. All Spanish events were very well organized and they could improve the perception of the national identity. We mention some other important contributing elements as well: positive economic and political changes; the adhesion to the European Union in 1986; persuasive campaigns for powerful national companies (Repsol, Telefonica, Union Fenosa, etc.); the adornment

and modernization of the main cities (Barcelona, Bilbao), nevertheless Almodovar's self-ironical and tragic-comical artistic movies. In fact, the Spanish rebranding has been a victory, and the interchange of the welcome taglines („Passion for Life”, „Bravo Spain!”). Nowadays Spain is justly considered a most desirable place for holiday, a beautiful and secure state, a cultural capital of Europe in all seasons. In 2002, the Spanish government in association with The National Institute of Tourism (Turespaña) founded „Spain Marks” in order to promote the national spiritual values. Even the Spanish people have a better opinion of their own country and are proud to face the world, which is a very important exponent of the outside credibility and the capacity to turn the people out. Again, Spain succeeded via liberalism as in the 18th century.

Hannah Arendt, Heidegger's disciple, would have no trouble unpacking this strange paradox which is obviously close to Ulysses'. The famous hero is ignorant of his birth, does not seem to know who he is, until he meets with himself through the tale of his story. For Arendt, it comes from the fact that the category of personal identity postulates *Alterity* as necessary. Even before another can render tangible the identity of someone by telling her/his/its story, many others must be indeed spectators of the constitutive exposure of the very same identity to their gaze. In other words, a human being, a country, etc. is unique and shows to be such from the very moment it is exposed. This is why identity corresponds to the question “Who?” put to each newcomer. “Who are you?” The urge toward self-display by which living things or countries fit themselves into a world of appearances, makes of identity an *in nato* exposure of the Who to the gaze and to other questions. In the general exhibitionist spectacle of brands, *Appearing* cannot be the superficial phenomenon; it has to reveal the uniqueness, intimate and true essence. The expositive and the relational character are thus indistinguishable. Everybody needs a “story” to become aware of its significance. Otherwise *No One* is the name of each country/person trying to mislead Polyphemus.

The campaign organized for the Romanian city, Sibiu, as European Cultural Capital in 2007, might have acted better for our country and, partially, it was a kind of success depicting faithfully and closer the local specificity, but unfortunately not that of the nation in general. Quite highly advertised in Western Europe, Sibiu has partly managed to show a more convincing and eloquent “image” of Romania. Transilvania or Ardeal, as this region of the country is called (from the etymologic point of view, completely different meanings), takes everything for granted due to the fact that it was part of the Austrian-Hungarian Empire for a long period of time and the local inhabitants

had a rich experience living together with people of German, Hungarian, and Austrian origin. We are going to analysis some of the main components of the campaign in order to prove our statement.

a) The tagline “Normal Sibiu/Normally Sibiu” demonstrates this kind of assurance and it was used in the campaign of the GAV/Sholz & Friends Agency (released by the national TV channels). Is it endorsed by the photos and images as well? If we pay attention to the young couple’s faces and attitude, we reach the conclusion that they may be from any town or country (“Normally Paris/London/Prague”, etc). The surrounding objects have no local sign and even worse; they look improbable in Romanian settings – the phone, the bottle of champagne, the table itself with the glasses in a coffee-house or restaurant, the buildings and the street, the brick wall, the traffic-lights – of course, at this point of our analysis, we disregard their evident symbolic value;

b) The tagline of the event The Book Fest (“Sibiul citește altfel/Sibiu reads otherwise/Grenzenlos – Anders lesen”) tries to convey the same message admitted by the mayor himself, Klaus Johannis: to render an international atmosphere, to analysis life, but “to run away from life”. The young man reading on the lounge chair in front of a bird’s eye view assuming to be one from Sibiu seems a piece of a puzzle not fitting with the rest. It’s a pity that this kind of activity is not a Romanian habit, at least and less and less nowadays. The outdoor panel aimed to offer an example, but the national identity does not exist. The panoramic view of the city is hardly recognizable even for a native. The outstanding tower with a clock might be from Sighișoara, Brașov or other several cities, and it is not at all characteristic to the genuine Romanian architecture (e.g Brâncoveanu’s style, the architecture of the original wood gates in Maramureș, etc.). Judging according to the persuasive goal of advertising, it headed a certain category of citizens. More than two thirds of the population felt attracted and agreed with this cultural program meant for the best. But we must not forget that the most important effect had to be the economic profit and a success in building-up the tourism-structure. Statistical data show that the first one was achieved without having any losses (in Graz, Austria, for example) and the second one brought a little bit more people in Sibiu (an augmentation of 20% which is still modest and not very convincing).

c) The graphical signature has two components. If we look at the first one, with a drawn stag on the left-right corner of the promoting materials, one may say that it is a typical beautiful animal living in the Romanian forests, but all the Romanian people will think at once at a similar

sign – that for the International Festival “Cerbul de aur/ The Golden Stag” taking place in Brașov every year. The stars around the stag are more predictable and too often used as they became the classic symbol of the European Union. The second graphical element combines two letters trying to build the third one - it may be interpreted in many ways: it stands for the letter “S” (from “Sibiu”)/two letters “C” of the word “city”- City of Culture/Cities of Culture, it symbolizes union/solidarity as we may observe two human beings in a kind of embracement or, assuming that they sit at a table, at least they touch themselves. It is an above perspective well done and it has a pleasant chromatic design.

d) The other outdoor panels also promote the portrait of Baron Samuel von Brukenthal who founded the well-known museum, the concert of a Viennese orchestra, the opening of a Slovak exhibition of paintings at the Town Hall, a day of popular fest, with the tagline „Europe is singing and dancing”, during the most adequate month of the year – May, etc. All of them tell the same successful story of other European countries except Romania.

We will try to reach a conclusion of this brief and selective presentation. It was finally a success for Romania. It endues talents and a professional approach of the campaigns. All the 337 projects and 2062 events involved in Sibiu campaign (theater performances, street carnival, rock concerts, The Days of Israelian Films, colloquies, motorcycles rallies, fireworks, etc.) certified, in most of the cases, equilibrium and a choice of good taste, even a „battle” won by the city against the monotony and the current dull life. The infrastructure was improved, it revealed itself as an opportunity for investments, more people had the chance to find a job (an increase of 12,7% of the employees), the educational and cultural buildings amongst other institutions were furbished or redecorated, and 62,4% appreciated the quality of the program as good or very good. So, it seems to be the story of a Romanian adventure at a pretty high level. A close look reveals a few weak points. Our opinion is that the keyword of 2007 - Sibiu – European Cultural City was not „Normal”, but „Altfel/Otherwise”. All the plans and activities aimed to illustrate a western, modern and very relaxing way of life. It is very true that culture played a leading role facilited as much as possible. Let's remember the tagline, „Europe is singing and playing”, the image of the man reading a book on top of a hill near the city or the graphic signature of the joining people; all these delude and mystify. This was not meant to be a country brand campaign. It succeeded to determined *grosso modo* the perception of a town almost similar to a large number of others from Europe and it also indulged the young generation beside

the other citizens (Romanian or foreign people) the idea that this is the national standard of life and cultural implication. The design, the conceptual fantasy, the appropriate administrative measures offered a deserved joy and fame to the city. Regarding our topic, we have to add that there is only a small overlapping of the circle standing for national identity and the one allotted to tourism, particular mentality which cannot be found in another country. Romania must prove that it has this for real, not only a potential value performed in a big rush and for a short period of time. After 2007, Sibiu attained a marketing success failing to represent the country. On an imaginary map of Romania, it is cut out and it seemed to get closer to the Western Europe. It was a holiday for all the Romanian people during a whole year.

The next campaigns for the country or for a city to be a cultural capital were kept in the political shadow of interests. Also, all of them lack sincerity next to genuineness/honesty. In the European Union, true reconciliation and respect for each nation cannot be attained without these basic feelings. The intercultural demagogic is one of the worst tools in the hands of the administrative and political agents (Teodorescu & Calin, 2015). To create only cultural “shop-windows” for the people abroad is a circumstantial solution which unfortunately encourages national arrogance and historic revanche. Romania and the Romanian society must settle out, with honesty, the problem of the necessity of changing mentality and the one of its values which we claim for.

First of all, we have presented the common way to promote a country which has poor results in revealing national identity. Taking into account Sibiu-campaign, we must state the fact that Transilvania, the region where Sibiu is located, has always had, all along our history, a brittle place being considered both as an outpost of Alterity and an idyllic, wonderful and ideal space. So, all the events of the campaign for Sibiu underlined these preconceptions. We have to remind, although you all know, of course, that Romania has many regions: Muntenia, Moldova, Dobrogea, Maramures, Banat, Oltenia; it does not consist only of Transilvania. Where are all these regions? Where is the country with its past, traditions and spiritual values? Sibiu and Transilvania have the monopoly. The other parts of Romania are not present and they represent almost two thirds of the territory and of population.

3. Conclusion

In the above presented campaign, the brand builders could reach neither the essence of an idea nor a meaningful and simple, specific national feature. The imagery and texts must evoke Romania beyond themselves. The conveyed

ideas interact with so many useless foreign items so that they all seem to be alike, lacking the core of branding-activity – to keep the promise to introduce Romania to the world and nothing is worse than unsuccessfully deliver the pledge.

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The Libraries in the Byzantine Empire (330-1453) *

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Abstract

This paper has as objective presenting main types of libraries who existed during the Byzantine Empire. The five types of existent libraries – imperial, patriarchal, monastic, private and university, had a complex evolution during the history of Byzance. The beginning of those libraries is represented by the inauguration of the new imperial capital, by emperor Constantine the Great (306-337) in 330. The new imperial capital, Constantinople city, had several buildings which were inaugurated by Emperor Constantine including two libraries: the imperial one and the patriarchal one. Subsequently, have appeared over the centuries, and other libraries such as monastic, private or academic. Although there is no historical evidences proving the existence of a university library in the Byzantine Empire, however this it is not excluded. Over time all of these types of libraries have suffered changes and have experienced periods of flowering and decay, until their abolition final, once with the fall of the Byzantine Empire to the Ottomans in 1453. Since the study is not intended to be exhaustive I will deal this issue only from the historical point of view to make an overview of the Byzantine libraries and their role in the cultural evolution of Byzantium. An interesting thing is that the scientists and the byzantine scholars frequented the libraries in the Byzantine Empire, moreover some of them, such as Patriarch Photios the Great, had possessed impressive libraries, enviable even by the Byzantine emperors.

Keywords: Byzantine Empire, Constantine the Great, Libraries

JEL: Z10, Y80

Before proceeding to the actual treatment of the subject it should be noted that this research is not and is not intended to be exhaustive.

So I divided my paper into two sections: 1. Foundation of the Byzantine Empire; 2. The libraries in the Byzantine Empire (330-1453): a short history.

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1. Foundation of the Byzantine Empire

The Saint Emperor Constantine the Great (*Gaius Flavius Valerius Aurelius Constantinus*) is considered by historians if not the biggest, then one of the greatest kings that the Roman Empire ever had.

Constantine the Great was born in 280 A.D., in the town of Naissus (today is the town of Niš in Serbia, located 250 km southeast of the capital, Belgrade); he was the son of the Roman general Constantius Chlorus and his consort, Helen (Matei, 1991, p. 73). His father was elevated to the rank of Caesar on the 1st of March, 293. After the abdication of the emperors Diocletian and Maximian in 305 A.D., young Constantine joined his father in the leadership of the western part of the Roman Empire. Constantius Chlorus died a year later, and Constantine is proclaimed Emperor by the army, on July 25, 306. Galeriu will accept Constantine as the Caesar and will hand him over the jurisdiction of Gallia and Britain. The same year, Maxentius arrogates himself the title of Emperor over Italy, Spain and Africa, but he was subsequently denounced as a usurper. Constantine arranges with Licinius, the new August of the West, to take over Spain, which will happen in the year 310. From Spain, Constantine will take his army in Italy, where he will defeat Maxentius in the famous battle of the Milvian Bridge (Ponte Milvius) that took place in the year 312 A.D. Given the new political situation, Constantine established a political alliance with Licinius through his marriage with Constantia, the sister of Constantine. In return, Licinius will defeat Maximinus II Daia and will become king over East, Asia Minor and Syria. This political alliance will not last for long and conflicts will appear between the two emperors, leading to a first civil war in 316 A.D. that ended in a compromise (Matei, 1991, p. 74) peace agreement. In 324, a new civil war breaks out, and this time Licinius is defeated by Constantine in two battles, at Adrianople and Chrysopolis. Licinius is captured and then executed at Thessalonica, in 325.

