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THE SUBLIMINAL MESSAGE OF ADVERTISEMENTS

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Abstract: Many people believe that most advertisements contain hidden images or words that affect our susceptibility to the ads. This belief is widespread even though there is no evidence for such practices, let alone evidence for such effects. "Embedded" stimuli are difficult to characterize in terms of signal-detection theory Or threshold-determination procedure because most of them remain unidentifiable even when focal attention is directed to them. In other words, the viewer may be well aware of the stimulus, but not necessarily aware of the connection between the stimulus and responses or reactions to it. This essay will individually analyse some advertisements in terms of their status as signs, whose associative meanings not only gave a favourable impression of the product, but were also compatible with, and complementary to, the masculine context in which they were situated; thus illustrating Umberto Eco's claim that the medium and message may be 'charged with cultural signification.'

Keywords: message, advertisement, stimulus

This world is a giant negotiating table, and whether you like it or not you are a participant. We normally negotiate more than we realize. Sales clerks and service providers are among the people we most frequently negotiate with. In most cases we do not negotiate with them on fair grounds. Advertising plays a substantial role in this phenomenon. With the growing of the media - increasing number of magazines, newspapers, TVs and radio stations, people are bombarded with hundreds of advertising messages daily: services (transport, medical, horoscope etc), clothes, vehicles, dental creams, soap, cosmetics, soft drinks, beer, even cigarettes! The advertising industry is growing. Advertising is important because it creates awareness to the consumers about products available in the market. It helps to create demand for the products. It enables the consumer to choose from a number of products available in the market place.

Together with the meritorious intention of creating awareness and broadening the spectrum of choice to consumers on the availability of products suitable to meet their needs, there are gimmicks used in advertisements. Most people are not aware of them, because they are prepared by clever artists, photographers, technicians and writers.

Most of the wonders promised in advertisements are not true. These day to night bombardments from the media are just meant to convince us that we need what they are selling. Advertisements play with our emotions, that is why they use sports, beautiful ladies, famous artists and stars. They also use sexy images and fancy words to capture our attention, other wise, what has these to do with the quality of the product on sale?

The public need to be made more conscious of the methods used by advertisers to work on people's psychological vulnerability - their pride, their sense of identity with their own generation, their own social group or the one they are climbing toward, sympathies, their desire to look more beautiful, younger, virile, more bold, etc. The advertisers worldwide are succeeding in making people change their very living and spending habits. That is why they are ready to spend lots of money in the advertising industry. The consumer himself meets

these expenses in the final analysis

The advertisers succeed due to their contrived attacks on our logic and sense of reality. On the one hand, they try to exploit the power of the fear in people to be different. The fear to be only a few steps away from the herd. Most people are not aware of how they are driven to conform. They live under the illusion that they follow their own inclinations and instincts, that they have arrived at their opinions and decisions as a result of their own thinking and that it just happened that their ideas and decisions are the same as those of the majority. Not knowing it is due to the power of the bombardments from the advertising messages, leading to acceding to the temptation to buy just because every one else is doing so. On the other hand, advertisers try to exploit the propensity of man to be a step ahead of the other, the desire to be great, important, the desire to excel: The desire that your children should attend a better school than those of your neighbour. We brag about the quality of our watches. That's why the advertising messages will constantly tell you that this product is better than the rest.

One's mind captures the message and goes with it. Another method used by the advertisers is sexual arousal. They know that sexual desire is the most powerful of human desires. They then embed sexual titillation in their advertising messages, using pictures, sounds or words. These messages are not vivid, they are hidden, so they appear ordinary. It is only the unconscious part of one's mind that is capable of recognizing and storing these messages where they lie dormant, un-criticized, unevaluated and unknown to the individual until the time of purchase, when decision is required.[1] The buried information then surfaces and is transferred to the conscious mind, which acts upon it. If one is thirsty for example, the unconscious mind immediately decides the type of drink the person has to take, depending on the messages instilled earlier from the advertisements. No reason and no logic is used, because the unconscious mind is incapable of this. All these things, in one way or another, help to mould the attitudes of people and hence the thoughts and finally the actions of all of us.[3]

Subliminal advertising is a technique of exposing consumers to product pictures, brand names, or other marketing stimuli without the consumers having conscious awareness. Once exposed to a subliminal marketing stimulus, the consumer is believed to decode the information and act upon it without being able to acknowledge a communication stimulus [5]. What is commonly referred to as subliminal advertising has been the focus of a great deal of attention for more than three decades. The term "subthreshold effects", first popularized by Packard in 1957, preceded the popular notion of "subliminal advertising" whose originator is James Vicary. [4]. Perhaps the most widely known claim concerning the power of subliminal advertising was made in 1957 by James Vicary, a market researcher. He claimed that over a six-week period, 45,699 patrons at a movie theater in Fort Lee, New Jersey were shown two advertising messages, Eat Popcorn and Drink Coca-Cola, while they watched the film Picnic. According to Vicary, a message was flashed for 3/1000 of a second once every five seconds. The duration of the messages was so short that they were never consciously perceived. Despite the fact that the customers were not aware of perceiving the message, Vicary claimed that over the six-week period the sales of popcorn rose 57% and the sales of Coca-Cola rose 18.1%. Vicary's claims are often accepted as established facts. However, Vicary never released a detailed description of his study and there has never been any independent evidence to support his claims. Also, in an interview with Advertising Age in 1962, Vicary stated that the original study was a fabrication. The weight of the evidence suggests that it was indeed a fabrication [2].

The first advert strongly relies upon the use of photographic imagery. It features an advertisement for the fragrance 'Dune Pour Homme.' The advertisement uses a variety of signifiers which publicise both the identity of the brand, and an image which is in line with

the ideology of the text in which it appears. The advert predominately features a male model in his early to mid twenties, and he is kneeling on a sand dune. Adjacent to him is an iconic image of the product itself, which is projected as being disproportionately large. Underneath this image of the product are the words: 'Essence Of Freedom,' and together these separate components form an effective and unified message. On a simple level it is easy to deduce two obvious things. Firstly, that the subject, (the image of the man) provides a youthful element of glamour, which serves both the product and the text in which it is being advertised, and secondly, that the image of the sand dune is a physical reiteration of the product name. However, the more interesting semiotic elements of the advert exist within its notion of freedom, which is the advert's primary signified concept. The notion of freedom is 'primarily conveyed by the image of this lone man; who, in his lonesome location; seems extremely at ease, and unrestricted by normal life, thus providing a sense of liberation which is also conveyed by his loose, unorthodox, clothing. Furthermore the softly focused quality of the photography, and the advertisements colouring of gentle blues and pale browns are further signifiers which contribute to this dreamy, utopian image of liberation.

However, these images alone certainly do not convey this central signified concept, for this is only guaranteed by the inclusion of the advertisements of the statement: 'essence of freedom.' Thus, a strong relationship is allowed to be forged between the 'signifiers,' (the photographic image of the protagonist and his physical environment) and the 'signified' which is the linguistically expressed 'essence of freedom.' Therefore, this stabilisation between the signifier and the signified allows for the creation of a plausible commodity code.' This code attributes basic meaning to the advert, whose conventional combination of iconic image and linguistic representation (of words and pictures) allows the recipient to receive a message, which is justified and reiterated by the relationships of resemblance at play.

Thus, although the average reader of the magazine will not be aware of the terms discussed, or the technicalities of this process, he or she will still be aware of the mutually complementary relationship between words and imagery. This relationship not only ensures the advert's uniform message, it also ensures the advert's plausibility: For it is the adverts typically obvious contrivance between word and image which allows the recipient to view the advert within its generic context. For only within this genre does the ridiculous image of a man wearing pyjamas and after-shave in a desert maintain an element of acceptability. Therefore it is arguable that this acceptability would not be guaranteed if one sign, wasn't reinforced by the other, if for example the advertisement was presented merely as a photograph in its own right, without a written statement, contextualising and clarifying the photographs meaning. Finally, it is also worthwhile to note that the advertisement sense of balance is matched by its compatibility with the textual context in which it arises. This compatibility can be illustrated by referring back to the colours of the advert, which consist of sensuous and softly focused blues and whites and browns. Reflecting the emphasis which the sign attributes to being reflective of the textual context in which it is situated, is the next example which is an advertisement for 'Extreme Polo Sport' by Ralph Lauren. As its name suggests, this is a fragrance which is designed to be strongly reflective of masculinity, and it is of no surprise that the advert is featured in the opening pages of FHM which is a staunchly male publication. Emphasising the products distinct masculinity is a distinct set of signs, which are carefully orchestrated to convey a relevant and unified message. Unlike the Dune advert, the Extreme Polo Sport advertisement is neither subtle or artistic, and nor does it attempt to construct a plausible relationship between the product and a prescribed emotion such as 'freedom.' Instead, the advert presents a simple iconic image of the product, and iconic image of the subject who is shown to be a skydiver. We are not explicitly told of the emotional association which the subject is supposed to bring to the product, but the we can

deduce that he can excel in the demands of physical extremity, thus allowing us to form our own emotional associations with the brand, associations which will undoubtedly be complicit with the gender of the subject, the masculinity of the magazine, and the masculinity of the sport on show.

Hence the product is allowed to speak for itself, as is portrayed by the blunt, practical copy: 'Introducing the new men's fragrance Extreme Polo Sport Ralph Lauren' it states, and who would argue with that? Interestingly, the only thing that links the subject with the copy is the fact that they are situated on the same page, for the actual iconic representation of the product itself is shown on an adjacent but entirely separate page. Although the advert projects a strong relationship between the product and the machismo of the subject, the fact that the two images exist in separate environments, respectfully understates this link, attributing the recipients with the intelligence to form it for themselves. Furthermore, the fact that iconic resemblance of the product is far larger than the subject, allows us to view the product as an entity in its own right, therefore placating our masculine sense of practicality.

Although this advert appears to be simple, its connotative meanings allow our interpretation of it to be a pragmatic one, in that its signifiers have particular relevance with regards to the context of the advert. One such group of signifiers is the advertisement's colours. Unlike the subtle feminine colours of the Dune advert, the Extreme Polo Sport consists of a bold, aggressive colour scheme of black) white, red and dark blue; and together with the silvery, metallic appearance of the product, this colour scheme serves as a significant group of signifiers which attribute the brand with the same sense of masculinity which is projected by the subject, and the context (the magazine') Hence, the role and importance of this colour scheme in both adverts shows that these colours are part of an organised system of signifiers who form significant cultural and aesthetic codes. In the case of the 'Extreme Polo Sport' advert, this code Mows the product to appear to be as indicative of masculinity, of the masculinity of the subject, and the masculinity of the recipient. In order to clarify this point, the aesthetic code which implies that red, black and silver, are masculine colours, is the same code which implies that pink and white symbolise femininity and purity.

Example 3 features an advert for 'Anais-Anais' of the Cacherele brand. This is an advert for women's perfume. Significantly, the primary colours in this advert are pink and white: we are presented with the alluring white complexion of the female subject, and the pink appearance of the iconic image of the brand, - it's hardly a coincidence. Therefore, although this advert should only be viewed as a comparative aside, it is still significant, because when it is compared to the comparative colouring scheme of the 'Example 2', it serves to illustrate how colour is often a signifying element, and therefore an integral part of a signs aesthetic codes which portray 'a set of values shared by the producers and readers of a text'. In order to develop this theme of the role of the shared values of the producers and readers of a text, it is relevant to discuss the emphasis which is attributed to the advertising of the product in a way which is relevant to the cultural experience and expectations of the consumer. Again, 'Example 2'- (the advertisement for 'Extreme Polo Sport') provides a strong illustration. Ralph Lauren is a western brand predominately marketed and used in the west, as is the magazine in which the advertisement appears. Predictably, the advert exhibits strongly western overtones, and this is evident through its subject, and through its copy. The Subject is not only white, and wearing the clothes of the same American retailer, he is also engaged in the sport of 'sky surfing', which originated in America, and is largely practised there. Similarly, the copy, with its computerised, industrial looking font, is also indicative of the artistry of an advanced western culture. Therefore, by implying Myers's argument that 'symbols can only be understood by those who share the same culture' this same logic dictates that this advert was constructed with the aim of targeting the product at an audience familiar

with, and sympathetic to, its relevant cultural signifiers.

Thus 'Example 2' is a strong example of the way an advert uses shared prior cultural experience to attribute meaning to its symbolic representation of the product. Furthermore, this example reiterates the various levels of meaning which are present in a sign, as was most predominately argued by Barthes. Using Barthes' concepts, it is possible to summarise the significance of the implicit cultural overtones of Example 2: Primarily the existence of the sign (in this case the advert) provides the image's simple denotative meaning: It is an advertisement for after-shave. This is simple information, and in Barthes terms it is a 'message without a code.' However, as was discussed, this code is given connotative meaning, its 'plane of expression' (Barthes) through specific signifiers, all of which have a strong relationship with the cultural context of the advert, and the cultural context of the western male. Thus, it is the signifiers of the adverts masculine colours, the machismo of the subject (another important signifier,) and the artistry of the font, all reinforce the product's intended identity, and allow the invariably western recipient to perceive this sign as an image which is relevant to him, if not relevant to his actual experience, then relevant to the shared perceptions and experience of the society of which he is a part.

In conclusion, this semiotic analysis of advertisements has tried to show specialists' opinion according to which there seems to be little doubt that observers' responses can be shown to be affected by stimuli they claim not to have seen [6]. In addition, the results of the studies that demonstrated different characteristics that distinguish conscious from unconscious perception provide rather compelling evidence for the importance of unconscious perceptual processes in influencing our reactions to stimuli [8].

However, despite the overall lack of empirical evidence showing that subliminal advertising may be effective, a large percentage of consumers believe firms use subliminal advertising to enhance sales, and various surveys have demonstrated fairly widespread public acceptance of the notion of subliminal advertising [7]. Several decades have already passed after Vicary and Key claimed the power of subliminal advertising. It is not just to accuse them of giving the advertising industry a bad name till now. We'd better figure out what keeps public's fear of subliminal manipulation alive. It could be the scientific community that does a poor job of communicating its findings, or it could be media that popularize pseudoscience, or it could be a few unethical practitioners to rely on subliminal tactics. Whatever the reason is, advertisers should pay attention to consumer opinions about subliminal advertising because these perceptions, whether true or not, influence their views on advertisements and the industry as a whole.

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STRATEGIES FOR TOURISM SUSTAINABLE TOURISM SERVICES DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract:At the level of individual countries, the economic system is composed of all economic relations established in the national economy, between institutions, organizations and other elements of economic activity, together with appropriate means and tools that the market requires to carry out normal economic life. National economy of a country may be divided into three sectors of activity¹: **primary sector**, which includes agriculture, forestry, fisheries and extractive industries; **secondary sector**, which includes manufacturing branches of industry and construction; **tertiary sector**, which includes transport and telecommunications, trade, tourism, finance and other services. In the last period, the expression of the growth of the role of science and art, their transformation into a safe factor and irreplaceable progress and prosperity, takes shape in the new economy, the quaternary sector, the scientific research and the development of information technology.

Also, we must take into account the fact that as the science and technique grows ever more powerful, generalized impact of advanced technologies can lead to rapid destruction of traditional delimitation between the primary, secondary, tertiary, quaternary sector, in physical and intellectual employment. The paper presents in detail, based on a large bibliography, the concept of sustainable tourism development and how the tourism services cope with the concept when, it is well known, that the tourism is based on natural and man-made resources.

Key words: Tourism services, Sustainability, Tourism development, Strategy

THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Tourism is one of the many external forces influencing the direction and options for local development. The question of whether tourism can be sustainable – that is, whether it can contribute to local sustainable development – is rightfully addressed in the context of the Local Agenda 21 process.

The true proof of “sustainable tourism” will be the sustainable development of local communities that serve as tourist destinations. It is time for the sustainable tourism debate to focus on this challenge. Local authorities worldwide welcome the leadership of the UN Commission on Sustainable Development, and the interest of the tourism industry, to reduce tourism’s negative impacts and to increase the positive contribution of tourism business and consumption activity to local sustainable development. Tourism is one of the most dynamic economic sectors, which record changes and a permanent upward trend. During the period included between the end of World War II and until now, tourism has evolved from an activity with relatively small size to the world largest industry.

Tourism industry has accepted the concept of sustainable development and has adopted the concept of *sustainable tourism*. Sustainable tourism develops the idea of meeting

¹ The first economist who divided the economy in these sectors is Colin Clark. He used as criteria for division of labor productivity, the overall volume of production and demand developments (see Colin Clark, "The conditions of economic progress", PUF, Paris, 1960).

the tourists and the tourism industry current needs and at the same time, protect the environment and opportunities for the future. It has to meet all the needs of economic, social, aesthetic "actors" in tourism, while maintaining the integrity of cultural, environmental, biological diversity and all systems supporting life². In other words, all tourist activities in a country or region should be compatible with the loading of tourists and tourist facilities of the natural environment, ensuring thus an ecological and economic sustainable functioning at all levels.

The idea of adopting the concept of sustainable development in tourism has emerged in the early '90, taking rise sustainable tourism - a branch that has quickly taken on importance in the fields of academic and research and in practice / business / tourist industry.

The most frequently used definition of sustainable development is still that given in the *Brundtland Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development - Our Common Future (1987)* where it means: "Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

Another way to think about this is that we should pass on to our children a world that is at least as good, and hopefully better, than the one that we inherited. The concept of sustainability has evolved since the 1987 definition to embrace *three dimensions* or 'pillars' of sustainable development:

- **Economic sustainability** has a focus on generating prosperity at different levels of society and ensuring the viability of enterprises and activities is maintained in the long-term.

- **Social sustainability** has a focus on respecting human rights and providing equal opportunities in society. There is an emphasis on local communities, recognizing and respecting different cultures and avoiding exploitation.

- **Environmental sustainability** has a focus on conserving and managing resources, especially those that are not renewable, requiring action to minimize pollution of air, land and water and conserving biological diversity and natural heritage.

Another meaning of Sustainable Development (SD): "Development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. SD is not a fixed state of harmony but rather a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments ... are made consistent with future as well as present needs."

Tourism is most ideally suited to adopt sustainability as a guiding philosophy. There are many reasons³:

- apart from transport, tourism does not consume additional non-renewal resources.
- a community's resources, its culture, traditions, shops, leisure facilities, etc represent the core resources base for tourism
- tourism use of resources, both natural and cultural, should be non consumptive, making them renewable
- tourism represents one of the few economic opportunities available to remote communities
- tourism provides a real opportunities to reduce poverty, create employment for disadvantaged people and stimulate regional development
- tourism has proven to revitalize cultures and traditions
- tourism can provide an economic incentive to conserve natural and cultural assets.

² ***, Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry: Towards Environmentally Sustainable Development, WTO, WTTC, The Earth Council, Rio de Janeiro, 1992.

³ Bob McKercher - Sustainable tourism development – guiding principles for planning and management, Presentation to the National Seminar on Sustainable tourism Development Bishkek, Kyrgystan, November 5 – 9, 2003.

• tourism has been shown to foster greater understanding between peoples and a greater global consciousness

Sustainable tourism is different to the common tourism and partly associated with alternative contemporary forms of tourism (post common). In other words, sustainable tourism is primarily the opposite of common tourism.

Sustainable tourism⁴ is defined as “... a positive approach intended to reduce tensions and friction created by the complexity of the interactions between the tourist industry, tourists, the natural environment and local communities that host the tourists”

Also, sustainable tourism⁵ is defined as “...tourism and related infrastructure that operates both in the present and in future between capacity limits of natural resources regeneration; recognizes the contribution of people and local communities, customs and ways of life to the tourism experience; accepts that people should enjoy equally the profits from tourism on the basis of which is their desire to be hosts for tourists.”

Since 1991, through the conjugated activity of The International Union of Nature Conservation, World Federation for the Nature Protection, European Federation of National and Natural Park, was defined the concept of sustainable tourism: ” developing all forms of tourism, management and marketing tourism which will respect the natural, social and economic environment integrity, ensuring the exploitation of natural and cultural resources for future generations.” This definition shows that any form of tourism should respect the principles of sustainable development, from eco-tourism, green tourism and rural tourism to business or at automobilistic tourism⁶.

THE SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PRINCIPLES

Tourism can bring both advantages and disadvantages of a region. Through careful planning, tourism can lead to the creation of new jobs and increase incomes. Expanding business travel even lead to the creation of new professions and has beneficial effects on the level of qualification and training of the workforce.

The prosperity of a region as a result of the tourism development occurs in several phases:

- immediately following the direct consumption of tourist products;
- on short-term, through continuous absorption of labor and encourage trade welcome;
- long term, through capital concentration for investment in tourism infrastructure and in structures receipts for tourism and urban services development.

Given the economical, social and political importance of tourism, its contribution to a region development, appears obvious the need of cooperation, implementation and promotion of the development strategies in tourism, not only nationally, but also regionally. One aspect that must be taken into account in elaborating these strategies is that of respecting the sustainable development principles, which have to develop the tourism sector, compliance with the requirements for protecting the natural environment, taking into account the specific objectives of each area or region.

⁴ Karin Schianetz and Lidia Kavanach, Sustainability indicators for tourism destinations: A complex adaptive systems approach using systemicindicator systems, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, vol.16, nr.6, pp.661-628

⁵ Acott T.G., La Trobe H.L., Howard S.H, An evolution of deep ecotourism and shallow ecotourism, Journal of Sustainable Tourism 6 (3): 238-252

⁶ *** UNWTO – Sustainable Development of Tourism, e-bulletin, The report on “Climate change and Tourism – Responding to global challenges” released on the occasion of the World Environment Day 5 June 2008, http://www.worldtourism.org/frameset/frame_sustainable.html

We could say that sustainable tourism is an alternative form of tourism but is based on the following principles:

- ◆ maximize the economic benefits to the local level as a result of the tourism development in order to achieve economic sustainability. It is one of the most important principles of sustainable tourism, which helps economic development and protection of local communities and protected areas.
- ◆ minimize the negative impacts of tourism activities on culture / traditions / customs of local communities to derive cultural sustainability. Developing a tourism able to maintain the local cultures authenticity and individuality and to avoid saturation of their cultural with "foreign " influences.
- ◆ minimize the impacts on the tourism business environment in order to achieve environmental sustainability contributing to maintaining and improving the state of conservation by returning one revenue part to the protected area. Practicing forms of tourism that does not affect the natural environment.
- ◆ local control - basic principle in sustainable tourism. Local community is consulted and is involved in everything that means sustainable tourism development, as an active decision factor. The key here is the property of the local tourism infrastructure elements (eg accommodation structures) and not only this. Local community and local governments are involved and have especially financial control.
- ◆ minimize the negative impacts of tourism activities on the local community and its members in order to achieve social sustainability. Developing those forms of tourism that do not disturb and do not interrupt daily life of the population tourist destination. Avoiding the appearance of hostile situations relationship with the local community.
- ◆ educate, train, inform all those involved in tourism activity. Educate tourist by a superior understanding and appreciation of the impacts caused by him in order to improve personal attitudes regarding the environment and reducing the impacts. It includes an environmental educational component for visitors, locals, local government, rural population, urban.

Tourism will maintain sustainable in conditions in which development will be planned rationally, based on rigorous economic and social criteria, policies and development will respect the sustainable principles, its growth will be with the commitment and cooperation of public institutions and private sector. Also, this development should attend the civil society and local communities.

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AN INESCAPABLE FEATURE OF CONTEMPORARY BUSINESS LIFE: CONFLICT AT THE WORKPLACE

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Abstract: This article analyzes the pervasive character of conflict in today's organizational life, with a specific focus on the typology of conflict and the sources that originate it. Conflict management relies on strategies meant to prevent negative or dysfunctional conflict from occurring, while at the same time encouraging positive, constructive conflict that stimulates individual and team performance. It should also promote open dialogue and constructive debate among potentially conflicting parties, eliminating possible sources of uncertainty, distress and dissatisfaction among employees.

Key words: conflict, conflict management, functional conflict vs dysfunctional conflict, structural, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and inter-organizational conflict

Conflict at the workplace is not an uncommon event in the business world. In fact, recently compiled statistics prove the fact that today's organizations may face greater potential for conflict than ever before in history. The marketplace, infused with increasing competition and globalization, magnifies differences among people in terms of personality, values, and attitudes, cultural and national backgrounds. As companies display an increasing diversity of the workforce, potential incompatibility and conflict are virtually ubiquitous concepts in the business world.

Conflict can be extensively defined as a "a type of behavior which occurs when two or more parties are in opposition or in battle as a result of a perceived relative deprivation from the activities of or interacting with another person or group" (Litterer 180). However, conflict does not necessarily occur simply on account of the incompatibilities, disagreements, or differences within or between social entities. In order for conflict to take place, it has to exceed the threshold level of intensity before the parties become aware of any conflict. In other words, the incompatibilities, disagreements, or differences must be rather serious before the parties experience conflict. There are differences in the threshold of conflict awareness or tolerance among individuals in the sense that some individuals may involve in a conflict sooner and more aggressively than others under similar situations.

This essay examines conflict and negotiation from several viewpoints. First, it compares functional versus dysfunctional conflict. Next, it identifies possible sources of conflict and investigates various types of conflict. It examines the nature of workplace violence and aggression and refers to the factors that make jobs especially prone to coworker conflict. It also focuses on effective and ineffective techniques for coping with difficult behavior and conflict and on major conflict resolution approaches.

We sometimes wrongly assume that all conflict is bad. In fact, some types of conflict break new grounds and encourage new solutions to problems which enhance the effectiveness within the organization. Ronald R. Sims in *Managing Organizational Behavior* (213) identifies possible positive and negative results of a conflict.

Positive Consequences

- Leads to new ideas
- Stimulates creativity and innovation
- Motivates change and consideration of

Negative Consequences

- Diverts energy from work
- Threatens psychological well-being
- Wastes resources

- | | |
|--|---|
| new approaches and ideas | • Creates a negative climate |
| • Promotes organizational vitality | • Interferes with communication |
| • Helps individuals and groups establish identities | • Breaks down group cohesion |
| • Increases loyalty and performance within each of the groups in conflict | • Can increase hostility and aggressive behaviors |
| • Serves as a safety valve to indicate problems by bringing them out into the open | • Leads to an increase in politics (i.e., individual efforts to acquire power to advance their own efforts) |
| | • Leads groups to stereotype each other |
| | • Reduces the organization's capacity to compete in the marketplace |

Given the two-fold nature of an organizational conflict, managers should stimulate functional conflict and prevent a dysfunctional conflict. However, the difficulty of this conflict management approach lies in differentiating between dysfunctional and functional conflicts.

Functional conflict relies on the constructive disagreement between two or more people/groups and can lead to the improvement of an individual's or group's performance. A functional conflict mostly originates in cognitive problems and it can arise from someone challenging old policies or thinking of new ways to approach problems. Functional conflict can bring about a better awareness of problems, optimize the search for innovative solutions and motivate employees to change and adapt when appropriate. Moreover, it can improve working relationships, because when two parties work through/out their disagreements, they feel they have accomplished something together.

Dysfunctional conflict is a destructive disagreement between two or more people / groups. A dysfunctional conflict is often originated by emotional or behavioral factors. Disagreements that involve personalized anger and resentment directed at specific individuals rather than specific ideas are dysfunctional. Its symptoms consist in taking the focus away from the work to be done and placing the focus on the conflict itself and the parties involved. Dysfunctional conflict generated distorted perceptions, negative stereotyping, poor communication and decreased productivity. With individuals involved in dysfunctional conflict, the losses to both parties may exceed any potential gain from that conflict.

Before managers can react and remedy effectively a particular dysfunctional conflict, they need to understand its source and nature. Managers need to respond differently to a conflict arising from a clash of opinions than to one emerging out of dissatisfaction with limited resources. Conflict may occur between or within organizations, within departments, and even between an individual and the organization. There are four types of conflict a manager is likely to deal with: structural, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and inter-organizational.

Structural Conflict

In traditionally structured companies, employees are organized by functional lines into departments. Since the groups as delineated by departments have different goals, different approaches and resources, conflicts can be expected to occur between them. These structural conflicts take place because of cross-functional /departmental differences over goals, rewards, authority, status, or resources.

When structural conflict arises between two groups of employees, the manager should get involved in order to minimize or resolve it. Consequently, he /she should provide opportunities for the two groups to communicate and discuss each other's viewpoints and urge them to collaborate to achieve a mutually satisfactory goal. Because managers do not establish an organization's structure, they have limited impact on the causes of structural

conflict. Yet, if they are able to recognize that a conflict is structural, however, they will know not to take the issue personally and will be able to react effectively in situations that require extra diplomacy.

Intrapersonal Conflict

Intrapersonal conflict is an internal struggle within an individual, often resulting from a conflict between the person's expectations about the role played in one's organization and the expectations of others. These role conflicts can cause considerable stress on individuals. Managing intrapersonal conflict involves the identification of the nature and extent of the conflict and the selection of a suitable conflict-management approach. Unfortunately, in many cases, a manager lacks the expertise to resolve an intrapersonal conflict. Therefore, when managers notice that an employee is involved in such a conflict, they should identify the right person, competent in handling various types of intrapersonal conflicts, such as include psychologists, religious advisors, and career counselors. There are three types of role conflict an individual can experience: intra-role, inter-role, and person-role conflict.

Intra-role conflict occurs when a person receives conflicting information from others concerning a particular role. For example, when a individual is offered a bonus for outstanding performance record and shortly after is reprimanded for a problem that he/she was jointly responsible for, may begin to question whether he/ she understands and can effectively perform his/her role.

Managers should consider whether they or their organizations contribute unnecessarily to intrapersonal conflicts. For example, does the training program focus on ethical behavior, while the company rewards unethical behavior? If so, the employer is responsible for creating conflicts between employees' values and their desire to be rewarded. (see Sims 278)

Inter-role conflict occurs when a person receives conflicting information from others concerning a particular role. For example, a working mother may experience conflict between her desire to care for her children and her need to meet the same work standards as her male counterparts in order to perform well. This type of conflict has become increasingly common.

Person-role conflict occurs when individuals find their personal values in sharp contrast with the imposition of job requirements. For example, a maintenance specialist who is a thoroughly meticulous individual is required to speed up his completion of work assignments under a "right-the-first-time" maintenance policy. This person may experience conflict when pressured to follow standards other than his own.

Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict occurs between two or more individuals and can be determined by differing opinions, misunderstandings of a situation, or differences in value or beliefs. Managers may be involved in interpersonal conflicts with a manager, an employee, a peer, or even a customer. Sometimes, they may have to manage conflicts between two or more of their employees. Solving and managing interpersonal conflict requires knowledge about the nature of the conflict and abilities to cope with it successfully.

A manager is unable to exercise leadership when employees are engaged in constant interpersonal conflict such as bickering and complaining about one another. In some instances, a manager might be inclined to act sympathetically towards one group, might be watching disruptive conduct too passively. Instead, a manager should establish, communicate, and enforce guidelines for acceptable behavior and set an example by living up to them.

Inter-organizational Conflict

This type of conflict occurs between one organization and another organization or group. Mergers and acquisitions often create inter-organizational disaccord. Circumstances that pit unions or employees against management often lead to hostility. The resolution of such large conflicts usually requires the help of outside professional negotiators. In many cases, inter-organizational conflict can be resolved only through litigation.

Certainly all of us have had experiences with people who are simply argumentative and disagreeable. However, it is much more productive to locate the loci of conflict as “difficult” as opposed to “difficult” people. Some jobs have high levels of conflict embedded into them. Even the most cooperative team player would not be able to fulfill the roles entailed by such jobs serve in those jobs without experiencing conflicts. This is a principle worth remembering as it is easier to change the work situation than to change the workers.

Below are some of the factors that make jobs especially prone to coworker conflict:

Employees must work with coworkers whose job responsibilities are different from their own. The employees who need to interact with a diversity of people at the workplace have a more conflict-ridden background. Consider the work experience of a custodian or a clerical person whose job is to interact with a large array of employees. When employees are required to deal with a large range of different individuals, then chances are the manager will have to contend with conflicts, no matter how good the manager is or how good the employees are at staying out of trouble. This diversity is so conflict ridden in that it creates multiple different demands which need to be tackled at once.

Employees Need to Share Limited Resources

Work conflicts also take place when employees have to share things like work space, funds, raw materials and equipment. Sharing is common to every organization, but when resources are particularly limited, the potential for coworker conflict is obviously increased.

Employees Must Work with Other People in Complicated Ways

One of the most common causes of conflict is work interdependence. This refers to the situation where workers have to work together in complex human interactions or social cooperation. Such complications arise when direct reports have to (a) rely on others for their inputs, (b) rely on others for feedback on how well they have done their work, and (c) interact with others face to face to complete their work. (see Sims 301)

If the work generates interdependence, workers have to rely on others people’s actions. This mutual dependence is an important factor in causing conflict, for example, between sales and production personnel. Since the work of such individuals is closely interdependent, it has greater conflict potential.

Acknowledging the various kinds of conflicts that arise in various relationships and work situations can help a manager diagnose the source and nature of conflicts and devise appropriate ways to manage them. Conflict management aims to prevent negative or dysfunctional conflict from occurring, while at the same time encouraging positive, constructive conflict that stimulates individual and team performance. If dysfunctional conflict cannot be prevented, then the goal is either to eliminate it, or at least minimize or decrease it. A good manager should strive to channel potential conflict into a functional framework, making it productive rather than destructive. He should promote open dialogue

and constructive debate among potentially conflicting parties, by developing an organizational culture with a set of values and norms that support openness about debate and opinions.

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CAPITALIZATION OF NON-CONVENTIONAL ENERGY SOURCES AN SUSTAINABLE REQUERMENT FOR ROMANIA

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Abstract: Fulfilling the immediate and medium-term energy demand, at a cost as low, represent the overall strategic objective of the energy sector. According with the assessment of numerous international bodies energy needs of industrialized countries will increase by approximately 60% by 2030, the same estimates show that World oil demand will be more than 115 million barrels in 2020. In this context, the paper aims is to identify the capitalisation potential of non-conventional energy sources in Romania, sources which can be a viable option for ensuring energy security

Keywords: energy demand, sustainable development, resources

Sustainable development is one of the priorities of policies and programs of the European Union, is based on the idea to use the resourses without compromising the needs of future generations. At present, development of activities, especially activities in the sectors of industry and development of large populated centers, which involve a high consumption of energy has led to the emergence of numerous problems in the ecosystem, the major impact being the increasing of concentrations of polluting emissions in air, water and soil.

According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, emissions of greenhouse gases have already caused an increase of global temperature by 0.6 degrees; the increase was estimated between 1.4 and 5.8 degrees by the end of the century. Emissions of greenhouse gases should reach the maximum until the later in 2025, and then be reduced by at least 15%, but preferably up to 50% compared with 1990 levels.

Due to increasing consumption of energy is necessary orientation to use non-conventional forms of energy. It is estimated that demand for energy worldwide to grow by around 60% by 2030. World consumption of oil has already increased by 20% in 1994, while worldwide demand for oil is expected to grow by 1.6% per year, while the known oil reserves can sustain the current level of consumption only until 2040, and the natural gas until 2070. [1]

Intensification of energy use from renewable sources constitutes an important component of the package of measures needed to reduce emissions of greenhouse gases and to comply with the Kyoto Protocol as well as other commitments made at European level in order to reduce the greenhouse emissions in the perspective of 2012.

At present only a small proportion of the world's energy needs come from alternative and renewable energy sources.

Table 1 The Renewable Energy Resource Base (exajoules per year)

Type of resources	Current use	Theoretical potential
Hydropower	9	147
Biomass energy	50	2,900
Wind energy	0.12	6,000

Solar energy	0.1	3,900,000
Geothermal energy	0.6	--
Ocean energy	not estimated	7,400
Total	60	>4,000,000

About 13 percent of primary energy comes from renewable, with most of this coming from traditional biomass like wood-burning. Hydropower is the next largest source, providing 2-3%, and modern technologies like geothermal, wind, solar, and marine energy together produce less than 1% of total world energy demand.