After long battles between Augusts and Caesars, as well as many civil wars, the Roman Empire is reunited under the leadership of one man. In 324, Constantine the Great is proclaimed the sole Emperor of the Roman Empire, just as Diocletian (was proclaimed the unique Roman emperor in the year 285) was crowned 40 years before.

From now on, Constantine will plan to build a new capital for the Empire. Constantine was determined to build a new capital mostly because Rome was no longer the official capital city of the Roman Empire since the reign of Diocletian (284-305) (Popescu, Bodogae & Stănescu, 1956, p. 90), when Nicomedia became the current residence of the Empire. To fulfill his plan, Constantine formally elects the city of Byzantium (an ancient Greek colony, founded in the sixth century BC) on the Bosphorus, in November 324, and increases four times the surface of the settlement.

Byzantium was not designated the imperial capital by pure chance, but because it offered a number of strategical advantages. First, its geographical location was at the intersection of the main trading routes that linked the West with the East. Secondly, the city benefited from a big seaport that could be used for military purposes, in order to defend the Eastern border of the Empire against the frequent attacks of the Persians (Drîmba, 1999, pp. 212-213).

The building and reshaping of Byzantium lasted almost six years. On 11th of May 330, Constantine will inaugurate the new capital of the Roman Empire. The city was commonly called "Constantinople" (Drîmba, 1999, p. 212), but officially it was named the "New Rome" (Drîmba, 1999, p. 212), since Constantine wanted a new capital that was identical to the ancient Rome. With the formal relocation of the imperial capital, the entire political administration from Rome will also move to Constantinople.

Concurrently with the official launch of the capital, some of the most important buildings were also opened, including the Senate, the Hippodrome, the imperial palace and the imperial library (there are no written documents or edicts issued by Emperor Constantine to prove this directly, but most historians consider it is the safest assumption; however, the imperial library was founded by the Emperor Constantine immediately after the inauguration of the new capital). The inauguration of the imperial library represented a true milestone in the history of the libraries in the Byzantine Empire. The imperial library is the incipit other types of libraries that will exist in the Empire, until its fall to the Turks, on May 29, 1453 A.D.

Since the beginning of Constantine's reign until the inauguration of the new capital (between the years 306-330 A.D.), there were approximately 30 public libraries (Brewster, 1832, p. 24) in the city of Rome. In addition, there

were also libraries in some of the major cities of the Roman Empire. Constantine will establish an imperial library following the model of Emperor Diocletian's (Ilie, 2007, p. 3) library, in Nicomedia city.

2. The libraries in the Byzantine Empire (330-1453): a short history

After Constantine the Great established the imperial library, other types of libraries started to appear as well. The libraries in the Byzantine Empire can be grouped into four categories: *imperial*, *patriarchal*, *monastic* and *private* (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 171). In addition to these four types of libraries recognized by historians, I added it in a fifth one: the *university library* that belonged to the University of Constantinople, which was founded in 425 A.D., by the Emperor Theodosius II (408-450) (Drîmba, 1999, p. 215).

We will further present and discuss each one of the five types of libraries indicated above, beginning with the imperial library.

2. 1. The imperial library

As mentioned before, the imperial library was established through an imperial decree by the Emperor Constantine the Great himself, along with other important buildings within the capital. Constantine was inspired by the imperial library of Diocletian, in Nicomedia (Ilie, 2007, p. 3). Constantine employed a head librarian named Lucianus (Ilie, 2007, p. 3), who managed the affairs of imperial library. Among his duties, the head librarian had to recommend a list of books for the emperor (Ilie, 2007, p. 3). The status of the imperial librarian was extremely important therefore, since it could influence and guide the emperor's daily reading.

Emperor Constantine's great attention towards the imperial library is proven by the fact that at his death, in 337 A.D., there were allegedly between 6900 (Ilie, 2007, p. 3) and 7000 (Runciman, 1978, p. 6) library books, which is considered "a large number" (Runciman, 1978, p. 6) by the historian Steven Runciman. The library was settled in the imperial palace, for the king's easy reach.

Among the library's collections there were historical and juridical books, besides the works of Greek writers and philosophers such as Homer, Aeschylus, Hesiod, Aristophanes, Plato or Aristotle (Ilie, 2007, p. 4). The library also included a manuscript of about 37 m (in J. B. Bury's book, from where we took this information, the measuring unit is 120 feet, which we converted to meters. 1 foot = 30, 48 cm, 120 feet = 3657 6 cm, or 36, 576 m) length of the *Iliad and Odyssey* by Homer, written in golden letters on the intestines of a serpent (Bury,

1923, p. 394), which was mentioned by the Byzantine chronicler John Zonaras (Brewster, 1832, p. 24).

After Emperor Constantine's death, his son Constantius II (337-361 A.D.) inherited further the responsibility for the imperial library, to which he added a scriptorium (Cameron, Garnsey, 2006, p. 37).

The man who succeeded Constantius II was the Emperor Julian the Apostate (361-363 A.D.). He was particularly interested in the imperial library, for which he built a portico in order to increase its surface (Ilie, 2007, p. 5). Being the first emperor, after Constantine the Great, who wanted to reorganize the pagan cult in a systematic way, following the model of the Christian church hierarchy, it is speculated that Julian the Apostate may have destroyed the Christian manuscripts included in the imperial library.

Theodosius I (379-395 A.D.) is another remarkable Byzantine emperor concerning of the libraries in the Empire. Emperor Theodosius employed seven copyists, four Greeks and three Latins, for the imperial library who worked in the scriptorium and copied the manuscripts containing both Christian and pagan literature (Witty, 1967, p. 720).

Unfortunately, the imperial library burned during Emperor Zeno's reign (474-491), in a great fire that occurred in the year 477 A.D (Runciman, 1978, p. 6). That same year, short before the destruction of the library, an inventory was made and it was established that there were approximately 100 000 (Ilie, 2007, p. 6) or 120 000 (Runciman, 1978, p. 6) manuscripts in the library. The recorded number of manuscripts may look exaggerated, but it is reasonable to consider that the Byzantine emperors who succeeded Constantine the Great also exhibited a genuine interest towards the library.

Very few manuscripts were saved by the fire. For the following years, it is hard to determine whether the imperial library collections were completely redrafted, although the library was mostly rebuilt soon after its destruction (Runciman, 1978, pp. 6-7).

We know with certitude that the library functioned until the Fourth Crusade (1204 A.D.), when it was vandalized and burned by the Christian crusaders. In 1204, the Christian crusaders have deviated from their original route, the liberation of Jerusalem, and they turned to conquering the city of Constantinople and establish the Latin Empire, which will last between 1204-1261. This course of events determined the historian Steven Runciman to remark that because "none of the French could read in Greek and very few knew how to read at all [...] they kept only the books that had expensive metals or precious stones, and burned the rest, along with their buildings, while the Venetians, who were widely read, chose to save them" (Runciman, 1978, p. 7).

In the year 1261, the Constantinople is retaken from the Latins by the Emperor Michael VIII Palaeologus (1259-1282). The following Byzantine emperors tried to rebuild and recompose the imperial library, to the extent that "the Byzantine scribes in the XIV century were busier than ever copying rare manuscripts" (Runciman, 1978, p. 7).

From this moment on, until the fall under the Turkish Empire, the imperial library will not regain its past greatness and will eventually be completely abolished in 1453 A.D. The collection of manuscripts came into the library of Muhammad II the Conqueror (1451-1481).

The imperial library was created for the disposal of the Byzantine Emperors and their families. The best example is illustrated by the Byzantine princess Anna Comnena, daughter of Emperor Alexios I Komnenos (1081-1118). Anna Comnena's memory remained entrenched in the history of the Byzantium through her work entitled *Alexiada*. In the preface to her work, she cites passages from Plato and Aristotle, authors who she most likely read from the imperial library collections (Ilie, 2007, p. 6).

Similarly to how the imperial library of Diocletian had a chief librarian, the imperial library of Constantinople was also directed by a librarian. His duties included to organize the manuscripts according to the library catalog, to supervise the copyists in the scriptorium and to select the books that were to be read by the emperor.

2. 2. The patriarchal library

The patriarchal library (it should be noted that the title of *ecumenical patriarch*, referring to the bishop of Constantinople, appears around the year 582, when St. John the Faster (582-595) starts signing the official documents with the title of *ecumenical patriarch*. Starting with this year, all the patriarchs of Constantinople will take on this title. Therefore, we cannot properly speak of a *patriarchal library* between the years 330-582. We can speak at best of a library belonging to the *Diocese* and *Archdioceses* of Constantinople. However, as most historians use the term of patriarchal library, we will also use this option) was founded in the same year as the imperial library, having again Emperor Constantine the Great as protector (Ilie, 2007, p. 6). Together with the imperial library, the patriarchal library was one of the largest existing libraries in Byzantium, and was intended for the use of the patriarch and the clergy who were part of Constantine's entourage.

The location of the patriarchal library has not been precisely determined. This prompted some historians specialised in the history of Byzantium to assert that the library was in the episcopal palace (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 173).

However, the majority of historians consider that the library was located in one of the outbuildings of St. Sofia Church (Ilie, 2007, p. 8).

The patriarchal library collections were made up of a variety of Christian works, as well as pagan and heretical writings. On 30 April 311, the emperor Galerius issued an edict granting Christians freedom of worship, as he realized the futility of the persecutions against Christians, provided that they "pray to God for him and for the state, and do not disturb the public order" (Popescu, Bodogae & Stănescu, 1956, p. 79). With the religious freedom of Christianity, reconfirmed by the Holy Emperor Constantine the Great in 313, through the Edict of Mediolanum (now Milan in Italy), the Christian literature also spread throughout the entire Empire. Among the Christian authors, whose works were inside the patriarchal library, we can mention: St. Cyril of Jerusalem (315-386 A.D.), St. Epiphanius of Cyprus (315-420 A.D.), Evagrius of Pontus (345-399 A.D.), Diodorus of Tarsus (300-390 A.D.), Saint John Chrysostom (347-407 A.D.), St. John of Damascus (676-749 A.D.), Saint Theodore the Studite (759-826 A.D.), St. Gregory Palamas (1296-1359 A.D.) etc. Because the space designed for this study is not large enough to include all parents and ecclesiastical writers, whose works were in the patriarchal library collection, I only summarized a few of the most important.

In addition to the works of the Christian and pagan authors, the patriarchal library comprised a considerable number of heretical writings (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 173). These works formed the basis of the study of heresies undertaken by the orthodox theologians (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 173).

Over the centuries, the Byzantine emperors watched over the patriarchal library, beginning with Constantine the Great, who asked Bishop Eusebius to provide him with 50 copies of the Holy Bible. Some historians believe that out of the 50 copies of the Holy Scripture, only two are preserved today - known as the *Codex Vaticanus* and *Codex Sinaiticus* (Ilie, 2007, p. 7). The quality of these copies must have been highly important for Constantine, since he ordered them on *vellum* (a material made from calfskin that was used for writing the parchments). The copies of the Bible were intended for some of the greatest churches in Constantinople, as well as for other libraries within the capital: imperial, patriarchal, etc.

During the following centuries, the patriarchal library has experienced an upward trend through the contributions of the Byzantine patriarchs and emperors.

In the time of the reign of Patriarch Thomas I (607-610 A.D.), the patriarchal library was moved due to the fact that the collections widened. The library was relocated in the palace called *Thomaites Triklinos* (The Triangle of

Thomas), where it remained until 791, when the building burned in a fire (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 174).

Sergius I (610-638 A.D.), the successor of Patriarch Thomas, aspired to increase the number of books in the library's collection – fact that was recorded by the deacon George Pisides, who has the high *skevofilax* (*skevofilax* – *sacristan* was the Byzantine dignitary whose main function was guarding and keeping the sacred vessels used in the service of the church *Hagia Sophia*).

The first recorded patriarchal librarian is mentioned in the sources of the Sixth Ecumenical Synod in 680-681 A.D., held in Constantinople. His name was Archdeacon George and he was holding the position of *chartophylax*. The *chartophylax* (patriarchal archivist), together with the *econom*, *sachelar*, *schevofilax* and *sacheliu*, was the Byzantine ecclesiastical dignitary who was part of the first pentad of the choir in the right, also known as the councillor of the patriarch. He was mainly responsible for the patriarchal archive and library. In time, the attributions given to the *chartophylax* increased progressively, until the patriarchal archivist became the second man after the Patriarch. We have developed extensively this topic in the following study (Nedelcu, 2012, pp. 143-151). His main attribution during the Synod was to make available the heretical books and the documents from the other ecumenical councils included in the patriarchal library, which were then consulted by all the participants in the synod. Later, the *chartophylax* George became the patriarch of Constantinople (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 175).

After the Fourth Crusade (1204), the fate of the patriarchal library was identical to that of the imperial library. The library was devastated by the Crusaders and most of the books were burned or stolen.

The patriarchate moved to Nice (today it is the city of Iznik in Turkey, Asia Minor, cf. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iznik>), the capital of the Byzantine Empire in exile, known as the Empire of Nicaea. The patriarchal library was also moved, together with everything that was saved.

In 1261 A.D., Constantinople was liberated from the Latin occupation. The Patriarchate was moved back to Constantinople, together with the patriarchal library, in the *Thomaites Triklinos* palace.

The patriarch Gregory II of Cyprus (1283-1289 A.D.) tried to reunite the library collections. With this intention, he paid scribes to enrich the library collections with manuscripts, many of which were difficult to purchase (Papademetriou, 2000, p. 177) after the final return in the Byzantine capital.

The patriarchal library suffered the same fate as the imperial library on 29th of May 1453, when the imperial capital fell under the Turkish occupation. The collections of the patriarchal library, just like the collections from the

imperial library, were moved to the library under the patronage of Sultan Mehmed II the Conqueror.

2. 3. The monastic library

The monastic libraries, or the libraries of the monasteries, began their history with the advent of the organized monasticism (this will happen after 313, when the emperor Constantine together with Licinius issued an edict of religious tolerance for the Christians in the Empire, at Mediolanum).

With St. Pachomius the Great (291-348 A.D.), who is recognized as the founder of the community life, the first organized monastic communities appear, somewhere in the desert of Egypt. The place known today as the *Natron Valley* or the *Nitrian Desert*, is a monastic settlement located SE of the city of Alexandria, with a length of 48.2 km and a width of 4.8 km, and closed between two rows of mountains. Besides the usual obedience, such as weaving baskets, gardening, or caring for the sick, the Egyptian monks gathered daily in churches to perform prayers and singing hymns to God, but also to do the daily readings. In the beginning, the readings were done from the Scriptures and later the writings of the Church Fathers were added as well. In his rules (it is similar to a rule book or a monastic handbook containing certain ordinances, practices and rules about how the monks should live together in parishes), St. Pachomius notes that the steward of the monastery was responsible for organizing the monastery's library. The books and manuscripts were placed in special boxes and deposited in the walls of the monastery (Witty, 1967, p. 720).

Here, in the valley of Nitria, there was a mountain where approximately 600 monks retreated. In this place, there was a large church and next to it was placed a *xenodochium* (a guest house for the reception and accommodation of pilgrims). The pilgrims who were received here could stay without doing anything until their departure. However, if they remained for more than one week, they had to undertake some activities in the garden, in the kitchen or at the bread oven. An interesting thing to mention is that if a pilgrim was "worthy of attention" (Paladie, 1993, p. 24) we was given a book. This detail is particularly important, because we can infer that not only the monks had access to the library, but also some of the pilgrims who arrived here and who proved indeed to be "worthy of attention" (here the sense of being great by the way and their behavior).

Soon enough, besides the first traditional monasteries that were founded in the wilderness, other monasteries appeared within cities, as well as in the imperial capital.

Typically, each monastery had a library (Brewster, 1832, p. 21) comprising various manuscripts, among which we can mention copies of the Holy Bible, the works of the Church Fathers and those written by the profane authors of the Greek literature.

In the Byzantine Empire, there were many monasteries that can be divided into two categories: the monasteries of Byzantium and the monasteries from Constantinople.

I will further discuss the following three monasteries of the Byzantine Empire: the Monastery of St. John the Theologian (Patmos Island), St. Catherine's Monastery (Mount Sinai) and the monasteries of the Holy Mount Athos (Greece). There are over 100 existing monasteries throughout the Byzantine, but given the space allocated to this study, we will only summarize these 3, which are the most popular. The three monasteries of Constantinople that I will present are: the Monastery of Stoudios, the Chora Monastery and the Monastery of Christ Panoiktitmon.

2. 3. 1. The monasteries of the Byzantine Empire

2. 3. 1. 1. The Monastery of Saint John the Theologian (Patmos)

St. Christodoulos of Patmos (1020-1093 A.D.) is considered the founder of the Monastery of Saint John the Theologian, which was built with the support of the Emperor Alexios I Komnenos (1081-1118), who donated for this purpose the island of Patmos. The monastery had a library at the very beginning of its creation, due to both St. Christodoulos, who donated his collection of manuscripts (Ilie, 2007, p. 10), and to the Emperor Alexios I Komnenos (Ilie, 2007, p. 10). The monastery was built in 1201 and the catalog of the monastery's library, which is still preserved today, contained 330 manuscripts (Bréhier, 1994, p. 283). The 330 manuscripts can be divided into: liturgical works, texts and commentaries of the Holy Bible, the works of the Holy Fathers, the lives of the Saints and textbooks for elementary education (Bréhier, 1994, p. 283). The number could seem rather small, but it is understandable given the cost of manuscripts, which was very high in that period, and that there were none of today's modern printers.

2. 3. 1. 2. St. Catherine's Monastery (Mount Sinai)

The emperor Justinian the Great built a monastery on Mount Sinai, between the years 548-565 A.D., in the place where God spoke to Moses in the

form of the burning bush that was not consumed, accordingly to the Holy Scripture (Exodus 3: 2). Some historians believe that the monastery was established in this period, as on the cedar roof of the monastery church is kept an inscription, which can be viewed on the website of the monastery <http://www.sinaimonastery.com/en/index.php?lid=66#>, who remembers "our pious emperor" Justinian and the "dear departed empress" Theodora. Empress Theodora died in 548, from which the historians concluded that the monastery was built between 548 and 565, beginning with the death of the empress until the end of Emperor Justinian's reign. Here was also founded a library where the famous manuscript *Codex Sinaiticus*, dating from the 4th century, is kept until today. This manuscript, together with *Codex Vaticanus*, is considered to be the oldest copy of the Holy Bible (it is believed that these two codices are part of the 50 copies of the Holy Bible ordered by St. Constantine the Great for the imperial library (Ilie, 2007, p. 7.). The monastery's library holds one of the oldest collections of manuscripts in the world and contains over 3,300 manuscripts. Two thirds of the manuscripts are written in Greek, while the rest are in Arabic, Syriac, Georgian, Slavic, Polish, Hebrew, Ethiopic, Armenian, Latin and Persian (<http://www.sinaimonastery.com/en/index.php?lid=103>). Today, the Monastery of St. Catherine on Mount Sinai is included in the UNESCO heritage list (<http://www.sinaimonastery.com/en/index.php?lid=10>).

2. 3. 1. 3. The monasteries of the Holy Mount Athos (Greece)

The holy Mount Athos in Greece was founded by St. Athanasius the Athonite (930-1000 A.D.). The Holy Mount Athos, considered a stronghold or a bastion of Orthodoxy, is a genuine monastic republic. The Holy Mountain is geographically located in northeastern Greece, on the larger Chalkidiki peninsula. It has a length of 60 kilometers and a width between 8 and 12 kilometers, totaling about 360 square kilometers. With the financial support of his friend General Nicephorus Phocas (Cavarnos, 2005, p. 78), who will ascend the throne of Byzantium between the years 963-969 A.D., St. Athanasius will build the Great Lavra in 963 A.D. The Monastery of Great Lavra was equipped with a library, where there are about 960 manuscripts (Kahzdan, Browning, 1991, p. 1224). There are 19 other monasteries on Mount Athos and all of them took as model the *Great Lavra* founded by St. Athanasius the Athonite. Over the centuries, the number of monasteries in the Holy Mountain Athos has increased, but eventually it was settled at around 20 monasteries, which exist until today. These monasteries are: the *Great Lavra*, *Vatopedi*, *Iviron*, *Hilandar*, *Dionysiou*, *Koutloumousiou*, *Pantocrator*, *Xiropotamu*, *Zografu*, *Docheiariou*, *Caracalu*, *Filotheu*, *Simonospetras*, *St. Paul*, *Stavronikita*, *Xenophon*,

Gregoriou, Esphigmenou, St. Pantelimon and Kostamonitu cf. <http://www.munteleathos.com>. All 20 athonite monasteries benefit of libraries, which comprise in their collections the works of the Church Fathers, as well as profane works from the Greek and Roman literature. The Byzantine emperor in exile of Nicaea, John III-Vatatzes Dukas (1222-1254 A.D.), sent Nichifor Blemmydes (1197-1272 A.D.) across the cities of the empire and the monasteries of Mount Athos "to buy, or, if necessary, to copy or summarize precious manuscripts" (Tatakis, 2010, p. 286). In 1204, during the Fourth Crusade, Constantinople was conquered by the Latins and the Emperor Alexius V Dukas (1204) was deposed. The Latin Empire of Constantinopole was then established, having as first king the count of Flanders, Balduin I (1172-1205). The new empire lasted only until 1261, when the Byzantines reconquered the capital from the authority of the Latins. Only 3 parts of the Byzantine Empire retained their independence: Trepizonda or the Greek Empire of Trebizond, Greek Empire of Nicaea and the Despotate of Epirus. Empire of Nicaea was founded by Theodore I Laskaris (1204-1222) and his successor Michael VIII Palaeologus (1259-1282) will recapture Constantinople from the Latins hand on July 25, 1261 (Băbuş, 2003, p. 264). The Athonite libraries became worldwide famous, which prompted David Brewster to say that "there is no doubt that Constantinople and Athos (their libraries A.N.) contributed with a large number of manuscripts, which can be found in different parts of Europe" (Brewster, 1832, p. 23).

2. 3. 2. The monasteries of Constantinople

2. 3. 2. 1. The Monastery of Stoudios

The monastery was founded by the consul Stoudios, a Roman dignitary established in Constantinople in the years 462 or 463, who brought a group of monks from the Monastery of the "unsleeping ones" (<http://www.crestinortodox.ro/biserica-lume/manastirea-studion-67774.html>).

The fame of the monastery increased during the time of the abbot John of Studios, a "scholar" whose rules have influenced other monasteries throughout the Byzantine Empire (Ilie, 2007, p. 10), including the monasteries of the Holy Mount Athos. The monastery was equipped with a rich library and a scriptorium. The place was distinctive because the monks were studying the Scripture and the works of the Church Fathers. The daily obedience and occupations that the Stoudite monks were performing included the "reading day". In the "reading day", each monk from the monastery had to choose a book from the library and read it from sunrise to sunset (Ilie, 2007, pp. 9-10). At the end of the day, the monks had to return the books to the librarian. Another

abbot of the monastery, St. Theodore the Studite (758-826 A.D.), who revived the Byzantine monasticism in the 9th century, wrote that "a well-stocked library was essential, together with good scribes who had to be kept up to the mark" (Runciman, 1978, p. 10).

2. 3. 2. 2. Chora Monastery

This monastery dates back to the 5th-6th centuries (<http://www.crestinortodox.ro/biserica-lume/biserica-chora-constantinopol-67766.html>), but it was rebuilt several times over the centuries. The famous Byzantine scholar Theodor Metochites (1260-1332), restored the monastery in the years 1315-1320, but besides its restoration, he enlarged the library collection to the point where it became the largest library in Constantinople until the fall of Byzantium in 1453, according to Ihor Ševčenko (Ševčenko, 2002, p. 287). Some historians consider that, due to the donations made by Theodor Metochites, the library of monastery Chora ended up having more books than the patriarchal and the imperial library together.