Sustainable development requires that among with exhaustible resources consumption is necessary to have an increasing amount of renewable resources. In this context, the development of renewable energy sources as a significant energy resource is one of the main objectives of energy policy, aimed mainly to protect the environment and increase safety in power generation. On medium term, renewable energy sources can not be seen as an alternative to total conventional sources, but because of the benefits that it can be used in parallel with fossil fuels and nuclear energy

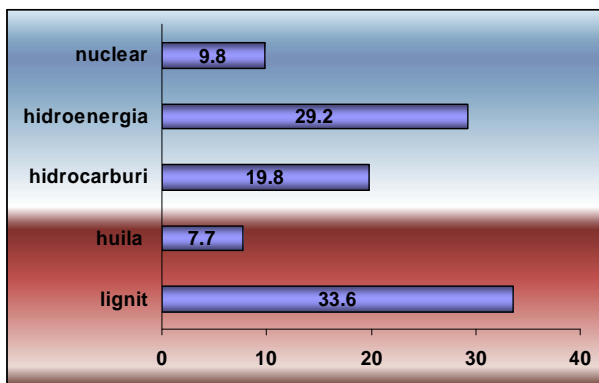
Many developing countries face the problem of insurance electricity for the entire population, renewable sources would be the only way to supply electricity to more than 800 million people in developing countries, but all potential beneficiaries of renewable amounted is about of 2 billion inhabitants of the planet.

Mainly as a local resource, developing of renewable energy sources contribute to the creation of new business, decreasing unemployment and encouraging economic and social cohesion in poor areas. Since the adoption in 1997 of the Kyoto Protocol, the industry of renewable energy sources has developed large, developed countries have set as the target reduction by 2012 of greenhouse gases by 5.2% compared to 1990 levels.

In Romania, the proportion of renewables resorsec in total consumption of primary resources, in 2010, will have a level of about 11%, and in 2015 of 11.2%.

At present electricity from renewable sources occurs only in microhidrocentrale, this production represents less than 0.5% of the total. [5]

Fig. 1 Energy production on resorces



An example of renewable energy on energy market is the wind plants. Today, in the European Union are installed wind energy plants with a total power of 10 000 MW. Among the countries of the European Union, Germany has the largest power installed for wind energy plants, 5 000 MW. Also, Denmark, Germany and Spain using wind power. [2]

In order to promote renewable energy the European Commission has proposed to Member States to ensure a share of renewables in the energy consumption of European Union by at least 20% by 2020 global setting national targets for each Member State.

Three sectors are covered by renewable energy: electricity, heating and cooling and transport. The method applied globally gave to Member States individual option regarding the contribution of these sectors to achieve their national goal. However, it is proposed that each Member State to reach a weight of at least 10% renewable energy (mainly biofuels) in the transport sector until 2020.

The proposal is based on the following grounds: [4]

- the transport sector register the fastest growing emissions of greenhouse gases from all sectors of the economy;
- biofuels stopped the oil dependency of the transport sector, which represents one of the most serious problems of insecurity of energy supply in EU;
- the production of biofuels is currently more expensive than producing other forms of renewable energy, which could mean they can not be developed without a specific request.

Final consumption of energy from renewable sources in each member state shall be calculated as the following:

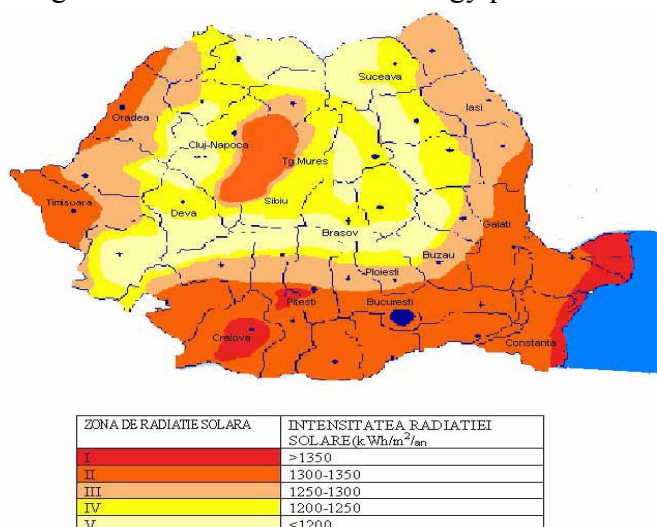
- final consumption of electricity from renewable energy sources;
- final energy consumption from renewable sources for heating and cooling;
- the renewable energy consumed in transports.

Taking in consideration the European Union target of 20% of the total electricity consumed as electricity produced from renewable resources, Romania needs to intensify its actions to exploit these resources. In the energy balance of Romania are taken into consideration the following types of renewable energy sources:

- Solar energy, used to produce heat by passive or active converting method or for supplying of electricity through photovoltaic systems;
- Wind power, used to produce electricity;
- Hydro energy, hydroelectric central with a power less than or equal to 10 MW, respectively the hydro power central with a power installed more than 10 MW;
- Biomass, comes from residues from agricultural and forestry farms, waste from wood and other products;
- Geothermal energy, energy stored in warehouses and underground deposits

The geographical distribution of solar energy potential shows that over half of the country enjoys an annually flow of energy between 1.000-1300 kWh/m²-an thus have been identified five geographically areas differentiated according to the energy flow measured.

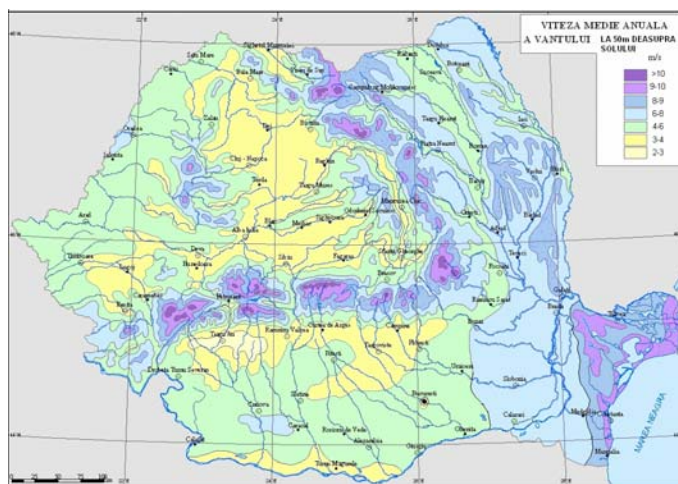
Fig. 2 Geografic distribution of solar energy potential



The energetic apourt of the solar-thermal systems to the needs of heat and domestic water is rated at about 1434 thousand tep (60 PJ / year), which could substitute some 50% of the volume of domestic hot water or 15% of energy for thermal heating. [2]

Depending on the existing energetic potential,the environmental and topographic conditions , have been identified five eolian areas. [2] Romania has a high wind energy potential in Black Sea area, plateaus of Moldova and Dobrogea or in mountain areas. It can be used wind plants with a total power of up to 14,000 MW, which means a contribution of the electricity almost 23,000 GWh / year.

Fig. 3 Wind energy potential



The biomass potential is high and is evaluated at about 7.594 thousand tep / year (318 PJ / year), which represents almost 19% of the total consumption of primary resources. Nearly 54% of heat produced on the basis of biomass is obtained from the combustion residue forestry, 89% of heat needed warming homes and preparation of food consumption is the result of residue and vegetable waste. [2]

The temperature of hidrogeotermale sources, with the exploitation by drilling-extraction, in gemometry of "low entalpie" is between 25 ° C and 60 ° C in water depth and for geometry of average temperatures is range from 60 ° C up to 125 ° C. At present, is in operation about 70 drills, for water, with temperatures above 60 ° C areas. [5]

Development of the society is based on raw materials - oil, coal and natural gas - materials that are not regenerated and, at a time, will consume, in addition, the use of these materials contribute to climate change. Thus, using of renewable energy sources is a viable option, helping to combat climate change, reduction of risks arising from environmental impacts of energy production on the environment, improving the safety of energy supply. Also, the using of renewable energy is needed for gradual replacement of energy produced from the fossil fuel with clean energy.

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ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT A PRIORITY FOR ENHANCING ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE OF ORGANIZATION

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Abstract: The environmental rules mention necessity for introduction of environmental management system at the organization level. In this way, is answering to a concept more a more use in the environmental protection field: the pollution stops of its sources or act at source of pollution and not only to its effect. The paper analysed the fact that a proper and effectively control of pollution it can not be done exclusively of technological solution, and this it must be done based of environmental system, integrated to organization management.

Keywords: environmental management, economic performance, resources

The word management comes from English in the last period has been assimilated in Romanian language. As a definition of this notion it can be accepted that by management is understand the function of planning, organizing, directly management, control and supervision of any project or industrial activity or business with responsibility for results.

Referring to an organization even in a punctiform situation the function of general management of organization are the follows:

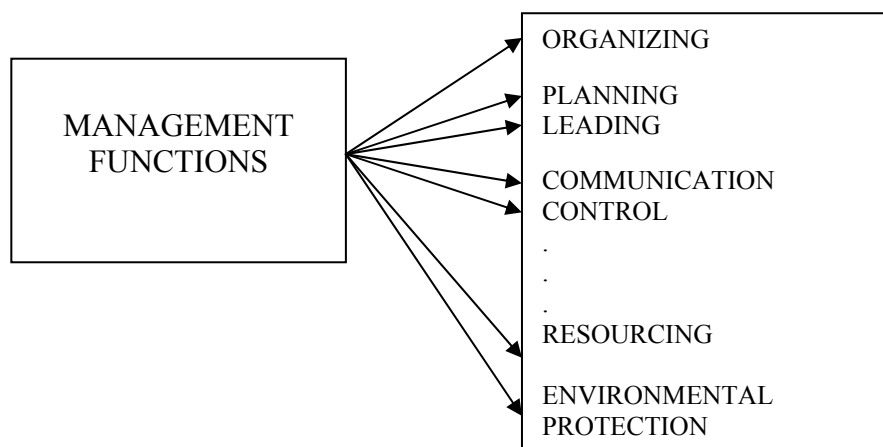


Fig. 1. Management functions of organization

For environmental component of management all these functions will have an orientation, in other words a focus on the environment.

Generally, developing the environmental management system and its instruments has as result approach in an overall context of relationship between economic unity and environment [3]. The purpose of the application consists in reducing the negative effects and development of positive effects on the environment fig. 2

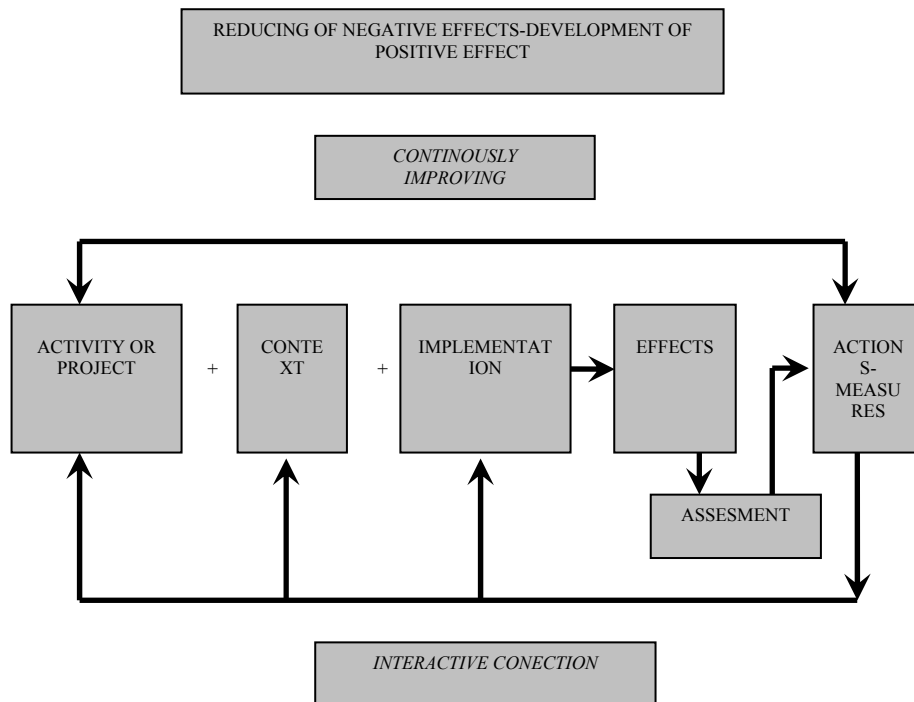


Fig. 2 Environmental Management System - objectives

ISO 14000 standards. In recent years environmental issues are an integral part of the strategy of organizations around the world. Each economic unit seek to achieve and demonstrate along with economic growth and a level of performance of environmental protection to meet the environmental legislation. [2]

In this context the countries in which are operating rules and high environmental standards are interested in protecting them against competitors from countries where these are less severe. Competitive position of partners depends of ensuring "clean products, which meet both consumer demands, as well as the rules applied by their trading partners. A sustainable profit can be obtained only through an effective management of these changes in order to cope with new coordinates. (tab. 1)

Tab. 1 Pressures, changes, business technology

Pressures	Changes	Business opportunities
Development of environmental legislation	Draft of new products	New product with green level
Increasing of pressure behalt of beneficiary	Using of new materials	Cleaning technology
Competitive increasing	New technology	Division of environmental market
Cost increasing	Increasing of environmental monitoring and control	Reducing of waste generation
Investments decision	New system of environmental management	Application of the best practices
Pressure of environmental groups	Increasing of environmental preoccupation	Improvement of organization images

One of the most important activities in recent years, remains development of environmental standards, especially those of the Technical Committee 207 (ISO 14,000 series) and of International Standardization Organization. This series of standards ISO 14000 has as main objective provision of a common framework for addressing environmental management to organizations around the world. Synthetic standards are divided in two large groups: one target the organization, it refers to products and technology.

The activity of the Technical Committee 207 is divided into six sub-committees and a working group. [5] Technical committee is grouped in the following directions (fig.3):

- ✚ EMS - Environmental Management System
- ✚ Environmental Audit)
- ✚ Environment performance assessment
- ✚ Eco-labelling
- ✚ Life-cycle assessment
- ✚ Environmental Aspects Standard Products
- ✚ Terms and definitions.

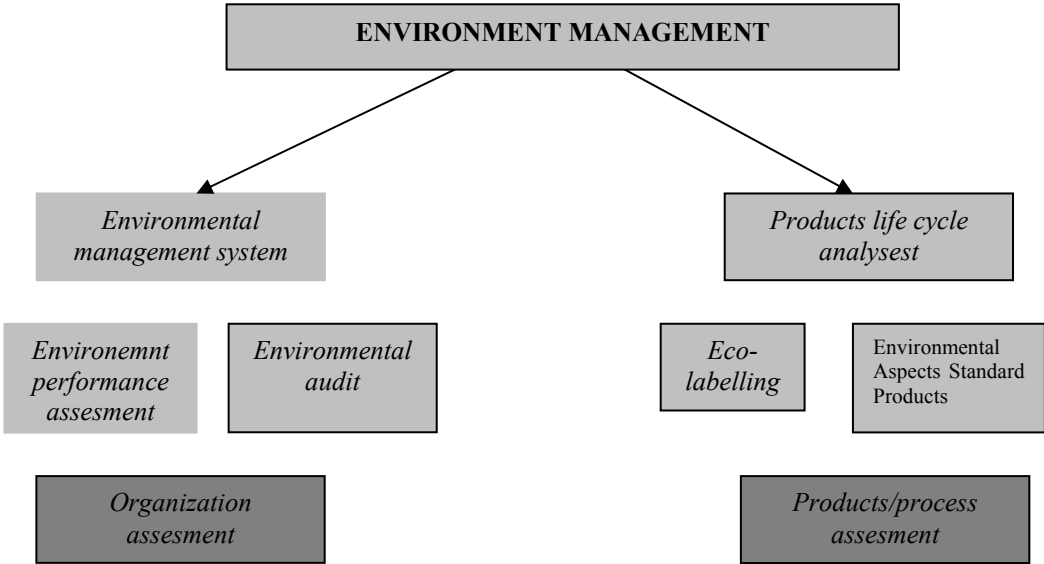


Fig. 3 Internal organization - CT 207

In Romania, in 2004 the National Institute of Standardization set up the Technical Committee 323 (Environmental Management) which brings together specialists in environmental issues from different sectors. This committee took the activity for adoption of ISO 14000 standards.

In many countries the implementation of environmental management system, although a voluntary action, managed to convince not only by the financial benefits, but also by increasing credibility in obtaining bank loans, attracting investors and new customers.

In the present, it can be find an concern of companies to introduce Environment Management Systems (SMM) [1]. These offer a structured way and systemic integration of environmental problematic in all aspects of companies.

The goal is not only compliance with environmental laws and minimization of financial risks but also continually improvement of Performance environment, thus ensuring a good image and a series of advantages in the competitive market.

In 1985 the SMM concept was introduced for the first time in the Netherlands, now represent an actually interest for other Western European countries, in Asia, U.S., Canada and growing in Central and Eastern Europe. At the level of economic units Environmental Management has continuously and rapidly evolved in the last 10 -15 years. [2]

Historically, the companies had approached environmental problems in three ways, according Fig. 4.

Environmental problematic approach	No action	Is not recognize and is not taking into consideration the environmental aspects of specific activity
	Reactive Approach	The company expects environmental issues to be raised from the outside. Their sollution is as a response to external pressure. These companies may find short term sollution, but will always be in the future unpreaper
	Pro-active Approach	The Companies monitor environmental problems which constitute an integral part of daily activitatt. Are prepared to answers before the situation becomes critical

Fig. 4 Stages of environmental problematic approach

Initially, the efforts of countries were concentrated to develop legislative and regulatory components as well as the organizational structures that developed economical activity in the limits allowed by environmental standards. In these conditions the industry response was given in response to the emergence of environmental issues, especially oh those with non-conformity with existing regulations.

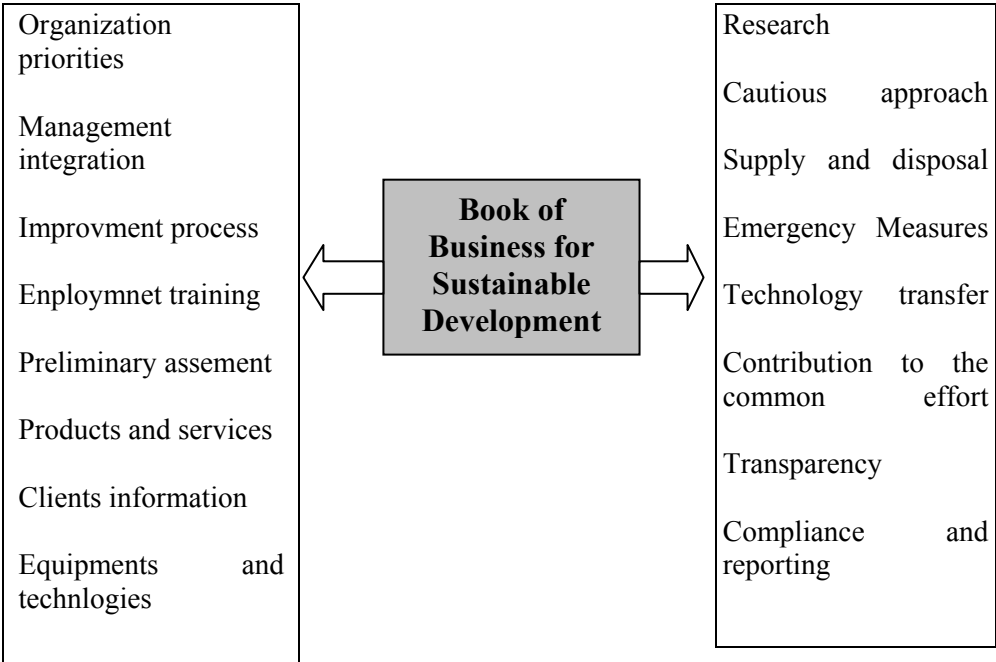
The investments were mainly in technological end of pipe solutions. Furthermore is passed to integrate gradually the environmental policy in the economic policy of the company. In 1987, the Bruntland report of the World Commission on Environment and Development introduced the term of sustainable development and urged industries to develop effective systems for environmental management.

He attended the 1992 meeting in Rio de Janeiro when the leaders of governments and large companies, private groups have analyzed how the world may be leaded to a sustainable development.

The resulted was the global consensus and political commitment (Agenda 21), to start collaboration between governments, organizations, non-governmental organizations, in order to find solutions to solve environmental problems, follows was decided that the International Organization for Standardization to elaborate a series of standards dedicated to the environmental management system.

In addition the International Chamber of Commerce has elaborated in 1990 - Book of Business for Sustainable Development - which contains 16 principles, base of the programs for individual economic activities. Fig. 5

Fig. 5 Book of Business for Sustainable Development



An environmental management system has as main objective to help a company for[5]:

- Identification and control of environmental aspects, impacts and risks of the relevant company;
- Meeting the environmental policy, objectives and targets, including compliance with environmental laws;
- Defining a set of basic principles to guide future activities aiming at environmental responsibilities;
- The establishment of growth of the environmental performance of the company, based on a cost-benefit balance;
- Determining the resources necessary to achieve the objectives;
- Defining responsibilities, authority and procedures to ensure the involvement of every employee of the company, in reducing of negative impact on the environment;
- Establish a efficiently communication system inside the company and ensuring the training of staff.

In essence Environmental management system respond to the approach known as Environmental Quality Management, namely: Plan, Due, Check, Improve.

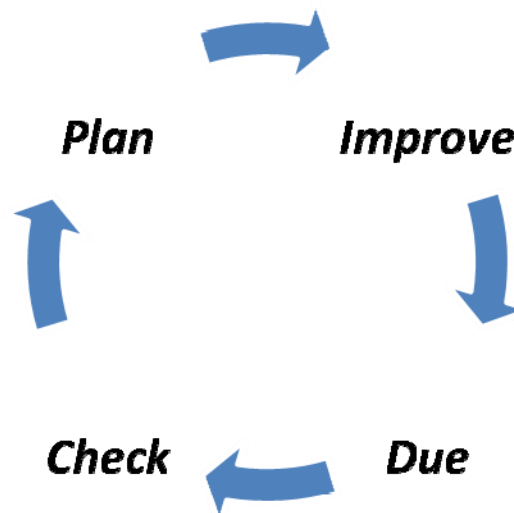


Fig. 6 Cycle of the specific actions for socio-economic activity

The purpose of documentation made in accordance with the requirements of an environmental management system is to create discipline of a system, to demonstrate the compliance and not become by itself an end of the action. Where was already implemented the quality, the experience gained will make easier the process of implementing the environmental management system.

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DISTRIBUTION POLICY AND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

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Abstract: Getting a significant role in marketing activity, distribution policy allows consumers to get goods and services and finish the economic cycle of products. Basic component of the marketing-mix assembly, in tourism activity, distribution policy refers to distribution channel, location or destination where a product is produced and consumed, places at which tourists may gain access to the products and also different material and immaterial tidal that accompanies the products' transfer from one to another component of the distribution chain. Through the number and importance of participants, through channels' dimensions and complexity, through resources used in the process of products' creation, the tourism distribution policy can support and encourage the sustainable development process.

Keywords: distribution policy, sustainable tourism, consumption

Introduction

Because of special characteristics of tourism need, expressed through tourism demand and because of large geographical spread of tourism products' offers, is necessary to gather the potentially tourism demand from a certain tourism area, as to bring the tourism products more closer for the tourists.

The connection between tourism services suppliers and clients is realized through tourism distribution.

Basic component of the marketing-mix, distribution assures the finalization of goods and services' circuit for economic organizations. Through the various points of access, distribution assures the connection between consumers and tourism products.

Because of tourism activity characteristics, the tourism distribution involves many different activities that contribute to an effective realization of the tourism consumption.

The importance of tourism distribution

Through its intermediary position between tourism services suppliers and clients, distribution has some specific duties, such as [1,4,9]:

- Assures the supply adaptation on tourism demand (by tourism products structuring going from tourists' needs)
- Distribution transfers the tourism services from theirs' suppliers to the consumers, through sales points from tourism network, in advance of supplying services
- Advise tourists concerning the tourism products choosing process
- Distribution solves tourists' problems and “play” a barrister role in case on disputed issues (for example, gets visas for tourists, solves the problems of luggage loosing etc.)
- Assures employment for local people, contributes to economic developing of local and zonal areas
- Represents a significant element of final tourism product price.

Tourism sustainability and distribution channels

There are different types of involved participants in tourism activities: tourism services suppliers, tour-operators, travel agencies, other suppliers or retailers of tourism products.

Among many other various ways and steps, tourism firms can contribute to the sustainable tourism achievement going from the marketing-mix conceiving process based on sustainable principles.

These can mean to design sustainable products, to fix for these products appropriate prices that, through their levels, can contribute to a sustainable tourism practicing, to distribute and promote them in to a sustainable principles vision.

To get a sustainable distribution, must approach and apply the sustainable principles on the all links of distribution chain, from services suppliers, to tour-operators and travel agencies.

The tourism services suppliers offer some certain specific services: accommodation, catering and providing food and beverage, transport, entertainment etc.

Tour-operators are tourism operators, which are “making” tourism products through assembling different basic tourism services, going from consumers’ needs.

Travel agencies are retailers in tourism and travel industry, because they are distributing to the final tourism consumers, the tourism products made by tour-operators. Yet, the travel agencies can “tour” themselves tourism services, and in this case play the role of a tour-operator.

Considering these types of participants, tourism distribution can be realized in the following way:

- a. Direct channels distribution
- b. Indirectly short channels distribution
- c. Indirectly long channels distribution

The direct distribution is met in the case in that the tourism services are sold from the suppliers direct to the tourism products consumers, assuring a direct connection between suppliers and consumers).

This type of distribution can be realized through:

- Direct sales of services to the tourists, without previous contacts between tourists and suppliers (for example, when a tourist go to the hotel front desks and requires a room for a night)
- Reservation system through reservation and sales centers of hotels, restaurants, airlines etc.
- Mail order by catalogues sales
- Direct mail
- Internet etc.

From the services supplier’s level, sustainable tourism can be achieved through some various actions, such as:

- Care for environmental resources that are used in the supplying process or are included and also not included in to the tourism offer
- Wastewater management
- Waste management
- Energy use based on unconventional resources (using waves, wind, rivers, solar etc. energy sources)
- Air, water and land less no pollution (especially in transport services case)

- As much as possible, ecological raw materials using to realize the services supplying process (especially in catering and food and beverage sector)
- Noise decreasing level
- Cultural buildings protection
- Collaborate with local authorities and tourism governmental local representatives to identify the critical or weak points and to implement the sustainable principles in their activities etc.

In distribution through indirectly short channels there is one type of intermediary, which is the tour-operator.

The tour-operators are the “producers” of tourism products. Going from some tourism attractions, they are “packing” the different tourism basic or/and supplementary services into a more or less complete tourism product.

By their power and position on the distribution channel, the most important role to assures a sustainable tourism it’s owned by tour-operators. Producers, and in the same time, wholesalers, the tour-operators can contribute to achieve sustainability through different ways, such as [5,6]:

- Understanding themselves and helping suppliers to understand the principles of sustainability
- Choosing those services suppliers which acts in sustainable spirit (using eco-resources, producing with care for the environment, using waste management system etc.)
- Encouraging suppliers to develop their’ activities in sustainable conditions
- Designing sustainable products, going from a strong collaboration with those suppliers which are following sustainable principles in their’ activities
- Collaborating with local community from tourism destinations and involves in environmental problems’ solutions
- Creating and implementing a set of standards for suppliers’ sustainable activities’ evaluation process
- Encouraging and supporting tourists’ education in the spirit of environmental care (initiating or supporting different social campaigns for environmental care)
- Contributing to the professional training of services suppliers’ personnel as to approach and apply the sustainable principles in their activity (and even initiating their own personnel training in applying sustainable principles in their professional acts and attitudes)
- Market targeting, identifying those tourists segments preoccupied to by and to make a sustainable tourism
- Getting the appropriate prices for the sustainable products
- Imaging and positioning the sustainable tourism destinations
- Promoting and distributing those products to travel agencies
- Supporting travel agencies to identify the tourists segments that desire sustainable products
- Informing the tourists about these sustainable products, promoting and those products sales encouraging etc.

In distribution through indirectly long channels, acts two categories of intermediaries, one is a tour-operator and the other is a travel agency.

Because the travel agencies are not implicated into tourism products’ designing process, these intermediaries have limited responsibilities in sustainable tourism process.

Yet, they can support and encourage a sustainable tourism activity, by different ways, such as:

- Cooperating with tour-operators which are sustainable tourism products’ suppliers

- Acquisitioning and retailing sustainable products
- Informing tourists, promoting sustainable products
- Including additional paragraph concerning environmental care responsibilities for tourists etc.

Conclusions

As important participants on tourism distribution activities, the tour-operators and travel agencies must be involved in sustainable tourism achievement process, through different ways, such as:

- Cooperating with all stakeholders (services suppliers, local communities, governmental authorities etc.), as to enhance the most appropriate measures that can contribute to increase the environmental responsibility
- Choosing the offers of those services suppliers, which are preoccupied and apply the sustainable principles in their activities
- Cooperating between the distribution participants themselves, as to create, distribute and promote those tourism products that can be consummated with out damaging the environmental elements
- Involving, near the tourism services suppliers and local or zonal communities, in the process of formulation of a common strategy concerning the tourism activity development, under the coordination of central/national authorities, as to achieve sustainable development
- Involving, through different measures, in the process of educating tourism consumers in the spirit of sustainable tourism acting, because, as a final link of sustainable tourism products, the tourists must understand, on their turn, the importance of sustainable tourism practicing.

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THE ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING

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Abstract: Advertising has always been an area of disagreement among economists, marketers, sociologists, and the public. This is little empirical evidence to support the various arguments that advertising has positive or negative economic and social effects. It has been claimed that advertising affects a consumer's load of information or the new product development process, increases the distribution costs of goods, alters the market structure, affects consumer prices or business cycles, and has a negative impact on the mass media. Part of the controversy can be traced to the underlying views of what constitutes relevant information to be given to consumers and to the acceptance of a policy of product differentiation. Of course, assessing the economic effects of advertising is difficult, and the complex issues involved are far from being resolved. This article discusses the effects of advertising on the economy. Figure 1 outlines some possible negative and positive effects of advertising.

Keywords : advertising, distribution costs, price, marketing

INTRODUCTION

The main economic consequences attributed to advertising concern the following: consumers' information load; the process of new products development and/or product proliferation; consumer prices, through its impact on distribution costs and market competition; business cycles; and media and media economics [4]. These issues can be grouped into three categories. The first two - that advertising provides consumers with product and service information and enhances the new product development process - are often advanced by advocates of advertising as proof of its positive economic function. If properly fulfilled, these roles of advertising would tend to benefit the consumer. Critics of advertising argue that advertising results in increased consumer prices, through the two above mentioned effects on distribution costs and on the market competitive structure. Thus, if this latter argument is true, advertising would also involve some disutilities to consumers. The third category is based on the fact that advertising has two important "side effects" that indirectly impinge upon consumers' welfare. They are called side effects because they do not directly affect the marketing process but have consequences for business cycles and the economics of the various media.

1. ADVERTISING AND CONSUMER UTILITY

1.1. Advertising and Consumers' Informational Utility

Even the most vocal critics admit that advertising objective is to provide consumers with information about products and services. In an economy that produces more goods and services than can be consumed, advertising keeps consumers informed of their choices and

helps companies compete more effectively [1]. As it is known, consumers look for information to make better choices and to reduce the risks of their purchase decisions. Advertising is such an information source and should fulfill the essential role of providing information on the products and services available in the marketplace.

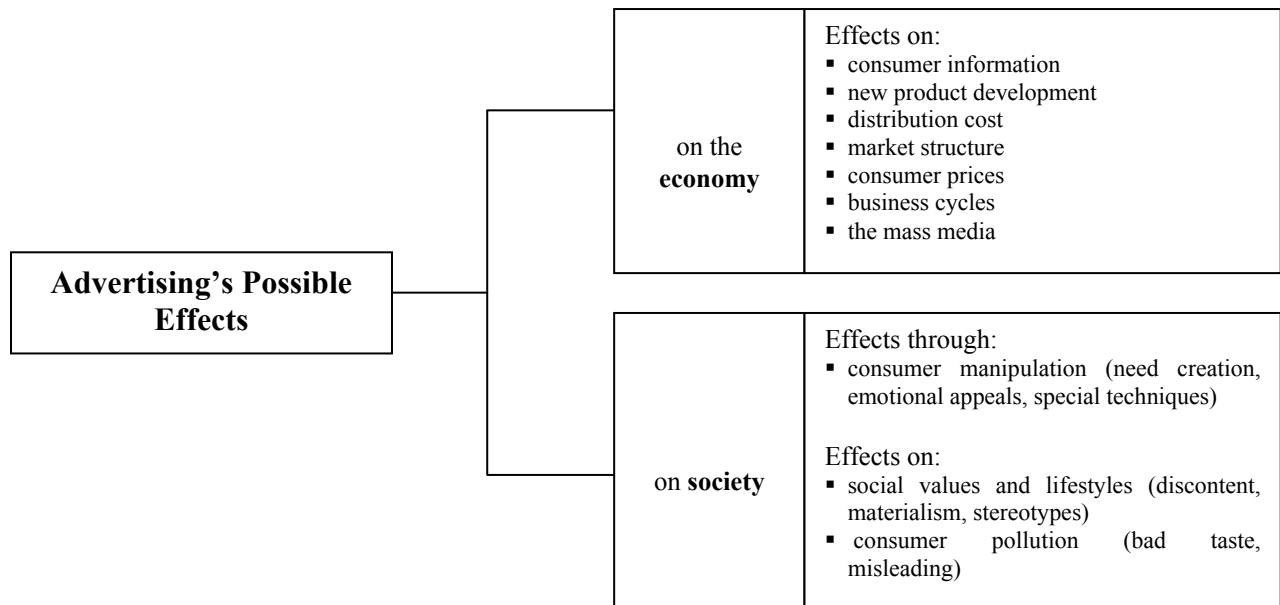


Figure 1. Possible Effects of Advertising on the Economy and Society

One important way in which advertising can meet this informational objective is to build brand awareness and favourable brand images [2]. Brand names constitute an investment for a manufacturer, because consumers can expect a certain quality level associated with a specific brand name. The role of a brand name is more important for products that involve high risks for consumers and also for products whose quality consumers are not technically competent to assess directly, especially before they use the product. Consequently, when advertisers build a brand name or a brand image, they also build a name that has some informational value for consumers. They are then committed to delivering a product quality that is consistent with advertising claims and consumers' expectations.

Therefore deceptive advertising or advertising claims that induce consumers to make suboptimal choices constitute a disutility for those consumers and is not in a company's best long-term interests. If advertising fails to provide consumers with relevant information, it is ineffective. Although critics and advocates of advertising might agree with these statements, they may disagree over what constitutes relevant information. Some economists define such information as objective information about the technical features and/or the physical characteristics of the brand.

According to critics, only informational advertising should be permissible while so-called persuasive advertising should be banned. One another distinction between low versus high information content advertising, one may argue that the quantity of information in a message cannot be meaningfully measured independently from the quality or usefulness of the information, which in turn, is essentially individual specific [5]. Advertisements with a high information content for one consumer may have a low information value for another. Thus, marketers who recognize the consumers use several dimensions, some objective, others subjective, to evaluate brands, would broaden the definition of what constitutes relevant

information to include any information that consumers process to help them make a purchase decision.

In the same vein, economists who perceive the consumer as close to the ideal rational economic man argue that advertising designed to create certain moods or to associate products with certain lifestyles or activities is completely void of information content. In contrast, marketers have long recognized that consumer behaviour is essentially rational but is also affected by psychological, social, or cultural values, and that such motives are at least as powerful as economic motives in the consumer's logic. These marketers would argue that mood or lifestyle advertising adds to consumers' utility, since consumers buy not only physical products but also the set of meanings attached to the products. The quarrel between advocates and critics of advertising can be traced to both groups' disagreement over this extended concept of a product. However, if consumers find additional value and utility in these meanings, the role of advertising should be establish such meanings through mood or lifestyle advertising and to communicate them to the market.

1.2. Advertising and New Product Development

Advertising – and sometimes only advertising – can efficiently inform consumers about new products and innovations. If such a convenient and relatively inexpensive device were not available for communicating the existence of new products or new ideas to potential buyers, the new product development process would be seriously impaired. Without advertising, the large number of product improvements and innovations might not have been possible.