2. 3. 2. 3. Monastery of Christ Panoiktirmon

This monastery was founded by the Byzantine historian Michael Attaliates (1020-1085) before the year 1074 (Ilie, 2007, p. 11) on one of its properties in Rhaifestos (today is the province of Tekirdağ in Turkey, 135 km away from Istanbul cf. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tekird%C4%9F>), located on the northern shore of the Marmara Sea and of the city of Constantinople. Initially, he built a church with the patron *Jesus Christ – All Merciful*, where he was planning to have only priests and deacons who would serve. Fearing that the church will be taken over by the authorities that could send there anyone to serve, Attaliates changed his mind and organized the church as a monastery with monks ("Byzantine Monastic Foundation Documents", 2000, p. 326). In order to carry out his vision, Michael Attaliates also wrote a set of rules for the monastery. Although Attaliates was not part of the imperial court, the monastery became slowly an aristocratic one. Furthermore, though the number of monks was initially set at seven, it was later reduced to five, because the monastery could only support that many ("Byzantine Monastic Foundation Documents", 2000, p. 327). At the end of typika written by Attaliates, there has been preserved also a catalog of the library of the monastery. Some of the manuscripts in the catalog included: a Gospel, an Apostle, a Psalter, the Catechesis of St. Theodore of Studios, a manuscript of history written by

Michael Attaliates and a Nomocanon, to name only a very few ("Byzantine Monastic Foundation Documents", 2000, pp. 358-359).

2. 4. Private libraries

This is the most common type of library in the Byzantine Empire, because there was a good number of erudites who gathered impressive collections of manuscripts. Among the famous private Byzantine libraries, we can mention those belonging to: Libanius (314-392/393); the emperor Justinian the Great (527-565); Cosmas the Scribe (sec. VI-VII); Tychius; the Holy Patriarch Photius the Great (858-867, 877-886); the archbishop Arethas of Caesarea in Cappadocia (860-939); the emperor Constantine VII Porphyrogenitus (912-959) and the emperor John II Comnenus (1118-1143).

2. 4. 1. Libanius (314-392/393)

Libanius is of Greek origin and he was born in Antioch in 314. He was one of the most famous pagan orators of antiquity, being a follower of Hellenism. Libanius studied in Athens and later opened a school in Constantinople, sometime between the years 340-346, which he was forced to close later on, because his rivals accused him of witchcraft. He settled in Antioch in 354, where he remained until his death. Libanius had an impressive library and a scriptorium which functioned as a "publishing house". Among his disciples, who read books from his library, we can mention here St. John Chrysostom (347-407) and Theodore of Mopsuestia (350-428) (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Libanius#Life>).

2. 4. 2. The emperor Justinian the Great (527-565)

The emperor Justinian the Great was one of the Byzantine emperors who had a rich "intellectual" activity, writing many works, especially in the field of law. His large library collection comprised numerous manuscripts of canons and laws, and it is believed that it was competing with the imperial library (Ilie, 2007, p. 20) in terms of content. Unfortunately, there is no preserved catalogue that could show all the books that the emperor Justinian the Great had in his personal library.

2. 4. 3. Cosmas the Scribe (sec. VI-VII)

John Moschos (540/550-617) describes in his famous work, entitled *Spiritual Meadow* or *Limonariu* (this book is a collection of lives of saints and monks parents in Palestine, Egypt, Mount Sinai etc.), the life of Cosmas the Scribe, in Chapter 172. This is how it appears the Romanian edition used by we

cf. (Moshu, 1991, pp. 163-164). Here is the life of Cosmas the Scribe: "Concerning this man Cosmas the lawyer, many people told us many things [...] This wondrous man greatly benefited us, not only by letting us see him and by teaching us, but also because he had more books than anyone else in Alexandria. Yet he was a man of no possessions. Throughout his house there was nothing to be seen but books, a bed and a table. Any man could go in and ask for what would benefit him – and read it. Each day I would go in to him and I never entered without finding him either reading or writing against the Jews, because it was his fervent desire to convert the Hebrews to the truth" (Moshu, 1991, p. 163). In this short passage we learn about Cosmas' life, a monk whom John Moschos knew personally. When he would visit Cosmas, at his home in Alexandria, all he could see was books, but the most interesting thing is that the monk's private library "had more books than anyone else in Alexandria" (Moshu, 1991, p. 163). Unfortunately, John Moschos does not provide other details regarding Cosmas' library, making it difficult to determine what other books, besides the Holy Scriptures, were included in the library.

2. 4. 4. The Holy Patriarch Photius the Great (858-867, 877-886)

St. Photius the Great was chosen as Patriarch of Constantinople twice (858-867 and 877-886) and is renowned not only for his writing, but also for his library, which was at the disposal of his friends (Vasiliev, 2010, p. 305). In his library there were books of all kinds, both Christian and secular. Saint Photius remained in the history especially for his encyclopedic work called *Myriobiblion* or *Bibliotheca* (Brezeanu, 2007, p. 180). This book resembles a bibliography and summarizes around 380 books (Vasiliev, 2010, p. 306), which are mostly missing today.

2. 4. 5. Other personalities who have held private libraries

Ananius from Shirik mentions the private library of Tychius, who came to Constantinople in 620. Ananius testifies that his teacher's library was very large and comprised "known and secret books, ecclesiastical and secular ones, scientific and historical, medical and chronological writings" (Ilie, 2007, p. 19).

Another important private library was that of Areta, the Archbishop of Caesarea in Cappadocia (Chellinck, 1937, p. 1600). Areta was a disciple of Patriarch Photius the Great and in his library there was a copy of the manuscript of Euclid (Mango, 2002, p. 221), as well as other manuscripts thought as belonging to his teacher.

The Byzantine emperor Constantine VII Porphyrogenitus (912-959) (Kahzdan, Browning, 1991, p. 1225) was another lover of books, who possessed a rich personal library.

John II Comnenus (1118-1143) was another Byzantine emperor who had a passion for reading, holding a large private library and a collection of religious books (Kahzdan, Browning, 1991, p. 1225).

There were numerous other Byzantine scholars and humanists who possessed important private libraries and who either kept them until their deaths, or donated them to other libraries. For example, Theodor Metochites donated his private collections to the library of Chora monastery in Constantinople. There were certainly other scholars that did the same thing as Theodor Metochites.

2. 5. The university library

I have not found any concrete evidence that the university library actually ever existed, which is the reason why I left it for the final part of the essay.

The emperor Theodosius II (408-450) will establish the University of Constantinople in 425. The teaching was focused on the two cycles: *trivium* and *quadrivium*. One of the disciplines taught to basic "students" who attended the University of Constantinople was the Roman law. The Byzantines developed considerably the juridical area, to the extent that during the reign of the Emperor Justinian the Great the subject reached its climax, especially since Justinian himself wrote a great deal in legal and canon law.

Unfortunately, there is no evidence that the University library actually existed (Kahzdan, Browning, 1991, p. 1224), although this is highly possible. The hypothesis still remains at this level. The library was also called the legal library or the law school.

Given the specific of this legal library, the Byzantine emperor Constantine VII Porphyrogenitus asserted that the university library should contain "all the necessary books of legal education" (Ilie, 2007, p. 8).

If indeed the library of the University of Constantinople ever existed, its collection of book was largely composed by fundamental works of Roman law, from the collection of canons written in Latin and Greek.

3. Conclusions

The history of the Libraries in the Byzantine Empire begins with the arrival to the throne of the Emperor Constantine the Great (306-337). He inaugurated in 330 the new imperial capital, together with the imperial library

and other important buildings. Over the life of the Empire, we could determine the following libraries: *imperial, patriarchal, monastic, private* and *university*. The evolution of these libraries has experienced an upward flow until their abolition, when Constantinople was conquered by the Turks, in May 29, 1453. Some of the libraries' collections entered into the library of Sultan Mehmed II the Conqueror (1451-1481).

The fall of the Constantinople marked the end of the Byzantine Empire, event that took place on May 29, 1453. The main libraries that existed in the Byzantine capital, were saved from destruction by Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror (1441-1481). Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror added to his personal library the collections of the libraries who existed in Constantinople, such as imperial library, patriarchal library and some monastic libraries.

The reforms that followed the conquest of the Byzantine Empire by the Turks, have led to its administrative reorganization. Thus, all Christian churches and monasteries were turned into mosques and colleges. The main turkish libraries who overtake byzantine manuscripts, in greek and other languages, are: the library of Sultan Mehmed the Conqueror.

Currently the Byzantine manuscripts are in the following turkish libraries: Süleymaniye Kütüphansi, the National State Archives of Turkey and Topkapi Palace Museum Library.

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Cultural Journalist Eminescu and the Theatre from Bucharest

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Abstract

Eminescian cultural journalism means to dedicate several articles to literature, language, folklore, theater, religion, education and culture. In this paper, I pointed out that, of the 20 items about theater, 11 are dramatic chronics and 9 are theatrical dissertations. Like inter-war Camil Petrescu, the journalist Eminescu exceeded in the 8th and 9th decades of the nineteenth century and reviewed the status on all facets of this art of Thalia. From the hottest actors, performers game, fame authors, director role - intrinsic problems - from economic and sociological literature, such as salaries, the attitude of theatrical heads (anagers) public empathy. Success depends not only on the performance on stage or the sounds of the playwright - among those approached by the journalist: Sophocles, Hugo, Scribe, G. Sand, Shakespeare, Gogol; the great interpreters of the time, Millo, Eufrosinia Popescu, Petre Velescu can have moments of apathy, which would seriously damage public success. So there may be less visible factors in scenic representation of a dramatic work. Polyphonic journalist by vocation, Eminescu sensed the thorny issues in theater and objectivity made him take matters into his own hands, regardless of the consequences. Criticism in socio-political area was manifested in the theater area, the targets being artists, designers, directors... The dramatic analyst never spared anyone, not even the president of the Theatre Committee, Ion Ghica. Disavowed demanding cultural journalist, the columnist impugned order and stunned the cultural world of the time with the vastness of his knowledge in comedy, tragedy, drama. Eminescu had sufficient documentation about French, German, and even American theater! He was intrigued that we still hadn't had a

national repertoire - I flaw unsolved by Kogalniceanu's and Alecsandri's forty-eighters. Moreover, sarcastic theoretic commentator every now and then showed by a kind of tabula rasa that very few actors would be credited as a professional in his opinion: Alecsandri, Hasdeu, Deparateanu. He omitted himself, supreme proof of modesty. Eminescian theatrical publicity catches the eye with the deep views, by drilling haze layers of text, and by alert, concise and elastic phrasing, not once connotative, aphoristic. There is even a study where Eminescu can afford a theatrical bet. In general, he remains a vigilant theater analyst, perhaps the most active of his period, being a forerunner to Nicolae Filimon.

Keywords: journalism, cultural journalism, Eminescu, Bucharest theatre
JEL: Z10, Y80

1. Introduction

Impassioned reader, and keen bystander on what concerned the theatrical phenomenon, Eminescu wrote with generosity and bent indulgence papers about the way the performers acted, the esthetic taste, the national repertoire, actors in fashion, their salaries and the artistic level of the plays (Oprea, 2000; Mocanu, 2003; Jicu, 2012; Nimigean, 2012; Mocanu, 2013; Nedelcu, 2015). It is absurd to claim the aura of being leader of the dramatic chronicles to the polyvalent journalist, at a time that the journalistic species presented earlier did not have a tradition in Romanian literature. The only dynamic pen, N. Filimon, had disappeared from the image, the rest were pure amateurs, not to be rude to say it was a tedious void. Eminescu did not say he was a bar setter, a possessed man, vigilant about the dramatic domain, advantage which showed for example, on the line of political chronicles, and maybe cultural and linguistic.

With a lot of common sense, calm and clemency, the journalist got close to theatre, without doing coherent studies, like in other domains; the fragmentarism denotes, although, a few bald ideas, a "critical eye", a visionary. The bad, negativism, imperfections, are taxed, and those which are successful receive bonuses, appreciations.

2. Attention on theatre of Bucharest

Of the 20 articles studied on this theme, 11 are dramatic chronicles, and the other one theatrical dissertations (Mironescu, 2012; Tinca, 2014; Mocanu, 2014). The drama structured in 4 acts, "*Moartea lui C. Brâncoveanu*", by Antonio Roques (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 151-154), would have had a certain value, is stated with subtleness by the journalist: It would have been better if it

had not been written, despite the acting struggles of Galino. In total opposition, of a totally different style, is presented the drama in 5 acts “*Moartea lui Petru cel Mare*”, by E. Scribe (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 154-159), time of an axiological reflection: the comedy is “catchy” for Romanians, while the drama – is not.