Critics of advertising challenge the role of advertising in providing consumers with real new product utilities [4]. They argue that by focusing on inconsequential product features, advertisers attempt to differentiate products in ways that are not beneficial to the consumer. Marketers would answer such criticisms by saying that as long as market segment responds positively to a certain product with specific advertised features, knowingly and in the absence of any deceptive advertising claim, then these consumers find some real value and satisfaction in the brand they purchase. Since what constitutes value to one customer may be worthless to another, one should guard against imposing one's value judgments on a market or on society. This endless quest for meaningful product differentiation is a powerful economic catalyst. Because firms always try to find and promote products with differential advantages, meaningful innovations often – if not always – reach the marketplace.

When properly used by companies that refrain from deceptive or exaggerated claims, advertising fulfills an essential economic role: providing consumers with informational utility.

Obviously, there are costs attached to all these benefits. It is often difficult to find the limits between "informative" and "non-informative" advertising. In addition, non-informative advertising (as perceived by consumers) is likely to be ineffective and constitutes an economic waste. Moreover, product differentiation may be pushed to a point at which the differences do not warrant introducing a new product on the market. Much of the controversy between critics and advocates of advertising lies in their view of what constitutes "informative advertising" and "value to the consumer". Much of the difference lies in the implicit assumption made by advertising critics that consumers are "rational economic individuals" while marketers and advertisers view consumers as rational beings motivated not only by economic forces but also by psychological, social, and cultural values [6].

2. ADVERTISING AND CONSUMER DISUTILITY

Among the most vocal critics of advertising are economists who advance the argument that advertising increases the prices paid by consumers for goods and services. They suggest two types of mechanisms through which consumer prices could increase as the result of advertising: increased distribution costs and/or lessened competition, and concentrated market structures.

2.1. Advertising and Distribution Costs

Critics of advertising claim that advertising expenditures are a waste of economic resources and that advertising expenses are often a substantial part of the good sold. Consequently, in the end consumers pay for these additional selling expenses, since the selling price must recover these costs if a company is to make a profit. This argument has been extended to all the promotional devices marketers use to enhance consumer sales.

Although this argument may seem to carry some weight, it must be seriously qualified. First, two underlying assumptions in this criticism of advertising do not always hold. The first assumption is that marketers always use a cost oriented pricing strategy (such as cost-plus pricing). This is not always the case. If demand-oriented pricing approach is followed – and assuming that advertising expenses could be suppressed without decreasing the demand for a product – then any cost reduction would not be passed on to consumers but would increase the company's profits.

The second assumption is that advertising has no definite impact on sales and that marketers could do without it at no extra cost. Obviously, this assertion is at variance with what has been discussed previously. Advertising fulfills an important information function in a marketing program. If advertising were not used for this essential marketing information function, marketers would have to use something else, such as personal selling, and the information cost would be transferred to other marketing expense accounts. Moreover, these costs would probably increase dramatically, because only advertising can efficiently perform certain tasks of mass communication.

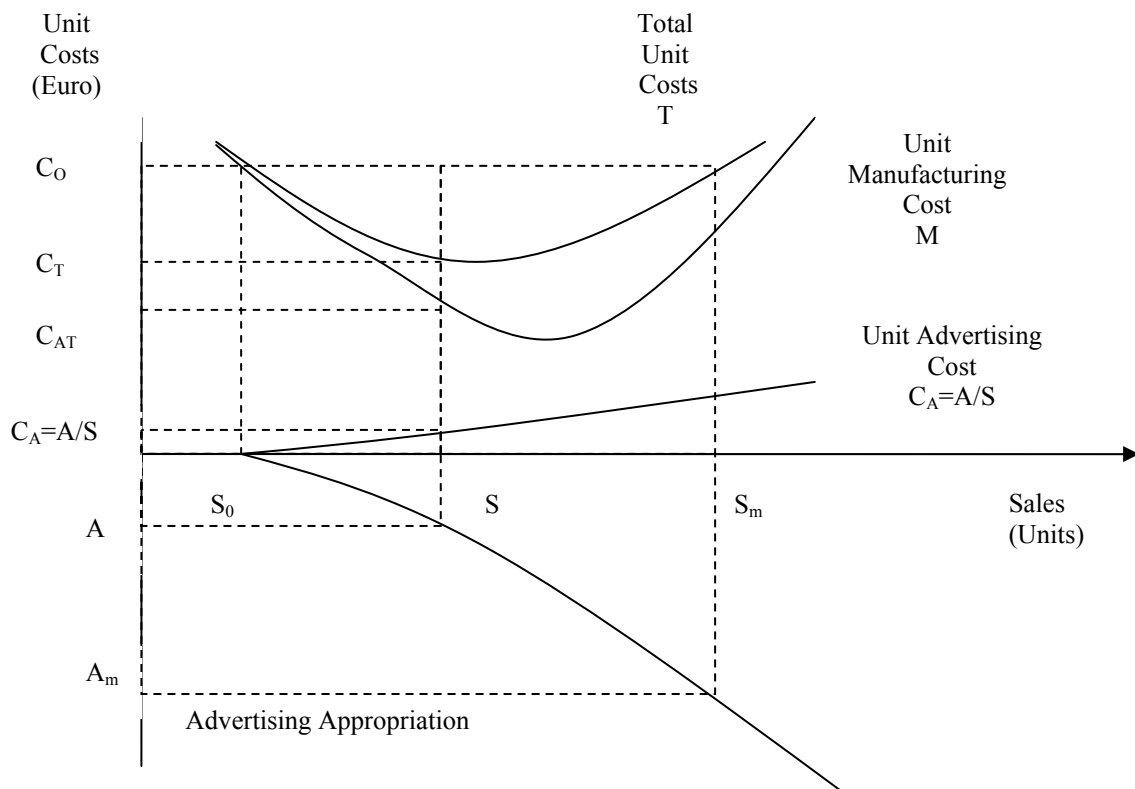


Figure 2. Unit Cost of a Product and Different Output/Sales Levels

While the argument that advertising increases the retail price of goods rests on two questionable assumptions, there are strong arguments that suggest the contrary: that advertising can decrease the unit distribution cost of products [4]. This idea is conveyed by the upper part of Figure 2, which shows how the unit cost of a certain product varies at different levels of output and sales. The (M) curve presents the typical U-shaped manufacturing cost curve. As economies of scale are felt, the unit manufacturing cost drops and then increases as diseconomies of scale are involved. The lower part of the diagram represents the sales response function to advertising expenditures. Thus, if no advertising expenditures were made, the firm could probably sell a certain quantity S_0 (although a small one) because of the effects of the other elements of the marketing mix. It can be seen on the upper part of the diagram that at the S_0 sales level, the unit cost of the product could be C_0 .

Now consider what happens when this firm decides to spend some money on advertising (for instance, A). These additional advertising costs should be added to the manufacturing costs. The unit advertising costs at various sales levels are represented by the curve (C_A). This curve starts at S_0 and increases at an increasing rate ($C_A = A/S$), because the sales response gets smaller for successive equal additional increments of advertising expenditures, which is the result of the law of diminishing marginal returns. The (T) curve is the vertical summation of the manufacturing and advertising costs that are needed at the different contemplated sales levels.

When the firm spends A on advertising, the total cost of the product drops from C_0 to C_T . The reason becomes evident when Figure 3 is considered: advertising can increase demand so that the economies of scale that are now possible result in a decreased average manufacturing cost (from C_0 to C_M) that is still larger than the additional advertising cost per unit (C_A).

It may also turn out that advertising does result in an increased total unit cost. This may happen if the resulting sales level falls at the right of S_M (i.e., if the advertising expenses are larger than A_M) for one of three reasons:

- The firm continues to stimulate the demand for the product when production is close to capacity (with very high marginal manufacturing costs). This happens when the firm overspends on advertising.
- The demand for the product cannot be stimulated any more, because the market is saturated or close to the saturation level (i.e., the sales curve is in its flat part). Here again the firm overspent on advertising.
- For some reason, advertising is ineffective.

All three cases may occur as the result of marketers making inefficient use of advertising expenses. They constitute marketing mistakes that marketers try to avoid. Nevertheless, the inefficient use of tools and techniques is not restricted solely to advertising, or even marketing. It can also be present in the other elements of the marketing mix (such as personal selling or pricing policies) or in other aspects of the firm's management (financial or personnel management).

To sum up, advertising can result in a consumer price increase when: marketers follow a cost-oriented pricing policy and marketers use advertising budget inefficiently by overspending and/or conducting ineffective advertising campaigns.

2.2. Advertising and Market Structure

That advertising leads to higher consumer prices and higher profits through market concentration is a more subtle argument. Economists have studied this problem theoretically and empirically, and although there is no clear evidence in either direction, this argument can be substantiated more than the preceding one.

According to economists, advertising can lead to market concentration and to higher consumer prices. At first glance this process resembles an endless loop. In other words, advertising leads to market concentration, which leads to more advertising, and so on.

These are three ways in which advertising can give a company differential advantages that may constitute a barrier to entry by new competitors. One is that advertisers can build brand loyalty. Economists argue that new competitors may find very difficult to break the loyalty that consumers have developed to well-established brands. Loyal customers are essentially satisfied consumers, and breaking loyalty patterns is a difficult endeavour. A second way is that advertisers can gain preferential treatment from the media that could not be obtained by a smaller newcomer. A third way is that there is a threshold effect for advertising before it can be effective. Thus the large resources required to overcome this handicap may discourage a new competitor from entering the market.

Market concentration leads to lower competition and decreased price competition. The rationale of this assertion is that when only a small number of large competitors share a market, that is, when a market has an oligopolistic structure, a price decrease initiated by any manufacturer is likely to be immediately matched by competitors. Consequently, there is no incentive to compete on price. Lack of price competition usually means higher prices for consumers and larger profits for the manufacturer.

CONCLUSIONS ON THE ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING

Advocates of advertising stress two broad types of economic benefits to consumers, i.e., that advertising fulfills the useful role of providing information to consumers and an enhancing new product development.

Critics point to the upward pressure advertising may exert on prices as the result of increased distribution costs or because of lessened competition. Here again, critics and advocates of advertising are likely to disagree on where the limits stand between what is true and what is speculation.

The Internet has brought about huge advantages to e-marketers as it provides ease of advertising, for example. But the use of the open network by marketers has brought concerns over the protection of personal data of customers [3].

Advertising does have desirable and undesirable economic effects. The real problem is to assess whether the benefits of using advertising are worth the economic costs. One answer is that advertising plays a role no other communication tool can fulfill as efficiently. From an economic point of view, if it were possible to get rid of advertising, the costs would certainly be much higher than the cost of keeping – and at the same time trying to refine and improve – this economic institution.

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THE PROCESS OF MANAGEMENT OF INFORMATION MANAGEMENT PROJECT

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Abstract. Historically information management is connected to specialized information activity spheres – library creating, bibliography, archives. On the basis of these spheres the problems of new documentation were formed, they were connected to new information processing methods and their application in industry. In the middle of the 20th century the understanding of information is connected with technology and electronic data processing and the information activity acquired the status of different systems and was supported by counting center concept

Keywords: information, data, project, process.

Information management includes non-informational activity, informational resources, their processing and communication. Information management is described as an application of management principles for society or organization information processes. This is a flexible strategy that can be applied on different levels (personal, corporation, society information) and activity spheres for information management. Studying the information management from the process point of view the following stages can be described: finding out organization's needs of information and information receiving, information processing and organization, information announcement, usage and storage.

In business sphere when there is a high level of risk and uncertain circumstances it is necessary to create an effective strategy. How should corporations reorganize their strategy so that it became profitable. Projects consist of processes that make a sequence of activities that guarantee a certain result. The processes are managed by people and can be divided into two main parts. In case of information management design it would be: information management project management processes that are connected with design organization and describing; processes that are made for information management project product – information management usage. The cycle of project functioning describes these processes. Both groups of this process are connected (for example it is impossible to state work amount without the understanding of product producing) information management processes can be grouped into five groups:

1. *Initiative processes* – projects and their basis acknowledgement. It is a moment when the necessity of project is clear and there are no barriers for project functioning.

2. *Planning processes* – creating and acknowledging of difficulties and possibilities, economy – that all makes a basis for better decisions to make. Projects are the activity of peoples that needs to be planned, coordinated and controlled. That's why project management is important as it is an inventory of knowledge, skills and methods usage, that helps to fulfill the wishes of projects per-formers and customers.

3. *Executing processes* – coordination of people and other resources according to the plan: project size check – the direction of the project fulfillment is checked; quality guarantee – all designing fulfillment evaluation based on rules and norms, that prove that the work will be done according to the standards; team building – the process of acquiring an individual and group skills in order to improve the project fulfillment; information division – the supply of

the information that is necessary for people taking part in the project in time; order formation – the knowledge of price, rate, offers – the choice of the suppliers, the fulfillment of the agreement – relation with suppliers management.

4. *Common change control* – the control of the changes that can occur during the whole period of project organization; Size change control – the control of the change of project size; schedule control – the control of the schedule change; expense control – the control of the project budget changes; quality control – the control of project procedures, the check of the results that is based on requirements and standards and, if necessary finding the ways how to take away the reasons that prevent from reaching the necessary quality level; work reports – the report of activity state, date change, forecast collecting, risk changes control – the fixation of the risk that can occur in organization.

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Project information management surroundings

Business – is a concurrence-based activity focused on the client that is performed in constantly changing surroundings. Surroundings influence the performance of projects that is why the team that is in charge of the project should understand and evaluate the endless context of it. And if they want to orientate themselves in it, it is necessary to identify: project participants, organizational influence and general management skills. Project participants are people and organizations that are actively involved into a project, or whose interests can positively or negatively influence the performance of the project or its results.

The main participants of the project are – project manager – a person who is in charge of project management; customer – organization or person who will use the product of the project – in this case a new information system; responsible party – organization the employees of which are involved in designing; supporter – a person or a group that provides financial support for project performance. There are more project participants and interested parts categories of the project: inner and outer, owners and founders, suppliers and partners, team members and their families, state institutions and information means, citizens, constant or permanent pressure organizations and society in general. While identifying the interested parties, it is necessary to find out who identifies himself as an interested party of the project.

Projects are usually performed by big organizations – corporations, state institutions, professional associations, international organizations. Even in case when the project group consists of a separate organization, designing is influenced by the main organization.

a) *Project-based organization*, that consists of projects. All the profit of such organizations is the sum of the per-formed project's profit: project-based organizations are divided into: organizations whose main profit source is received from performing the projects that are ordered by others (architecture companies, design organizations, consultants); organizations that use designing in their activity.

b) *Non-project-based-* production companies, financial firms, that very rarely have management systems that can effectively support project needs. In such organizations the biggest part of the resource belongs to production, not to the projects. Such organizations

have representatives that perform as designing groups. It is very difficult to perform a project in a non-project-based organization, because the personnel and leaders do not have designing skills and professionals are not hired; projects are delayed very often, and their performance is complicated because of the vertical management chain; projects are performed only in the local departments and only a small part of the employees can get acquainted with it and the work of the system.

Very often the resources that are given to the performance of the project influence the structures of the organizations that take part in the project. The structure of management is the way or division, organization and coordination to provide stability and help the members of organization to work and achieve the goals. There are three formal types of organizational structure: functional organization, product/market organization and matrix organization. The project organization structure is different. In such organization the majority of the resources is given to project work, project managers have wide possibilities for independence and functions. Matrix organizations are the combination of functional and project organizations. Weaker matrix belongs to functional organization characteristics project manager performs as coordinator, and not as a manager. Stronger matrix belongs to project organizations: constant project managers and constant project management personnel.

Organization culture can influence the project directly. For example, a group that offers a risky and unusual project will be more valued as aggressive to the surrounding organization and will be misunderstood in bureaucratic organization; the team work orientated manager will have problems in hierarchy organization, and the manager with authoritarian position will not be accepted in cooperating team. It is necessary to point out that the leader should create the atmosphere of sincerity at work, to strengthen the trust of team members in each other, to underline the constant help, share the information. Leading style is an entity relation between the leader and subordinates. A very different knowledge is required from leaders, the ability to evaluate the situation, to see the perspective for development and what is the most important to be able to persuade the subordinates that the goals are real and effective, that means to be their leader.

Information management project cycle

The project phase very often coincides with the fulfillment of different activity or product stage designing process. All the phases together make a cycle of project existence. Project existence cycle states the beginning and the end of the project. The cycle also states what work and in which phase it should be performed who must take part in performance in a certain phase.

Information management system planning and primary construction, performs the tests, evaluates and gives recommendations; secondary construction circle raises the requirements for subsystem, plans the goals for the secondary construction and performs physical information management system planning and secondary construction, makes the tests of the system, evaluates and gives recommendations; closing circle raises global requirements, performs closing planning, fulfills all the aims that were put for the system and subsystem.

The closing phase of the project is the connection of communication channels and information processing into one informational system and its testing.

The main stages of information systems projecting

The initiation of system projecting. System projecting should not be started before there is left uncertainty about the use of the system and its aim. On the stage of initiation a report about an expected profit, price, time and resource potentials should be explained. Work amount should be planned on this level as well.

The analysis of the project. At this stage it is necessary to identify the needs of the customers, problems that can occur, problems, the wishes of consumers should be detailed even more than it was done at the initiation stage.

Technical design. This stage is in charge of the connection of different technological solutions. Very often that is the choice of computer inventory and programme inventory. Nowadays there are no company leaders who analyze the data according to the so called manual method. Such analysis is impossible for a human being. That is why computers perfectly help to manage this process.

The tasks of system construction – to deliver the modules of earlier approved programmes for integrated testing. Integration test is necessary to approve that there are no technical mistakes and modules connectivity.

Applicability test. A very important role is given to the opinion of the consumer (for example: is the system convenient for using, are there enough system characteristics?). It is also necessary to remember that during the long time of system creating the activity of the consumer can change.

Commitment of the system – at this stage it is important to integrate a system into the activity of the consumer. It is important to understand that a well-informed consumer can effectively use the possibilities of the system.

Conclusions

Information management and projecting can be described as a universal inventory of the information management in modern organization, including the possible models of business, production, commerce, culture and education spheres. Information management projecting consists of three stages: starting, intermediate, concluding. According to information management it is possible to divide the projecting cycle in four circles: concept check, primary construction, secondary construction and concluding construction. The projecting of informational system and the choice of it depends on organizational functions and the raised tasks. The projecting of information system depends on project stages, system projecting initiation (decreases uncertainty), the analysis of needs (the applicability statement), technical de-sign (connection of the technical solutions), system construction (integrated module test), applicability test (the needs of consumers, the statement of characteristics), system commitment, system integration into consumer's activity.

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THE ECONOMICAL GROWTH POLICY, THE PROTECTION OF WATER AND THE LAW

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Abstract : The execution of tasks defined environmental policy within a certain time and in a certain area, at the national level requires international cooperation among different government agencies concerned. On this path may be to increase the effectiveness of the implementation of the tasks of national and international policy, and the environmental protection. Multiplying the number and complexity of the issues related to pollution of this policy is to review the tasks and formulate new tasks. The links between economic activity, environmental protection and environmental legislation should be considered in this context that a simple correlation to the development of the nature of economic activity can be obtained by taking the necessary measures to prevent environmental pollution, and these measures is a requirement under the law of the environment.

Keywords : legislation, environment, international cooperation

1.1. L'importance et la nécessité de la protection et la conservation de l'eau

La législation sur l'environnement est dominé par la nécessité du développement économique basé sur la récupération de l'augmentation des ressources matérielles et humaines du pays et en utilisant les conquêtes de la science-plein du progrès technique, en conformité avec les exigences de la protection de l'environnement. Pour parvenir à la protection de l'environnement est impératif que, parallèlement à la mise en œuvre de la restructuration et de redressement de l'économie - aujourd'hui, par-dessus tout, sur le chemin de la privatisation - înfăptuiască à une série de mesures dont la mise en œuvre pour assurer le maintien et l'amélioration de l'environnement, les exigences appropriées protection de la nature et de déroulement harmonieux de la vie humaine. En ce sens, le droit de l'environnement qui régissent les activités économiques et sociales impact sur l'environnement, au-dessus de tous, en ce qui concerne les conditions et la procédure d'agrément de ces activités. Il couvre ce fait, la procédure détaillée pour l'évaluation d'impact environnemental, qui comprend une phase préliminaire, une phase finale et de l'analyse et de validation, la procédure d'autorisation en cours de publication. Par conséquent, l'accumulation de nouveaux problèmes dans le développement économique et social et de la nature complexe de la protection de l'environnement et le développement (devraient) constituer une motivation pour la politique législative, le législateur devrait se concentrer sur les modalités, règles obligatoires, les relations interumane formé dans le cadre de la pollution de l'environnement dans certaines activités économiques, offrant ainsi le cadre juridique nécessaire pour lutter contre la pollution. En outre, il est connu que les mesures prévues pour parvenir à la politique économique (et d'autres branches de la politique), ainsi que celles relatives à la protection de l'environnement robes, presque toujours, des vêtements juridique approprié. Il est donc très bien le rôle de la réglementation dans le domaine de la protection de l'environnement et, par conséquent, les organes compétents de l'Etat commencent à accorder l'attention voulue aux problèmes juridiques de la protection de l'environnement. Mettre en place un système efficace de moyens juridiques dans la région est en effet l'un des devoirs fondamentaux de l'État vers la réalisation qui ont pris des mesures importantes au cours des dernières années, soit à travers

l'adoption de nouveaux règlements ou en adhérant à certains documents internationaux en vigueur il ya longtemps.

1. 2. Les objectifs de la protection juridique des eaux

Nécessité de protéger l'eau et à utiliser leurs rationnelle a été illustré graphiquement - récemment - par un "ad-appel" lancé par la compagnie des eaux de la France. Selon lui - parce que l'eau dans les différents domaines de la vie sociale - économique, en termes d'accroissement des exigences de temps, qui exigent une intensification des efforts pour veiller à ce que les ressources naturelles en quantité et qualité appropriées - il est indispensable de prendre toutes les mesures visant à protéger et de préserver cet élément de l'environnement.

En Roumanie, le problème de l'eau est au moins aussi urgent, étant donné que notre pays et est situé dans une région géographique relativement pauvres en eau douce, en effet, le volume total des eaux domestiques est estimé à environ 37 milliards de mètres cubes par an, dont - en raison de la faiblesse de travaux hydroélectriques et l'évolution générale des cours d'eau - sont utilisables seulement environ 5 milliards de mètres cubes d'eau, et les réserves d'eaux souterraines - estimé à 8 milliards de mètres cubes - 4 - 4.5 milliards de mètres cubes peuvent être des sources d'eau.

La protection de l'eau couvrent à la fois quantitatif, et de la qualité de ceux-ci. Relative à la protection sous le poids de ce résultat est obtenu principalement par le biais de réglementations relatives à la gestion et la gestion de l'eau, en vertu de laquelle l'environnement et la capacité de la centrale et locale des activités menées tout ce qui implique le respect de cette fin. Conformément aux dispositions de l'ordonnance d'urgence sur la protection de l'environnement a changé, "la protection des eaux de surface et des eaux souterraines et des écosystèmes aquatiques est de maintenir et d'améliorer la qualité et la productivité de leurs ressources naturelles. Visant à établir un système efficace de protection par OU N ° 195/2005 tel que modifié, est en développement dans le court terme - par l'autorité centrale pour la protection de l'environnement - des règlements complémentaires sur:

- Les règles techniques relatives à la protection de l'eau et des écosystèmes aquatiques, y compris la population humaine en cas de pollution accidentelle et transfrontalier;
- Procédure d'autorisation pour l'exploitation des sources d'eau et des écosystèmes aquatiques, la réalisation de travaux de construction d'Hydro pour le tassement des remblais et d'eau, l'irrigation et de drainage - drainage;

- Les normes d'émission;

- Les normes de qualité d'eau;

- Les exigences en matière d'évacuation, une usine de traitement des eaux usées et de limiter le rejet d'effluents dans l'eau.

Toutes ces règles - dont le sort est de fournir un cadre juridique concret, mais encore une fois, pour tenir compte de nouvelles relations sociales et économiques nationales et internationales - sont soumis à un contrôle strict organisé et exercé par tous de l'environnement.

1.3. Législation de la Communauté européenne dans l'eau

Les deux mondes de la biosphère de l'homme qui a hérité d'un tehnosfera et qui a créé un déséquilibre se produire aujourd'hui et sont susceptibles de causer un grave conflit. L'homme est au milieu, ce qui représente l'avenir que la porte s'ouvre sur la plus grande crise

que l'humanité fait jamais la face avant et qui va obtenir sa fin définitive de la génération actuelle.

Composante de la biosphère, l'eau est impliquée dans pratiquement tous les domaines de l'activité économique et sociale, comme un facteur déterminant, parfois limitant le développement, un emplacement dans le territoire des différentes activités économiques, le développement des localités. Dans le même temps, la question plus avancée aqueuse crée le danger de faire de même inutilisables les ressources existantes.

Aujourd'hui, le problème de l'eau a dépassé le champ d'application de la préoccupation de spécialistes, dépassant dimensions des problèmes mondiaux d'intérêt et qui dépend de progrès économique et social, notre vie elle-même.

Conférence mondiale de l'eau tenue en 1977 en Argentine, sous l'égide de l'ONU, a entraîné une cristallisation des tendances dans le pays avec des problèmes d'eau et d'un plan d'action de Mar del Plata a été par le biais de recommandations aux gouvernements des pays un point de repère dans le développement en ce qui concerne le problème de l'eau.

Conférence internationale sur l'eau et de l'environnement à Dublin, Janvier 1992, basé sur les rapports nationaux de pays ont adopté une déclaration qui caractérisent la situation des ressources en eau en tant que critique et de formuler des recommandations pour l'action au niveau local, national et international sur la base d'une série de principes répertoires tels que:

- L'eau douce est une source limitée et vulnérable, indispensable à la vie, le développement et l'environnement;

- le développement des ressources en eau et leur gestion devrait être basée sur une étroite coopération à tous les niveaux;

- l'eau a une valeur économique dans toutes ses utilisations et devrait être reconsidérée comme un bien économique.

Reconnaissant l'importance de l'eau pour le développement durable, en participant à la Conférence des Nations Unies sur l'environnement à Rio de Janeiro, réservé dans l'Agenda 21, chapitre 18 pour les problèmes des ressources en eau, à appliquer des mesures de financement, de gestion et de leur usage.

Également décidé de déclarer la journée du 22 Mars Journée mondiale de l'eau, journée d'action en particulier pour la sensibilisation du public sur l'importance de l'eau dans le développement économique et social.

Les efforts de tous les États dans le processus de développement durable sont l'assemblage et la Roumanie, un pays pour lequel la source de l'eau a été et est une question vitale.

La poursuite de la réforme devrait prendre en considération l'importance de reconsidérer l'eau, précieusement réévaluation des fonctions de rivières et de lacs et d'assurer l'harmonie entre la nature et ce qui rend l'homme au nom du développement.

Il s'agit de l'adaptation continue du cadre législatif et institutionnel ainsi que d'un effort pour assurer des investissements substantiels de nouvelles sources d'eau, l'amélioration des travaux d'entretien et de la gestion de l'eau existant.

En Roumanie, un pays de ressources en eau relativement pauvre, avec une répartition inégale dans le temps et l'espace, il ya eu depuis la fin de la dix-neuvième siècle, les préoccupations pour créer le cadre juridique et constitutionnel.

Au cours de l'année 1879 en Transylvanie, Banat et Bucovine services opérationnels de l'eau, et après la promulgation de la loi sur l'eau en 1924 de mettre en place la gestion en eau. Au cours de l'année 1951 à mettre en place le Comité d'État transformé l'eau après la promulgation de la loi n ° eau. 9 de 1973 du Conseil national de l'eau.

Apparaît comme un objectif qui exige l'adoption de stratégies dans le domaine de la gestion de l'eau, à court terme et à moyen et à long terme, en prenant en compte les deux

dimensions de l'eau: la qualité et la quantité d'eau qui est à la fois des ressources matérielles et le facteur environnemental.

De la Roumanie de connaissances entre les entreprises, l'emploi et la protection de l'eau aux niveaux régional et mondial, il faudra bilatéraux et multilatéraux de coopération et de développement des programs prioritaires, un travail sur lui problèmes de la protection du Danube, le Delta du Danube et la mer Noir.

Convention sur les effets transfrontières des accidents industriels, principalement destinés à promouvoir la coopération intergouvernementale pour la prévention, de préparation et d'action contre les effets causés par des accidents industriels. En particulier, le milieu aquatique, la Convention sur la protection et l'usage des cours d'eau transfrontières et des lacs internationaux (en Mars 1992, Helsinki) de détailler le mode d'action en cas de pollution accidentelle transnational, une série de documents préparatoires et les instruments sont déjà mis au point à ce stade par la Communauté économique européenne. Tous ces documents, avec internationale, est en fait une réponse aux blessures subies plus tôt - Mexico 1984, Bâle 1986, pour les prévenir et de contrôler les situations d'urgence.

En termes de leur règlement, les eaux sont réparties dans les eaux de surface et des eaux souterraines. Après leur destination économique des eaux sont d'usage général, de l'eau pour l'agriculture et de l'eau à des fins spéciales.

En général, utiliser l'eau pénètre dans les eaux destinées principalement à répondre aux besoins de la population lorsque l'objet de la consommation individuelle.

Dans la deuxième catégorie inclut l'eau utilisée pour l'irrigation. Eaux à des fins spéciales sont celles qui sont utilisées pour la navigation, la production d'électricité, de la pêche, l'eau étant

dans ce cas, les moyens de production.

En général, les eaux ont plus de destinations tout en la loi n ° eau. 107/1996 telle que modifiée et complétée consacrer juridiquement, une nouvelle conception de l'état de l'eau.

Règles pour la qualité de l'eau normes s'appliquent à la proposition par le Ministère de l'environnement et du développement durable, et la qualité de l'eau est approuvé à la proposition du ministère de la Santé publique.

La loi no. 107/1996 tel que modifié, prévoit que la charge de polluants des eaux usées déversées dans les ressources en eau est approuvé par décision du gouvernement sur proposition du Ministère de l'environnement et le développement durable et le Ministère de la santé publique. Par les eaux usées: l'eau provenant d'activités ménagères, sociale ou économique, substance ou de résidus de polluants qui modifient les caractéristiques physiques, chimiques et bactériologique original.

À cet égard ont été adoptées normatives fixant les limites des polluants de chargement des eaux usées déversées dans les sources d'eau, NTPA 001 qui vise à établir la qualité des eaux usées avant rejet dans les ressources en eau et les limites admissibles de indicateurs clés de la qualité de ces eaux.

Champ d'application de la norme comprend des eaux usées de toute nature, tels que les eaux usées domestiques, industrielles agrozootechnique de mines ou de dépôt, les systèmes d'échappement conçu, à partir du processus.

Acte visé est un instrument de travail pour les usagers de l'eau, de designers, de la santé publique et des inspections pour la gestion de l'eau et de la protection de l'environnement dans les travaux réglementaires et de contrôle.

Il a également été adopté en Mai et normatif relatif à l'écoulement des eaux usées dans les réseaux d'assainissement des colonies de peuplement, NTPA 002, visant à établir les conditions dans lesquelles appuie la décharge des eaux usées dans les égouts publics des

colonies de peuplement, de manière à assurer la protection et la le fonctionnement normal des, et de protéger l'environnement contre les effets des rejets des eaux usées.

Limites de rejet figurant dans l'avis ou l'autorisation pour la protection de l'eau, soit les limites maximales tolérées, dont le dépassement est interdit.

Afin de protéger l'eau et des écosystèmes aquatiques, y compris la population humaine, en cas de pollution accidentelle, l'autorité centrale élabore des normes techniques, les normes de qualité pour les eaux usées et de limiter le déplacement de l'eau dans les affluents, et la procédure de suivi de l'exploitation des ressources en eau et les écosystèmes aquatiques, la réalisation de travaux de construction d'Hydro pour le tassement des remblais et d'eau, le drainage et l'irrigation, le drainage.

Depuis 1974, à l'initiative de la Roumanie a tenu plusieurs réunions préparatoires des États riverains du Danube, încheindu est donc 10-12 décembre à Bucarest, "Déclaration sur la coopération dans le domaine dunărene membres gospodăririi et la protection de l'eau contre la pollution du Danube ».

A partir de l'Acte final de la Convention européenne pour la sécurité et la coopération en Helsinki (1975) et dans le document de séance de clôture à Madrid de représentants des États participants à la conférence dit, reconnaît l'importance que l'usage rationnel des les eaux internationales d'un cours d'eau pour le développement économique et social des États riverains. Membres dunărene Conférence qui s'est tenue à Bucarest, au cours des 10-13 Décembre 1985 a adopté une «Déclaration» dans laquelle elles sont citées - visées à l'article 1, paragraphe 1-objectifs suivants dans le cadre de la politique concernant membres dunărene la protection de l'environnement:

- a) l'usage rationnel et la conservation des ressources en eau du Danube;
- b) prévenir la pollution de ses eaux;
- c) le contrôle de leur qualité.

Conformément à l'article 1, paragraphe 2, pour atteindre les objectifs mentionnés ci-dessus, les gouvernements dunărene va prendre des mesures conformément aux lois en vigueur dans les médias et leurs techniques et économiques pour prévenir la pollution du Danube, en accordant une attention particulière à la prévention de la pollution causée par des substances nocives et radioactifs, ainsi que pour la réduction progressive des niveaux de pollution, en tenant compte des exigences environnementales de ces eaux. Ils vont vérifier sur une base systématique », la qualité des eaux usées sont déversées dans la partie du Danube en passant sur leur territoire, ce qui permet de décharge affluents, conformément à la législation nationale, de maintien de l'application de ces dispositions et de contrôle des variations de la qualité de l'eau de la rivière." Mettre au point et, en particulier, l'application par chacun des gouvernements dunărene un ensemble de mesures à long terme visant à assurer la réalisation des objectifs fixés sera facilité et renforcé, conformément au point 2 de la Déclaration, par le biais d'une coopération internationale étroite et multilatéral.

A partir de critères d'un développement stable et une coopération adéquate écologique gospodăririi eau objectif la gestion durable visant à: maintenir la qualité de vie générale, le maintien d'un accès continu aux ressources naturelles, en évitant les dommages causés à l'environnement et d'assurer la protection des écosystèmes, la mise en œuvre d'une approche préventive (Article 2, section 5).

La recherche scientifique est confrontée à un problème avec une extrême complexité, de sorte que les fondamentaux approche pluridisciplinaire et multidisciplinaire, et de créer les conditions pour la gestion intégrée des océans, des mers et des zones côtières, avec la décision des actes de tous les protagonistes et en particulier les gouvernements et de la société civile. En conclusion, l'instauration d'un nouvel ordre juridique, économique et morale, sur l'espace

maritime, doivent contribuer à la promotion de la justice et l'équité dans l'emploi des ressources et de l'environnement marin, avec soin et respect pour le principe de la solidarité avec les générations futures dans une optique durable . À l'heure actuelle, les initiatives européennes dans le domaine de la science et la technologie sont dispersées en mer, il est nécessaire de coordonner européen et même mondial, la création d'un des organismes internationaux aux océans et aux mers, qui ont la direction des sciences et technologies marines.

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IBN KHALDUN'S ECONOMIC THINKING

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Abstract: The climax of history of Islamic economic thought, Ibn Khaldun developed outstanding skills in observing and analyzing the economic, political and social developments of his time. He is considered by some as a father of modern economics, or at least a major forerunner. The Western world recognizes Khaldun as the father of sociology but hesitates in recognizing him as a great economist who laid its very foundations. He was the first to systematically analyze the functioning of an economy, the importance of technology, specialization and foreign trade in economic surplus and the role of government and its stabilization policies to increase output and employment. Moreover, he dealt with the problem of optimum taxation, minimum government services, incentives, institutional framework, law and order, expectations, production, and the theory of value.

Keywords: Islamism, economic thought, taxation, labor policy

Abd al-Rahman Ibn Muhammad Ibn Khaldun al-Hadrami of Tunis (1332–1406), commonly known as **Ibn Khaldun**, is a Muslim thinker who was born in Tunisia and died in Egypt. He received a broad education in Arabic, interpretation of the Koran, jurisprudence and poetry, served a number of Arab rulers in Tunis, Fez, Granada, Damascus and Cairo as courtier, jurist and statesman. As a political adviser with an exceptionally broad overview of different Muslim countries he developed outstanding skills in observing and analyzing the economic, political and social developments of his time. He was sometimes imprisoned or detained for his views, and even threatened to be executed.

Ibn Khaldun represents the climax of history of Islamic economic thought. He is considered by some as a father of modern economics, or at least a major forerunner. The Western world recognizes Khaldun as the father of sociology but hesitates in recognizing him as a great economist who laid its very foundations. He was indeed preceded by a variety of economic but elemental ideas to which he gave substance and depth and centuries later, these ideas were developed by the Mercantilists, the commercial capitalists of the 17th century, and finally by contemporary economic theorists.

The *Muqaddimah*, or the *Muqaddimah of Ibn Khaldun* or the *Prolegomena* in Latin, is a book written in 1377 which records an early Muslim view of universal history. Many modern thinkers view it as the first work dealing with the philosophy of history and the social sciences of sociology, demography, historiography, and cultural history, and a forerunner of modern economics. Ibn Khaldun wrote the work as the preface or first book of his planned world history, but already in his lifetime it became regarded as an independent work.

Not only did Ibn Khaldun plant the germinating seeds of classical economics, whether in production, supply, or cost, but he also pioneered in consumption, demand, and utility, the cornerstones of modern economic theory.

He was the first to systematically analyze the functioning of an economy, the importance of technology, specialization and foreign trade in economic surplus and the role of government and its stabilization policies to increase output and employment. Moreover, he dealt with the problem of optimum taxation, minimum government services, incentives, institutional framework, law and order, expectations, production, and the theory of value.

He used logic (in analyzing observations that led him to induction), history (as a tool for analysis), sociology (in finding facts), and geography in explaining economics.

What makes Ibn Khaldun particularly interesting for Liberals today is his strong case for a free economy and for freedom of choice as the best basis for a stable country, strong by social cohesion and not by political power alone.

In the book, he discussed social cohesion, which he sourced as the cause of some civilizations becoming great and others not. Ibn Khaldun felt that many social forces are cyclic, although there can be sudden sharp turns that break the pattern.

He noted that growth and development positively stimulate both supply and demand, and that the forces of supply and demand are what determine the prices of goods. He also noted macroeconomic forces of population growth, human capital development, and technological developments effects on development. In fact, Ibn Khaldun thought that population growth was directly a function of wealth.

Although he understood that money served as a standard of value, a medium of exchange, and a preserver of value, he did not realize that the value of gold and silver changed based on the forces of supply and demand.

Perhaps the most frequently cited observation drawn from Ibn Khaldūn's work is the notion that when a society becomes a great civilization, its high point is followed by a period of decay. This means that the next cohesive group that conquers the diminished civilization is, by comparison, a group of barbarians. Once the barbarians solidify their control over the conquered society, however, they become attracted to its more refined aspects, such as literacy and arts, and either assimilate into or appropriate such cultural practices. Then, eventually, the former barbarians will be conquered by a new set of barbarians, who will repeat the process.

Interesting also is the precursor to Marx's **labor theory of value** in Ibn Khaldun's work. Ibn Khaldun puts forward the insight that all value (profit) comes from labor as Marx was later to write. He outlines an early (possibly even the earliest) example of political economy. He describes the economy as being composed of value adding processes that is labor is added to techniques and crafts and the product is sold at a higher value. This is a powerful insight as one can construct an entire theory of the economy from this fundamental process and inform government policy.

He also made the distinction between "**profit**" and "**sustenance**", in modern political economy terms, surplus and that required for the reproduction of classes respectively.

Taxes when imposed above the normal rates affect the prices of necessities in particular. Ibn Khaldun said that by raising the tax rates the governments do not get more revenues. This is because a rise in taxes discourages production. On the other hand reduced taxes encourage production and raise revenues.

Ibn Khaldun introduced the concept popularly known as the **Laffer Curve**, that increases in tax rates initially increase tax revenues, but eventually increases in tax rates cause a decrease in tax revenues. This occurs as too high a tax rate discourages producers in the economy.

Ibn Khaldun used a dialectic approach to describe the sociological implications of tax choice (which now forms a part of economics theory):

"In the early stages of the state, taxes are light in their incidence, but fetch in large revenue...As time passes and kings succeed each other, they lose their tribal habits in favor of more civilized ones. Their needs and exigencies grow...owing to the luxury in which they have been brought up. Hence they impose fresh taxes on their subjects...and sharply raise the rate of old taxes to increase their yield...But the effects on business of this rise in taxation make themselves felt. For business men are soon discouraged by the comparison of their profits with the burden of their taxes...Consequently production falls off, and with it the yield of taxation."

Ibn Khaldun talked about **human needs** and their impact on the progress of civilization. First of all, man needs to eat and drink, to have clothes and find a place to live in. These needs are derived from the nature of man and may be termed as elementary and basic needs. The desire to fulfill these needs results in a further use of his knowledge and intellect. Therefore secondary needs arise. Tools are used as well as the intellect to get the needed things. A step after this is the process of civilization. At this stage a man would look for luxuries. For this he would have to be more intelligent. As a result civilization advances. So it is the development of needs that results in the advancement of civilization.

He further talked about **the nature of production** and the necessity of cooperation amongst the members of the society to fulfill the production needs. There are various production processes which are like rings that are overlapping and compound. Production is characterized by interdependence and interaction in the production process. It is not possible for an individual alone to fulfill his needs through the production process. There are several production stages and for this teamwork is necessary. For example, even baking bread would involve several persons from the wheat growing to baking it. Firstly land would have to be cultivated and after various processes we get bread. So there is cooperation involved. The group of individuals would get much more output per capita as compared to an individual working alone. Cooperation enables large scale as well as simple production. Labor is divided and there is division of labor. So people have to work together to get more. This 'more' would later give even more output. This is what is called the Multiplier Effect. When Adam Smith explained this, he could not reach the Sociological point of cooperation. Each person would do the job according to his skill.

Ibn Khaldun wrote on **the state**. For Ibn Khaldun, the role of the state is to establish law and order conducive for economic activities. Moreover, the enforcement of property rights, the protection of trade routes and the security of peace are necessary for any civilized society to engage in trade and production. The economic surplus could increase in a situation where governmental policies favor economic activities. Government should take a minimum amount of surplus through taxation in order to provide minimum services and necessary public works. For Ibn Khaldun, optimum taxation occurs when governments do not discourage production and trade through taxation.

The public sector is an enterprise established by the government. The government should only administer the society. If the government enters the economic activity it will cause disturbance.

Public ownership should limit to water, fire and free grazing land. These could translate into water and energy sectors. So the state should not engage itself in buying and selling since this automatically establishes a monopoly. And the state is supposed to protect the people from monopolies.

The World Bank report in 1989 for Privatization, acknowledged that Ibn Khaldun was the first proponent of privatization.

A very famous theory of Ibn Khaldun is of "**Al-Assabia**". He talked about the transformation of the society from Bedouin life to settled civilization. The State will be dependant on Al-Assabia. But this state would live for three generations. One generation comprises a period of 40 years.

Stage 1

Strong rulers treat their subjects tolerably. People of the State have good aspirations. They work and produce, knowing that there will be no injustice done to them. There is also a growth in the population. This is not only through births but also by outsiders who come and live in the tolerant society. The Division of Labor in the production process results in surplus.

The surplus further grows. Man is societal by nature and so people cooperate with each other. Needs arise also due to the diversity of commodities at their disposal.

According to Ibn Khaldun when income grows at a higher rate, the population also grows. People will feel more well off and there will be more welfare due to the surplus as a result of division of labor. This surplus can be relied upon to work less and enjoy a better life. This surplus can also be used to for getting commodities from outside. (This is International trade and is known as the Vent for Surplus). The roots of the Vent for Surplus theory lie in Ibn Khaldun's theory. Khaldun further adds that people enjoy life by looking for better qualities, more varieties and new commodities. There is more progress through the industry. Thus there is advancement in every field. So welfare is also measured by services besides materials.

Stage 2

In this stage, rulers are not as strong. They are the sons of their founders. To increase government's wealth they impose more taxes on the producers. At the beginning the effect is not felt much. The effect is felt gradually. As the citizens are free, they start questioning these taxes. They see their rulers enjoying life. Therefore they do not remain so enthusiastic to work. In this way population growth is affected, as some people start leaving the place for better opportunities outside. Human resources are very important. Those who remain put in lesser effort for work. In this way growth is affected. So, total output also grows at a decreasing rate. Ibn Khaldun said that income is the value of labor. It is the value of the work done. Thus it is the rulers who are responsible for growth. They are responsible for welfare and ultimately a better standard of living.

Stage 3

In this stage, the conditions become very bad. People are fighting amongst each other. In this situation the government tries to collect more taxes. This results in a drop in population and income at an increasing rate. The situation becomes worse at the end as most of the skilled labor emigrates.

Ibn Khaldun also wrote on prices. He observed various factors which resulted in differences and growth in price level. He greatly depended on induction which is observation of actual life. In those times, people in Egypt, Iraq, India and China were enjoying a higher level of welfare. According to Khaldun the main reason for this prosperity was large size, and engagement in effective production activities. They produced more as compared to other countries. The main reason for this greater production was because of a large population size.

Ibn Khaldun compared the people in the same profession in different countries. He even compared beggars. Khaldun even compared conditions of housing in different countries, as well as the quality of commodities and industry. He also compared total demand and total expenditures in different markets. If there is more expenditure than it means that the market is booming.

According to him, prices move in the same direction as output. A rise in growth would imply a rise in prices. Prices in general reflect the state of expenditure in the market. More expenditure means more demand. He made an accurate observation of the structure of prices. Not all prices rise in the same manner. Some prices such as the prices of basic food items decline due to growth in the economy. However, when the supply is growing at a faster rate than demand, prices decline. The price of luxuries is rising because people are demanding more of these.

The industry leads the civilization. It is related with intellect. So, new and better quality commodities fetch a higher price. Skilled labor is limited, and thus demands higher wages. So Khaldun gave a dynamic analysis of prices.

As far as **fixed prices** are concerned, Ibn Khaldun is totally against any government involvement, explaining that it would make farmers and merchants unable to trade and therefore earn their living. There will be no incentive to effort and the fiscal structure will be ruined. Not only such an involvement is harmful to the people, but it also may cause the destruction of civilization.

Ibn Khaldun wrote on **specialization and economic surplus** as well. He indicated the fact that specialization is the major source of economic surplus, almost three centuries before Adam Smith. For him, when there is an environment conducive for specialization, the entrepreneur is encouraged to commit himself for further trade and production. Indeed, specialization would occur in a place in which a person is able to get the benefits of his offer.

Given law and order and security of peace, specialization will be greater when there is a large population – large population means greater market for many products, and therefore greater specialization. Specialization meant for him the coordination of different functions of factors of production so that through the cooperation of a group of people the needs of many others are satisfied. And this is the source of economic surplus.

Supply and demand was another topic Ibn Khaldun tackled. He, again centuries ahead of time, postulated that prices of goods and services are determined by supply and demand. Scarce goods in demand will have high prices. So the merchant will buy goods where they are cheap and plentiful and sell them where they are scarce and in demand, at a high price.

As far as the **monetary policy** is concerned, Khaldun was a defender of a stable monetary policy aiming at the protection of the purchasing power of money, which must be a matter of justice. As a result, people will have confidence in currency, trade and production.

So, in Khaldun's opinion, society needs less government expenditure and bureaucracy, less expenditure on mercenary armies, less taxation and a stable currency for trade and production.

Regarding **property rights**, Ibn Khaldun speaks of decline in economic activities when property rights are not protected and enforced. It is all a matter of justice, and the lack of it ruins civilization. His theory predicts that, other things being equal, countries with relatively strong property rights will witness a lively prosperous civilization, while countries with relatively poor property rights will be doomed to stay poor.

One good illustration is the fact that many Eastern European countries followed or are still following his prescriptions for privatization and the establishment of private property rights.

As a conclusion, we can say that Ibn Khaldun is a successful theoretician who discovered a great number of fundamental economic notions centuries before their official birth. He discovered the virtues and necessity of a division of labor long before Adam Smith, the principle of labor value long before Ricardo and the role of government in stabilization policy long before Keynes.

Ibn Khaldun's policy recommendations are as relevant today as they were during his time. The countries that follow them will prosper, and the ones that reject or ignore them will suffer.

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NEUROECONOMICS

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Abstract: Neuroeconomics, a relatively recent approach to human behavior, is a combination of neuroscience (the study of the nervous system), economics (the study of the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services), and psychology (the study of thought and perception). It is considered to be a branch of what is called “behavioral economics”. The aim of neuroeconomics is the study of human decision making, a process in which the brain has the central role. The study of the brain and nervous system is beginning to allow direct measurement of thoughts and feelings. Neuroeconomics adds variables to the conventional accounts of decision making or suggests specific functional forms to replace “as if” assumptions that have never been well supported empirically. It points out to an entirely new set of constructs to underlie economic decision making.

Keywords: neuroeconomics, human behavior, processus

1. What is neuroeconomics?

Neuroeconomics, a relatively recent approach to human behavior, is a combination of neuroscience (the study of the nervous system), economics (the study of the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services), and psychology (the study of thought and perception). It is considered to be a branch of what is called “behavioral economics”. The aim of neuroeconomics is the study of human decision making, a process in which the brain has the central role.

If economics focuses on group or individual choices and decisions, neuroeconomics focuses on personal choices and decisions, risks and rewards, human interaction, in a word the mental changes correlated with these choices and decisions. To put it differently, neuroeconomics is using brain to do economics.

Neuroeconomics goes beyond experimental economics in that it not only creates economically motivated bargaining games and markets in order to test theories and establish the variables causing economic outcome, it also measures biological and neural processes as people choose, bargain and trade by means of new technologies such as PET and fMRI which allow us to observe the processes that take place inside the human brain.

The boundaries of economics have been constantly reshaped by new tools, methods and techniques (mathematical, econometric, simulation methods). Such is also the case for brain imaging (three methods: EEG – electro-encephalogram, PET – positron emission topography, fMRI – functional magnetic resonance imaging), single-neuron measurement, EBS – Electrical Brain Simulation, TMS – transcranial magnetic stimulation, psychophysical measurement, GSR – galvanic skin response, or DTI – Diffusion Tensor Imaging.

Using these techniques, brain activity can be localized and the regional activity differences and other clues can be used to elucidate the principles of brain organization and functioning and eventually understand how the brain works.

The study of the brain and nervous system is beginning to allow direct measurement of thoughts and feelings. Neuroeconomics adds variables to the conventional accounts of decision making or suggests specific functional forms to replace “as if” assumptions that have never been well supported empirically. It points out to an entirely new set of constructs to underlie economic decision making.

2. Automatic versus controlled processes, affective versus cognitive processes

Humans often choose without much deliberation, yet the economic models take into account decisions in a deliberative equilibrium. Neuroeconomics does not deny that deliberation is part of the human decision making. But it also emphasizes that much of the human brain implements automatic processes. These automatic processes occur faster than conscious deliberations and with little or no awareness or feeling of effort. And people have little access and control over them so that the behavior generated by them need not follow axioms of inference and choice.

We must also take into account the affective system, which, if damaged or perturbed, makes the logical-deliberative system unable to regulate behavior appropriately.

Thus, human behavior requires an interaction between controlled and automatic processes.

One major finding of neuroeconomics is this distinction between **automatic and controlled processes**, a distinction first proposed in 1977. Each category of processes has its own distinctive characteristics.

Controlled processes are serial (using step-by-step logic), are invoked deliberately, and are associated with a subjective feeling of effort. In economics these processes can be represented as decision trees and dynamic programming.

Automatic processes are not accessible to consciousness and are relatively effortless. They imply rapid response and the ability for multitasking.

Automatic processes are characterized by some key principles, among which most prominent are parallelism, specialization, and coordination.

Parallelism – The brain performs a huge number of different computations in parallel. Because of the massively interconnected “network” architecture of neural systems, computations done in one part of the brain have the potential to influence any other computation, even when there is no logical connection between the two. It follows that even when the external influence is obvious and inappropriate, or the subject is warned ahead of time, the deliberation required to correct the first impression is hard work, competing for mental resources and attention with all the other work that needs to be done at the same moment. So, automatic impressions will influence behavior much of the time.

Specialization – Neurons in different parts of the brain have different shapes and structures, different functional properties, and operate in coordination as systems that are functionally specialized. Progress in neuroscience often involves tracing well-known psychological functions to circumscribed brain areas.

The idea that people have specialized systems that are invoked in specific situations could have dramatic consequences for economics. The standard model of economic behavior assumes that people have a unitary set of preferences which they seek to satisfy, and economists often criticize psychology for lacking such a unified perspective. The existence of such selectively—invoked, specialized, systems, however, raises the question of whether a unified account of behavior is likely to do a very good job of capturing the complexities of human behavior.

Coordination – In a process that is not well understood, the brain figures out how to do the tasks it is assigned efficiently, using the specialized systems it has at its disposal. When the brain is confronted with a new problem it initially draws heavily on diverse regions, including, often, the prefrontal cortex (where controlled processes are concentrated). But over time, activity becomes more streamlined, concentrating in regions that specialized in processing relevant to the task.

Much as an economy ideally adjusts to the introduction of a new product by gradually shifting production to the firms that can produce the best goods most cheaply, with experience at a task or problem, the brain seems to gradually shift processing toward brain regions and specialized systems that can solve problems automatically and efficiently with low effort.

Automatic and controlled processes occur in different areas of the brain. Regions that support cognitive automatic activity are concentrated in the back (occipital), top (parietal), and side (temporal) parts of the brain. Controlled processes occur mainly in the front (orbital and prefrontal) parts of the brain.

Automatic and controlled processes unfold at different times and for different periods of time. Automatic processes are the default mode of the brain – they take place all the time, even during sleep, constituting most of the electro-chemical activity of the brain. Controlled processes interrupt at times automatic processes when the person is faced with an unexpected event or explicit challenge.

Of the two categories, economic calculation deals with **controlled processes**.

Another important distinction is between **affective and cognitive processes**. This distinction goes back in time as far as the ancient Greeks. Plato described people as driving a chariot drawn by two horses – reason and passion.

Most affect operates below the threshold of conscious awareness. It is associated with feeling states and has an essential role in human motivation. All affects are either positive or negative and carry action tendencies (for example, anger motivates people to become aggressive). They embody not only emotions such as anger, fear or jealousy, but also drive states such as hunger, thirst, sexual desire and motivational states such as physical pain, discomfort, drug craving.

Cognitive processes answer true / false questions. Cognition by itself cannot produce action. To influence behavior, the cognitive system must operate via the affective system.

Although it is useful to distinguish between cognitive and affective processes, and between controlled and automatic processes, most judgments and behaviors result from interactions between them.

3. General Implications of Neuroscience for Economics

Neuroeconomics appears to be able to help redefine ideas and provide answers to questions yet unanswered. How people differ from one-another when it comes to economic behavior, money utility, the search for pleasure, stock prices fluctuations, labor-market discrimination are only some of them.

Knowing how the brain solves problems, and what specialized systems it has at its disposal to do so, challenges some of our fundamental assumptions about **how people differ from one-another when it comes to economic behavior**. Economists currently classify individuals on such dimensions as “time preference,” “risk preference,” and “altruism.” These are seen as characteristics that are stable within an individual over time and consistent across activities. Also, economics implicitly assumes that people have general cognitive capabilities that can be applied to any type of problem and, hence, that people will perform equivalently on problems that have similar structure. But empirical evidence shows that risk taking, time discounting, and altruism are very weakly correlated or uncorrelated across situations. This inconsistency results in part from the fact that preferences are state-contingent.

The canonical economic model assumes that the **utility for money** is indirect—i.e., that money is a mere counter, only valued for the goods and services it can procure. Thus, standard economics would view, say, the pleasure from food or cocaine and the “pleasure” from obtaining money as two totally different phenomena. Neural evidence suggests,

however, that the same reward circuitry of the brain in the midbrain is activated for a wide variety of different re-enforcers, including attractive faces, cultural objects like sports cars, drugs, and money. This suggests that money provides *direct* reinforcement. If gaining money provides direct pleasure, then the experience of parting with it is probably painful. While there is no direct evidence that paying is painful, the assumption that paying hurts can explain many market phenomena which are otherwise puzzling.

Economists usually view behavior as a **search for pleasure** (or, equivalently, escape from pain). The subfield of welfare economics, and the entire ability of economists to make normative statements, is premised on the idea that giving people what they want makes them better off. But, there is considerable evidence from neuroscience and other areas of psychology that the motivation to take an action is not always closely tied to hedonic consequences.

Decision making involves the interaction of two separate, though overlapping systems, one responsible for pleasure and pain (the “liking” system), and the other for motivation (the “wanting” system).

Economics proceeds on the assumption that satisfying people’s wants is a good thing. This assumption depends on knowing that people will like what they want. If likes and wants diverge, this would pose a fundamental challenge to standard welfare economics. Presumably welfare should be based on “liking.” But if we cannot infer what people like from what they want and choose, then an alternative method for measuring liking is needed, while avoiding an oppressive paternalism.

Neuroscience points to some deficiencies in the way that economists currently model **temporal choice** and also suggests directions for future modeling. A somewhat stylized interpretation of the results just reviewed would be that some temporal decisions are, in fact, well represented by the discounted utility model—specifically those involving detailed deliberation but minimal affect. However, a wide range of other temporal choices are influenced by affectively “hot” processes such as drives and emotions, or result from processes that automatically evoke a response which depends on the situation. Models which focus on how these discrepant processes interact are promising.

Some scholars have argued that large **fluctuations in stock prices** are due to reasonable time-variation of risk premia. But there is no theoretical basis in finance for why attitudes toward risk would vary over time. Maybe neuroscience can supply one. In labor markets, a major puzzle is why wages are so downward sticky. Firms say they are afraid to cut wages because they want to maintain worker morale; and experiments show that when worker productivity is valuable, paying a high wage induces effort, even when workers are free to shirk. Presumably morale is some combination of workers’ emotional feelings toward their employer and may be very sensitive to recent experience, to what other workers think, to whether wage cuts are “procedurally just,” and so forth. There is no reason these processes could not be described as neural processes and studied that way.

Economic models assume that **labor-market discrimination** against minorities is either a taste (a distaste for working with minorities, or a distaste passed on from customers), or a belief that minority workers are less productive (for example, a belief that minority status is a proxy for unobservable differences in skill, also known as “statistical discrimination”). Neuroscience suggests a different answer. Automaticity contributes to discrimination because neural networks rapidly spread activation through associated concepts and stereotypes. Affect contributes to discrimination because automatic affective reactions have such a powerful effect on cognitive judgments. Discrimination in this view involves rapid, automatic, associations between social categories, stereotypes, and affect.

Neuroscientific data are well-suited to exploring the central assumptions on which **game theory** predictions rest. These assumptions are that players: (1) have accurate beliefs about what others will do (i.e., players are in equilibrium); (2) have no emotions or concern about how much others earn (a useful auxiliary assumption); (3) plan ahead; and (4) learn from experience.

4. Conclusion

Most economists are curious about neuroscience, but instinctively skeptical that it can tell us how to do better economics.

But despite having widespread access to terrific data, after decades of careful research there is no agreed-upon theory of why stock prices fluctuate, why people trade, and why there are so many actively managed mutual funds despite poor fund performance. Perhaps knowing more about basic neural mechanisms that underlie conformity, attention paid to large price changes, wishful thinking, sense-making of random series, and perceptions of expertise can help explain these puzzles.

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INDIVIDUAL AND COMPANY INCOME TAX SYSTEMS IN ROMANIA

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Abstract: In order to fulfill its functions and tasks, state needs financial resources, which come mainly from taxes, fees, contributions, fines, penalties, dues, rental rates, etc., paid by individuals or companies. State's need of financial resources grows from one period to another, as a result of various factors such as: inflation, demographics, urbanism, new technology, technico-scientific revolution, a.s.o. Government members must find solutions to meet financial needs, knowing that *introducing new taxes* or raising existing ones will not receive support from taxpayers. It is important to know how *tax* is levied on the *income of companies* and individuals.

Keywords: financial resources, taxation, tax equity, tax yield, tax rates, tax policy, tax evidence.

1. Income Taxation

Taxation represents the measurements and operations performed according to the law, which aim at establishing the tax imposed on the incomes of individuals and companies. In order to be rational, a taxation system must fulfill a series of requirements or follow various principles, which refer to tax optimization, tax arrangement and tax collection as well as socio-economic objectives of tax policy.

Taxation involves both politics and technics (concretized with methods and techniques used to establish the dimension of the taxed object and the tax amount).

From a political perspective, taxation requires that each tax must comply with certain principles such as: tax equity principle, financial policy principle, economic policy principle and socio-political principles.

Tax equity is the notion according to which taxes are imposed on society in a fair and equitable way. In order to comply with this principle, it is necessary to tax the incomes or wealth differentially and establish an untaxed minimum income for persons whose income is lower than a certain level.

From a financial policy viewpoint, when a new tax is introduced, it must have a high tax yield; it must be steady and flexible.

For a tax to have a high tax yield, the following conditions must be fulfilled:

- a) tax must have a universal character, i.e. it must be paid by all individuals/companies, which make incomes from the same source or own the same type of wealth. The universality of income presupposes, to the same extent, that one person's taxable income (the totality of incomes made or the whole wealth one owns) must be taxed;
- b) no legal or illegal possibility of avoiding taxation must exist;
- c) the expenses related to the tax arrangement and collection must be as low as possible.

Tax equality presupposes that taxation must apply in the same way for all individuals and companies, regardless of where they live or have the headquarters, without differences in the tax treatment from one area to another. Taxation must also apply in the same way for all

the economic activities, regardless of the company legal status: individual manufacturers and companies of various sizes.

2. Ways of Taxation

Tax equality presupposes the differentiation of tax from one person to another according to various economic and social criteria, among which one can mention: the volume of the taxable income, the taxpayer’s personal situation, the nature and the source of the incomes, etc.

Tax equity is also given, to a certain extent, by the way the tax rates are used. In fiscal practice, one can distinguish between flat tax model and percentual tax model.

Flat tax model does not take into account either taxpayer’s income and wealth or his/her personal situation. It appeared as a per capita contribution and was specifically used in the Middle Ages or in the first stages of the capitalist development.

Percentual tax model can have proportional, progressive or regressive rates.

Proportional tax rates can be seen as a direct manifestation of the tax equity principle. According to this form of taxation, the same tax rate is applied regardless of the volume of the taxable object, preserving the balance between tax and income(wealth). Although proportional tax rates represent a step ahead of flat tax rates, not even this model respects tax equity principle, because it does not take into account the contributive power of various social categories, which is different according to the volume of the incomes and the volume of the wealth. Proportional tax rates have been used on a wide scale for the calculation of real tax rates (land tax, building tax, industrial activity tax, commercial activity tax, personal income tax).

At present, proportional tax rates are used both as direct tax rates (for example, in some countries as profit tax for capital companies) and as indirect tax rates (for example, as value added tax, customs duty, stamp duty, etc)

Progressive tax rates were introduced, in some countries, in the second half of the 19th century, and in others (in fact, in most countries) at the beginning of the 20th century. Progressive taxation presupposes that once the income (wealth) rises, the tax rate will rise, as well, so that tax rises faster than the taxable object. The progressive rates can either steadily or variably increase.

Progressive taxation has two variants in financial practice, as follows: simple (global) progressive taxation and compound progressive taxation (for taxable income levels).

Simple (global) progressive taxation presupposes the application of the same tax rate to the whole taxpayer’s taxable income. As a progressive tax rate, the higher the income or wealth, the higher the tax rate payable, in the legally established limits of the income tax progressivity. The tax owed to the state is obtained if one multiplies the taxable object (income, wealth) by the corresponding tax rate. (table 1).

Simple Progressive Taxation

Taxable object (in monetary units)	Tax Rate (%)
- until 1000	0
- from 1001 to 3000	3
- from 3001 to 5000	5
- from 5001 to 10000	7
- from 10001 to 15000	12
- over 15000	15

According to the data in the above table, a person who makes an income of 12,000 monetary units will pay a tax of 1,440 monetary units to the state ($12000 \times 12\%$), and a person who makes an income of 20,000 monetary units will pay a tax of 3,000 monetary units ($20000 \times 15\%$).

Although **simple progressive taxation** has closely drawn to the respect for tax equity, it has some disadvantages. This kind of taxation discourage taxpayers who make incomes slightly over the limit a certain tax rate applies to. If the data in the above table is analysed, one can notice that a person who makes an income of 10,000 monetary units will pay a tax of 700 monetary units ($10000 \times 7\%$), and a person with an income of 10,050 monetary units will pay an income of 1,206 monetary units ($10050 \times 12\%$).

Consequently, the second person, who makes an income, which surpasses the first person's income by only 50 monetary units, owes a 506 monetary units higher tax and remains after the tax is paid with an income of 8,744 monetary units in comparison to 9,300 monetary units with which the first person remains after the tax is paid.

Compound progressive taxation (for taxable income levels) has as a distinct feature the division of the taxable income in more portions (parts), and for each tax installment(wealth) a certain tax rate is imposed. By adding up the partial tax rates calculated for each tax portion (wealth), one obtains the total tax which a taxpayer must pay. We present the following hypothetical data as an exemplification (table 2).

Compound Progressive Taxation (for Taxable Income Levels)

Taxable Income (m.u.)	Tax Rate (%)	Taxable Income Levels to which Tax Rate Applies	Income Tax (m.u.)
0-1000	0	Nil	nil
1001-3000	3	$3000-1000=2000$	60
3001-7000	5	$7000-3000=4000$	200
7001-1200	10	$12000-7000=5000$	500
12001-20000	15	$20000-12000=8000$	1200
20001-40000	20	$40000-20000=20000$	4000
peste 40000	30		

In the present example, the income level 0-1,000 represents the minimum tax-free income level, which means that, for all taxpayers, the first one thousand monetary units is not tax-free. A person who makes an income of 12,000 monetary units will pay a tax of 760 monetary units ($2,000 \times 3\% + 4000 \times 5\% + 5000 \times 10\%$) and a person who makes an income of 12,040 monetary units will pay a tax of 766 monetary units [$760 + (40 \times 15\%)$]. As a result, in the case of compound progressive taxation (in taxable income levels), only 43 out of 12,040 monetary units will be taxed at a higher rate and not the whole amount as it happens in the case of simple progressive taxation.

Compound progressive taxation (for taxable income levels) is used more for individual income taxation and sometimes for wealth taxation.

In the fiscal practice of some states, *regressive taxation* is used as a consequence of indirect taxes as in the case of goods purchase or a service use, when the payable tax is the same regardless of the volume of the buyer's income. This makes the percentage of the buyer's tax be proportionally in reverse with his/ her income.

We may conclude that, among the tax systems found in fiscal practice, compound progressive taxation (for taxable income levels) meets, to a larger extent, the requirements of tax equity. But, the use of a certain tax progression does not automatically lead to the observance of tax equity, if the other conditions are not fulfilled. On the other hand, the

progression system could not extensively modify some persons' purchasing power, if, by tax evasion (legal and/ or fraudulent), they have the possibility to evade tax for a part of the taxable amount.

The state uses taxes not only as a means of making budget incomes but also for applying a certain influence on giving impulse to the development of some economic branches or sub-branches, on stimulating or reducing the production or consumption of some goods, on extending or, on the contrary, on limiting the commercial relations with foreign countries.

At present, taxes are used simultaneously with other instruments in order to bring economic situation to a healthy state. Therefore, in order to stimulate private investments, a reduction of the tax, corresponding to the invested income is applied, for example, in machines, tools and other equipments. Sometimes, for fighting against inflation, states resort to the increase in some taxes, the rate of interest, etc.

3. Individual and Company Income Tax Systems

3. 1. Individual Income Taxes

Both individuals and companies (commercial organizations), which make incomes from various sources, can be considered subject to income taxes.

These taxes are owed by the individuals which are domiciled or resident in a certain state, as well as the non-resident persons, which make incomes from sources within the territory of that state, with some legal exceptions. Sometimes, persons societies, who have renounced to the fiscal regime, applied to the capital companies, are also subject to these taxes.

The tax object represents the incomes made from: industry, commerce, agriculture, banks, insurances, liberal professions etc, by workers and clerks, entrepreneurs, small craftsmen and liberal professionals etc. The taxable income is that income which remains from gross income after some expenses are deducted: production costs, interests paid for the granted credits, sums sinking fund and surplus fund, insurance rates, social insurance contributions, losses in the previous year activities, losses due to natural calamities a.s.o.

Income tax applies to any person who makes incomes, being an individual tax. If the incomes are collectively made by many persons and cannot be individualized, taxation applies to those persons who have made them, namely to a family or a household. This situation is frequently found in agricultural taxation, where individual taxation is difficult to apply due to the large volume of work, performed by the fiscal control bodies. Fiscal taxation applies either with regard to some social factors (taxpayer's marital status, age, maintained persons etc) or with no regard to them.

In fiscal practice, there are *two well-known systems for applying* taxes to individual incomes: one consists of a separate taxation of incomes from various sources and another of global taxation of incomes, indifferently from the source.

Separate taxation is made either from imposing more taxes, each for the incomes from one source, or from imposing a unique tax, which ensures a differentiated treatment between each category of incomes, named cedula, subject to the nature of incomes.

For determining the individual income tax, proportional or progressive rates are used. In some countries, the taxable income is firstly taxed by proportional rates and then by

progressive rates. Compound progressive taxation (for taxable income levels) is more frequently used.

Global taxation presupposes the cumulation of all the individual incomes, indifferently from the source and a unique taxation of the cumulated income. Individual global taxation system is frequently found in France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, the USA., etc.

Separate taxation of the incomes from various sources has the advantage of considering incomes in a differentiated way, regarding the application and the level of rates. This is in the advantage of the persons, who make incomes from various sources, which fall under the incidence of different taxes, as they do not suffer the effects of of taxation progressivity, which are found in the case of global taxation. On the other hand, global taxation has the disadvantage of disregarding the nature of the incomes in accordance with the sources. In order to avoid the disadvantages of each method of taxation, in some countries one can find mixed systems of taxation, which combine separate taxation with global taxation. At present, one can notice the global tendency to turn to global taxation, even in those countries with a tradition in separate taxation.

Individual income taxes are established, as a rule, on the basis of the taxpayer income statement or on the basis of the elements the fiscal bodies dispose of. The tax so determined is regarded as the taxpayer debit in the tax roll. For taxes afferent to the incomes which come from salaries, interests and rents, withholding at source is used. For the other incomes, the afferent taxes are paid directly by taxpayers.

3.2 *Companies Incomes Taxes*

In most of the states with a market economy, in order to tax the capital companies incomes, one commonly uses a personal fiscal regime, which is different from the regime applied to individual incomes. Under income tax incidence enters joint stock companies, sleeping partners companies, limited liability companies, cooperative companies, mutual insurance companies, institutions, associations and other judicial structures with lucrative purpose. Companies incomes tax regime is differentiated subject to the way these are organized in capital companies and persons companies, respectively.

In the case of capital companies, there is a clear delimitation between the company's patrimony and the associates' wealth as well as their responsibility towards the actions which the company performs. In the case of persons companies, it is difficult to distinguish between each associated person's wealth and the company's patrimony. For this reason, persons companies incomes are frequently taxed on the basis of the system applied to individual incomes.

In the case of capital companies, the profit obtained is divided in the following way: one part goes to shareholders as dividends subject to their participation in the social capital, underwritten and lodged, and another part remains at disposal of the company for some funds to be constituted. Therefore, one can speak about the profit before división, the profit spread to shareholders and the profit which eventually remains at disposal of the company.

The tax for the capital companies income is calculated, generally, with the help of the proportional rates, to whom some correctives apply.

Companies income taxation is usually annual and is made on the basis of the income statement they make. For each company, a new tax roll appears, which requires to pay in the current financial exercise and to collect the amounts in the tax account.

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POPULATION DYNAMICS OF THE REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA - PRECONDITION FOR PENSION FUND CRISIS IN LONG-TERM PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: Currently, experts in the field of insurance in the Republic of Moldova, like those in many other states in which they confront with the phenomenon of demographic aging, alarm about the crisis in the pension system, which the republic will face in a not too distant future. Thus and so, the growing outlay and increasingly modest income of economically active age will cause excessive deficit of the pension fund, and therefore inability to respond to requests period. In this sense it tries to identify alternative ways of solving the problems in the medium and long term.