The proximal argument? “*Caterina a II-a de Dumanoir și Bieviele*”, comedy in 3 acts, examined with rigorousness, from the theme, to the acting of the players, to the reactions of the audience, and most of all, the relationship between international theatre and the Romanian one.

Comforting for the watcher, for the art consumer is for the representation to take place outdoors, in the garden of a coffee-shop -like it is said in “Teatrul de vară” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 159)-, with young actor keen to perform. On a classic repertoire, from Corneille, Racine and Molière. The warm applauses confirmed the success of the drama “*Orfelinele*” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 161).

The enthusiasm of the public can repay either the directors ingenuity (as in the case of “*Fadette*” by George Sand(M. Eminescu, 1970, p. 188), French novel dramatized by Carlotta Birchpfeiffer), or by the remarkable acting of one actor, let's admit, the Italian Ernesto Rossi(1827-1896), the ideal shakespearean interpret (in “*Reprezentăriile Rossi*” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 195) or Frédéric Damé, in “*Visul Dochiei*” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 180) and “*Ostașii noștri*” (Eminescu, 1970), artist in his best shape, competed, but not equaled by a series of talented colleagues. Talent ignores age, illness, human pains, extra-scene, so that the 65 years old actor triumphs in the capital as well, in the art. “*Millo în București*” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 196), being able to serve as a model for many dilettantes from the Thalic universe. Analytical spirit, close follower of things already hidden, the columnist intuits the good translation – of “*Ruy Blas*” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 201), criticized on the other hand, in the same article being presented the uneven acting of the players, not forgiving, surprisingly, even the fashionable Fr. Damé: “*Visul Dochiei*” is a long tarara, of declamation on Ștefan, Mircea, M. Viteazul, which ends in a parade of hunters and dorobanți.

“The wind” of Romanians preferences cand blow one way or another, clearly decided, the theatrical commentator admits value, diagnosing: the play in 5 acts “*Despot-Vodă*”, “in the verses and language of the nightingale from Mircești” (metaphor) is the best drama of the moment.

When it comes to rejections, the exigent journalist, notes the melodrama “*Mănăstirea de Castro*” (in “Teatrul Național - Mănăstirea de Castro”) as a vulgar weaving with images and misadventures (Eminescu, 1970, p. 201), even though the artists Millo, Eufrosina Popescu, Petre Velescu tried to put it on an ascending path. The difference between the dramatic works is figured out by

the esthetical criteria. The dichotomy of successful and unsuccessful plays, after set principles, suffers a correction, by the inclusion, says Eminescu, of the characters' consistency.

On a simplistic view, the Eminescian chronicles are based on 2 elements: the narrated literary subject, and the players act. Of these put head to head, the memoirs about theatre – some uneven, discontinuous – compose, with difficulty, the profile of a dramatic journalist, very profound in the articles: *Repertoriul nostru teatral*, *Despre actorie*, *Despre soarta actorului*, *Visul Dochiei*, *Două orfeline*, *Deschiderea stagiunii, 1878-1879* and *Despre scrierile dramatice*. With them, the items are one after one passed, probing deep down in the theatrical substance, entering in tangent with the literary sociology (poor payment of the players, poor capital for special montages, the need for a theatre of the Royal court) and the theatrology (the “fragility” of the theatrical repertoire, inadequate repartition of roles).

In subsidiary, Eminescu operates with the “scalpels”, in diachrony, basing himself on masterpieces from Sofocle (*Oedipus*) and V.Hugo (*Ruy Blas*); the plays in fashion make him smile, ironically or to slide towards collateral “territories”.

Merciful with some of the plays that were on the public's taste, the journalist eludes their esthetical level, and binds “a few sentences of circumstance”, reiterating the play's ideation, or appreciating the representations of the actors Galino, and ladies Dănescu, Evolachi.

Practically, the heavyweights of the scene in Bucharest, impossible to be offended by anything. Even more, veneration had become something normal, and for the journalist Eminescu a strategy of discrediting, by omission, of some dramatic acts, of ephemera fame. On a neutral tone, the journalist announces in the article *Despre actori* (Eminescu, 1970, pp. 177-179), that the benefit representation of Ms. Dănescu will take place on a Sunday, occasion to mount a comedy, *Teatrul național*. Letting go of truisms and the ordinary, the theatrical analyst, arrogating a serious image, admits that in that pêle-mêle of romantic plays, the value accesses with difficulty the sandy layers of amateurs, to bring them towards the light: “In our country, the success of mediocrity is very easy, and the fight of all the better elements are beyond measure”. He pities the directors which, in order to survive, have to show, on the notice boards, sensational plays, filled with crimes, physical pain, and obscene pranks. Taking the curtains off, Eminescu concedes that chronicles are made on demand, choosing the play, the author or actors. Few actually have talent, pertinent observation, but this was a inconvenient situation for the Romanian theatre in the VII and VIII decades of the bourgeois century.

Perfectly conscious of the abyss appearance – essence, of the erroneous path of dramatizing on the national scene (Curelaru, 2005; Mureșanu-Ionescu, 2009; Curcă, 2012; Dragulanescu, 2012), from Bucharest especially, the journalist gives up on the on the sweetened up attitude and puts the dot on the “I”, opening once again a “wound”: “there is no original theatrical repertoire” (Eminescu, 1970, pp 143-150). After noticing the “liberty in feeling” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 143), the dramatic commentator “takes the sword out of the scabbard” of criticism, of polemics, the effect being of revival of the article, and the opponent - a journalist from “Familia”, which falsely approached the problem of Romanian text - was driven into a corner. Taking over his fellows by the vast information, intelligence, and scriptural refinement, Eminescu presents the point of view of the colleague x, explains, combats it, classes it, arguments it and gloomily concludes: we don't really have theatre, just a few notable plays by M. Millo, Pantazi Ghica, B.P. Hasdeu, V. Alecsandri. The news of that present, and the only “glimmers”, *Rienzi* by S. Bodnărescu și *Grigore Ghica* by Mr. Al. Depărăteanu. The phrase has nerve, consistency, irony. If “the European atmosphere was infested with corruption and frivolity” (Eminescu, 1970, p. 146), no different were the things in our country. Rigorous, honest with V. Alecsandri but still logical in what he affirms, the visionary journalist starts from a caustic premise: he imagines what a nihilistic spectator might say.

On the scenes of Bucharest theatre, the plays were frivolous, melodramas, adaptations, imitations, plays from the 3rd and 4th shelf anyway, either from titans, a Shakespeare, Gogol, Hugo being rarer. Starting from a particular case – a play by Gogol, showing the life of the Russians – the journalist prospects the space of German and American literature, builds comparisons and validates al national writers Fritz Reuter, for the Germans, and Bret Harte, for the Americans, and Pëtöfi (Eminescu, 1970, p. 167), for Hungarians.

The incursion in Weltliteratur had the purpose of reporting the national, the particular in general. So, A. Pann, Slavici și Creangă have truthfully mirrored the fate of people from Târgoviște. If the translation was imperfect, the cues easily modeled, the journalist firmly intervenes.

In *Deschiderea stagiunii*(M.Eminescu, 1970, pp. 198-200) some language harshness are sanctioned, the sample being offered as the play *Fiica lui Tintoretto*, translated in a language a bit non Romanian.

The venturesome journalist affords to critique Ion Ghica, president of the Theatrical Academic Committee, personality of his age, intangible (Eminescu, 1970, p. 199). In opposition will happen in the context of the

representation of a masterpiece by V. Hugo (*Ruy Blas*), where the direction and the translator receive lexical garlands from the journalists (Eminescu, 1970, p. 201). Without a doubt the journalist knew in detail the real situation of the Romanian scene. He was indignant by the poor salaries of actors and the very relaxed attitude of directors which were receptive not to valuable plays, but to ephemerae like: boulevard theatre, pranks, melodramas, historical poems. This kitsch faked the public's taste, it educated the watcher, like what Mihail Pascaly or Iorgu Caragiale did for example. The press reader had acclimatised with the famous interprets of the time: Millo, Velescu, Vasilescu, Dănescu, Manolescu, Galino etc.

The grave situation consisted of the fragile presence of Romanian plays in the theatrical repertoire, filled up with fashionable, eccentric plays, some even bloody. There was no national repertoire, just a polychromy of imitating drama. The conception of the dramatic journalist was heading towards Greek antiquity(Sofocle), French classicism (Corneille, Racine, Molière) and French romance (V. Hugo), first of all, and then towards other literary spaces: Italian(Goldoni), Russian(Gogol). He did by no means accept the dilettantism, the journalist documented himself a lot, reading even American and German theatre, following like a professional the very best on the posters of theatres in Bucharest.

He was in theme with the young authors, but which were played right. Striking remains the hiatus between the alive actors, and the artistic level of the dramatic plays. With harshness the specialist journalist treats the 2nd and 3rd rank dramatists like: Halepliu, Carada, A. Lăzărescu, Mavrodol, Șt. Mihăileanu. The difference is made between Bolintineanu the poet, and Bolintineanu the perishable dramatist. Superficial, uneven it seems to him to be also Frederic Damé, the Frenchman which arrived to our land, author of two plays: *Visul Dochiei* and *Ostașii noștri*. The representations of Italian actor Rossi seem monumental to him.

3. Conclusion

Synthetic spirit, the journalist manages to sign once in "Curierul de Iași", nr 139, from dec. 1876, on the column "Revista Teatrală", publishing an article about three plays *Cerșitoarea*, *Paza bună trece primejdia rea*, *Ucigașul*. Anyways, the study "*Repertoriul nostrum teatral*", is a veritable theatrical breviary, where, for 7 pages, he talks about the necessity of creating a national theatre, about the best plays of the moment, about corruption, frivolity, and polemizes an anonymous journalist etc.

The action of demolition of false poetic and prose values, initiated by Maiorescu is continued on a theatrical realm, by Eminescu, which critiques what was irrelevant, proposes laurels for the actors and some plays, and he turns on all sides, as always, the Romanian drama, retaining only a few names (Alecsandri, Pantazi Ghica, Depărățeanu Hașdeu) and offers solutions for getting over the crysis. Shortly, the opinions of the signatory from “Curierul din Iași” will be taken into account, and the progress of this art will not be delayed.

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Public Relations Campaign in the Internet Era

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Abstract

The study is based on the development of the public relations' campaign from 2000 to 2016 and how they influenced the public. For this research it was used the meta-analytical method. In 2000 the era of Internet has been started, but wasn't at the same level how it is today. People from the field of Communication and Public Relation together with the company and its clients begun to learn how to use the Internet in order to improve the strategy of the public relations' campaign. A major influence given by the power of the Internet causes the launches of the social media: Facebook, LinkedIn, Pinterest, Instagram, Google+, Twitter and more. In Romania, Public Relations are representing a new field on the market; they have started to grow since the fall of the communism in 1989. In our days, more and more companies know the importance of the public relations and they try to discover new strategies to develop their image through public relations campaign. Time is passing and our society is changing and so are the public relations. If in the past year, the consumers were simply impressed by what they saw, nowadays people want more from public relations. They have access to the information through the Internet and are very suspicious about every product, so the people who are working in the public relations must be flexible and open minded to what is new. It's a continuous learning.

Keywords: public relations, social media, communication, strategy, present

JEL: Z10, Y80

1. Introduction

In the beginning of the new millennium, in 2000, the Internet will slowly become a part of every society of the world. However, because the Internet wasn't an important mean of communication how is in our days, the people from the public relations managed their campaign based on promoting their image on television, radio and billboards. According to that year, the media was responsible to improve the idea of public relations through different channels.