Keywords: insurance, pension fund, pension system

В настоящее время в Республике Молдова, как и во многих других государствах, которые сталкиваются с явлением старения населения, эксперты в области страхования бьют тревогу по поводу пенсионного кризиса, с которым столкнётся республика в не столь отдаленном будущем.

Таким образом, переход всё более нарастающего числа населения в нетрудоспособный возраст, будет сопровождаться более скромным по численности поступлениями в экономически активном населении, приведёт к чрезмерному дефициту пенсионного фонда и к неспособности этого реагировать на запросы периода.

В этом контексте крайне необходим демографический диагноз, который позволит выявить тенденции, которые сформировались в течение многих лет. Возможность эконометрического моделирования соотношения которое установилось между демографической системой и элементами пенсионной системы позволит выявить закономерности проявления одной по отношению к другой, и следовательно, возможность управлять ими.

По мнению специалистов, базой формирования численности пенсионеров, и, следовательно, тех кто составляют спрос пенсионного фонда, является численность и структура населения по основным демографическим признакам (пол, возраст), а также по социально-экономическим признакам (к примеру занятость). Таким образом, на 1 января 2007 года в Республике Молдова проживало около 3581,1 тыс. человек, находясь в незначительном сокращении (примерно на 9 тысяч человек) по сравнению с предыдущим годом.

В общем, динамику численности населения Республики Молдова можно представить с помощью хронологического ряда стабильного населения республики, в начале года (таблица 1).

Таблица 1

Численность постоянного населения Республики Молдова,
на 1 января (1995-2007)

Года	Население, всего	Прирост	тыс. жителей
			Рост (%)
1995	3604	-5	-0,14
1996	3599	55	1,53
1997	3654	-2	-0,05
1998	3652	-6	-0,16

Года	Население, всего	Прирост	Рост (%)
1999	3646	-7	-0,19
2000	3639	-8	-0,22
2001	3631	-8	-0,22
2002	3623	-11	-0,30
2003	3612	-9	-0,25
2004	3603	-3	-0,07
2005	3600	-11	-0,29
2006	3590	-9	-0,25
2007	3581	-5	-0,14

Источник: Статистический ежегодник Республики Молдова в 2007 году

Таким образом, можно заметить постоянную убывающую динамику численности населения, охваченную между минимальным отрицательным приростом в -2 тыс. и -11 тыс. человек, за исключением искаженного прироста в 1996 году около 55 тысяч человек, вызванный переходом от учёта населения в общем по республике к учёту населения без Приднестровья.

Следовательно, просматривается постоянное сокращение численности населения (рис.1), в котором вписалась Республика Молдова, в рассматриваемый период, начиная с 1992 года, которое характеризуется среднегодовым снижением в около -1.91 тыс. человек (-0,05%). Данное сокращение объясняется, как эндогенными факторами (опережением смерти по отношению к рождениям - отрицательный естественный прирост), а также экзогенными факторами, такими как внешняя миграция (отрицательный миграционный прирост).

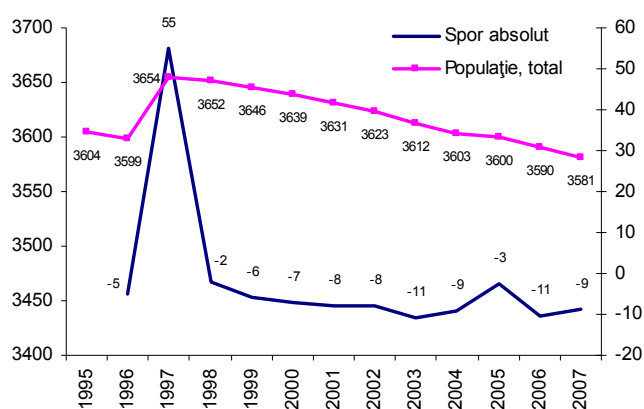


Рис. 1. Динамика численности населения Республики Молдова в период 1995-2007

Выше изложенная динамика, может быть представлена без каких-либо трудностей посредством линейной трендовой модели, $Pt = -3,45 * t + 3642,2$, которая характеризуется параметрами, по которым можно судить об относительной значимости модели.

	Coefficients	Standard Errors	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 99%	Upper 99%
Intercept	3642,20	12,52	290,92	0,000	3614,64	3669,75	3603,31	3681,08
t Variable	-3,45	1,58	-2,19	0,051	-6,92	0,02	-8,35	1,45

Данная модель говорит о дальнейшем сокращении общей численности населения Республики Молдова.

Описанная ситуация сопровождается и постоянным ухудшением качественных демографических аспектах, связанных со структурой населения по возрасту. Таким образом, Республика Молдова, вписывается в процесс демографического старения населения определённый ростом доли пожилых людей в общей численности населения (таблица 2).

Коэффициент старения населения¹
(число лиц в возрасте 60 лет и более на 100 жителей)

1970	1980	1985	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
9,7	10,7	11,7	12,8	13,1	13,1	13,3	13,5	13,6	13,6	13,6	13,9	13,9	13,8	13,6	13,5

Источник: Статистический ежегодник Республики Молдова в 2007 году

Хотя с 2002 года в таблице просматривается некоторое улучшение показателя старения населения можно отметить, что это лишь конъюнктурная, временная ситуация которую можно объяснить заполнением внутреннего пространства возрастной пирамиды населения Молдовы (рис. 2), или достаточно большой доли поколений рожденные в года демографического процветания (1982-1997).

В графическом изображении ясно виден процесс демографического старения населения, и соответствующие многочисленные сегменты населения, которые в скором будущем вступят в экономически неактивный возраст. Именно этот сегмент спровоцирует огромное демографическое давление, определённое как соотношение между пожилым и экономически активным населением. В то же время можно увидеть сокращение базы пирамиды или массовое сокращение числа молодых людей, которые в будущем должны будут заменить выход населения из экономически активного возраста. Иными словами, в будущем мы станем свидетелями сильного различия между входами и выходами из экономически активного возраста, который вызовет сильное неравенство между числом тех, кто создаёт спрос на социальные фонды и тех кто обеспечивают эти фонды.

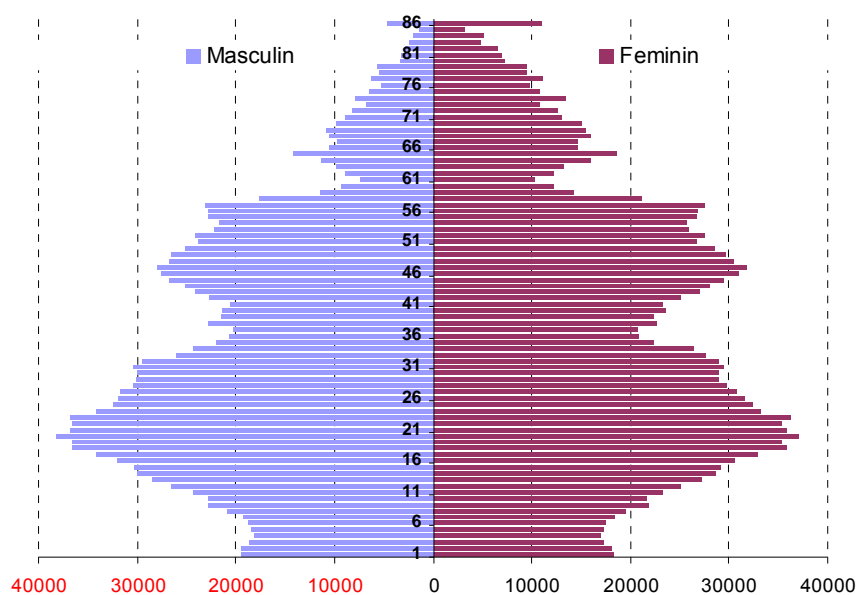
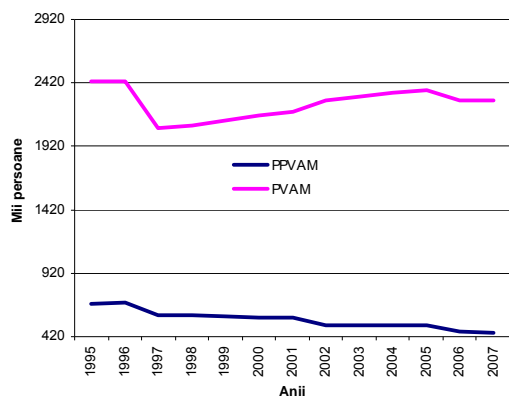


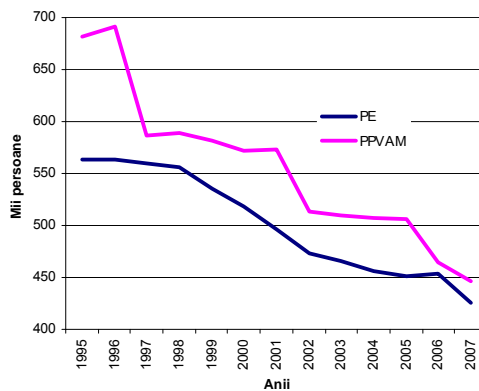
Рисунок 2. Численность населения Республики Молдова по полу и возрасту на 1 января 2006 года

В настоящее время в Республике Молдова, наблюдается благоприятная структура по возрастным группам. Таким образом, относительно стабильная динамика, населения трудоспособного возраста (РВАМ) -0,6% ежегодно, сопровождается более значительным сокращением численности населения, что превысило трудоспособный возраст (РРВАМ) -3,4%, что довольно наглядно показано на рис. 3.

¹ По шкале G. Vojo- Garnier, индикатор 12 и более квалифицируется как "старение населения"



a)



b)

Рисунок 3. Динамика численности населения, трудоспособного возраста, людей старше трудоспособного возраста работающих и вышедших на пенсию, в период 1995-2007

К тому же будут полезно представить и динамику работающего населения старше трудоспособного возраста, и численность пенсионеров (-1,9% в год), которые в течение 1995-2007 зарегистрировали более медленный спад, нежели первые, и скоро сравняются по уровню (рис. 3).

Относительно пропорционально развивается во времени численность активного населения (-2% в год) и занятого населения (-2,6% в год). В этих условиях присутствует негативный процесс уменьшения занятости экономически активного населения (РА) - (рис. 4).

Благоприятные на первый взгляд события, становятся менее благоприятными, если соотнести численность тех, кто вносят свой вклад в создание бюджета социального страхования, т.е. занятое население (РО), и тех, кому предназначен данный бюджет - пенсионеры (РЕ).

Таким образом, происходит более быстрое сокращение численности занятого населения, нежели численности пенсионеров, что в тех же условиях возмещение расходов на пенсию, может привести в среднесрочный период к дефициту бюджета социального страхования и к невозможности удовлетворения пенсионных требований. Если принять во внимание постоянно растущую численность пенсионеров, а также инфляционные процессы и связанное с этим необходимость роста пенсионных пособий, то это приведёт к более глубокому уровню неплатежеспособности пенсионных фондов.

Для описания изложенных ситуаций довольно практически становятся эконометрические модели способные представить зависимости между разными количественными и качественными показателями пенсионной системы, то, что является объектом других разработок. В любом случае специалисты данной отрасли стоят перед проблемой необходимости изыскания альтернативных средств для покрытия дефицита, который ударит по бюджетам социального страхования стран бывшего соцлагеря.,

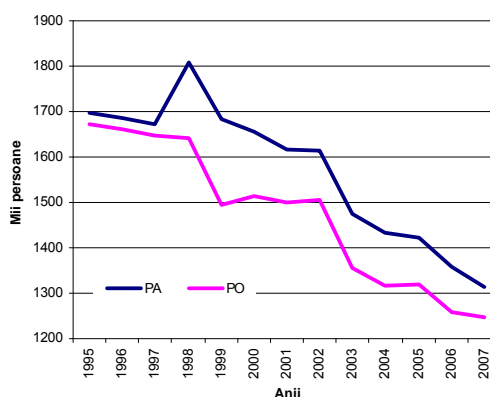


Рисунок 5. Динамика экономически активного населения занятого населения в период 1995-2007

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FORMATION OF INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: In the report are examined issues related to the formation of new direction – informational management. It considers the main approaches to organization of the category “Information Management”, future aims of work, and sets tasks.

Key words: Information Systems, Information Business, Information Management

Введение

Появление нового научного направления исследований, как и учебной дисциплины «Информационный менеджмент», было вызвано рядом причин. Во-первых, стремительное развитие информационных и коммуникационных технологий, являющихся основой развития современного общества. Интеграция в мировой экономический рынок и переход к новому постиндустриальному обществу, основанному на информационных технологиях и знаниях, потребовала пересмотра теоретических и практических проблем информатизации. Во-вторых, процесс формирования единого информационного пространства и информационного общества потребовал развития рынка информационных продуктов и услуг. Одновременно с этим, отмечается наличие определенных барьеров (языковых, технических и правовых), устранение которых, по мнению многих специалистов, позволит сформировать единый информационный рынок. В-третьих, до настоящего времени остаются не до конца решенными экономические аспекты процессов, протекающих в информационных системах, проблема повышения эффективности самих информационных систем.

Основное внимание при рассмотрении категории «информационный менеджмент» следует акцентировать на трех составных частях – определении предметной области, цели и задачах. Предметной областью информационного менеджмента (ИМ) является информация, как важнейший экономический ресурс бизнеса, а также охват всех этапов жизненного цикла информационных систем (проектирование-внедрение-поддержка). Предметная область охватывает следующие составляющие – информация, информационные и коммуникационные технологии, пользователи, объект управления и окружающая среда. Целью ИМ является обеспечение эффективного развития экономического объекта управления посредством регулирования различных видов информационной деятельности. Основные задачи ИМ связаны с информационным обеспечением процессов управления с использованием информационных ресурсов и процессов обработки информации. Состав решаемых задач может отличаться, поскольку в практике деятельности различают стратегический ИМ и оперативный ИМ.

К настоящему времени сложились следующие определения ИМ. В узком смысле – круг задач управления производственного и технологического характера в сфере основной деятельности организации, в той или иной мере использующих информационные системы и реализованные в ней информационные технологии. В

широком смысле – совокупность задач управления на всех этапах жизненного цикла организации, включающая действия и операции как с информацией в различных ее формах и состояниях, так и с организацией в целом на основе информации.

В теоретических исследованиях и практической деятельности выделяют несколько составных частей ИМ. В их числе организация: источников информации; средств передачи данных; проектирования и использования баз данных; технологий обработки информации; обеспечения безопасности информации, управления информационными ресурсами, обеспечения взаимодействия с внешним информационным миром и др. Перечисленные направления обеспечили становление нового направления деятельности и появление специалистов, способных эффективно решать задачи ИМ.

Для определения круга решаемых задач следует, по нашему мнению, установить связь ИМ с основными дисциплинами подготовки менеджеров. Следует выделить две группы дисциплин – базовые и специальные. К числу базовых относятся такие, как операционные системы, вычислительные системы и сети, программирование, теория информационных систем, базы данных и знаний, экспертные системы и искусственный интеллект и др. Специальные объединяют широкий спектр дисциплин, в том числе такие, как теория систем, системный анализ, информационное право, управление проектами, управление персоналом, логистика, а также комплекс предметов, являющихся продолжением менеджмента – производственный, инновационный, финансовый и т.д.

Перечень основных задач, решаемых ИМ можно условно представить следующим набором:

- формирование технологической среды информационной системы (обоснование архитектуры технологической среды, выбор технических и программных средств, определение степени децентрализации информационной системы, выбор поставщиков и оценка стандартов, анализ объектов информационной среды – пользователи, технологии, инфраструктура и их взаимосвязи);

- развитие информационной системы и обеспечение ее обслуживания (оценка стратегических решений по проектированию информационных систем, уровню производительности и качеству работ, апробация новых методов, процессов, вычислительной и коммуникационной техники, программного обеспечения);

- планирование, учет и контроль в среде информационной системы (разработка задач стратегического и оперативного менеджмента, разработка приоритетных направлений плана инвестиций в информационную систему на основе типовых ступеней развития – инициирование, распространение, управление, интеграция, ориентирование данных, завершение или зрелость);

- формирование организационной структуры в области информатизации (разработка плана организационных мероприятий и его привязка к организационной структуре объекта управления);

- использование и эксплуатация информационных ресурсов (определение внутренних и внешних источников формирования информационных ресурсов, технологии сбора и обработки информации, поддержка актуальности используемых баз данных, расчет объемов созданной информации, информационных перегрузок, объема информационных потерь, анализ загруженности информационных ресурсов, обоснование цены на информационно-вычислительное обслуживание и др.);

- формирование и осуществление инновационных программ (разработка инновационных проектов, определение перспективных направлений развития информационных технологий и их компонентов);

- управление персоналом в сфере информатизации (разработка плана развития квалификационного потенциала работников не только информационной системы, но и объекта управления, который объединяет разнообразные программы обучения персонала);

- управление финансами и экономикой сферы информатизации;
- обеспечение комплексной защищенности информационных ресурсов.

Последняя задача является, по нашему мнению, одной из самых сложных и комплексных. В соответствии с требованиями международных стандартов и сложившейся практикой обеспечение информационной безопасностью предполагает реализацию нескольких этапов:

- определение целей обеспечения информационной безопасности информационной системы;
- создание эффективной системы управления информационной безопасностью;
- расчет совокупности количественных и качественных оценок соответствия уровня информационной безопасности заявленным целям;
- апробация инструментальных средств обеспечения информационной безопасности и оценка их эффективности;
- адаптация методик управления информационной безопасностью, системой метрик и показателей эффективности обеспечения информационной безопасности.

Обеспечение комплексности подхода к построению системы информационной безопасности базируется на исследовании следующих уровней:

- безопасность окружающей среды (законодательное обеспечение, нормативные акты, комплекс организационных мер, анализ возможных и потенциальных угроз, анализ конкурентного окружения);
- цели безопасности (целостность, доступность, конфиденциальность, а также невозможность отказа от выполненных действий);
- требования безопасности (набор технических и программных требований для механизмов безопасности, обеспечивающих достижение поставленных целей);
- спецификации безопасности (разработка механизмов безопасности, реализация которых гарантирует выполнение требований безопасности);
- разработка и реализация механизмов безопасности.

Приведенный комплекс задач свидетельствует о том, что специалист по ИМ должен быть обеспечен адекватными методическими и инструментальными средствами их решения с выделением следующих аспектов:

- прикладного, обеспечивающего отражение проблемы и специфики предметной области, а также используемые модели;
- организационного, объединяющего вопросы эффективного использования имеющихся ресурсов и коллектива исполнителей;
- методологического, отражающего выбор, адаптацию и развитие методов решения задач и оценку их эффективности;
- психологического, характеризующего особенности взаимодействия исполнителя и коллектива в процессе решения поставленных задач.

Увеличение объемов информации, количество концепций и различных методов отображения предметных областей в значительной степени превысило возможности изучения и использования специалистами. В этих целях представляется необходимым интеграция, сжатие научных знаний, их фундаментализация и создание обобщающих моделей. Все это возможно только в рамках системного подхода, обусловленного интегрированностью, целостностью, органической взаимосвязью и взаимодействием всех сфер деятельности – экономической, социально-политической, культурной и т.д.

Современный менеджер обязан принимать решения с учетом системного подхода и рассматривать деятельность экономического объекта не как комбинацию подсистем (производственной, финансовой, сбытовой, информационной и др.), а как систему, обладающую свойствами, которых нет ни у одной из подсистем в отдельности. Это, в свою очередь, требует понимания особенностей предпринимательской деятельности. В их числе следует выделить такие, как: изменчивость отдельных параметров системы и стохастичность поведения; уникальность и непредсказуемость поведения системы в конкретных условиях; способность изменять структуру, сохраняя целостность системы, и формировать варианты поведения; способность противостоять разрушительным тенденциям; способность адаптироваться к изменяющимся условиям; способность и стремление к целеобразованию.

Таким образом, специалист по информационному менеджменту должен не только знать и исследовать собственную систему, но и раскрыть ее сущность (присущие ей системные и интегративные свойства), состав (количественную и качественную характеристику ее частей), структуру (внутреннюю организацию и взаимосвязь элементов), функции, коммуникации с внешней средой, а также историю.

Современный специалист по ИМ должен в полной мере обладать знаниями и опытом в области трех технологий: ресурсной, инструментальной и управленческой. Его опыт и знания должны обеспечить подготовку управленческих решений в процессах планирования деятельности информационных систем, формирования организационной структуры, использования кадрового потенциала, оценки экономической эффективности, обеспечения защищенности информационных ресурсов.

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TENDENCIES IN THE ELECTRONIC COMMERCE EVOLUTION IN ROMANIA

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Abstract: Although is considered to be only to the beginning, the Romanian electronic commerce market realizes already transactions valued to some millions of euro monthly, but the potential is much bigger. Encouraging for the future of the Romanian electronic commerce is the bank number that had implemented a high security transaction standard, precisely the raising of the 3D Secure.

Keywords: electronic commerce, transactions, internet

The first signals of the Romanian electronic commerce were given in the year 2000, when NetBridge Investments launched the OKazii.ro portal, which permitted to the final consumers the contact in the virtual environment, the online sales by auctions for the chosen product, and also the transaction finalization in the real world. But the moment was extremely difficult from the point of view of the low internet connections number, but also from the point of view of the users' lack of trust in the participation to an online transaction.

According to the RomCard statistics, the media of an internet transaction with an issued card in local currency is of 160 RON, while the issued cards in foreign countries, in conformity with the currency in which were issued, there are registered 180 USD and 210 EUR. The electronic commerce registers a high monthly increasing rate, of 17%, sometimes reaching the number of 20%. The tendency of Romanian electronic commerce is upward. The number of virtual shops is digging ascending, as the clients' number that shop online. From the online clients of the store, 60% are physical persons and small companies, and the rest of 40% is represented by the mid and big companies.

The Romanian consumers did not neglect the fact that the virtual merchant beneficiates beneficiates of lower costs than the physical one. In contradistinction to the physical trader, the virtual stores do not pay rents, do not need the same work force, so, implicit, the expenditures go lower.

For the Romanian commerciants that already develop a bussines, and the electronic commerce is an extension of this activity, the advantages are immediate: the raising of clients' number, the possibility of penetrating new markets, a plus of image, a high number of sales.

The development of the Romanian electronic commerce is possible only having into consideration certain aspects that sketch a reglementation frame of this domain.

One first aspect is represented by the freedom of telecommunications, the electronic trade being founded on the Internet, that depends in a large way of the telecommunication system. Romania, beginning to 1st January of 2003, has an electronic trade market totally liberalized that should contribute to an increase the Internet access in Romania.

The acknowledgement of electronic documents has as target the creation of legal frame for the acknowledgement of electronic contracts, for the admissibility of electronic proof and for the accepting of electronic documents sending of the governmental authorities. These aspects are covered through the dispositions of Electronic Signature Law nr. 455/2001.

Romania also manifests preoccupations in what concerns the network security, when, relationated to European Network and Information Security Agency (ENISA) will spread out information actions that are related to the network security and to the information security, and will create The National Centre of Examination and Answer to Security Incidents : CERT-RO (Computer Emergency Response Teams), and also the Romanian Experts participation to the work groups of ENISA.

A good development Romanian electronic trade must beneficiate also of a good consumers protection that must reffer to:

- the interdiction of deceptive publicity;
- the reglementation of financial services;
- rules concerning the responsibility reffering to the unproper products.

One of the challenges in what concerns the establishing of electronic functional trade regim is represented by the electronic funds transfer and the utilization of debit or credit cards, that represents a payment mechanism to be used effectively in Internet. The development of an online payment system involves a serie of complexe problems about security, responsibility and taxing.

Another aspect that must be taken into consideration is represented by the reponsability of Internet services purveyor represented by the action of some mechanisms that should limit the civil and penal responsibility, of Internet services purveyor (ISP), in case when these entithies actions as the intermediaries that permit the Internet access. This landing is necessary to protect the Internet services purveyors of potential actions in instance against them, in the case when the unlegal activities were committed by several parts that use their services. This problem is clearly regulated by the Electronic Trade Law nr. 365/2002 – chapter IV, but also thorough methodological norms for the application of electronic trade law from 20 November of 2002 – chapter III.

The interest for the electronic commerce is the high number of virtual trades, and more and mor companies develop through electronic trade. GECAD informs that the total value of electronic transaction with on-line payment has increased in 2007 with **263%** fata de 2006, reaching a total value of 34,8 millions EUR. The most part of payments in electronic payments system in Romania are done for the mobile phones bills, but also in tourism, reservations, transport, quartering, aquisition of electronic and multimedia products .

A number of 5 banks in Romania were certified in the 3D SECURE electronic payments system, a system that supposes that at every transaction is done the trader and the frame verification . These 5 Romanian banks are: BCR, BRD Group Societe Generale, Raiffeisen Bank Romania, Transilvania Bank, UniCredit Tiriac Bank.

For example, an article from RomCard site says :

Shopping with the card

More and more Romanian people seem to have discovered the advantages of card payment, straight from the personal computer. In the first semester of this year, the euro transaction volume approached to the afferent value of the entire year 2007. In the 2008's first semester, the transactions in lei raised with 60% comparing to the simillar period in 2007.

	2007	1st Semester of 2007	1st Semester of 2008
Total transactions	448.779	205.006	298.868

Transactions in RON	353.051	160.916	220.384
Transactions in USD	515	2.202	3.081
Transactions in EUR	90.577	41.888	75.403
Value in RON	5.137.6925	21.941.181	34.898.381
Value in USD	894.401	374.487	768.841
Value in EUR	18.827.071	9.142.402	15.757.250

According to some estimations realised by the eMAG company, the online trade market from Romania increased double in 2008, over to 250 millions EUR, comparing to the plans made last year, that raised to approximately 115 millions EUR, because of the migration from classic retail to the on-line retail. Although, compared to the level of European Union, the corresponding percentage of the acquisitions that Romanian people do from the virtual trades would close almost 10% from the total number of Internet users.

The major obstacles that hamper electronic trade to develop enough are connected to next elements:

The on-line payment modality: The Romanian bancary system, although more improved, still presents some major problems, specially in what concerns the electronic discount of interbancary payments, still do not exist an implemented system of interbancary discounts, that conduce to the situation when the interbancary payments are very heavy, involving high commissions.

The small number of Internet users from home: cumulated with the low utilisation of shopping cards determine a low interest of commerciants in what concerns the electronic trade.

The lack of trust and information concerning the electronic trade: The Romanian users, but also the Romanian commerciants do not confer trust in an electronic commerce system, cause determined by the lack of information in this domain. The news referring to this subject are connected especially to the on-line frauds, that determine reticence and doubt in what concerns the success of such abordation. The banks do not recommend or even forbid the utilisation in Internet of issued cards because of the fears related to the security of the information.

The European Committe proposes to issue new reglementations in order to encourage online commerce and to improve the European consumers protection. One of the principal targets is the increase of on-line shopping volume effectuated between Union States, in the same time the officials considering that this domain is not yet sufficiently developed.

The new Dirrectives of Consumers Rights offer to the European clients the guarantee of some safer shoppings. Through the included foresights we can name the merchant obligativity of delivering a complete set of informations (the characteristics of the product, the purveyor's address, the price with all taxes included), delivering rules, provinding for a limit of 30 days in which the product to be delivered, the possibility of returning the product in term of 15 days, etc.

The National Association for E-Commerce was set up at 16 March of 2007, and it is an association that proposes as objectives the followings:

- elaborates and implements programes at local and national level in order to promote the electronic commerce in Romanian bussines environment;
- developes projects and innitiates educational programmes at national popularization level of electronic commerce dedicated for the instruction of users;

- promotes actions and regional and international initiatives concerning the electronic commerce;
- promotes legislative initiatives in the domain of electronic commerce to the level of every authorities and local and centrale public institutions, but also economic agents involved in industry (purveyors, on-line stores, consumers, etc);
- elaborates conduct codes, quality and excellence standards, concerning the electronic commerce;
- defends, represents and promotes its members interests in conformity to the aim of the association;
- promotes association interests in front of organisms and national and international organizations;
- contributes to the development of Romanian electronic commerce through the succeeding of some activities dedicated to imbold the market, to increase the industry standards and to raise the trust of final consumers in the on-line environment transactioning;
- organizes and promotes the environment of proffesional and commercial contacts in the domain;
- promotes the electronic payment method in what concerns the accustom to the consumers with the cards utilization, to the sale points, but also in on-line transaction;
- developes permanently activities of informing people.

From the analyses results that the number of autochthonous virtual stores of electronic commerce is in a continuously raising, and, as a consequence, the transactionating numbers raise too. The security standards are at an international level, the payment methods are the same as everywhere in the world, and also the products. It is just a problem of trust and promotion by the time when Romanians will accord some attentino to the Romanian electronic commerce sites.

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THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF FINANCIAL EQUILIBRIUM

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Abstract: The financial analysis aims the interpretation and the calculation of the financial accounting information that are necessary to appreciate the financial health of the enterprise. The financial equilibrium is a main concern of the company but it cannot be achieved on long term unless the enterprise achieves satisfying performances.

Key words: financial equilibrium, resources, floating capital.

Etymological, the financial administration means a good management, reasonably management. Therefore, is essential a deep and continuous analysis of the various resources' management from an enterprise for its maintenance and development in a high competitiveness environment.

There are a number of factors that affects the financial position of a company: economic resources, liquidity and solvency of the business, the financial structure, its adaptability to the changes of the environment. The information related to these factors is useful in:

- ☆ the anticipation of the future credit needs;
- ☆ assignment of future Treasury flows;
- ☆ assignment of future funding possibilities;
- ☆ anticipating company's possibilities to respect its commitments;
- ☆ evaluation of exploitation, financing and investment needs;
- ☆ assessing operating, financing and investment activities

A general classification of the resources used by the company bounds them into human, material and financial.

Human resources are currently considered as the most valuable in the sense that through them are effectively used and combined the other two types.

Material resources consist of a wide range of fixed assets and stocks and are subject of a continuously automation and robotic process of growth performance.

The financial resources are confronted with a variety of possibilities and mobilization tools. Interfered mutations at the material base and financing request for a company's personnel a high qualification degree and a continuous improvement.

Considering these mutual interactions, an analysis related to the three types of resources can show off the best use of them.

From the company's level is pursued a synchronization of needs duration (allocations) and the financial available resources, like this:

- ✓ needs financing on long-term (investments) are financed from long term financial resources (own and borrowed capital)
- ✓ short term financing needs (exploitation cycle) are financed through short term resources (provider account, short term loans etc.).

Financial balance is part of the general economic equilibrium, with the monetary and currency balance. The financial balance arises when there is equivalence between the

financial resources required to achieve various projects and the possibilities of purchasing them. The financial balance must exist both on microeconomic and macroeconomic levels.

At the economic agents level the equilibrium starts from the parity between the incomes and expenses, as well as in the state budget. The financial equilibrium has in view both the mobilized and assigned resources on a permanent and repayable title.

The balance between the needs and the cover resources is along with the profitability, the most important objective of the enterprise. From the microeconomic level, the financial equilibrium is being accomplished only in terms of preserving such permanent characteristics for the enterprise as payment capacity of financial liquidity and solvency.

Finances role in the enterprise is overseeing and improving effectively any lack of balance, by launching suitable income and outcome flows before the lack of balance turns irreparable.

The financing sources of the enterprise are marked as follows: own sources, attracted sources, borrowed sources. Choosing these sources can be realised in terms of optimizing the profitability-risk relation. The circulating assets renewal induces a need of permanent capital.

It is supposed the existence of some permanent sources for financing these needs. This source is the circulating fund. The circulating fund means the surplus of permanent needs relieved from the long term financing of the permanent needs to achieve the financial balance. In the assets administration there has to be the concern of substantiating an optimal size of the circulating fund, which means a no more that is necessary size that commit minimum cost of capital and provide security to the financial balance.

The size for the circulating fund for the year to come can be estimated in accordance with the forecast investment budget and the production budget. Being a permanent source of capital for the year plan, the circulating fund wil have a constant size for each quarter of the forecast year.

Are known more senses concerning the circulating fund, in terms of normalization's absence from the financial-accounting analysis, as follows:

- a) **Gross or total circulating fund**, as national sense, circumscribes the field of economy, production of the enterprise's activity, in accordance with the total of the circulating fund's elements. The circulating fund defines the ensemble of resources that creates the exploitation values, the short term achievable values and liquidity (in account and in cash).
- b) **Circulating net or permanent fund** defined on the financial balance basis, consists in a liquidity circulating fund or a circulating financial fund. The circulating fund is the most important directory of the financial equilibrium of the enterprise and highlights the relation between the long term financing and the short term financing. The optimal circulating fund is the one that maintains the financial equilibrium with the lowest cost of capital concern. The circulating fund is a calculation size resulting from processing the information from the balance sheet, according with the following two methods:

First possibility takes into account the elements from the upper part of the balance sheet:

1. $FCF = \text{Permanent capital} - \text{net fixed assets}$
2. $FCF = \text{Permanent sources} - \text{Permanent use}$

The equations above can be also written:

3. $FCF = \text{Permanent capital} - \text{gross fixed assets}$
4. $FCF = \text{Permanent sources} - \text{Permanent use (gross fixed assets)}$

This less likely situation involves a total harmonization of the resources structure with the allocation needs (is being ensured the equilibrium of the balance sheet mass of same duration).

The second possibility among the financial balance sheet items is:

5. $FCF = \text{Net fixed assets} - \text{Short term debt}$
6. $FCF = \text{Permanent use (cyclical)} - \text{Temporary sources (cyclical)}$

The circulating fund determination, in accordance with this method, highlights the problem of the future solvency of the enterprise, by comparing the foreseeable liquidity on short term with the immediate eligible commitments.

Changing the structure or circulating assets rotation and the short term debt has direct consequences over the treasury, but not on the circulating fund.

c) Own circulating fund represents the excess of the own capital compared with the net fixed assets.

7. $OCF = \text{Own capital} - \text{net fixed assets}$
8. $OCF = \text{Own sources} - \text{permanent use}$

Own capital and the short and medium term debt (SMTD) represents the components of the permanent capital.

9. $OC = OC + LTD$
10. $OCF = OCF - SMDT$

The own circulating fund measures the excess of the own capital given the permanent use or allocation.

d) Borrowed circulating fund (unknown) – the circulating fund analysis can be performed in dynamic, an also structurally, in order to highlight it in time, of its the contribution in maintaining the financial equilibrium of the enterprise and the changing implications of the variation factors over it. When the own capital cannot totally cover the permanent needs, the external financing sources are invoked, as medium and long time loans. The practice utility, with analytical nature of the borrowed circulating fund (BCF) is recognized just because if the insufficient sticking own sources.

11. $BCF = FCF - OCF$
12. $BCF = LTD$

The existence of a positive circulating fund is insufficient, since it must be maintained at such level that can provide certainty in normal developing of the financial activity of the enterprise. In the financial practice of the enterprise, the circulating fund is correlated with the circulating assets financing, which confirms the emphasis on the short term on equilibrium and liquidity.

The informative value of the circulating fund is given by its role in achieving the link between the two sides of the financial balance sheet, respectively between the financing on long and short term funding.

The financing need (circulating fund need) expresses the total need of capital to obtain stocks and ensure a normal debt balance to induce the efficiently display of the exploitation cycle.

13. CFN = Temporary need – temporary resources
(excluding cash) (excluding short term banking loans)

Fixing the floating capital and the existent circulating fund aims to increase the profitability and reducing risk. Thus, the outfit will be lower or higher depending on the financing policy for short term which is promoted by the enterprise management.

On short term, the attracted sources are the ones the financial equilibrium is based on. Because the circulating assets represent certain unfavourable delay charging (characterized by certain liquidity) will be allowed some favourable delay charging.

So, is pursued the equilibrium between the duration of liquidity of the circulating assets and the maturity length of the exploitation debt (less than one year).

An efficient management of the circulating assets and passives takes in consideration achieving a favourable delay between the receipts and payments.

In sources forecasting (passives) is aimed the minimum permanent balance of debts, which gives them a stable character, thus the attracted resources are also named as stable passives

The stable passives are minimum debts and are renewable permanently in legal maturity terms of the company to third parties (suppliers, staff, State, etc.).

Two types of stable passives categories can be defined:

- debts with daily balance ascending to the payment date and with fixed time payment (can be included here debts arising from wages, salaries tax, social security contribution, arrears of natural gas, energy, etc.);
- debts with variable balance and variable payment date during the month.

Borrowed sources are invoked when the own and borrowed ones are insufficient to finance the stocks and the exploitation expenses. These are banking loans on short term (treasury or discount).

Treasury loans are granted by the commercial banks to the company under passing the ceiling previous agreed. The necessary of treasury loans is established in the quarterly „Treasury Plan” as a difference between the balance of stocks and expenditures on the one hand, and the total of all the attracted own resources charging, on the other hand.

Comparing the circulating funds need with the circulating capital resources results a deficit or a surplus of treasury, as the needs are higher or lower than the resources. The treasury deficit will be covered by the new loans request in the respective quarter over those that are the previous quarter balance.

The treasury surplus means the quantity of loans to be repaid in the next quarter. If the treasury surplus is higher than the previously engaged loans, then the difference will be effectively placed on the market.

The settled relation between the circulating fund and the need for floating capital is materializing, by case, in a positive treasury (surplus) or negative (deficit).

The net treasury reflects the overall balance of the company, while the circulating fund is the expression of the long term equilibrium and the need for floating capital of the short term one.

14. Net Treasury (NT) = Circulating fund – Need for floating capital

15. Net Treasury (NT) = Cash – Current treasury loans

Net Treasury is the most conclusive expression in conducting an effective activity. Net treasury registration in among several successive exercises, proves success of the enterprise in the economic life and the possibility of a profitable placement of the cash available for strengthen its position on the market. The net positive treasury is the result of

the whole financial equilibrium of the enterprise. The financial exercise ended with a monetary surplus, a precise expression of the net profit and the balance sheet passive. This treasury surplus will be placed effectively and safely on the monetary or financial market.

If the treasury would have been negative $FCF < NFC$, the financial lack of balance recorded at the exercise closing means a monetary deficit, which should have been covered by engaging new short term loans, so through appealing to external financial resources. Although this kind of solution contributes towards limitation of the financial economy on short term, however, it mustn't be misinterpreted as a state of insolvency.

Negative treasury highlights a financial lack of balance, at the exercise closure. In the constant need for floating capital, the cash-flow would be equivalent to net profits and with the capital depreciations and it would represent the actual availability of money for the development and prosperity of the company.

A positive cash flow is explained as an increase of the real capacity of investments financing. This means an enrichment of the real asset, an agreement of increasing the assets under a property. A negative cash flow suggests a decreasing of the real capacity of investments financing. Therefore, this means a poverty of the actual net asset, a reduction of the value of the property.

At this time of financial analysis, it can be concluded that the net treasury is caused by the economic profitability.

It is difficult to conceive in practice a treasury without surplus and without deficit. Ensuring a perfect balance of the treasury represents a hypothetical situation that can be seen only in the circumstance when the circulating fund provides financing to the entire need for floating capital.

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DATABASES FOR THE CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIPS MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: The CRM warehouses data admit to the specialists of a firm to manage the information that concern the clients and to create relations between the different components, that can offer answers to some question such as: which is the medium amount spent by every client in a period of time, which is the buying frequency, what kind of distribution channels prefer the clients, to which promotional techniques the clients respond to, etc. The information stored in a CRM data warehouse can be used in different purposes: the engendering of the target clients' profiles, the measuring of the promotional campaigns, the analysis of the clients' satisfaction degree, the sells analysis, the measuring of the clients, the analysis and the prevision of the retention and migration rates of the clients.

Keywords: customer, promotional techniques, management

The firms can start different management campaigns of the relations with clients: the reward of the more profitable clients with divers personalized presents, the offering of the products and services adapted to the clients' grievances and exigencies, the raise of the frequency of acquisition, especially on web-sites, the profiles' personalization of some visitors of the commercial sites, the prevention of the clients migration by some initiatives based on the satisfaction of the individual preferences.

A CRM data warehouse represents a collection integrated of data basis that contain information concerning the clients that present the following characteristics:

- Data are organized depending on the process they attend among the management strategy of the relations with the clients (attracting new clients, fidelity, additional sells, complaints management, etc.);
- Data are organized on different periods of time, what permits a temporary analysis of the consumers' behavior;
- Data are extracted from various sources and transformed in operational data what determine a simple and efficient management of them.

Data for modeling can be generated from a number of sources. Those sources fall into one of two categories: internal or external. Internal sources are those that are generated through company activity such as customer records, Web site, mail tapes from mail or phone campaigns, or databases and/or data warehouses that are specifically designed to house company data. External sources of data include companies such as the credit bureaus, list brokers and compilers, and corporations with large customer databases like publishers and catalogers.

Internal sources are data sources that are housed within a company or establishment. They are often the most predictive data for modeling because they represent information that is specific to the company's product or service.

Customer Database

A customer database is typically designed with one record per customer. In some organizations, it may be the only database. If that is the case, it may contain all the sales and/or activity records for every customer. It is more common, though, that the customer database contains the identifying information that can be linked to other databases such as a

transaction database to obtain a current snapshot of a customer's performance. Even though there may be wide variation among companies and industries, the following list details some key elements in a typical customer database:

Customer ID. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that identifies the customer throughout his or her entire lifecycle. Some companies may use an account number for this function, but this can be risky if the account numbers are subject to change. For example, credit card banks assign a new account number when a card is lost or stolen. The customer ID allows each account number to be linked to the unique customer, thereby preserving the entire customer history. It is essential in any database to effectively link and tract the behavior of and actions taken on an individual customer.

Household ID. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that identifies the household of the customer through his or her entire lifecycle. This identifier is useful in some industries where more than one member of a household shares products or services.

Account number. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that relates to a particular product or service. One customer can have several account numbers.

Customer name. The name of a person or a business. It is usually broken down into multiple fields: last name, first name, middle name or initial, salutation.

Address. The street address, typically broken into components such as number, street, suite or apartment number, city. Some customer databases have a line for a P.O. Box. With population mobility about 10% per year, additional fields that contain former addresses are useful for tracking and matching customers to other files.

Phone number. Current and former numbers for home and work.

Demographics. Characteristics such as gender, age, and income may be stored for profiling and modeling.

Products or services. The list of products and product identification numbers that varies by company. An insurance company may list all the policies along with policy numbers. A bank may list all the products across different divisions of the bank including checking, savings, credit cards, investments, loans, and more. If the number of products and the product detail are extensive, this information may be stored in a separate database with a customer and household identifier.

Offer detail. The date, type of offer, creative, source code, pricing, distribution channel (mail, telemarketing, sales rep, e-mail), and any other details of an offer. Most companies look for opportunities to cross-sell or up -sell their current customers. There could be numerous "offer detail" fields in a customer record, each representing an offer for an additional product or service.

Model scores. Response, risk, attrition, profitability, scores, and/or any other scores that are created or purchased.

Transaction Database

The transaction database contains records of customer activity. It is often the richest and most predictive information, but it can be the most difficult to utilize. In most cases, each record represents a single transaction, so there may be multiple records for each customer. The transaction database can take on various forms depending on the type of business. In order to use this data for modeling, it must be summarized and aggregated to a customer level. Number of records per customer can differ. The following list is typical of what might be found in a transaction database:

Customer ID. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that identifies the customer throughout his or her entire lifecycle. Some companies may use an account number for this function.

Account number. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that relates to a particular product or service.

Sales activity. The amount of the transaction.

Date of activity. Date the transaction occurred. A credit card transaction database will typically contain dates, charge amounts, returns, payments, and fee activity including late fees, overlimit fees, and/or annual fees. A useful summarization for modeling is monthly totals for each field. A catalog company's transaction database will typically contain dates, source codes that identify the specific catalog, sales, and returns.

Offer History Database

The offer history database contains details about offers made to prospects, customers, or both. The most useful format is a unique record for each customer or prospect. Variables created from this database are often the most predictive in response and activation targeting models. It seems logical that if you know someone has received your offer every month for six months, they are less likely to respond than someone who is seeing your offer for the first time. As competition intensifies, this type of information is becoming increasingly important.

A customer offer history database would contain all cross-sell, up-sell, and retention offers. A prospect offer history database would contain all acquisition offers as well as any predictive information from outside sources. It is also useful to store former addresses on the prospect offer history database.

TIP

It is common to purchase prospect data repeatedly from the same source. The goal may be to purchase new names or to get fresh information about existing names. In either case, it is useful to arrange with the data seller to assign a unique identifier to each prospect that is housed on the seller's database. Then when additional names are purchased or current names are refreshed, the match rate is much higher.

With an average amount of solicitation activity, this type of database can become very large. It is important to perform analysis to establish business rules that control the maintenance of this database. Fields like "date of first offer" are usually correlated with response behavior. The following list details some key elements in an offer history database:

Prospect ID/customer ID. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that identifies the prospect for a specific length of time.

Household ID. A unique numeric or alphanumeric code that identifies the household of the customer through his or her entire lifecycle. This identifier is useful in some industries where more than one member of a household shares products or services.

Prospect name.* The name of a person or a business. It is usually broken down into multiple fields: last name, first name, middle name or initial, salutation.

Address.* The street address, typically broken into components such as number, street, suite or apartment number, city. As in the customer database, some prospect databases have a line for a P.O. Box.

The customer database would support the customer offer history database with additional data.

Additional fields that contain former addresses are useful for matching prospects to outside files.

Phone number. Current and former numbers for home and work.

Offer detail. Includes the date, type of offer, creative, source code, pricing, distribution channel (mail, telemarketing, sales rep, e-mail), and any other details of the offer. There could be numerous groups of "offer detail" fields in a prospect or customer record, each representing an offer for an additional product or service.

Offer summary. Date of first offer (for each offer type), best offer (unique to product or service), etc.

Model scores. Response, risk, attrition, profitability scores, and/or any other scores that are created or purchased.

Predictive data. Includes any demographic, psychographic, or behavioral data.

Solicitation Mail and Phone Tapes

Solicitation tapes are created from either a customer database or a prospect list to provide pertinent information for a campaign. The tapes are usually shipped to a processor for mailing or a telemarketing shop for phone offers. If the goal is to eventually build a model from a specific campaign, the solicitation tape should contain the following information:

Customer or prospect ID. Described previously, this field can be used to match back to the customer or prospect database.

Predictive data. If data is purchased from an outside list company for the purpose of building a model, the predictive data for model development is included on the solicitation tape.

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IMPLICATIONS OF THE NEW INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES ON THE CUSTOMERS RELATIONSHIPS MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: CRM technology is complex to build. It requires different systems to work in harmony to deliver the right information at the right time to the right people. In addition to this, it needs to be user-friendly to people in a range of different roles with different levels of technical literacy. In the highly complex world of investment banking this requires a major change to IT architecture, which would take many person-years to complete.

Keywords: information technologies, customer, data sources

Most organizations have chosen to buy an off-the-shelf CRM package and build the interfaces into it. There are a number of problems with this approach:

- The package is not bespoke. The depth and breadth of the technology dazzles, but users' real needs are often forgotten, because of obsession with the capabilities of the whole system. Users are expected to work with the technology provided rather than specify what they really need. The package is not seen as an enabler but as a basis for reorganizing the business.
- There has been a tension in the implementation of CRM systems between helping individual bankers/sales people versus helping the bank become productive in crossselling. In one case, the system was designed to 'make sales people more productive' with little focus on the coverage team. It is quite unlikely that sales people would enter data on their own accounts – they already know them well. This kind of data might only be of value to others on the coverage team. This trade-off between individual and institution goes all the way through the design process.
- Many packaged systems have no direct link to driving client satisfaction, share of mind or any other strategic sales variable. In addition to this, there are a number of other operational problems for individual sales people, eg failure of the system to integrate with their e-mail and diary/scheduling package (eg Lotus Notes or Microsoft Outlook), lack of protection of confidentiality (simplistic approaches are common, in which fields can be viewed either just by the owner or by all), although these deficiencies are now being remedied.
- CRM system implementation is most likely to be successful when the organizational capacity for change is taken into account. 'Too much too soon' causes confusion and distrust of the system, leading to problems with uptake. Many CRM solutions require a complete implementation for the system to be effective. This is generally too much for the organization to take and the expensive package ends up being a glorified contact management system, with few of the management information, client planning or client intelligence benefits.

Data Warehouse

A data warehouse is a structure that links information from two or more databases. Using the data sources, a data warehouse brings the data into a central repository, performs

some data integration, cleanup, and summarization, and distributes the information data marts. Data marts are used to house subsets of the data from the central repository that has been selected and prepared for specific end users. (They are often called departmental data warehouses.) An analyst who wants to get data for a targeting model accesses the relevant data mart. The meta data provides a directory for the data marts. Figure 1 shows how the data gets from the various data sources, through the central repository to the data marts.

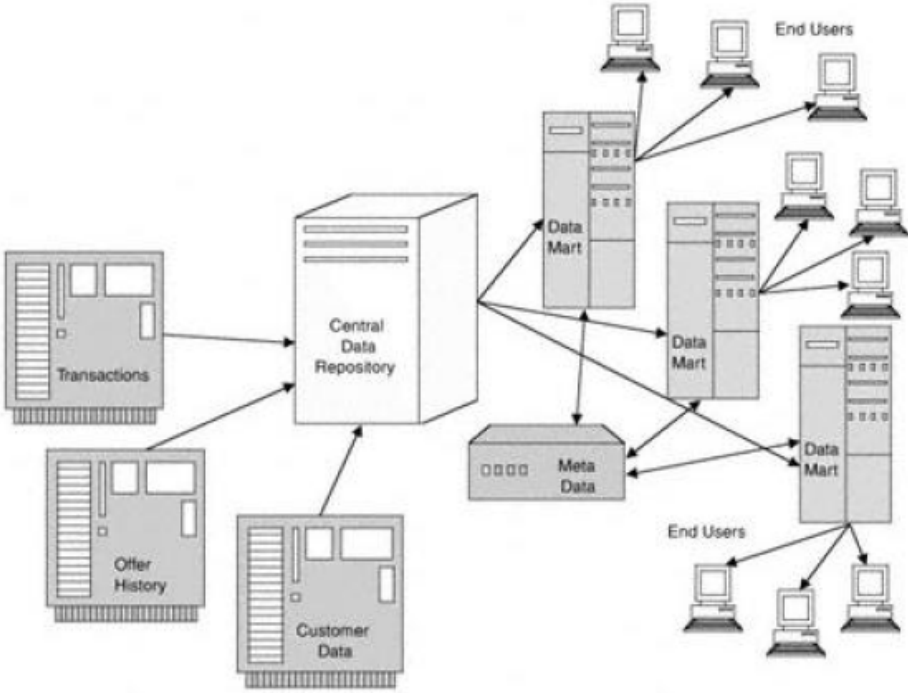


Figure1. A typical data ware house

Business intelligence is the corporate ability to make better decisions faster. A customer-focused business intelligence environment provides the infrastructure that delivers information and decisions necessary to maximize the most critical of all corporate assets—the customer base. This infrastructure combines data, channels, and analytical techniques to enhance customer satisfaction and profitability through all major customer contact points. For marketers this means the ability to target the right customer, at the right time, in the right place, and with the right product. The channels include traditional as well as the fast-growing electronic inbound and outbound. The analytical techniques include behavior analysis, predictive modeling, time-series analysis, and other techniques.

The key aspect to supplying the necessary data is the creation of a total view for each individual customer and their needs. Integration of customer data must provide a single, unified and accurate view of their customers across the entire organization. The ultimate goal is to achieve a complete picture of a customer's interaction with the entire organization, only achieved by gathering and staging the appropriate data. In addition to pulling in demographics and other external data, numerous internal data are necessary.

Too often, obtainable data are fragmented and scattered over multiple computer sites and systems, hidden away in transaction database systems or personal productivity tools such as spreadsheets or micro databases. These disparate data were created in the most part by the explosive growth of client/server applications over the last decade, creating independent transaction-oriented databases. Implementing independent On Line Transaction Processing (OLTP) customer contact point systems, as opposed to an integrated Customer Relationship Management (CRM) approach, has also added to the disparate data problems. These customer service, sales force automation, call center, telesales, and marketing applications look at customers from different views, making it difficult to create a holistic view of the customer.

Identifying what data are needed for the customer-focused environment should begin with business drivers. It should end with innovative thinking about what information is needed and how it can be used to increase your customer base and loyalty. Once the data elements and usage are identified, a business intelligence architecture must exist that supports the necessary infrastructure. The most simplistic way to look at business intelligence architecture is by three segments:

- Gathering the important data
- Discovering and analyzing data while transforming to pertinent information
- Delivering the information

The second segment refers to analyzing data about customers and prospects through data mining and model development.

The third segment also includes data analysis along with other information exploitation techniques that deliver information to employees, customers, and partners. The most misunderstood segment is probably the first, gathering the important data.

Numerous terms are used to describe the data gathering and storing aspect of a business intelligence environment. The primary term, *data warehousing*, has a metamorphosis of its own. Then we add in terms like data mart, central repository, meta data, and others. The most important data repository aspect is not its form, but instead the controls that exist. Business intelligence infrastructure should consist of the following control components:

- Extracting and staging data from sources
- Cleaning and aligning data/exception handling
- Transporting and loading data
- Summarizing data
- Refreshing process and procedures
- Employing meta data and business rules

The first five activities involve pulling, preparing, and loading data. These are important and must be a standard and repeatable process, but what is the role of meta data?

- Central control repository for all databases
- Repository for data hierarchies
- Repository for data rules, editing, transformations
- Repository for entity and dimension reference data
- Optimizes queries
- Common business definitions
- Hides complexity
- Links legacy systems to the warehouse repositories
- User and application profiling

There are two types of meta data— system and business. System meta data states the sources, refresh date, transformations, and other mechanical controls. Business meta data is used by analysts to understand where data is found as well as definitions, ownership, last update, calculations, and other rule-based controls. It is easy to see the importance of meta data to the business intelligence environment.

The data mining concept designs a technique that consists in the creation of some algorithms and static models which allow the exploration and analysis of the information stored in data warehouses, with a view to discover new rules, interdependences and tendencies between the different variables, so the firms to be able to improve the marketing operations, sales and technical assistance, by a better understanding of the clients' behavior. This technique finds its applicability in various management activities of the relations with the clients.

Data mining applications have various roles in the determination of the clients' needs, the most important of these being: the identification of the potential clients, the choosing of the optimal communication channel and of the message which will be addressed to each group of potential clients. Among the direct marketing campaigns, the data mining instruments help to the selection of the persons that will be contacted, on the basis of some answer models that estimate the actions impact initiated by the firms. The models concerning the clients' behavior are used to evaluate the potential value of the clients, to estimate the critical moments which can generate the clients' migration and to anticipate their future needs. A CRM project manager should understand the relations between the abilities of a data mining model to recognize the clients segments that are interested to acquire some products or services and his abilities of provisioning the future acquisitions, on the basis of the differential answer analysis, that follow the minimization of the answers differences between a segment of target clients and a control group.

Data expanding techniques facilitate the dissemination process of the information from the data warehouses in the managerial informational systems and of support in taking decisions, after they were processed by the data mining techniques; for CRM, they make evident the provisioned modifications of the clients' behavior and allow the formulation of some decisions which should put in practice on strategic plan (the redefinition of the target segments, offers, etc.) and on operational plan (the choosing of a mix of clients' attracting and fidelity actions). Integrating the data expanding process in a management informational system of the relations with clients, the operational reactivity of a firm to the changes from the business environment increases.

While the information obtained from a "data mining" process are used to segment the portfolio of clients and to project a mix of optimal marketing, the information furnished by a "data expanding" process determine the brands repositioning, offers' adaptation, the marketing budget redistribution, measuring every time the impact of these modifications.

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THE ROLE OF FINANCIAL DERIVATIVES IN THE PRESENT FINANCIAL CRISIS

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Abstract: The ongoing financial crisis raised serious questions on the benefits and risks of financial derivatives used by banks for hedging credit risks. This paper tries to analyze the involvement of financial derivatives in the financial crises, describing the securisation mechanism used by the American banks for hedging their credit risks and the effects it had on the stability of the international financial system.

Keywords: subprime mortgage, financial derivatives, securisation

INTRODUCTION

The origins of the subprime mortgage crisis are numerous and are located both within the banking system and the real estate one. Among these are to be mentioned the lack of possibilities for the borrowers to pay their mortgage rates, the risky credit decisions from banks, the growth of the debt level for the corporations and physical persons, the legal framework, the policy of the central bank and the financial innovations among that the financial derivatives having an important role.

The beginnings of the crisis are located in the final years of the past century, when the banks have started to grant risky credits guaranteed by mortgages in, based on the growth of the market value in the construction field. The bank started out to offer the customers new credit instruments, such as the credit granted by mortgage with a variable interest (ARM), even if the people incomes have not registered real growth. Such a credit have involved initial rates lower than the market medium values for a two years period of time. The basic idea was the assumption made by the banks and the debtors that after this period the value of the real estate would have grown and the refinancing of the loan would have been possible.

The subprime credit market has evolved rapidly from 5% in 1994 to 13% in 1999 and 20% in 2006 (figure no 1) within the total of mortgages. A similar trend was registered for the credits considered to have a medium risk level (Alternative A-papers or Alt-A), this way in 2006 those two categories had represented 33% form all mortgages.

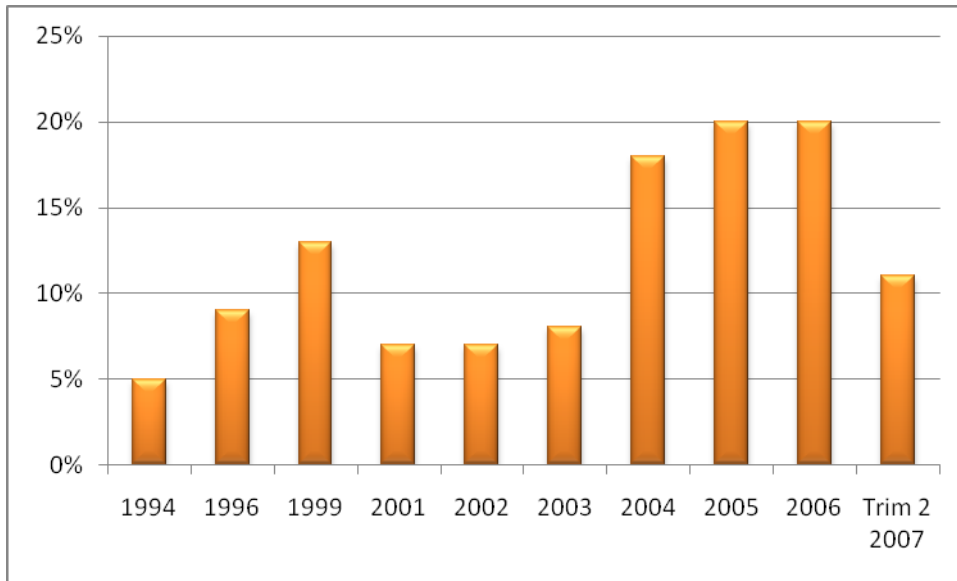


Figure 1. The evolution of subprime credit's percentage within the total mortgages

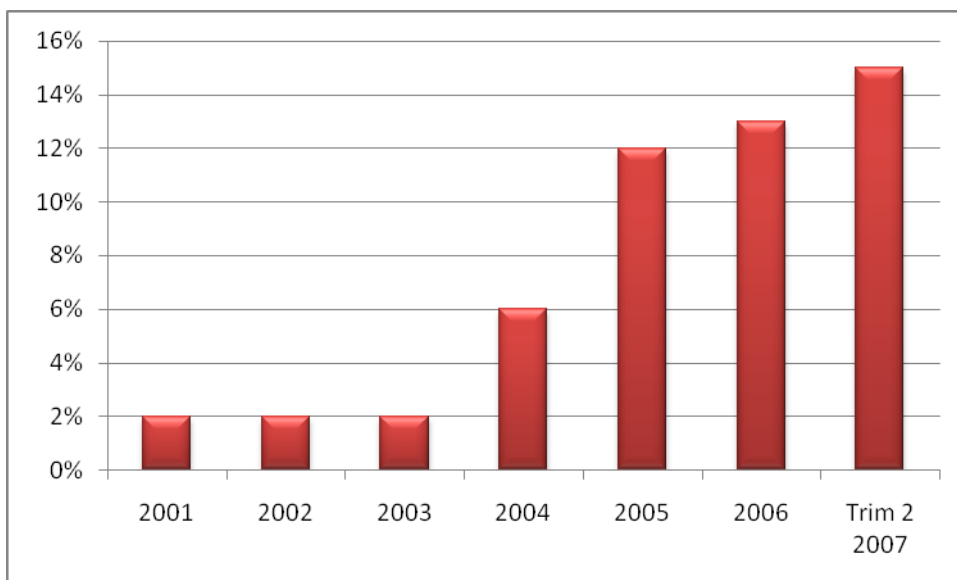


Figure 2. The evolution of Alt-A credit's percentage within the total mortgages

This growth of the percentage of subprime credits and Alt-A in the total mortgages was accompanied by the decreasing of the levels regarding the evaluation of credit risks by the rating agencies. This way, based on the previous experiences, that revealed small deficits due to the increasing of the houses prices, the rating agencies have reduced the rating for the AA credits from 25% in 1996 to 15% in 2007 and for the BB credits from 15% to 5% in the same period of time.

The reduction of the credits rating allowed the access to such credit for borrowers that had revenues that could not support the value of loans or persons with a very risky credit background. The value of the subprime mortgages in USA in March 2007 was estimate at 1.3 trillion dollars. In October 2007 around 16% of the credits with variable rate had 90 days of delay or were about to be declared failures of payment this value reaching 25% until May 2008.

THE SECURISATION PROCES AND ITS IMPACT ON THE FINANCIAL STABILITY

The reasons that led the bank to grant subprime credits are various, one of those reasons, in our opinion; it is represented by the possibilities that the banks had to transfer the risks through the modern financial instruments.

This process, known as securitization, involves the acquisition of financial instruments, debts and assets, classification in packages and supplying them to the investors. The securitization of the mortgages credits started out in the 70 and it is considered by the specialists as one of the major causes that led to the mortgage crisis. Due to the advantages offered by the securitization the investors have become more interested by the financial instruments based on the mortgages, rating agencies have been lowering the ratings for this type of instruments, considering them as low risk instruments, therefore the banks have been granting more risky credits.

The securitization process has the following stages:

1. The debtor (physical or juridical person that intend to obtain a mortgage loan apply to a bank that grant the loan). Within this phase may be involved a mortgage broker that will intermediate the transaction.
2. The bank sales the loan to a issuing organization of titles based on mortgages. The debtor will proceed with monthly payments into this organization's account or through other specialized company. Further this point, the debtor has no longer a direct relationship with the bank or the mortgage broker.
3. The issuing company sales the titles based on mortgages to the investors. These are paying the value of the titles and will receive the periodical payments from the issuing company. In this stage of the process the rating agencies are involved by an evaluation of those titles and eventually an authorized administrator (superintendent) and a subscriber. The authorized administrator is an institution capable to manage financial assets and that acts fiduciary on behalf of the titles contenders in order the issuing company to respect its contractual obligations. The subscriber acts as a intermediary between the parties. The risk of the credit can be diminished by supplementary guarantees offered by specialized companies (credit enhancement providers).
4. If the debtor stops the payments, the authorized administrator and the specialized company to which the debtor was paying are the ones that will take care of the debt's recovery.

The mechanism of a securitized mortgage loan is described in the figure below:

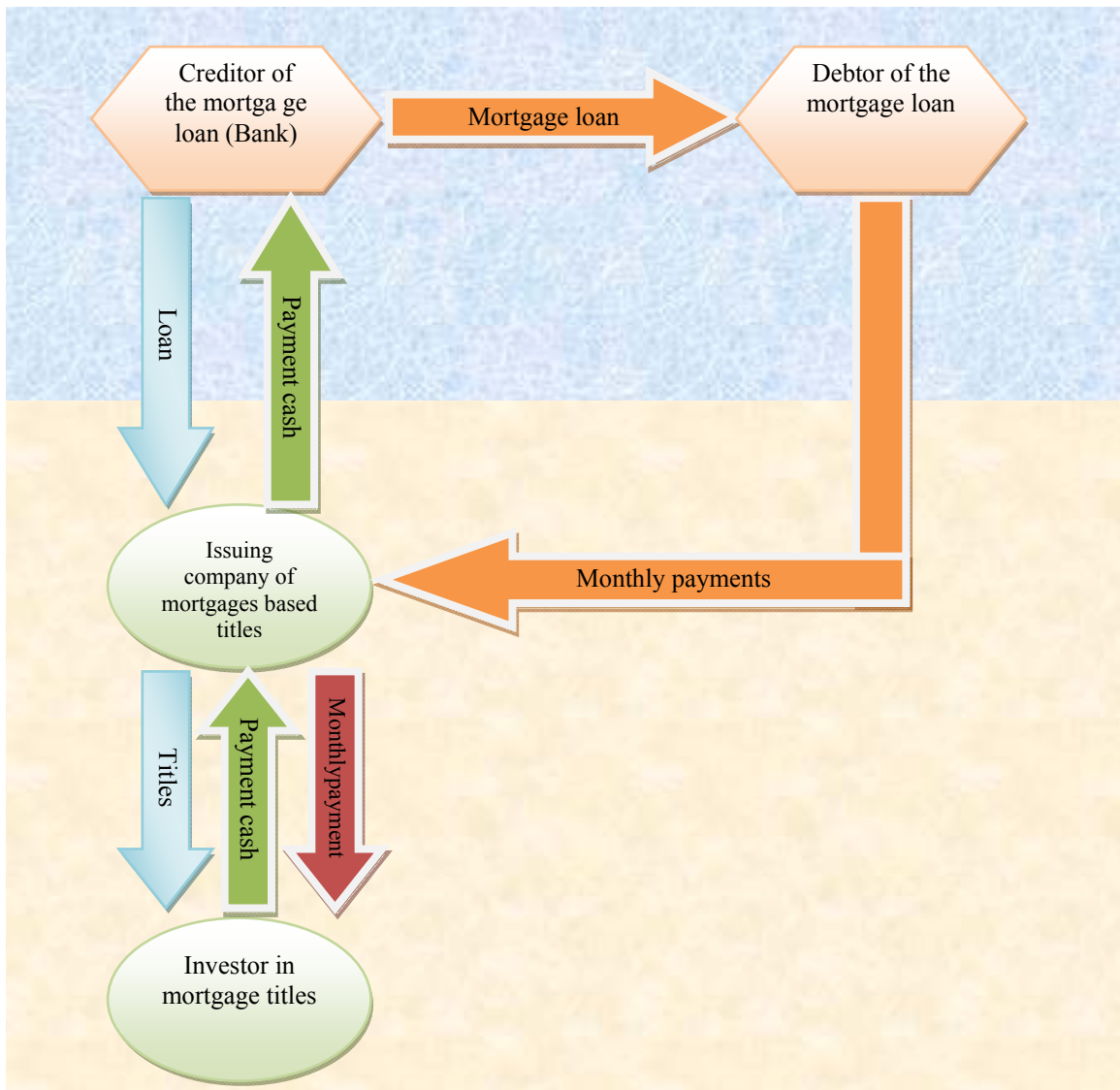


Figure 3. The mechanism used by the banks to secure the mortgage

This mechanism point out the cross connections based on derivative instruments that exist within the American financial system. Considering the statistical data the bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers will involve serious financial difficulties and even bankruptcy for other bank, insurance companies, investments fund, their number being assessed over 350. The damages caused by this bankruptcy will have to be supported by the investment fund or insurance companies that have act as authorized administrators for the titles issued by the bank. The estimated value of these titles is 220 billion dollars if 20% of the bank credits will be recovered assessed the specialists.

Among the 350 companies connected to the Lehman Brothers that have suffered major losses after its bankruptcy are to be mentioned the manager of the largest bonds fund in the world, Pimco, the hedging fund Citadel Investment Group LLC, but also the AIG, company that have supported the greatest losses and which salvation from going bankrupt was made out by the intervention of the government. AIG was ensuring, before the Lehman bankruptcy, the debts of this bank for a 5 years period of time, the level of protection being 790 point (one point being equivalent to 1,000 dollars in order to protect 10 million dollars for 5 years).

CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE ROLE OF FINANCIAL DERIVATIVES IN THE ONGOING FINANCIAL CRISIS

The specialists assessed, an opinion that I share, that the lack of regulations concerning the credit derivatives instruments market, can be held responsible for the enormous attraction exercised by these instruments over the investors and for the fact that many of them had no idea of the risks associated with an investment in products based on derivatives of the investment banks.

We consider that the derivatives instruments cannot be held out responsible for the release of the financial crisis but they supported its deepening. Initially they were conceived as instruments meant to protect the banks against the credit risk, meanwhile the derivatives had become more complex and therefore more difficult to control and understand. The protection offered by the possibility to transfer the risks encouraged the banks to involve themselves in credits more and more risky, in favor of some debtors that would had not accomplished de credit demands in normal circumstances.

On the other hand, the greater diversification of the support assets for the derivatives instruments has enhanced the risk for the protection sellers, situations occurred when the credit contracts default swap were based on credit contracts default swap.

We consider that the sole negative implication of derivative instruments is the one that generated a greater cross connection between entities from different areas of the financial market. The bankruptcies of some important banks such as Lehman Brothers or Bear Stearns cannot be justified by the use of the derivatives instruments but through their important amount of low return credits. The derivatives had only determined an enhancement of the insecurity and drove the financial crisis wave to the companies that had ensured the debt for these banks. The globalization of the financial market determined the extension of the crisis to countries that were not directly connected to the American banking system.

From their point of start in 1991, made by Banker's Trust, the credit default swap instruments have considerably altered the credit derivatives market and the recent crisis was not the first they were involved in. In 1994, an entire city from California, Orange County, went bankrupt because the investments made in derivatives on the interest rate instruments, in 1997 the Asian financial crisis inflicted major losses to JP Morgan and other American companies that had made investments on the Asian market. The credit default swap market had continued to grow reaching in 2001 over 900 billion dollars.

In 2003, Warren Buffett, one of the most wealthy people of the world was saying about the derivatives instruments that "they are financial weapons of mass destruction". Although he would not dispute their role to ensure protection against the risks, he stated that the derivatives will evolve, suffer major transformations and multiply until "a random event will prove their toxicity". The Wells Fargo Bank, owned by Buffet, has survived the subprime crisis having a capitalization of 95.13billion dollars and has bought the Wachovia for 11.7 billion dollars. The cautiousness manifested towards the derivatives market represented one of the reasons of its survival.

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POSSIBLE IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINANCIAL CRISIS OVER THE ROMANIAN BANKING SYSTEM

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Abstract: The international financial crisis had its origins in the American subprime mortgage credits and speeded throughout the world. This paper tends to analyze the possibility that the Romanian banking system could be affected by the same kind of crisis. First we will analyze the American mortgage crisis based on the Lehman Brothers example of bankruptcy, then we will take a look over the Romanian banking system to see if the same scenario could be possible.

Keywords: financial derivatives, subprime mortgage crisis

THE ROLE OF FINANCIAL DERIVATIVES IN THE LEHMAN BROTHERS BANKRUPTCY

The bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers and the financial crisis that followed were, according to some analysts, caused by the involvement of the bank in transactions with financial derivatives.