From 2000 to 2016, it occurred many changes in the performance and achieving success in a public relations campaign. The most important factor that sustained the power to create a series of diversity in the field of communication and public relations is the appearance of the social media in our society. But for the social media to become a main reason for campaigns, the society must have a modern technology. It is known that in 2000, the Internet wasn't such a base mean of communication how it is in our days, but it advanced quickly and became the society's sustained point. In our days, in 2016, a public relations campaign can be easily accessed on the Internet or better said-on social media as Facebook, LinkedIn, Pinterest, Instagram, Google+, Twitter and more. A public relations campaign must have a good strategy based on the existence of social media. With the help of them, people from the PR can find what the reputation of the company is and how is it reached by people and the most important thing: to see who are the people that are in the public target. In order to support and create a good public relations campaign, the company must have a content that attracts people. The strategy must rely on how much the company has an influence on the public target. People from the public relations are the one responsible to maintain a good dialogue with people on social media and encourage them to comment and like the various posts from Facebook, Twitter or others. Based on social media, a good strategy of public relations can increase the credibility of the company and build the reputation of it. Social media has to power to promote a company. Another interesting way in promoting a company is regarding using the blog or blogging. Here, the specialists from the public relations are not anymore depending on reporters to write the company's story. Instead, they are presenting it how they want on blog. In 2000 they were supporting only be the media. Now, they can be the media. A blog for a corporate company is now a necessity. Organizational blogging allows the customers or potential customers to involve with the organization's brand in an effectively way than the traditional way. In using a blog, member of the organization can see who is

entering the site to reach the necessary information through a tool named Google Analytics. It is used to track the traffic, the referrals and which posts are seen well. People from the public relations are the entire responsibility in promoting the image of their company (Coman, 2004; Badea, 2008; Brown, 2014).

2. Public Relations in Our Days

In our days, a public relations campaign had become more affordable than in the year 2000 because the services of public relations can create a budget according your necessity. Even in our society, there are many people who don't know what is the role of the public relations' specialists in a company. Specialists of public relations are the ones responsible in creating the public image of an institution, corporate company, commercial society, political or non-government organization (Cutlip, 1962; Black, 1989; Cutlip, 2013). Their role is to avoid conflicts and to negotiate, also to manage the relations with the media; people from the public relations are elaborating written and audio-visual messages and are organizing media events as press conference, launches of diverse services. Another important thing about the specialist in public relations is that he has the role to evolve a series of activities in order to develop the public image: planning a program specialized, create recommendation, planning activities and be in contact always with the result of the activities that are elaborated in the program. It's important to know that the specialist in public relations is maintaining always a relation with the organization's manager or with his client.

This result that the specialist in public relations must act professional in all his work that is consisting in: growing and maintaining a good relation of collaboration with the media, activity of writing and editing materials for different category of public, creating the company's identity, an efficient oral communication with the groups from the company, elaborating presentation or diverse types of collective events, brochure products, rapsorts, movies or other multimedia programs as important means of communication, organizing special events as competition, press conference, programs to reward the special activities. All these actions are achieving by the specialist in public relations in order to win the attention of public. For the person who works in the public relations field, there are two very important activities: to research- this means to collect the necessary information in order to realize the strategy of company's campaign of public relations and to evaluate the program- to observe precise what is the activity that can be in the future strategy in the program.

The persons that are working in the field of public relations have a series of attribution and responsibilities: to research, collect, processing and analyze the information, to elaborate, create and select the writer, video, photo and audio material for the organization or the client, spreading the information to journalists, maintaining a good collaboration with their team and their clients, organizing and participating in special events for the company. A negative thing about working in the public relations is represented by the irregular program and the stress that is accumulating in working overtime. But Public relations are representing a good environment for the people to work. This field has two environments: interior and exterior; the first is for working at office in normal condition and the second is to participate in events, to meet with clients and journalists, and more.

A person who is a specialist in public relations has to be flexible, sociable, to have a distributive attentive, to have the capacity to work with the people and to love what he is doing. To practice this job, it is necessary to be trained at a superior level in Communication and Public Relations; also it is necessary to know management, marketing, publicity, journalism, social psychology and research of public opinions (Wilcox, Cameron & Reber, 1992; Botan & Taylor, 2004).

Our modern society is defined by the large number of members and has a complex organization that it could not work without the existence of public relations. The diversity of the organizations in our society is composed of efficient programs of communications in order to create a bond between them and the public. Public relations are representing original instruments to solve the problems that an organization has: to develop a problem, to launch an idea and to avoid a catastrophe.

After the fall of communism in 1989 in Romania, the public relations had developed very well and in just a few years; our country has moved the public relations from ignorance to professional field- it can be comparable with the modern society in which the public relations were practiced over a century (Iorgulescu, 2009; Coman, 2011; Cmeciu, 2011; Ene, 2011; Stoica, 2012). However, it may have to pass some time for the public relations to develop as a culture. Every part of our society must try to understand the concept of public relations and its importance. Public relations are the necessary instruments to promote a brand because it addresses directly to its public. Public relations have a series of functions. The first function is represented by the notoriety that is the most efficient and safely activity of the public relations to make known a certain product, values or services to its public. Education is the second function and is representing the fact that the best consumer is the one who is

educated; public relations are educating the public. The credibility is the key in the relations public and it is known as a communication instrument in order to inform the public, not to make advertising (Kitchen, 1997; Voinea, 2015). To obtain a support from certain parts means to grow constantly the credibility in manner to send the message and to be legitimated as a neutral part. The encouragement of the behavior to buy is another function of the public relations where the consumers are increasingly informed. The target public must have a good relation based on trust with the organization that is producing a certain product. For this to happen, the organization must explain through a better communication which are the values of the company and must create special programs of public relations. Another function of the public relation is marked by the difference- where the public is already educated, the interest of a certain product and its notoriety is established and from here the message of the public relations must differentiate the brand from the competition (Stancu, 2004; Gregory, 2009; Negrea, 2015). The position is another function where the differentiate is realized through positioning that is marked by the way in which the product is seen by the consumer. The positioning is obtained through an efficient and credible communication. The last function is represented by the relations' management with the consumer where the public relations are oriented in the construction of the relations based on informal communication.

People who are getting in touch with the universe of public relations' field are introduced in confused state because the field of activity is new and has semantic difficulties.

In an organization, the public relations are very important because it create a stable loyalty with the employee. The public relations are researching and evaluating permanently the employee's attitude and how their implications are. Public relations can be referred as an internal activity too. From this it results that the internal public relations are concerned with the relations with the organization's employee and are used the following means of communications: information letters, brochures, discussions, reunions and more. The specialist in public relations has the role to teach the managers how to present their image in press conferences and interviews.

There are two essential elements of the program of public relations: personal contact and communication that is producing understanding, sympathy and mutual trust. A person who has the role to be the specialist in public relations in an organization has to develop and implement programs in order to send to the people the correctly information that they need. It is important to know that the clients of every organization are representing their self as means of internal communication in which they can communicate with the

organization's employee to make comments or appreciate the quality of the company's services (Hutton, 1999; Sriramesh & Vercic, 2003). The external part of the activity of public relations is the one responsible with the connection with the media. External public relations are maintaining the connection with the media through: personal contact- individual's interviews, press conference, discourses, unofficial meetings, special events, articles, and more.

Present consumers are different from the people from the past because they are not looking with trust and are not anymore loyal to the products. The modern consumers are shrewd and they receive the information from the publicity in a skeptical mode (Kent & Taylor, 2002; Petrovici, 2011; Ionescu, 2015). They are trying to understand and to find the individuality in the brand's sense in manner to mark their personality and the social statute. In our days, if a person wants to find some information about a product, he will not trust the advertising that he is seeing on television and he will find the necessary information on Internet; Google is representing the first instrument that people are using to find the information (Lendingham, 2003; Ranta, 2014; Basic, 2015; Hart, 2016). Another important thing about the present and modern consumers is that they appreciate more the independence and the authenticity. On the Internet they find the correctly information about the brands. The communication between the people from a certain organization and its public is realized faster on the Internet. The information is received immediately. A public relations campaign must create its strategy, according the needs of people.

3. Conclusion

Public relations are more important than never in our society. They have the power to influence the public and change the perception of any product image. Society has changed so as the field of public relations. Past consumers are different from the present consumers. People are not anymore influenced just by what they see. In our times where the Internet is representing the major source of information, the consumers are becoming more and more suspicious of what they are receiving from every public relations' campaign. The public relations' area in every organization must improve their strategy in order to attract people to their organization. A simple way to do this is by using the social media. A good strategy of public relations must show the necessary information about what image they are promoting on Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn or other forms of social media. It's important to know that a good communication of the organization with its client or its public can be reached on the Internet: social media are representing the most important part in their

activity on the Internet. In Romania, after 1989, Public Relations had begun a part of every organization. However, the field of public relations is still a new domain in our country.

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The Evolution of the Institution of Divorce in Romania

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Abstract

Under civil law in Romania in force today, divorce is granted by the court only for good reasons, when relations between spouses are impossible and coexistence of them can no longer continue. The current Civil Code of Romania provides in addition to the dissolution of marriage by judicial and other forms of dissolution of marriage, administratively or by a notary (art. 375-378, CC), but only by agreement of spouses and if the marriage is not accompanied minors.

Keywords: civil, divorce, relations, law

JEL: Z1, M37

1. Introduction

Located on the border between a person's freedom and liberties of others, a person's right to dispose of itself will always have a variable content, sensitive to any changes or trends in social general and permanent accommodation with the developments in terms of social morality, or group. Another fundamental reflection of liberalism is systematizing the community as a certain kind of equality: equal opportunities.

But this concept of identity decadent reminiscent of Marxist typologies – the justice is above good. „The regulatory system of liberal democracy makes possible this equality in several ways: discrimination in relation to certain criteria, equal conditions when their inequality is relevant for participation or access, eliminating arbitrariness of the authorities” (Danisor, 2014, p. 46).

For that we are a country with a strong Orthodox tradition, over the centuries can be no question of grounds for divorce related state legislation that have been rejected by the Church, but also for reasons allowed by Church law, but unsupported by State Law. The amount of these reasons and their importance, were always perceived separately by the two institutions, the State and the Church, the stage where the number of grounds for divorce was very high, which are also reflected in retail civil law. However, a precise list of grounds for divorce was never concretely established by the Church.

Now, in a secular framework, the concept of marriage as a community for life between a man and a woman appears increasingly distant from consciousness faithful Church. Taking into account the evolution of traditions, began to trivialize divorce, this state of affairs exists is supported by the vast majority of civil laws.

Under civil law in Romania in force today, divorce is granted by the court only for good reasons, when relations between spouses are impossible and coexistence of them can no longer continue.

Family Code of Romania Old and New Civil Code distinguish between termination and dissolution of marriage, noting that if the termination occurs as marriage, divorce can take place only by court (art.259, point 5 and 6 Civil Code).

The current Civil Code of Romania provides in addition to the dissolution of marriage by judicial and other forms of dissolution of marriage, administratively or by a notary (art. 375-378, CC), but only by agreement of spouses and if the marriage is not accompanied minors.

2. The Evolution of the Intitution of Divorce

During the feudal period, our country, both in Romanian Country and Moldova, justice was done ruler or feudal, locally there is justice town and village, and the Church within his jurisdiction being cases concerning adultery, divorce, relationship, parentage, inheritance, until the 18th century and even 19th century.

In regions where patriarchal traditions were rooted in popular area of law, divorce was received as a state of exception, marriages were initiated by parents, and divorce was but a disregard of their will and bringing hatred and revenge. If tended to divorce, they will try for sure a reconciliation for the spouses.

The family is considered „the basic cell of society”, in communism „one of the fundamental principles of family law was family stability, which meant the stability of marriage” (Marcel Ioan Rusu, Divorce Procedure, page 28).

Thus, divorce was regarded as an exceptional case, the court will appreciate the merits of the grounds for divorce, the consensus husbands to divorce is not enough, as Professor Tudor Radu Popescu asserts that „the conception of our law on divorce is reflected both both its admissibility as a consequence of the principle of freedom of marriage in the sense that it has in family law and the socialist principle of family stability and marriage” (Radu Tudor Popescu, Family Law, p 240).

The communist system, based on Marxist-Leninist ideology about family and marriage, developed matrimonial legislation, leading to family law as a distinct branch of law, on February 1, 1954 with effect on Family Code to repeal the rules governing divorce in the Civil Code.

Today it re-enters in the system Civil Code concerning marriage and divorce, without mark and distinction regarding grounds for divorce, which are no longer exposed precisely, is reprehensible spouses can divorce by mutual consent especially when there are minor children.