The derivative instrument that Lehman Brothers used the most was the credit default swap derivatives. At the time the bank had declared its bankruptcy it held assets evaluated at 639 billion dollars and debts of 613 billion dollars. The value of its assets was covered throughout the credit default swap mechanism, the bank was paying to the protection sellers yearly amounts and in the case of a debtor that would had no longer paid, these sellers would have paid the bank until the debt was covered. According to a specialized study published by the bank's analysts in 2003¹, the most 12 important banks, hedging funds and insurance companies were using the following types of derivatives

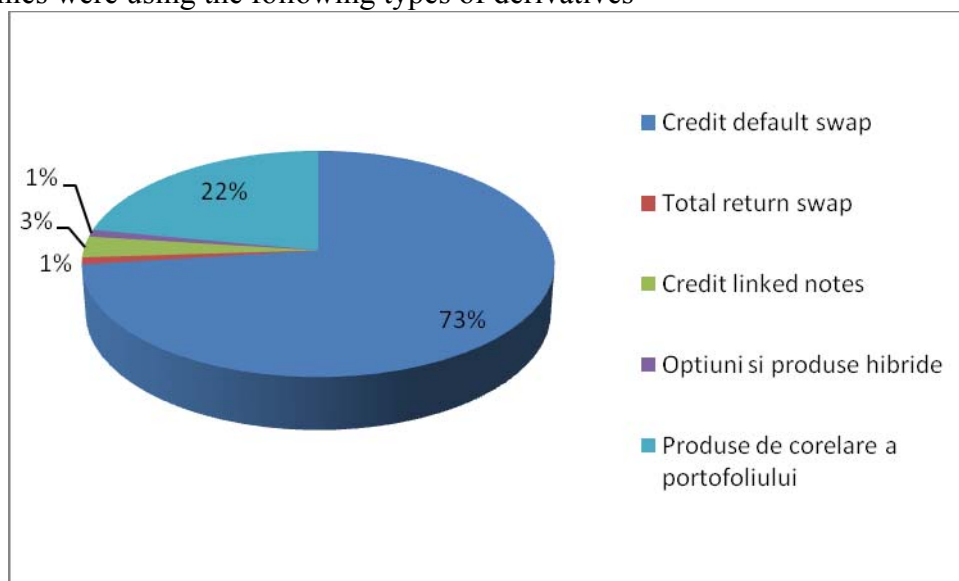


Figure 1. Types of credit derivatives used by the most important american banks

¹ The Lehman Brothers Guide to Exotic Credit Derivatives, 2003, www.lehmanbrothers.com, sursa datelor Risk Magazine 2003 Credit Derivatives Survey

The value of the credit default swap market was estimated at 55 billions dollars before the crisis start. The most important players on this market were commercial banks that were trying to secure their credits and other necessities, meanwhile the percentage of the hedging funds and insurance companies being on an ascendant trend. On this market 48% was held by banks that used this instrument for securisation of their credit risks and other activities, 24% by insurance and reinsurance companies, 13% by hedging funds, 7% by third-party asset managers, 3% by corporates and 5% was held by specialized companies named Special Purpose Vehicle (SPV) that were buying and selling financial instruments. Also known as „derivative instruments companies” these entities were subsidiaries of a mother company, their role being to guarantee for the obligations of the mother company and to play the counterparty role for the credit derivative operations initiated by this company.

Beside the debts insurance, Lehman Brothers was holding at the moment its crisis begun corporate bonds insured also through the derivative instruments. Their total value was 128 billion dollars. The initial purpose of these instruments was to protect in case of failure to pay, but the intervention of the hedging fund on the market led to an alteration of this purpose, the instruments being use in a speculative manner. The investment funds are using the corporate bond they hold in order to bet against the issuer abilities, the bank in this particular case, to reimburse its debts. The mechanism of this kind of speculation is: the investment fund is taking over bonds from a bank facing difficulties and starts to sell them in order to determine a descendent trend and to inflict serious doubts among the investors. These doubts are amplified and generate the reduction of the price of the company bonds in the stock market. After the price reaches a certain point the speculator is buying from the market the bond and returns them to its rightful owner but their value is null. The mechanism is similar to the one used to speculate stocks. Such a speculative action took place one day after the Lehman Brothers announced the bankruptcy and the Bank of America took over the Merrill Lynch, this action had as consequence the reduction of the values for the AIG titles with 61%.

The corporate bonds held by Lehman Brothers were traded on October 10th 2008 at the price of 13 cents, on October 11th 2008 they were valued at 8.6 cents. This means that on October 10th 2008 the bank was paying to the owner 13 cents, the rest of 87 cents being supported by the protection seller, the next day it would have to pay 91.4 cents for a dollar.












CONSIDERATIONS ON THE POSSIBILITY OF A SUBPRIME MORTGAGE CRISIS AFFECTING THE ROMANIAN BANKING SYSTEM

The financial crisis that has overcome the world market at the end of 2007, generated the bankruptcy of some notorious banks and the major fall of stock markets index had multiples causes and determined a transformation of world financial market. The financial analysts have considered that the crisis main cause were the financial derivatives instruments. Although, we consider that not these instruments are the ones that generated the crisis, but their use beyond the initial purpose such as the speculative use. The causes of the world financial crisis are various such as historical, institutional and technological. From a historical point of view the majority of the European countries, except the Great Britain, Denmark and Holland, have not followed up the American model of deregulation in banking system started out in the '80, they continued to separate the real estate sector from the stock markets and to maintain the banking activities under severe regulations. Those regulations have not allowed the banks to be involved on a greater scale on the market of the instruments that were based on mortgages credits.

The mortgages credits market in the European countries show up resemblances but also structural differences compared with the United States, as it is presented in the table below.

Table no.1.

The differences between the national mortgage markets in Europe and United States

Country	Mortgage market index	Typical duration	Typical ratio Loan-to-Value ² (%)	The possibility of payment in advance without penalties
USA	0.98	30	80	
Austria	0.31	25	60	
Denmark	0.82	30	80	
France	0.23	15	75	
Germany	0.28	25	70	
Greece	0.35	17	75	
Ireland	0.39	20	70	
Italy	0.26	15	50	
Great Britain	0.58	25	75	Limited
Norway	0.59	17	70	
Holland	0.71	30	90	
Spain	0.40	20	70	
Sweden	0.66	25	80	Limited

The European markets that are closer from structural point of view to the American market are Denmark and Holland. At the opposite pole are situated Austria, France and Germany, countries that are still keeping a severe regulation of the banking system.

Regarding the situation of Romania, the possibility that the banking system will encounter a major crisis with important implications over the entire economy is low due to the following reasons:

- the mortgage credit market has low level of development;
- the banks are using on a reduce scale the financial derivatives instruments, having as support assets in majority the interest rates and the exchange rates;

² Desemnează raportul procentual între valoarea împrumutului ipotecar și valoarea de piață a proprietății ipotecate.

- the credit default swap market do not exists and other derivatives markets as well and the hedging funds are not involved in speculative transactions with this type of instruments;
- the percentage of banking services within the GDP is still reduced;
- there is no strong cross connection between the banking system, capital market and real estate market;
- according the statistical data the Romanian economy has registered a growth of 6% in the previous year and it is not facing a recession determined by internal causes (despite all these there is a possibility that the economy be affected by the world recession and therefore to reduce its growing ratio or to enter a new descendent phase);
- the majority of the Romanian banks are private, from this point of view our country being situated on the 28 place and 68 in Fitch Report and their capital is almost entirely foreign (place 7/74).

This final aspect has, in our opinion, a negative connotation. Thus, even if Romania has not been affected directly by the first wave of world financial crisis, there is the possibility that the banks with foreign capital present in our banking system to withdraw their capital form Romanian market in order to face the necessities on other markets, generating this way a lack of liquidities on our market.

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STOCK MANAGERMENTS SYSTEMS WITHIN ROMANIAN ENTERPRISES

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Abstract: Four different systems of stock management can be distinguish, taking into consideration the way in which the consumption manifests itself, the time needed and the amount of purchase. These systems influence differently the stock's level, the demand, the orders or the quantities.

Keywords: stock, consumption, demand, supply, quantity.

Stock management systems manifest themselves according to *the consumption's behaviour* (constant or variable) and according to *the time period* to which the purchase requisition manifests itself (the period between two successive supplies), which can also be constant or variable.

According to these two factors, there are four types of stock management.¹

The system with constant demand in equal periods (Cc – Tc)

It is characterized by constant consumption in a linear time where equal quantities can be requested (ordered) in equal periods of time (fig.1.1.).

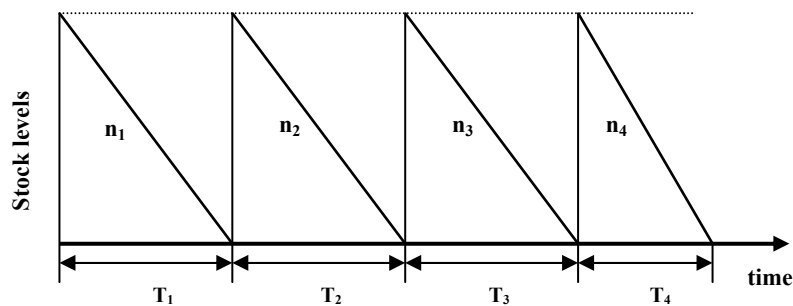


Fig. 1.1.

[Source: Gh. Cârstea, Fl. Pârnu, op. cit., pg. 70.]

Therefore: $T_1 = T_2 = \dots T_n$

$n_1 = n_2 = \dots n_n$

n_n – demand in the "n" period;

T_n - the time period needed in order to assure the consumption within the stock (where the stock will be renewed).

The system with constant demand in different periods

It is characterized by a variable consumption in a linear time where equal quantities can be requested in different periods of time (fig. no.1.2.).

¹ Ibid., pp. 70 - 71.

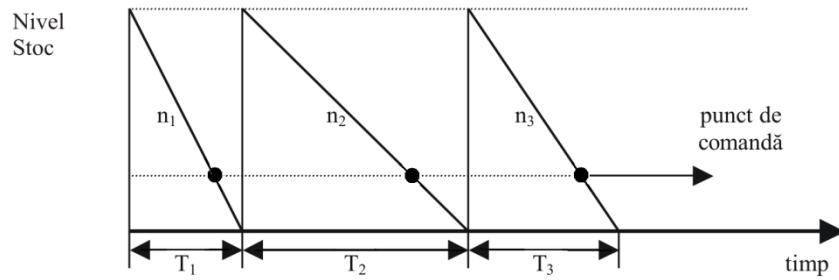


Fig. 1.2.
[Source: Ibid.]

Consequently: $n_1 = n_2 = \dots n_n$

$$T_1 \neq T_2 \neq \dots \neq T_n$$

The demands are launched when the level of the stock is situated at the same level with the demand point.

The system with variable demand in constant periods of time

It is characterized by the existence of an uneven consumption in time, which determines different quantities to be consumed in equal periods of time that leads to the necessity of variable quantities to complete the stock (fig.1.3.)

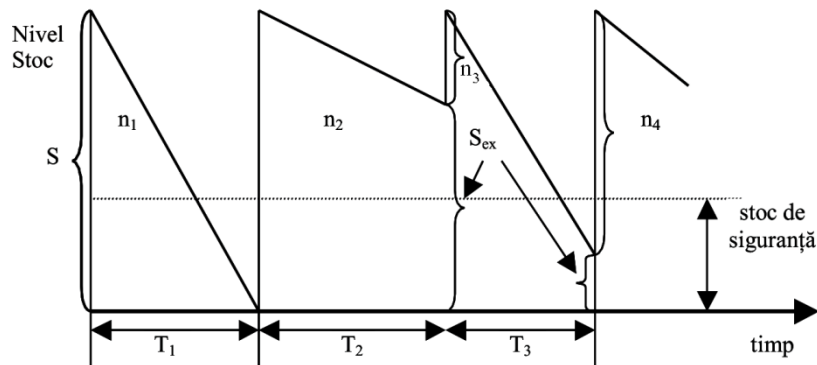


Fig. 1.3.
[Source: Ibid., pg. 71]

For this reason: $T_1 = T_2 = T_3 = \dots T_n$

$$n_1 \neq n_2 \neq \dots n_n \text{ since:}$$

$$n_i = S - S_{ex}^i,$$

where:

S – the normative production stock;

S_{ex}^i - the existing stock at the moment of receiving a new order.

The orders are made in constant periods of time, ordering variable quantities.

The system with variable demand in variable periods of time

It is characterized by the existence of a variable consumption on time unit, having a variable demand in time.

Depending on the consumption corresponding to some particular periods, this system determines the existence of a stock's variable level, which leads to the use of variable quantities for completing the stock (fig. no. 5.3.3.1.4.).

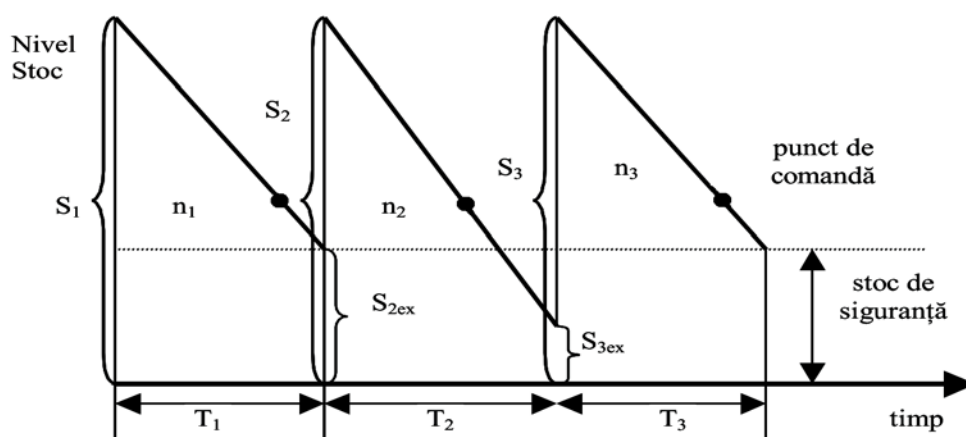


Fig.1.4.
[Source: Ibid.]

Therefore:

$$T_1 \neq T_2 \neq \dots \neq T_n$$

$$n_1 \neq n_2 \neq \dots \neq n_n$$

$$S_1 \neq S_2 \neq \dots \neq S_n$$

The orders are made when the stock's level is situated at the level of some demand points. The quantities that were ordered at a given time are equal with the stock for that particular period (S_i) minus the existing stock (S_{ex}^i):

$$n_i = S_i - S_{ex}^i$$

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DYSFUNCTIONS IN THE SOCIAL SYSTEMS OF THE ENTERPRISE

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Abstract: Several social dysfunctions, having numerous consequences, are present in enterprises, indicating the problematic social system or the non-corresponding management. Taking into consideration both their causes and effects, one can distinguish several possible perturbations within an organization's functionality. The absenteeism – proof of a misled behaviour of a missing employee, the fluctuation – employees' resignation or changed position, the social conflicts- important situations of crisis leading to strikes, and the work accidents or injuries at work are the most frequent ones.

Keywords: dysfunction, absenteeism, fluctuation, strike, work accidents.

The enterprises, being seen as social systems, may present in certain conditions functional syncope or social dysfunctions that embody numerous and often hardly foreseen consequences. On the one hand, their existence is the most eloquent proof of the social systems which have already encountered problems or is about to come across some; on the other hand, they can be directly seen as feed-back of an inefficient leading manner.

Social dysfunctions can be defined as disorders which affect one's organization's functionality due to a behaviour modification, especially the employees' professional one. The indicated functional perturbation may be the consequence of the employees' solely behaviour modification, or, besides this, the consequence of other social, political and economical factors.

The most frequent, recognized and investigated dysfunctions are: **the absenteeism, the fluctuation, the social conflicts and the work accidents.** These can be analyzed taking into consideration both their effects and causes.

In regards of effects

As we mentioned, the dysfunctions are regarded as perturbations within a system's normal functionality, which means generated costs' determination, obviously in the mean of their diminution. The evaluation of some disorder generating dysfunctions does not benefit from the existence of some special and objective norms; for instance, one cannot compare neither the absenteeism present in constructions with that present within the teaching system, nor those having prejudged "alarm" cote. One can appreciate on a real basis that the important one is the indicator's variation in time and not the comparisons between branches or enterprises. Moreover, we analyze an essential relative notion, more exactly a high fluctuation cote, which might be favourable within a specific branch (with low technical progress, for instance), thus totally unfavourable towards a fast technological changing branch.

In regards of causes

Given that the social dysfunctions represent social indicators that reflect the climate of the existing social system, while simultaneous evolutions of many more of such indicators take place in the same direction, gives us the privilege to assess the fact that a social climate change is possible, if it had not taken place yet. At the same time, should we take into consideration the fact that the analysis – its conclusions, the interpretation of the social dysfunctions and their effects – is strongly dependent on its measurement system, in fact on its limits and defects, which means a critical evaluation over it.

The absenteeism. In most of the cases, a missing employee brings dysfunctions within the whole activity, nevertheless of the team he is taking part in. That implies urgent measures coming from the leadership in order to lower the negative consequences.

In the mean time, the absence of an employee is regarded as a proof of a misled social cultural behaviour, which unearths a temporary and limited refusal to work and get involved within the employing economic agent's activities.

Within this context, if it is the case that the absenteeism goes over a normally leadership appreciated level, one may understand it as an eloquent sign of some of the social climate modifications that motivate the employees to "reject" the involvement.

The measurement of the absenteeism becomes in this condition an important activity of the speciality compartment, given that the measurement's accuracy relates to both the indicator's size and the "normality" interpretation.

One may take into consideration two major aspects:

- a) *the absentee's census* (the existence of a system allowing everyone's registration) and
- b) *grouping depending on causes*, given the fact that one may not put into consideration as dysfunctions nothing but abnormal absences that reflect a potentially faulty functioning of the social system.

The most frequent used indicator for measuring absenteeism is the "**rate of absenteeism**" (RA) which is calculated as follows:

$$R_A = \frac{O_a}{O_T} \cdot 100$$

where:

Oa- represents the absent hours during a reference time T;

OT- the total number of theoretical working hours in the same T period;

Regarding the calculating method of the two terms, we should take into account the following:

Oa- out of the total number of absences one should subtract the normally appreciated ones;

OT – it refers to the theoretical number of working hours which is calculated correspondingly to the complete collective associated with normal working hours (overtime is excluded);

T- the most significant reference time is the month.

The fluctuation

A fluctuation refers to the personnel rotation during a T period and respectively to the number of employees who change their working place by resigning from those particular enterprises (for whatever the reason).

Some enterprises are concerned, besides the resignations, with the employees' movement from one place to another inside the company, thus being the case when the total fluctuation would reflect upon two phenomena (the resignations from the enterprise and the changes of the occupied position).

The fluctuation is regarded by the most enterprises as a signal of dysfunctions at the social system level and as a signal of deviation which implies high costs. However, a high rate fluctuation does not necessarily stand for a dysfunction or a negative phenomenon.

In this situation, unlike absenteeism, the human resources leadership's behavior towards fluctuation or the attitude of the enterprise's management in general should be the result of a strategic option. Given the fact that the fluctuation is regarded as a social dysfunction, one should deal with several aspects.

First of all, we should identify the causes that determined the employees to leave the enterprise.

Usually, these causes are grouped into the following categories:

- a) withdrawals that can be **attributed to the enterprise** (for instance, due to the sanctions, the seasonal activity, the production reduction etc.)
- b) withdrawals that may be **attributed to employees**; these can also be grouped into several categories:
 - *'controlled' by the leadership* (for example, withdrawals due to the inconvenient salaries, the problematic working schedule, the working conditions etc.)
 - *'uncontrolled' by the leadership* (for instance, withdrawals due to diseases, accidents, marriage, retirement, deceases etc.)
 - *without a well-known reason*, these belong to none of the categories stated above.

The social conflicts

Surprisingly or not, within an organization all categories of relationships between people, compartments etc. generate a continual conflicting status, inclusively within the social domain; in this state of being, in order for the economic agent to function, the conflict should be temporarily suspended, a social agreement being implemented.

The conflict being only temporarily suspended, it could obviously enter a highly stage, protecting against a situation of crisis or an open conflict.

The most significant open conflict which reflects an important situation of crisis is the strike.

The conflicts can be of several types:

1. **individual** – which is the result of the opposition among employees and this kind of conflict is permanently presented within an organization; even though it generates minor perturbations, these shouldn't be ignored because they harm in time the relationship among collectives and even the entire organization;
2. **organizational** – the consequences of a power struggle among two or more compartments (services, departments etc.) but also among leading positions – between two or more individuals; this stands for the result of the organization's defective function;
3. **collective** – as a result of the position which is different from the organization's specific activity, they oppose two or more categories or social classes from the economic agent's structure. A 'classical' collective conflict occurs between the owner (the one whose contribution is expressed in the involved capital) and employees (the ones who are working).

The strike stands for the crisis stage of an opened collective conflict and it usually opposes the employees and their leaders, even if those are the owners or not. Strikes have become extremely diverse in the last decades.

Dimitri Weiss has elaborated the following typology of strikes which has become classical by being accepted by most of the specialists:

- **depending on the extension**, several types of strike can be mentioned:
 1. **partial strike**, it affects only a part of the enterprise;
 2. **enterprise strike** or generalized;

3. **branch strike**, comprising a whole economic branch;
 4. **cascade strike**, a very special type of strike which successively involves different categories of personnel, branches etc.
- **depending on the starting way**, besides the classical ways:
 1. **wild-cat strikes**, which are launched by employees without having permission from syndicates or when it is not stipulated in the contract between employees and employers;
 2. **surprisingly strikes**, which are started in spite of the negotiations being in the course or in spite of the conciliation procedures that take place.
 - **depending on the consequences upon production**, besides the strikes that affect an enterprise integrally or partially, the following ones can be identified:
 1. **cork strikes** – if they are launched within a restricted collective, it affects the whole enterprise due to the essential and ‘narrow place’ role the collective has in the activity’s development within that particular enterprise;
 - **depending on the deployment method**, besides the classical strike, new types appeared in the last period, such as:
 1. **pearl strike**, which manifests itself by decreasing productivity;
 2. **zeal strike**, it concerns the extremely strict enforcement of regulations; there is a classical example, the custom officers’ zeal strike having similar consequences as the classical strike has, if not even more devastating;
 3. **managerial strike**, which is a traditional anti-strike that manifests itself by maintaining the production when it actually should have been stopped.

Accidents at work

Like in many other cases, incidents at work and particularly the increase in their far beyond limits, are considered not only as a source of usually serious dysfunctions within the economic system, but are also likely to be eloquent signs of degradation within the enterprise’s social system. In regards of that fourth dysfunction symptom, one must analyze more aspects existing in the social system.

First of all, a distinction should be made between the different forms of working accidents within the elaboration of the dedicated informational system and within the phenomenon analysis on the one hand, and, on the other hand, one needs to separate them from the occupational diseases whose causes can be blamed on the social system being in a crucial condition, but, mostly, on the technical system and on the utilized technology.

Therefore, the accident – a regrettable event- is directly or indirectly connected with the professional activity and has the following main characteristics:

- it affects ‘ responsibly’ one or more persons without having influences on the other colleagues; unlike the occupational diseases which potentially have the same danger degree for all employees who develop their activity in the same working place;
- it causes visible bodily injuries to one or more persons.

In the second place, the elaboration of a labour protection efficient strategy can’t be completed without a statistical report of the accidents that happened within the enterprise. Besides the usual accounts which usually records the number of accidents into categories, there is necessary to describe each and every accident, taking into account the material elements which **favoured it, each accident’s consequences upon the activity, and, when it’s possible, estimations regarding the costs** etc. Lately, other elements have been registered in order to facilitate the analysis and the accurately implicit conclusions, such as:

the age, the gender, the years of service, the specific training, the previous accidents, the professional training, the occupied position, the different familial conditions etc. of the involved persons (contrivers and/or victims).

On the other hand, a series of information regarding the accident may be essential, for instance, the day and the hour when it took place, the meteorological conditions, the work schedule, the date in connection with a diverse official celebration, special events within the enterprise that preceded the accident, the last time when a specific training took place etc. This package of data together with other specific statistical indicators offer, on the one hand, the strategic basis and the concrete measurements of the programmes elaborated in order to lessen the accidents, and, on the other hand, it offer the opportunity to analyse the correctness of the previous taken measurements.

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THE LOGISTIC CENTRE, EXPRESSION OF THE DISTRIBUTION GLOBALIZATION

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Abstract: "Within the current market expansion and globalisation of the product distribution, which becomes an essential element of the economic and social International Systems, their specific economic activities and the modern trend have made possible the building of different trade channels.

Based on this theory the logistics centers- Strategic Investment Projects, enables the implementation of the most advanced technologies within merchandise logistics and distribution, achieving economical efficiency through costs benefits and in the same time competition advantage, followed up by all the marketing channel actors."

Keywords: distribution, market expansion, logistics center

1. The assumptions that have entailed the logistic centre:

The free movement of the goods and capital at global level has generated basic changes of the marketing and logistic channels, and the assertion of structures that allows them the access to emergent markets on national or global level.

The global brands (alimentary and non-alimentary goods) are found sometimes at great distance from the demand manifestation place, and in order for the producers to promote these goods on the respective markets, they will resort either to intermediaries of the marketing channels that have the necessary logistics to realize the distribution, either to independent logistic structures that assure the physical distribution support of the own goods to the final consumers.

The producers of the consecrated goods and of the goods that have rising demands, specially the ones that imply new technologies, will be concerned to develop the product markets abroad, and in this way they will appeal to consecrated distribution channels or to determine the apparition of new structures, respectively of the logistic centre in order to make possible the conquest of new market areas.

Another assumption that has imposed the appearance of the logistic centers is the expansion of super and hypermarkets chains, that have build logistic centers in order to expand on new market areas and to furnish the goods fund necessary to the own built stores chain.

The free movement of the capital has permitted to the strategic investors, besides the members of the distribution or logistic channels, to develop logistic centers, capable to cover broad areas, geographical areas that exceed the borders of a country.

The producers (the exporters), the importers (the distributors), inclusively other members of the marketing channels interested in logistic services (logistic activities) of the independent logistics centers, are imposed as a necessity for the development of these modern structures.

If in the first phase these logistic centers have appeared in the developed countries, as a consequence of the economical evolution, these centers have followed the natural path of globalization, towards the emergent zonal centers, where they became consecrated structures. Here, the investors enjoy the competition of the territorial administrations, where the

emplacement will be realized, because the logistic centre leads to a development of the infrastructure and transport networks in the respective area. Likewise, it is a generator of new jobs, creating the assumptions of the economical development of the respective area where these structures are emplaced.

The emplacement of the logistic centre will mean in the firstly the accessibility to the transport routes, especially in the interference areas of different transport types: on water, on roads, on rail or on air.

2. The logistic centre – the considered activities

As it results from the factors analysis that has generated the development of the logistics centers, we will meet groups, in function of the investors:

- logistics centers attached to a global brand producer or a distribution chain,
- independent logistic centers, developed and exploited by a strategic investor.

In both cases, the features of the logistic centre are the ones that exceed the amplitude of the classic storage areas (reaching dimensions of 100.000 square meters), assuring a diverse paddle of activities - here all the activities can be found, the basic ones as the supportive ones realized in the frame of a classic logistic channel.

The difference between the two types of logistic centers is that on the attached one, the property of the goods belongs to the owner of the centre, whereas at the independent logistic centre the realized logistic activities are demanded by the goods owner or by his proctor.

The design and the realization of the logistic centers will take into consideration the nature of the goods that will make the purpose of the logistic centre, thus to assure the maintaining or the improvement of their value. They will dispose the technological rigging to allow the transport, storage, manipulation, the stock management, encasement, batching, systemic transmission of the information, in order to increase the economic effectiveness and efficiency.

The modern constructive solutions, the building materials, the current building technologies enable the realization of the most modern logistic centers, that administrates the whole palette of solicited activities of the marketing channels members for different goods.

The independent logistic centre can assure to its clients the whole palette of logistic activities such as:

Basic activities

1. – specific activities for the expedition houses, respectively the engagement on the whole displacement route of the goods transport capacity, storage, manipulation, assurance and other necessary activities.
2. –goods transport activities when it has its own park for the goods transportation from the production place to the distribution place, or from the distribution place to the destination place demanded by the producer or the owner of the goods, respectively the importer. This transport activity can be realized with rented transport capacities such as: on water, on roads, on rail and other transportation means.
3. – storage activities - these can be realized for the clients in self name, or by renting storage areas to the producers or goods owners. Because the logistic centre disposes of big storage areas, these permit to the exporters (producers), importers, the storage of big batches of goods with implications on obtaining an optimal cost/price ratio on the product unit.

The storage technologies found in the logistic centers will attract the current projects performances that assure the acceleration of interchanges, fluxes, continuity, and an

accelerated rhythm of the goods party movements. At the same time these technologies assure the merceological conformation of the storage norms (frigorific chains), compatibility norms, assuring the circulation goods fluxes, of the entries, of the outgoes, etc.

4. – stock management activities when these activities are requested by the producers or the goods owners, assuring at the same time services for dispatching batches communicated by them, tended to the destination points in the envisaged areas on the market.

I. Support activities

1. – logistic centers can assure, as a consequence of the existent rigging and by the technical possibilities available, the continuation of the production chain by technological operations of ageing the products, encasement and prepacking, and for some categories of goods, remedies in the guarantee and post-guarantee period.
2. – goods manipulation will achieve modern technologies features, that will use advanced technologies (sincrolift, R.D.I. systems), ticketing, that will be based on information adaptation and accounting data technologies.
3. – information management and communication towards the clients of the logistic centre, by the large use of informational technologies referring to realized logistic activities.

3. The advantages of the independent logistic centre.

A first advantage offered to the members of the marketing channel (producers-exporters, distributors- interagents, services tenders) refer to total elimination of the investment effort in developing the storage, transport, technological support capacities and other investments necessary to realize the distribution: (selling) of the goods, industrial products, etc.

The possibility to unreel big volumes (batches), comparing to the classical logistic channel, the amplitude of the goods groups unwounded by the intercession of the logistic centre, is conceived to satisfy the exactingnesses of the different marketing channels clients, different groups of alimentary or non-alimentary goods, of large or current consume, etc.

The most modern standards of technical riggings assured by the independent logistic centers, makes possible the getting over of the whole physical tack of the goods till the manifestation place of the consumer's demand (figure no. 1 annexed).

The assurance of the realization of the whole palette of activities that accompanies the goods logistic channel, standards that satisfy the demands of a modern physical distribution, transability, flexibility in adopting adequate solutions, the duration reduction of the transfers realized in the logistic centers, adaptability, increased productivity, will bring valuable economies.

The economies brought as a consequence of the conditions offered by the independent logistic center, comparing to the classical logistic channel, with more participants, has as aim to bring an efficient answer to the final consumer (C.R.M.) by reducing the goods value distributed by the members of the marketing channel.

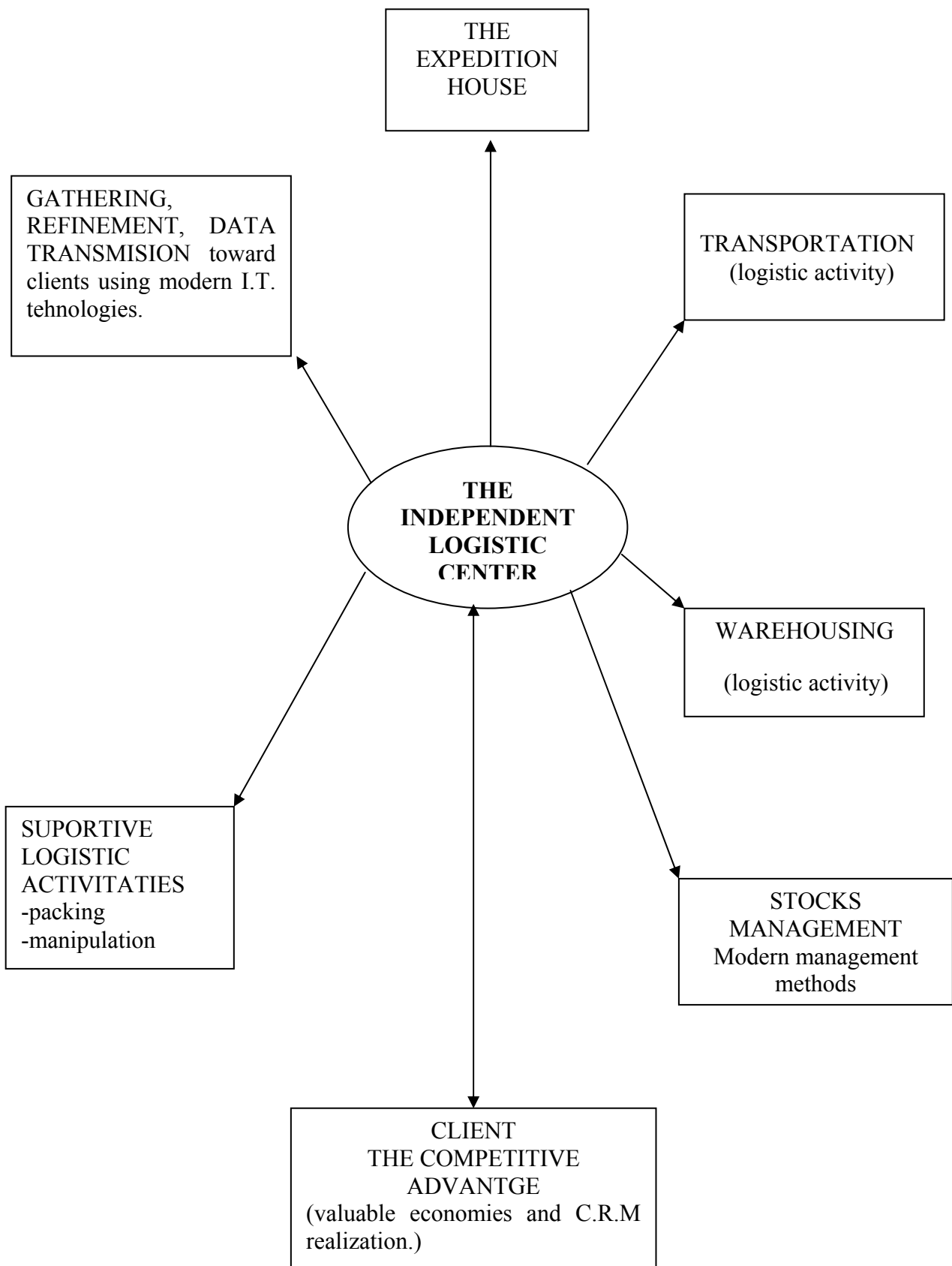


Figure no. 1 The competitive and the logistics of the independent logistic centre.

THE TAX VALUE ADDED: A SIMPLE BUT COMPLEX APPLICATIONS BY EXAMPLE OF INTERNAL FINANCIAL TRANSFERS

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Abstract: Internal financial transfers, meaning the transfers between the main budget of a public person and one of its subsidiary budget entirely subject to VAT, illustrates the complexity of the current situation

Keywords: tax value added, transfer, economic activity

«Un système de Taxe sur la Valeur Ajoutée atteint sa plus grande neutralité lorsque la taxe est perçue d'une manière aussi générale que possible»; tel est l'objectif inscrit dans la première directive européenne du 11 avril 1967.

En d'autres termes il convient de soumettre à la taxe l'ensemble des activités économiques, ce principe étant favorable aux entreprises puisque l'imposition de l'ensemble des opérations leur permet de déduire la totalité de la TVA qui leur est facturée. Par ailleurs, en détaxant ainsi toutes les consommations intermédiaires on garantit la neutralité de la TVA quel que soit le circuit économique emprunté. Si les textes d'application de la sixième directive du 17 mai 1977, et notamment ceux pris en droit interne français (article 256-I et 256-A du Code Général des Impôts) respectent cet objectif, ce dernier est loin d'avoir été atteint.

En effet, un certain nombre d'opérations échappent encore à la TVA interdisant par là même de déduire ou de récupérer la taxe qui les grèvent. Par ailleurs, un certain nombre d'incertitudes perdurent ce qui alimente de multiples contentieux.

Ce décalage entre la théorie, -l'objectif-, et la pratique, -la situation actuelle-, s'explique pour l'essentiel par l'attitude de la Cour de Justice des Communautés Européennes.

En effet, si dans ses décisions la CJCE rappelle inlassablement que les directives européennes ont pour but de donner à la TVA le champ d'application le plus large possible afin de respecter l'idéal de neutralité, reste que dans ces mêmes décisions, la Cour a multiplié les hypothèses dans lesquelles certaines opérations n'ont pas à être soumises à la TVA, ce qui réduit d'autant l'étendue du droit à déduction.

Cette situation pour le moins curieuse résulte notamment de la création par la Cour, d'une part, d'une distinction entre les opérations exonérées et les opérations hors champ d'application de la taxe, et d'autre part, d'une condition tenant au lien direct, condition qui dépasse la lettre de la sixième directive.

Les virements financiers internes, c'est-à-dire, les virements entre le budget principal d'une personne publique et l'un de ses budget annexe entièrement soumis à la Taxe à la Valeur Ajoutée, illustre bien la complexité de la situation actuelle. En effet, si dans ce cas, la question technique est simple : faut-il appliquer le prorata pour le calcul de la TVA déductible ? la réponse l'est beaucoup moins puisqu'elle conduit à s'interroger sur le champ d'application de

la Taxe à la Valeur Ajoutée et par delà celui-ci sur la distinction entre les opérations exonérées et les opérations hors champ d'une part et la notion de lien direct d'autre part créées par la CJCE.