3. Divorce by Mutual Consent of Spouses

Such a divorce is controversial and contested, being contrary to the mutual consent of the spouse's marriage underpin manifested through love of the spouses, prerequisite for a marriage. So marriage cannot be dissolved by such a divorce by mutual consent is unacceptable and is inconsistent with the conditions necessary for a marriage. However, although it is recognized that fact, divorce by mutual consent of both spouses were covered in the old Civil Code (Article 214) and the Family Code and the current Civil Code, the latter facilitating even this type of divorce.

The administrative or notary procedures, divorce can occur only by agreement of spouses when they jointly decided to divorce all those related effects. Thus, „if the spouses agree to divorce and have no minor children born in wedlock, out of wedlock or adopted, justice of the peace or notary public at the place of marriage or the last family residence can find divorce by agreement spouses, freeing them certified divorce according to the law” (art. 374 CC).

So, looking at art. 374-378 NCC, it highlights the fact that consensual divorce itself is admissible irrespective of the duration of marriage and whether or not there are minor children, natural or adopted, with only explicit requirement that both spouses have full legal capacity. Spouses divorce by consent cannot be given if one of them is under judicial interdiction [art. 374 par. (2) art. 375 par. (2) NCC] plainly obvious reasons: divorce amicably indispensable requirement is the existence and free character of each spouse's consent, which means the ability of everyone to express an informed choice.

The existence of „common” children of spouses, born in wedlock, out of wedlock or adopted minors at the time of application does not prevent divorce by consent of the spouses in any of forms - consensual itself or consensual imperfect - and, coherently and consistently, nor might otherwise; conditioning any of the embodiments of divorce by consent spouses of lack of children would have been completely unnecessary, because earlier that the spouses have agreed to end the marriage would be spent anyway version of divorce consensual remaining open them - for example, promoting formal and constrained circumstances an application for divorce in fault as a pretext for „accession” to divorce the other spouse.

4. Conclusion

Freedom of starting a family also means that the individual must bear the consequences of his actions, he will be praised or blamed for them. Freedom and responsibility are inseparable. A society that does not recognize that every individual has their own values on which it is entitled to follow has no respect for the dignity of the individual and cannot know freedom. Equally true it is that in a free society, the individual will be respected depending on how they use their freedom.

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The Relation between Mass-Media and Youth: Influences and Effects

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Abstract

This paper aims to point out how and in what manner is the young generation influenced by the television nowadays – one that changed its complexity in a spectacular way throughout the years. The methodology we used, was based on an opinion survey, in which teenagers aged 15 to 18 participated. The main topics we addressed, regarding the young generation were: the access to mass-media, ways of spending leisure time, T.V. viewing preferences, motivations and personal satisfactions, associated with certain television programs and exposure to shows with negative potential. The objective of this article and its research was to set the preferences of the younger generation for certain television programs, and also to establish the level in which they change their behavior. Along with the central purpose, we also analyzed a series of secondary objectives, with a lower importance, but whose achievement sustains the basic ideas of the survey. The followed targets were the following: a) the frequency with which teenagers watch T.V. shows, the number of hours spent daily in front of the television and the days in which they watch it for longer periods of time; b) knowing their leisure time activities and establish the place mass-media occupied in this hierarchy.

Keywords: Television, T.V. shows, young generation, leisure time

JEL: Y80, Z10

1. Introduction

Television transformed itself from a way of mass communication in one that addresses only to a narrow part of the public, similar in many ways to the radio or the press. The information flow, gradually became a huge phenomenon with a tendency of aggression towards the individual and the society. With its content, television manages to create a wide set of standards and values in domains such as: sciences, ethics, teaching, education etc. These spiritual values have a strong bond with society, but also they have some defects like the fact that an information gained from media is easily forgotten and the public is always fragmented, fact that heads to a different evolution, perceived in different ways by the variety of public categories.

For some viewers, television is like a follower, for others it represents an entertainment method or just a valid sources of information.

The present paper approaches a current subject: the influence that television has on the young generation.

One hundred high school students participated on our survey, mainly answering on how different television shows stimulate them or, on the other hand affect them.

2. The specifics of television communication

Television is a way of communicating and technologies, including a T.V., are symbolic objects, but they are also real. As Roger Silverstone mentioned in his work, Television in daily life, mass-media represents much more than a way spending free time or publicity, it become a part of cultural and social lives.

Even though, television had its debut more than 50 years ago, the real revolution that marked an unprecedented diversification of T.V. programs have begun in the '90 and still continues in the present, along with the improvement of communicating information. As a synthetic method of communicating information, television is first of all based on a kinetic image, graphics and sound elements.

In his book, “Fenomenul televiziune” (“Television phenomenon”), Ion Bucheru states the fact that a live broadcast or an event described shortly after it took place, is seen, felt, lived by the viewer, that becomes with or without his will, an active participant in this conduct. In the field of this type of communication, every information needs to have a good source to offer it high credibility, because otherwise there will be a risk of not been taken seriously, resulting in a loss of audience. The message that is sent also has to consider the values and expectations of the followers, it must be built using a non formal

language, because it is possible for this message to fail. Through the information it offers, television can have a high influence on the society, it can create panic, but in the same way it can offer comfort, entertainment and information.

3. Influence of television on youth behavior

Lately, television has known such a great significance ascension, mainly in the last two decades, becoming one of the most mentioned option of spending free time. Under this circumstances, it is natural to ask ourselves in what way does television affect teenagers and how fond are they of this communication system? How much of what they think is determined by a T.V. and how much is the result of lecture?

Television consumption is a frequent habit among children with ages between 15 and 18 years old, more than 90% percent of the respondents state that they watch television every day, and more than 20% grant this activity more than four hours per day.

One of the main objectives of this paper has been revealing the influence of violent behavior in T.V. shows, because of all the variety of movies, news, commercials we see, the survey has revealed that excessive violence tends to affect more than 60% of teenagers of both genders. Also the majority of the population questioned, (55%) declared that news present too much violent content, that has a negative impact on their state of mind. Only 3% believe that there is not enough violence and not enough uncensored images. Television can gather up to 20 more people than all the readers of all the news papers all in one place, becoming by far the greatest violence provider.

Even, though a cause-effect relation is very hard to prove, messages with a high violent content have some unwanted reactions on teenagers. 20% of them answered that they felt an increased social anxiety, 10% said that, in general they are insensitive to harsh images or situations seen on T.V., because they are not directly affected by those circumstances, and 3% percent noticed a certain change in their personal attitude, change that made them on the short term, more aggressive both physical and verbal, immediately after seeing sequences.

Another serious consequence is setting role models as seen in this kind of television. Romanian press offered some examples, especially in the non adult age, a teenager boy that stabs his sister to death, after watching a horror movie, an 18 years old that raped a girl, declaring after that he only wanted to act as he many times saw on T.V. (Adevarul, July, 17th, 2015).

In other words, sitting in front of the T.V. for countless hours does not always degenerate in such dose of violence in one's social life, but it does have an influence on the brain capacity to gather information and to maintain a good work performance, encouraging a sloppy lifestyle, this being a passive activity.

Here the numbers are very concerning, 70% of the young ones saying that after spending time in front of the television makes them grow weak, tired and they develop an attention deficit which makes them unable to concentrate on their homework or on reading.

Summing up all the other questions and the answers we received, the following aspects are brought to light:

- a) T.V. replaces other activities that one wishes to practice, or should do so, like socializing, sports, house duties etc.;
- b) Teens that spend their time watching T.V. interact less with their family members;
- c) Excessive use of the television is bound to bad grades, lack of sleep, comportment issues, obesity;
- d) The majority of T.V. programs tend to teach children to apply violent methods in solving problems and so they might develop an antisocial behavior
- e) Children are exposed to alcohol commercials, leading to an unhealthy way of living;
- f) Another danger is represented in seeing their idols smoking, drinking and engaging in many risky activities.

4. Conclusions

As a general conclusion of this paper, we can say that the media and, especially television, has become a "family member" that takes over the communication with the outside world and in most cases it is a substitute for all the other means of information. Therefore, after being permanently exposed to mass-media messages, people tend depend on them and to assimilate without discernment a certain way of understanding reality.

Teenagers that spend many hours in front of the T.V. do not have their own scale of values, so they have a tendency of copying on many occasions, characters that aren't even real. This type of viewers received the name of heavy viewers, name given by Gerbner and Gross (1976). It is known that the typical teenager is angry, frustrated and always in conflict with himself and the society, making them more prone to be influenced by what they watch on television shows. When they were asked how important television is to you, 61% said that it is important or very important, more accurate 50% said that it is

important to them and 11% said that it is very important, while 38% declared that it is not that important.

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Basic Accounting in European Projects

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Abstract

In this article is analysed the problem of the accounting assessment within the projects financed from grants/non-refundable funds. The article aims to gather all the directives and regulations which are used for the accounting records in relation with the structural funds. In addition, it is aimed the identification and stressing of the main aspects of the european funds accounting. The researching methodology consists of both the qualitative method, and the quantitative one, highlighting the characteristics theoretically, but also practically, from a descriptive conceptual perspective.

Keywords: structural funds, beneficiary, distinct analytical accounts, Management Authority, prefinancing, reimbursement

JEL Classification: M40, M41, F21, F36

1. Objectives

A first objective of this paper is revealing main theoretical aspects of accounting in structural funds. The second objective is represented by the description of the major aspects in the accounting organisation, in order to make this study an information paper for the potential beneficiaries of the European projects. The last objective of the paper can be considered that one about a summary of the accounting regulations and rules which aim the recording of the accounting information.

2. Introduction

The definition of the word „fund” comes from French language, where it means monetary mean, financial resource. The word „structural” comes also from the French language, where it refers to organisation, structure and that take into account the development. Attaching the two words we got the composed term „structural funds”, which as it shows even the name, signifies the financial means used to favour the development. As European Union considers, the promoting of the progress, aims to reduce the disparities in development of different regions to finally get a steady level of state savings.

The accounting of the projects financed from structural funds is strongly referring to all the records realised within the activities undertaken within the projects. This raises the need to apply legal regulations harmonized at EU level, but also the proper use of analytical accounts. In an ascending trend, the implementation of the projects with structural funds needs a proper accounting, to avoid the emergence of financial or legal repercussions on beneficiaries.

The European funds accounting became with the accession of Romania to the European Union, in 2007, a requirement for companies and institutions wishing contracting projects financed by structural funds. However, this came as a challenge, on the background of EU integration, being a new field, that was based only on the previous experiences of the neighbouring countries. It took the development of precise measures of well-established rules to cope with change in accounting. The European funds accounting can become a trap generating multiple errors. The multiplicity of features in the recording of accounting information in this field, inexperience and appropriate regulations are the main obstacles to drawing up the accounting documents of companies (Iacob, Ionescu & Avram, 2011; Togoe, Avram & Avram, 2014; Avram, Avram & Avram, 2014).

3. Theoretical issues regarding the structural funds

The compound term „structural funds” comes from: the plural „funds” comes from the French word „fonds” and it means financial resources, means, and „structural” term comes from the French word „structural”, signifying organization, for development. In accordance with definition provided by the Explanatory Dictionary of Romanian, for the two parts of the phrase „structural funds” we could use the significance of financial means offered for development. The Trilingual Explanatory Dictionary of the European Union (Bărbulescu & Răpan, 2009, p. 357) characterizes the structural funds as a part of regional development policy of the European Union. This type of funds is used for growing the development grade of the regions in order to reduce the disparities between different parts of the European Union.

Name Structural Funds emerged with the Treaty of Rome in 1957, benefiting from over the years of about 90% of the Community budget, compared to the Cohesion Fund, which was funded by only 10%. As investments directions for the structural funds there are five main axis, respectively: reducing the disparities between the developed regions and the ones thare to be developed; the conversion of the declining industrial areas; removal of long-term unemployment; labor market integration of young people; the promotion of the so called rural development.

During the programming period 2007-2013 there were used four structural funds: European Regional Development Fund, abreviated as ERDF (used for reducing disparities between regions and to strengthen economic and social cohesion); European Social Fund (hereinafter referred to as ESF) , dealing with economic and social development of countries, supporting their national politics; European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development, EAFRD is the fund which finances all directions in the competitiveness of agriculture, rural development and environmental protection; European Maritime and Fisheries Fund, EMFF, which, as it shows its name reffers to the decreasing of the fishing effects over the environment, but also the improvement of the fishing activities.

Most of the projects financed with structural funds are the ones from the first category, of ERDF, which is the most comprehensive. Whith this fund were created numeorus jobs, infrastructure, and support for SME –s and the development on the regional plan. The operational programmes financed mostly by ESF are HRDOP (changed as POCU) și OPACD (transformed in POCA). The operational financed with structural funds can be regional or sectoral. During the programming period 2007-2013, these were called as it follows: SOPIEC (Sectoral Operational Programme for Increasing Economic

Competitiveness); SOP TI (Sectoral Operational Programme Transport Infrastructure); SOEP (Sectoral Operational Environment Programme); HRDOP (Human Resources Development Operational Programme); ROP (Regional Operational Programme); OPTA (Operational Programme for Technical Assistance); OPACD (Operational Programme for Administrative Capacity Development).

During the programming period 2014-2020, these suffered few changes regarding their names: Competitiveness Operational Programme - COP; Operational Programme Large Infrastructure - OPLI; Operational Programme Human Capital - OPHC; Operational Programme Administrative Capacity - OPAC. There were two programmes which kept their previous names, respectively: ROP and OPTA.

4. Regulation of accounting in relation with the structural funds

Accounting information for the organization of accounting at European level, use the following laws and regulations:

- The EU Regulations with the following numbers: 1301/2013, regarding FEDR; 1304/2013, regarding FSE; 1305/2013, regarding FEADR; 508/2014, which regulates FEPAM;
- Regulation on common provisions of the four Structural Funds, no. 1303/2013, as amended by EC Regulation 1839/2015;
- The accounting law no. 82/1991, amended and updated in February 2014;
- OMPF no. 3055/2009, reprinted in 2014, under the no. 1802/2014;
- OMPF no. 1752/2005, regarding the approval of accounting rules, in accordance with the European directives;
- For the public institutions, it will be taken into account in performing the accounting also by the OMPF no. 1917/2005, updated as OMPF 2169/2009, on the methodology for organising and conducting the accounting of public institutions;
- For companies that do not have profit organizations will be taken into account OMPF 1969/2007, on accounting regulations for non-profit legal persons Pentru persoanele juridice care nu au scop patrimonial, se va lua în calcul și OMPF 1969/2007, cu privire la aprobarea reglementărilor contabile pentru persoanele juridice fără scop patrimonial;
- Fiscal Code, with subsequent amendments;
- GEO no. 64/2009 on the financial management of structural instruments and their use for the convergence objective;

- GEO no. 63/1999 regarding the management of the grants funds allocated to Romania by EU;
- Labour Code, for operations related to payroll;
- Instructions issued by the Management Authorities or the Intermediary Bodies.

Depending on the work done by the contracting company of the project, may be used more laws and additional regulations, regarding the: procurement, participation in tenders, employment of personnel in various age range indicated in the Applicant's Guide, created for each operational program.

5. The activity reflected in the projects accounting and rules related with the recording of accounting information

5.1. Activities reflected in the accounting

Analytical accounting of projects financed with structural funds is a necessity for companies receiving funding through grants, Whereas accounting records must be provided with accurate, complete and accurate data that can provide at any time of project implementation, a clear picture on activities realised (Avram, 2010). It is recorded in the accounting any operation linked by the beneficiary's activity, either we talk about the partnership leader, or it refers to the partners (in case we talk about a project developed in partnership). The accounting reflects activities, such as:

- relation with the providers (receiving and paying of the bills)
- relation with the clients (issuing and collecting of the bills)
- internal relations of the company (recording of project staff salaries, the payment of these salaries, as well as the transfers related to these salaries towards the state budget and the state social insurance budget)
- the assets generated by the project (delivery or periodically inventory of these);
- other receipts and payments (the settlement of the project staff's travels, contracts for creditation of the company by the shareholders, settlements between shareholders, settlements between partners, incomes generated inside the project, loans);
- any financial corrections at the contractor, at the project level, received from the Management Authority or from the Intermediary Bodies or between the beneficiary and partners (registration and payment);
- registration of the prefinancing applications, the reimbursements applications and the payments applications;

- registration of receiving the pre-financing amounts, those of reimbursement or payments requested as claims, but also the account statements related to these ones.

In projects involving a beneficiary and one or more partners, it is essential to initiate a project partnership agreement, for each of the participants to be informed of the share of its participation in the project. It is also important, as according to the axis chosen to clearly know the percentage of funding from the structural funds, the national budget and own shareholding. These details are mentioned in the financing contract signed by the beneficiary, partner/partners and the Management Authority/the Intermediary Body in the region where the project is implemented.

The percentages of funding, detailed after sources, are used whenever an application is submitted for reimbursement. The calendar of the reimbursement/payment applications is named „Estimated chart regarding the submission of the Reimbursement Applications and the Payment Applications”, that is respected by all the participants at the project and it is modified by official letter sent by the beneficiary to the Management Authority/Intermediary Body, whenever it appears a change in activity, which prevent compliance with the original timetable.

5.2. Rules for registration in accounting in the framework of the projects

In working with European funds, it is needed both a special attention, and certain general rules, that can be met at each contract. A first condition is represented by the knowledge and understanding of the laws that apply to that project. It is also necessary to fully comply with the conditions stipulated in the grant agreement concluded with the Management Authority/Intermediary Body. The second rule is that one that, both at the beneficiary, and at the partners too (if it is the case), registration, presentation and the keeping of the documents related to the project separately from the company, just to avoid the risk of confusion from users of information (Domnișoru & Vînătoru, 2009). These documents can be verified by all the specialised bodies, whenever it is considered to be necessary.

Within 30 days of the signing of the contract, the beneficiary must inform the Managing Authority by notification, regarding on how it intends to keep the project accounts: by separate analytical accounts, which may or may not include the number, the date the financing contract and an acronym that lead to the identification of the operational program of which the project is a distinct part. In addition, in notification should be indicated the way of

archiving the justifying documents (Iacob & Drăcea, 1998). For projects in partnership, it is necessary that after compiling documents to be approved by the partners chartered accountant / auditor beneficiary to ensure data accuracy and impartiality of the check. The beneficiary is responsible for a proper registration in accounting, both concerning himself, and also his partners. In determining erroneous entries, the beneficiary must pay back the amounts and penalties resulting from them if they have already been repaid.

The statements related to the project are kept on distinct analytical accounts, on financial resources types and on each and every contract. It is important a strict accounting of the pre-financing from the date of its receipt until the refund, indicating the ways of using (Avram & Avram, 2014).

Eligible expenses must be separated from those not eligible in order to be registered separately, therefore the Management Authority/Intermediary Body could know very clearly how much must be covered from its funds. For the eligible expenses, their justification is required by proper documents. If it is necessary additional documents could be requested. If those documents are refused by the beneficiary/partners, the expense can be categorised as ineligible and not included in the payment.

The expenses declared not eligible can be found only in that company accounting, but not in the project accounting, because they are totally covered from their own financial resources. Another important rule is to use different analytical accounts in the balance for both project work and analytical accounts for each investment objective funded and sources of funding. In order to avoid the incorrect understanding of the accounting documents, it can be produced different documents: on the company and on the project (Iacob, Ionescu & Goagără, 2007).

Supporting documents and records must be kept within a period clearly defined: in case of the programme HRDOP 2007-2013, these must be kept for 3 years from the date of official closure of the programme, respectively, the end of the year 2021; if we talk about SOPIEC 2007-2013, it is the obligativity of keeping the documents for 5 years from the date of offivcial closure of the programme.

The main supporting documents used for the accounting registration are the following: invoices, delivery notes, certificates, payroll, time sheets, technical specifications, minutes of receiving the declaration for non deductible VAT (Bratu& Drăcea, 2002). The timesheets of the partners employees (within the projects that involve partners) must be approved also by the beneficiary project manager. These are accompanied by the activity reports, which detail the monthly activity of the experts and where the number of hours must be the

same with the one from the time sheet of that expert. Also, the time sheets are centralised at the partner level in the document called „Colective Time Sheet”.

The best option for the accounting organization in the project is to record the system used by the branches that do not have legal personality (Avram & Avram, 2014). In case of the beneficiaries with partners, to facilitate accounting, you can use the principles of consolidation, leading to financial statements on the entire project. The analytical accounts use dby the partners pointed out to the beneficiary the providers with which it maintains commercial relations, as well as the signed contracts and the aquisitions generated by the contracts signing (Ştefănescu, 2005; Feleagă & Feleagă, 2007).

To include the expenditure in a request for payment is necessary supporting documents (payroll, invoices) to be issued no more than 3 days before the date of application for payment in order to be considered eligible. It is also necessary that, when forwarding the request for payment for verification and acceptance must be submitted and proof of payment to suppliers or staff account the percentage of funding that the beneficial, according to the contract signed with the Intermediary Body (Florescu, 2012).

In a request for reimbursement is required only expenditure incurred and paid during the eligibility period and which can be supported by documentary evidence (Budica, 2010; Puiu, Budică, Ochetan & Budică, 2012; Chan & Hsu, 2016). Each request for reimbursement must meet the estimated schedule for the submission made by the beneficiary in collaboration with its partners (Body of Expert and Licensed Accountants of Romania, Guide on accessing accounting, taxation, auditing and managing projects with European funding, 2011).

The deadline for submitting applications for payment and reimbursement requests indicated by the IB beneficiary. For projects in partnership, it shall inform partners wishing date of receipt to, so they can carry out the verification and centralization before their dispatch to the specialized body (Deegan, 2013). Every request for reimbursement, payment or reimbursement related to the request for payment shall be produced annex to the instructions issued by the Managing Authority / Intermediate Bodies, which differ depending on the operational program in which the project falls. These annexes, projects with multiple partners are prepared by each partner, then sent to the recipient, which centralizes and makes the appendices in one copy for the entire project (Modrák, Dima, Kot & Bunaciu, 2011).

6. Mistakes in accounting records from within the projects and the consequences of these mistakes

From the lack of information about the structural funds field, but also from the lack of experience, can appear a lot of mistakes, which must be identified in order to be avoided. From these mistakes, the most common are the following:

- Requiring the payment of an amount which includes the whole value of a supporting document (invoice, payroll), without lowering the percentage to be paid by the beneficiary;
- Requesting to reimburse some invoices which had not been entirely paid before;
- Requesting to reimburse a certain amount from an invoice and recording in the analytical account related with the project of a different amount of the one requested at the reimbursement;
- The general administration expenses are not pointed out in distinct analytical accounts;
- The expenses with the staff don't include into the accounting in addition to the salaries, also the travellings, accommodation and meals;
- The amounts received as pre-financings or the amounts provided by reimbursement are not recorded into accounting;
- The buyings book is not attached to the purchasings performed, and the sellings book is not attached to the sellings performed;
- There aren't entirely attached the accounting notes/accounts sheets related to the expenses requested at the reimbursement, but also the balances in relation to the corresponding periods of reporting the reimbursement requests;
- The lack of payment documents or the presence of accounting documents which are not completed or legibly (Domnisoru, 2011; Othman et al., 2016);
- In case of the invoices that include VTA, the lack of the certificate issued by NAFA;
- In relation with the salary expenses, the state budget payment and the social securities state budget payment, it is met as a common mistake, the non-transmission to the specialised body of the 112 Statement, regarding the obligations of payment the social contributions, income tax and nominal records of the insured people.

In economic activity, as well as in everyday life, a mistake is always followed by adverse effects which may affect the smooth running of the project.

Consequences arising from errors listed above cause financial damage that can lead, sometimes to the ending of the beneficiary activity (Bratu, 2011; AbuAssi & Alkorashy, 2016). Among them can be highlighted: extension of the period for examining applications for reimbursement, as a result of insufficient or inaccurate information and documents; financial corrections percentage for various expenses eligible or ineligible amounts in question; the amounts already paid in the previous reimbursement requests are recovered by the Management Authority/Intermediary Body partially or totally; suspected fraud can be reported in the case of invoices deliberately made wrong or inconsistent with reality, which is why the investigation is triggered by the Anti-Fraud Department.

7. Conclusions

The conclusion reached is that the novelty of the Structural Funds can be considered a challenge but also a trap regarding the accounting of data from projects. In order not to encounter obstacles in the accounts of projects financed from European funds, it is necessary that the chartered accountant or accountant involved to have a culture legislative sufficient and updated and correlate these laws with practical experience and mistakes made earlier by others to prevent and avoid the occurrence of errors with significant effects.

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