A ce jour, et compte tenu des principales dispositions communautaires (1^{ère} directive du 11 avril 1967 et 6^{ème} directive du 17 mai 1977) le champ d'application de la TVA est principalement défini en droit interne français par deux dispositions du Code Général des Impôts.

- Article 256-1 : «Sont soumises à la TVA les livraisons de biens meubles et les prestations de services effectuées à titre onéreux par un assujetti agissant en tant que tel»

- Article 256-A : «Sont assujetties à la TVA les personnes qui effectuent d'une manière indépendante une des activités économiques mentionnées au 3^{ème} alinéa, quel que soit le statut juridique de ces personnes, leur situation au regard des autres impôts et la forme ou la nature de leur intervention»

Deux précisions supplémentaires s'imposent toutefois: D'une part il existe des opérations imposables autres que celles visées à l'article 256-1 : En effet l'article 257 du Code Général des Impôts soumet expressément à la TVA un certain nombre d'opérations (communément dénommées « opérations imposables par détermination de la loi ») qui, par nature, n'auraient pas été imposables ; par ailleurs les articles 260, 260-A et 260-B du Code Général des Impôts prévoient la possibilité dans certains cas limitativement énumérés d'opter pour un assujettissement à la TVA. D'autre part certaines opérations figurant dans le champ d'application de la TVA peuvent s'en trouver exclues pour des motifs divers et prendre alors la qualification d'opérations exonérées.

Ainsi par l'effet conjugué de l'ensemble de ces dispositions et s'agissant des opérations non imposables deux catégories d'opérations doivent être bien distinguées:

- Les opérations qui font partie intégrante du champ d'application de la Taxe mais qui sont exonérées.

- Les opérations qui sont en dehors du champ d'application de la taxe.

Cette 1^{ère} distinction combinée avec les dispositions de l'article 256-A du Code Général des Impôts en génère une seconde faisant apparaître de façon synthétique trois groupes de personnes :

- Les assujettis redevables : Ces assujettis ne réalisent que des opérations qui entrent dans le champ d'application de la taxe et qui sont effectivement soumises à la taxe,

- Les redevables partiels : Ces assujettis ne réalisent que des opérations entrant dans le champ d'application de la taxe, certaines d'entre elles étant toutefois exonérées ; ils réalisent donc des opérations imposables et des opérations exonérées,

- Les assujettis partiels : Ces assujettis réalisent deux types d'opérations : des opérations entrant dans le champ d'application de la taxe et des opérations hors champ d'application de cette même taxe.

Cette dernière distinction a d'importantes conséquences notamment s'agissant du droit à déduction des intéressés. En effet si un assujetti redevable peut déduire la totalité de la taxe qu'il a supportée il ne peut pas logiquement en aller de même pour les assujettis composant les deux autres catégories c'est-à-dire les redevables partiels et les assujettis partiels, lesquels réalisent certes des opérations effectivement taxables mais aussi des opérations qui n'ont pas réellement supporté la taxe. Cela étant le régime juridique applicable aux assujettis composant

ces deux dernières catégories n'est pas le même puisque, outre les opérations taxables, les uns, -les redevables partiels-, réalisent aussi des opérations faisant partie intégrante du champ d'application de la taxe mais exonérées tandis que les autres, -les assujettis partiels-, réalisent également des opérations hors champ d'application de la TVA.

Pour les uns, les redevables partiels qui ne réalisent que des opérations entrant dans le champ d'application de la taxe mais dont certaines sont exonérées, le droit à déduction est régi par deux règles, celle de l'affectation et celle du prorata. La règle de l'affectation n'est applicable qu'aux services et aux stocks. Elle entraîne les conséquences suivantes : si ces biens et services concourent exclusivement à la réalisation d'opérations soumises à la TVA, la taxe qui les a grevées est intégralement déductible ; s'ils concourent exclusivement à la réalisation d'opérations exonérées la taxe qui les a grevés n'est pas déductible ; s'ils concourent à la réalisation d'opérations dont certaines sont taxables et d'autres exonérées la taxe n'est déductible que dans la limite du prorata.

La règle du prorata, pour sa part, n'est applicable qu'à l'égard des immobilisations; celles-ci sont réputées communes à l'ensemble des opérations que celles-ci soient imposées ou exonérées ; la TVA n'est dès lors déductible que dans la limite du prorata c'est-à-dire dans la limite du rapport qui existe entre le montant du chiffre d'affaires taxable et le montant du chiffre d'affaires total de l'année ou ce qui revient au même dans la limite du rapport qui existe entre les recettes taxables et les recettes totales c'est-à-dire les recettes taxables augmentées des recettes exonérées.

Pour les autres c'est-à-dire les assujettis partiels le droit à déduction est régi par la règle dite de l'affectation physique: lorsqu'ils engagent une dépense qu'il s'agisse du paiement de frais généraux, de l'acquisition de stocks ou d'immobilisations, ils doivent déterminer quelle sera son affectation ; si le bien ou le service est affecté exclusivement à des opérations situées hors du champ d'application de la TVA, la taxe correspondante n'est pas déductible, s'il est affecté exclusivement à des opérations situées dans le champ d'application de la TVA, la taxe correspondante est déductible dans les conditions du droit commun c'est-à-dire en principe totalement, s'il est affecté à la fois à des opérations situées dans le champ d'application de la TVA et à des opérations hors champ d'application de la TVA, la TVA correspondante n'est déductible qu'en fonction d'une clé de répartition laquelle doit être bien distinguée du prorata mentionné précédemment. En effet cette clé de répartition est calculée globalement pour l'ensemble des dépenses mixtes de l'année, les critères physiques les plus courants retenus étant le temps d'utilisation du matériel commun, les salaires versés aux différents secteurs, les surfaces utilisées...

Ainsi présenté, la situation, pour compréhensible qu'elle soit n'en reste pas moins empreinte d'une certaine complexité. La réforme affectant le calcul du prorata n'a pas contribué c'est le moins qu'on puisse dire à réduire la dite complexité. Cette réforme découle directement de la 6ème directive Européenne en date du 17 mai 1977. L'article 19 de cette dernière prévoyait en effet «Calcul du prorata de déduction: 1. Le prorata de déduction, prévu par l'article 17 paragraphe 5 premier alinéa, résulte d'une fraction comportant :

- Au numérateur, le montant total, déterminé par année, du chiffre d'affaires, taxe sur la valeur ajoutée exclue, afférent aux opérations ouvrant droit à déduction conformément à l'article 17 paragraphes 2 et 3,
- Au dénominateur, le montant total, déterminé par année, du chiffre d'affaires, taxe sur la valeur ajoutée exclue, afférent aux opérations figurant au numérateur ainsi qu'aux opérations qui n'ouvrent pas droit à déduction. Les Etats membres ont la faculté d'inclure également

dans le dénominateur le montant des subventions autres que celles visées à l'article 11 sous A paragraphe 1 sous a).»

Dans cet article l'élément important est bien entendu constitué par la phrase «Les Etats membres ont la faculté d'inclure également dans le dénominateur le montant des subventions autres que celles visées à l'article 11 sous A paragraphe 1 sous a) étant observé que l'article 11 sous A paragraphe 1 sous a dispose que « A l'intérieur du pays: 1. La base d'imposition est constituée: a) pour les livraisons de biens et les prestations de services autres que celles visées sous b), c) et d), par tout ce qui constitue la contrepartie obtenue ou à obtenir par le fournisseur ou le prestataire pour ces opérations de la part de l'acheteur, du preneur ou d'un tiers, y compris les subventions directement liées au prix des opérations;». Ainsi et de façon synthétique la 6ème directive prévoyait la possibilité pour les Etats membres d'inclure au dénominateur du prorata des subventions autres que celles liées directement au prix des opérations, c'est-à-dire des opérations hors champ d'application de la taxe (les subventions liées directement au prix rentrant dans le champ d'application de la taxe à la valeur ajoutée (cf infra).

La France a usée de cette possibilité comme en témoigne le décret 94-452 relatif au droit à déduction de la TVA et modifiant l'annexe 2 du Code Général des Impôts (Journal Officiel du 05 juin 1994 page 8143), lequel contient en son article 2 les dispositions suivantes:

Art. 2. - L'article 212 de l'annexe II au code général des impôts est remplacé par les dispositions suivantes:

<< Art. 212. - 1. Les redevables qui, dans le cadre de leurs activités situées dans le champ d'application de la taxe sur la valeur ajoutée, ne réalisent pas exclusivement des opérations ouvrant droit à déduction sont autorisés à déduire une fraction de la taxe sur la valeur ajoutée qui a grevé les biens constituant des immobilisations utilisées pour effectuer ces activités.

<< Cette fraction est égale au montant de la taxe déductible obtenu, après application, le cas échéant, des dispositions de l'article 207 bis, multiplié par le rapport existant entre:

<< a) Au numérateur, le montant total annuel du chiffre d'affaires, taxe sur la valeur ajoutée exclue, afférent aux opérations ouvrant droit à déduction y compris les subventions directement liées au prix de ces opérations;

<< b) Au dénominateur, le montant total annuel du chiffre d'affaires, taxe sur la valeur ajoutée exclue, afférent aux opérations figurant au numérateur ainsi qu'aux opérations qui n'ouvrent pas droit à déduction, et de l'ensemble des subventions, y compris celles qui ne sont pas directement liées au prix de ces opérations.

<< Les sommes à mentionner aux deux termes de ce rapport s'entendent tous frais et taxes compris à l'exclusion de la taxe sur la valeur ajoutée.

<< Le rapport fixé en pourcentage est arrondi à un chiffre qui ne dépasse pas l'unité supérieure.

<< L'Etat, les collectivités locales et les établissements publics n'inscrivent les virements financiers internes provenant de leur budget qu'au seul dénominateur du rapport... >>

Dans l'article 212 nouvelle version l'élément important est la phrase suivante «Au dénominateur, le montant total annuel du chiffre d'affaires, taxe sur la valeur ajoutée exclue, afférent aux opérations figurant au numérateur ainsi qu'aux opérations qui n'ouvrent pas droit

à déduction, et de l'ensemble des subventions, y compris celles qui ne sont pas directement liées au prix de ces opérations».

Bien entendu et par application de la disposition susvisée ; «L'Etat, les collectivités locales et les établissements publics n'inscrivent les virements financiers internes provenant de leur budget qu'au seul dénominateur du rapport».

Ainsi et par l'effet conjugué de la 6^{ème} directive du 17 mai 1977 et du décret du 3 juin 1994 les virements financiers internes apparaissent désormais au dénominateur du prorata.

Cela étant en incluant au dénominateur du prorata des éléments hors champ d'application de la taxe, -les subventions qui ne sont pas directement liées au prix de ces opérations-, la réforme susvisée a doublement obscurci le panorama. En effet d'une part elle a atténué la distinction Assujetti partiel et Redevable partiel et d'autre part elle a malheureusement accrédité l'idée que la TVA déductible se calculait de la même façon pour les redevables partiels et les assujettis partiels.

Pourtant, sur le strict terrain du droit, force est de constater que ladite réforme n'a pas modifié le champ d'application de la taxe, ce qu'elle ne pouvait au demeurant pas faire; elle a simplement modifié le mode de calcul de prorata lequel ne concerne, faut il le rappeler que les redevables partiels.

Par voie de conséquence, et suite à cette réforme, les grands principes juridiques et les conséquences qui en découlent restent les mêmes qu'auparavant : Il existe toujours des redevables partiels étant observé que pour eux le mode de calcul du prorata a été modifié et des assujettis partiels qui ne sont pas concernés par ce même prorata.

C'est donc cette distinction qui constitue l'élément clé pour déterminer s'il convient d'appliquer le prorata pour le calcul de la TVA déductible en cas de virements financiers internes, étant observé que ces derniers ont été assimilés à des subventions. En effet en prévoyant que les virements financiers internes devront figurer au dénominateur du prorata, le gouvernement français a lui-même procédé à cette assimilation alors même que dans son instruction du 8 septembre 1994 l'administration considérait que les virements financiers interne ne répondaient pas à la définition des subventions car ils n'émanaient pas de tiers ; un élément de complexité de plus pour ne pas dire une contradiction de plus laquelle sera peut être soumise un jour à l'appréciation de la Cour de Justice des Communautés Européennes par la voie d'une question préjudicielle. Quoiqu'il en soit et étant rappelé que la distinction redevables partiels - assujettis partiels perdure, la situation devient plus claire.

Si le virement financier interne c'est-à-dire la subvention est une opération dans le champ d'application de la taxe mais exonérée le raisonnement doit être articulé sur la notion de redevable partiel ; si par contre le virement financier interne est hors champ d'application de la taxe c'est sur la notion d'assujetti partiel qu'il convient de s'appuyer.

A ce stade du raisonnement la question qui s'impose est donc simple du moins dans sa formulation : Les virements financiers internes entre le budget principal et un budget annexe entièrement soumis à la TVA c'est à dire la subvention du premier au second constituent ils des opérations dans le champ d'application de la taxe mais exonérées ou des opérations hors champ d'application de la taxe.

La réponse à cette question dépend non seulement des textes mais aussi et surtout de la jurisprudence de la Cour de Justice des Communautés Européennes. Les textes sont en effet très clairs : Ils sont constitués par les articles 256-1 et 256-A du Code Général des Impôts (cf supra). Mais à ces textes il convient de superposer la jurisprudence de la Cour de Justice des

Communautés Européennes laquelle a dégagé (cf supra) la notion « de lien direct ». Cette notion de lien direct est apparue pour la première fois dans une décision de la Cour de Justice des Communautés Européennes du 8 mars 1988 rendue dans l'affaire Apple and Pear Development Council.

Au termes de cet arrêt de principe il n'y a de prestations de services effectuées à titre onéreux que s'il existe un lien direct entre le service rendu et la contre valeur perçue ce qui implique que les trois conditions suivantes soient cumulativement remplies :

- Le service doit être rendu à un bénéficiaire déterminé
- Il doit être individualisé et ne pas présenter un caractère collectif
- Il doit y avoir une équivalence nécessaire entre le niveau de l'avantage retiré par le bénéficiaire et le montant de la contrepartie qu'il a reversé ; en d'autres termes, comme il s'agissait d'un prix, la contrepartie versée doit pratiquement correspondre au service rendu.

Si ces trois conditions sont remplies, l'opération est soumise à la TVA ; à contrario si l'une d'entre elle n'est pas remplie, c'est-à-dire s'il n'y a pas de lien direct, l'opération est hors champ d'application de la taxe.

Pour la plupart des entreprises il existe un lien direct entre les services qu'elles rendent et le prix qu'elles facturent. Les exclusions liées à l'absence de lien direct devraient donc rester marginales ; il en subsiste néanmoins certaines, lesquelles concernent le plus souvent des recettes spécifiques comme les subventions versées par les collectivités publiques auxquelles ont été assimilés, faut il le rappeler, les virements financiers internes. A cet égard deux catégories de subventions doivent être bien distinguées:

La première catégorie regroupe trois types de subventions:

- Les subventions d'équipement qui sont destinées à financer l'acquisition des immobilisations,
- Les subventions d'équilibre qui comblent après coup le déficit de l'organisme ou de la structure subventionnée,
- Les subventions de fonctionnement qui ont pour objet de couvrir les frais généraux de l'entreprise.

Par ces différentes subventions les collectivités publiques recherchent la satisfaction des intérêts collectifs dont elles ont la charge ; il n'y a donc pas de lien direct entre le service rendu par l'organisme ou le service subventionné et la subvention versée par la collectivité publique : l'opération est donc hors champ d'application de la taxe (voir à cet égard CE, 10 juillet 1991, req. N° 61575, CCI de Perpignan et des Pyrénées-Orientales : Dr. Fisc 1991, n°44, comm. 2121 ; voir également Syndicat mixte pour l'aménagement et l'exploitation de l'aéroport Rodez-Marcillac CE 26 novembre 1999 : Dr. Fisc, 2000, n°17, com.356, cond J. Courtial ; RJF 1/00, n°39).

A cet égard une double précision s'impose. D'une part les notions de subventions d'investissement et surtout de subventions de fonctionnement ouvrent aux intéressés une importante marge de manoeuvre s'ils désirent conserver la qualité d'assujetti partiel : en effet par définition même le cumul des dépenses d'équipement et des frais généraux correspond à une fraction importante du coût d'un bien ou d'un service. D'autre part la nature intrinsèque d'une subvention ne varie pas selon qu'elle figure dans un budget ou un compte administratif. La deuxième catégorie concerne une catégorie particulière de subventions communément dénommée subventions complément de prix.

L'article 266-1 du Code Général des Impôts précise en effet que la base d'imposition à la TVA est constituée par la contrepartie versée par le client quelque en soit la forme «y compris les subventions directement liées au prix des opérations». La situation est ici très différente puisque on se trouve en réalité en présence d'une opération tripartite mettant en présence l'organisme ou le service assujetti (celui qui livre le bien ou rend le service imposable), le bénéficiaire de l'opération est enfin une tierce personne qui assure en totalité ou en partie le règlement de la contre partie convenue ; le service n'est pas rendu à l'organisme qui verse la subvention mais au client du prestataire de service. Dans certains cas la subvention correspond au prix de l'opération ; dans d'autres elle ne correspond qu'à un complément de prix : tel est notamment le cas lorsque les collectivités publiques versent des subventions à des régies de transport urbain afin de réduire le prix qui sera demandé aux usagers. Cela étant et en toute hypothèse la subvention est considérée comme une opération taxable (voir par exemple Cour Administrative d'Appel de Nantes 31 décembre 2001 SA CAILLAUD Dr. Fisc 2002, n°14 comm 301 ; RJFS / 02, n°491). Ainsi la question : faut-il appliquer le prorata pour le calcul de la TVA déductible en cas de virement financier interne appelle une double conclusion selon la nature intrinsèque du virement financier interne assimilée à une subvention.

Soit le virement financier interne correspond à un complément de prix : dans cette hypothèse, il entre dans le champ d'application de la taxe et l'on est alors en présence soit d'un redevable total soit d'un redevable partiel avec dans ce dernier cas application du prorata pour le calcul d'une partie de sa TVA déductible. (cf supra) Soit le virement financier interne est assimilable à une subvention d'équipement, à une subvention de fonctionnement ou à une subvention d'équilibre : dans cette deuxième hypothèse le virement financier interne est hors champ d'application de la taxe. On est alors en présence d'un assujetti partiel auquel aucun prorata ne peut être appliqué. C'est ce qu'à jugé fort logiquement le Tribunal Administratif de Besançon dans son jugement du 03 juin 1999 SA INFOTONIC GIROD VALPARC c/ Directeur régional des Impôts de Franche-Comté, même si cette décision n'a pas semble-t-il été confirmée à ce jour par la juridiction suprême, le Conseil d'Etat. Cela étant un début de confirmation apparaît dans les conclusions du Commissaire du Gouvernement Courtial rendues au sujet de l'arrêt précité (CE, 26 novembre 1999 Syndicat mixte pour l'aménagement et l'exploitation de l'aéroport Rodez-Marcillac cf supra) ; dans ses conclusions le Commissaire du Gouvernement s'exprimait ainsi « *Quoiqu'il en soit, en effet une question préalable doit être examinée d'office. C'est celle du champ d'application de l'article 212 précité. La règle du prorata de déduction qu'il contient s'applique aux redevables partiels, c'est-à-dire aux assujettis qui réalisent des opérations dont les unes sont taxées et les autres exonérées. La perception de produits hors champ d'application ne saurait fonder l'applicabilité d'un prorata à un redevable assujetti à la TVA, comme en l'espèce, pour l'ensemble des opérations qu'il réalise. Dans cette affaire, aucun prorata ne peut, tout simplement, être appliqué. La solution serait la même si la période d'imposition était postérieure à l'entrée en vigueur du décret du 3 juin 1994. L'inclusion des subventions au dénominateur n'a d'effet, d'ailleurs difficilement justifiable en équité, qu'à l'égard des redevables réalisant des opérations exonérées.* »

Certes le Commissaire du gouvernement s'exprimait en l'espèce dans une affaire dont les faits étaient antérieurs à l'entrée en vigueur du décret 94-452 du 3 juin 1994. Mais comme lui on peut logiquement penser que la publication dudit texte n'est pas de nature à rendre caduque la solution dégagée dans l'arrêt précité du 26 novembre 1999. Cela étant, si la question appelle une double réponse, l'honnêteté intellectuelle conduit nécessairement à reconnaître

humblement que cette double réponse n'en est pas une puisqu'elle soulève une autre question : quelle est la véritable nature intrinsèque d'un virement financier interne.

Faute de pouvoir apporter une réponse claire à cette nouvelle question, l'auteur de ces quelques remarques ne peut que formuler un espoir : que l'harmonisation européenne en matière fiscale, les directives européennes et leur traduction en droit interne français, les jurisprudences de la CJCE et des juridictions administratives françaises débouchent à terme sur des solutions plus claires et surtout plus simples pour les principaux intéressés c'est-à-dire les contribuables.

ECONOMIC CONVERGENCE BETWEEN NECESSITY AND REALITY

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Abstract : To date, 15 out of the 27 European Union member states have adopted the euro currency. The euro space can be seen as the next step towards economic integration in a single market. The perimeter within which the euro is used as a means of payment is defined by a stable currency and reduced interest rates and inflation. The adoption of the euro currency, with the benefits it brings, requires that every country involved in this process, including Romania, fulfils certain convergence criteria. This paper intends to describe the current stage attained by the E.U. countries pursuing this objective.

Keywords: Euro, convergence criteria, Economic and Monetary Union, Exchange Rate Mechanism II

The euro is currently the currency used by 324 million people living in the euro zone countries. But the use of the euro extends greatly beyond this, as it is used increasingly as a means of payment in the countries neighboring the Eurozone, and in the former colonies. Thus, the euro is the second most used currency in the world, after the U.S. dollar.

The Maastricht Treaty established the convergence criteria each EU country must meet, as they participate in the Economic and Monetary Union.

Since the euro currency was introduced on January 1st 1999, 15 EU member states have adopted it, after fulfilling the criteria laid down in the Treaty. Consequently, the other twelve EU countries, including Romania, are not yet fully participating in the Economic and Monetary European Union. Since the United Kingdom and Denmark haven't yet pursued the adoption of the euro, studies on convergence, including those from the Central European Bank, target ten states: Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Sweden.

The convergence process must be approached dynamically, with each country analyzed for a significant period – 10 years – to highlight the real progress in the structural evolution of their respective economies.

We must observe that two of the convergence criteria set by the Treaty have to undergo especially rigorous examination. Firstly, the inflation rate for the countries wishing to adopt the euro must at most 1.5% greater than the mean inflation rate of the three states with the best performance in price stability. The lowest inflation rates between April 2007 and March 2008 were in Malta (1.5%), Holland (1.7%) and Denmark (2.0%). Thus, we have a 1.7% mean, and by adding the 1.5% we obtain a 3.2% reference value. Secondly, the long term interest rate must be within 2% of the mean of the best performing three European states. The mean interest rate for the interval we consider was 4.5%, with the best performers again Malta (4.8%), Holland (4.3%) and Denmark (4.3%). Adding the 2% margin, we arrive at the reference value of 6.5%.

		Price stability	Public finance			Exchange rate		Long term interest rate
		Inflation as measured by HICP ¹⁾	Country with excessive deficit ²⁾	Surplus (+) /deficit (-) ³⁾ of public administrations	Gross public debt ³⁾	ERM II participating currency ²⁾	Exchange rate with the euro ⁴⁾⁵⁾	Long term interest rate ¹⁾
Bulgaria	2006	7,4	-	3,0	22,7	No	0,0	4,2
	2007	7,6	No	3,4	18,2	No	0,0	4,5
	2008	9,4 ¹⁾	No ²⁾	3,2	14,1	No ²⁾	0,0 ⁴⁾	4,7 ¹⁾
Czech Republic	2006	2,1	Yes	-2,7	29,4	No	4,8	3,8
	2007	3,0	Yes	-1,6	28,7	No	2,0	4,3
	2008	4,4 ¹⁾	Yes ²⁾	-1,4	28,1	No ²⁾	8,4 ⁴⁾	4,5 ¹⁾
Estonia	2006	4,4	No	3,4	4,2	Yes	0,0	... ⁷⁾
	2007	6,7	No	2,8	3,4	Yes	0,0	... ⁷⁾
	2008	8,3 ¹⁾	No ²⁾	0,4	3,4	Yes ²⁾	0,0 ⁴⁾	... ⁷⁾
Latvia	2006	6,6	No	-0,2	10,7	Yes	0,0	4,1
	2007	10,1	No	0,0	9,7	Yes	-0,5	5,3
	2008	12,3 ¹⁾	No ²⁾	-1,1	10,0	Yes ²⁾	0,4 ⁴⁾	5,4 ¹⁾
Lithuania	2006	3,8	No	-0,5	18,2	Yes	0,0	4,1
	2007	5,8	No	-1,2	17,3	Yes	0,0	4,5
	2008	7,4 ¹⁾	No ²⁾	-1,7	17,0	Yes ²⁾	0,0 ⁴⁾	4,6 ¹⁾
Hungary	2006	4,0	Yes	-9,2	65,6	No	-6,5	7,1
	2007	7,9	Yes	-5,5	66,0	No	4,9	6,7
	2008	7,5 ¹⁾	Yes ²⁾	-4,0	66,5	No ²⁾	-2,7 ⁴⁾	6,9 ¹⁾
Poland	2006	1,3	Yes	-3,8	47,6	No	3,2	5,2
	2007	2,6	Yes	-2,0	45,2	No	2,6	5,5
	2008	3,2 ¹⁾	Yes ²⁾	-2,5	44,5	No ²⁾	6,3 ⁴⁾	5,7 ¹⁾
Romania	2006	6,6	-	-2,2	12,4	No	2,6	7,2
	2007	4,9	No	-2,5	13,0	No	5,4	7,1
	2008	5,9 ¹⁾	No ²⁾	-2,5	13,6	No ²⁾	-10,3 ⁴⁾	7,1 ¹⁾
Slovakia	2006	4,3	Yes	-3,6	30,4	Yes	3,5	4,4
	2007	1,9	Yes	-2,2	29,4	Yes	9,3 ⁶⁾	4,5
	2008	2,2 ¹⁾	Yes ²⁾	-2,0	29,2	Yes ²⁾	2,5 ⁴⁾	4,5 ¹⁾
Sweden	2006	1,5	No	2,3	45,9	No	0,3	3,7
	2007	1,7	No	3,5	40,6	No	0,0	4,2
	2008	2,0 ¹⁾	No ²⁾	2,7	35,5	No ²⁾	-1,6 ⁴⁾	4,2 ¹⁾
Reference value ⁸⁾		3,2%		-3%	60%			6,5%

Table no. 1

Source: The European Commission (Eurostat) and the ECB

1) Mean yearly percentual variation. The 2008 data covers the April- March interval.

2) At the end of the period. The data for 2008 refers to the end date from the statistical data in the convergence report (18 April 2008)

3) Percent of GDP. European Commission spring prognosis for 2008.

- 4) Mean yearly percentual variation. The 2008 data are calculated as mean percentual variation for 1 January – 18 April 2008 compared to 2007.
- 5) A positive value represents appreciation in relation to the euro, and a negative one represents depreciation.
- 6) From 19 March 2007, the central parity of the Slovakian crown in the ERM II was increased by 8.5%.
- 7) Long term interest rate for Estonia is not available.
- 8) The reference value covers the April 2007 – March 2008 interval for the inflation as measured by the HICP and for long term interest rates, and 2007 for the budget surplus/deficit.

Regarding the exchange rate stability, the respective country's participation to the ERM II is analyzed, as it is required that its currency has not experienced serious devaluation in reference to the euro in the two years prior to joining the Monetary Union.

The convergence criteria targeting fiscal evolution refer to the public debt and budget deficit. The public debt's weight in the GDP must be below 60%, except from the case when it sufficiently diminishes and adequately approaches the reference value. On the other hand, the budget deficit's weight must not exceed 3% of the GDP, in current prices. Exceptions are admitted when the reference value is not substantially exceeded, in an exceptional and temporary manner.

Concerning price stability, in the analyzed time frame (April 2007 – March 2008), only two (Slovakia and Sweden) of the 10 countries aspiring to adopt the euro have had yearly mean inflation rates under the reference level. Another 7 member states recorded levels over the reference value, with Latvia, Bulgaria and Estonia as serious offenders. A value equal to the reference one (3.2%) was recorded in Poland. The inflation rates' growth trends are caused both by the prospect of higher food and energy prices and the national currencies' devaluation in reference to the euro.

Taking into consideration the long term interest rate criterion for the analyzed interval, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Sweden recorded values below the reference level (6.5%). Romania (7.1%) and Hungary (6.9%) are the countries that overshoot the reference value. The sustained high interest rates are due mainly to substantial current account deficit in Romania's case, and budget deficit for Hungary. Concerning Estonia, because a monetary market for bonds in national currency does not exist, and the public debt is low, the long term interest rate cannot be quantified.

Regarding the exchange rate criterion, not all 10 countries under analysis are part of the ERM II. Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovakia participate to the ERM II. They undertook several responsibilities towards maintaining the wage growth below the increase in productivity, keeping the credit growth within acceptable limits, and promoting a durable fiscal policy, while continuing the structural reforms. The respective countries have unilaterally agreed to maintain narrower fluctuation bands. A particular case is Slovakia's, which intends to adopt the euro from 1 January 2009. In the analyzed time frame, it experienced temporary pressures towards appreciation, which drove the Slovakian central bank to successive sales of national currency for euro. Thus, both the exchange rate volatility and the significant foreign exchange market tensions have been attenuated. From 19 March 2007 as requested by the Slovakian authorities, the Slovakian crown has gained 8.5% in reference to the euro, with a 35.4424 crowns/1 euro exchange rate. Of the 6 countries that do not participate to the ERM II, only two (the Czech Republic and Poland) have recorded stronger national currencies compared to the euro. The Bulgarian leva maintained a fixed parity with the euro, as a result of the monetary council's regime of having the euro as the

reference currency. In Sweden, the national currency lost a little ground to the euro, and in Hungary and Romania the forint and the leu had a fluctuating evolution, with a generally depreciation trend.

Concerning the budget deficit's share in the GDP, only Hungary exceeded the 3% level. Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia, Poland and the Czech Republic recorded values below the reference one. Latvia had an equilibrium budget, while Sweden, Estonia and Bulgaria had a budget excedent. The predictions offer little encouragement for Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and especially Hungary.

The public debt situation can be seen positively. Thus, nine of the ten countries under analysis recorded public debt shares in the GDP below the reference value of 60%, with the sole exception being Hungary, with its public debt amounting to 66% of the GDP.

Public debt increases in 2008 are estimated for Hungary, Romania and Latvia. The other countries are expected to diminish it, or maintain a steady level.

For Romania, the adoption of the euro is a particularly special process. On one hand, belonging to the euro zone is a symbol of adherence to European values, on the other it is a political and economic advantage. The European currency is stable, and in the space of its use it contributes to lowering inflation rates and promoting decreased interest rates. By using the single currency the prices can be more transparent, currency exchange costs and risks eliminated, and foreign trade stimulated.

According to statistical data for the current decade, in Romania there has been constant deflation, while the GDP has grown significantly. In January-July 2007, the yearly inflation rate was 4.0%, growing to 8.7% in March 2008. This last figure, significantly higher than the 3.2% reference value, was due to increased food and raw materials prices, the depreciation of the leu, and wages growing faster than work productivity. For 2009 the forecasted inflation rate is 5%, based on the international prices growth trend.

In the last years, the RON was traded under a flexible exchange rate regime. If in the first half of 2006 the RON was considerably depreciated, the end of the same year saw a visible appreciation compared to the euro. Beginning with August 2007, while the inflation and commercial balance deficit grew, the exchange rate depreciated significantly, with the leu experiencing somewhat of a comeback in the first months of 2008, when it recorded exchange rates with the euro higher than the last two years.

After 2000, Romania experienced an increasingly open economy, as this indicator grew from 70% in 2000 to the 80% current value. We observe that most Romanian exports and imports target the EU countries. Nevertheless, in the last three years Romania recorded a strong increase in current account deficit and payment balance capital, which had a bigger than 10% share of the GDP. This high deficit, sustained for several years, is a serious problem for Romania, accentuated by the decreasing trend in foreign investment in our country's economy.

The Romanian exports structure is inadequate to the necessities imposed by the convergence process, and Romania falls into category of the EU countries neighboring the euro zone, respectively the economies that specialize in work-intensive goods production. For years, Romania has exported mainly goods manufactured under lohn and metallurgy products, mostly inferior steels. This situation has improved, and Romania currently exports equipment, machines and vehicles, from high added value industrial sectors.

The introduction of the euro led to the foundation of the Central European Bank, which together with the national banks of member states that adopted the euro, is responsible for promoting the monetary policy. The Romanian legislative framework doesn't provide all requirements for the independence and legal integrity of the national bank, and the

Eurosystem. While Romania is benefiting from derogatory measures in this field, it must undertake the necessary efforts to harmonize the national law with the EU regulations.

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KEYNES AND THE GERMAN ECONOMISTS IN THE 1930'S

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Abstract: The paper below presents aspects concerning the reception of the Keynesian thought in Germany in the 1930s. It is builded on a various bibliography and brings contributes to the subject.

Keywords: Keynes, thought

En Grande Bretagne, l'apparition d'un groupe d'adeptes et par la suite d'un courant distinct d'orientation keynésienne s'est déroulée pendant la plupart des années 1930. Jusque vers la fin de la décennie il y avait un nombre signifiant d'économistes britanniques et anglophones qui avaient adhéré à la nouvelle théorie keynésienne, appelée aussi *New Economics*.

Dans la zone d'expression allemande, le keynésianisme a trouvé un terrain solide, préparé pour son apparition et son développement. D'ailleurs, ce fait était connu par Keynes même, qui invoquait deux facteurs principaux pour expliquer le phénomène.

Le premier facteur était la prééminence, depuis longtemps, des approches non libérales. L'économiste britannique constatait qu'« en Allemagne, il y a eu depuis toujours des écoles économiques importantes, qui ont remis en question la capacité de la théorie classique d'expliquer des événements contemporains. La plupart des écoles économiques allemandes n'ont pas adhéré ni au libéralisme, ni au marxisme. »¹

Le second facteur est la prédilection pour les approches historique et inductive-intuitive des phénomènes économiques et, implicitement, le manque de préoccupation pour l'analyse théorique. Keynes soutenait qu'« on ne peut pas affirmer que ces écoles économiques ont réalisé une construction théorique alternative, ni même qu'ils ont essayé de le faire ... Tout au long d'un siècle, l'Allemagne s'est contentée ... de se débrouiller sans une théorie économique prédominante, formellement reconnue par tout le monde. »²

Le nom de J.M. Keynes était devenu familier à l'opinion publique allemande longtemps avant la réception de sa doctrine. L'économiste britannique avait visité la République-Reich peu après la fin de la première guerre mondiale, en en sa qualité de membre de la délégation de paix britannique. Puisqu'il désavouait la politique des officiels britanniques, Keynes avait démissionné de sa position. Son geste a été très médiatisé. Par ailleurs, il avait publié pendant la même année 1919 l'essai *The Economic Consequences of the Peace* (Les conséquences économiques de la paix), qui avait été édité tout de suite en version allemande. En essence, Keynes soutenait que le retour aux politiques d'avant la guerre de non intervention de l'État dans la vie économique était inacceptable du point de vue social et que l'imposition à l'Allemande vaincue de réparations de guerre exagérées aurait déséquilibré la carte économique et politique de l'Europe et aurait conduit à l'ascension des forces revanchardes allemandes. Son livre a bénéficié d'un accueil chaleureux dans les milieux politiques et culturels allemands.

¹ J. M. Keynes, *Allgemeine Theorie der Beschäftigung, des Zinses und des Geldes* (Théorie générale de l'occupation, de l'intérêt et de l'argent), *Vorwort zur deutschen Ausgabe* (Avant-propos de l'édition allemande), 9e édition, Berlin, 2002, p. VIII.

² *Ibidem*, p. VIII-IX.

Au fur et à mesure de leur élaboration, les principaux ouvrages de politique et de théorie économique de Keynes ont été traduits et commentés en Allemagne. *A Treatise on Monetary Reform* (Traité sur la réforme monétaire), paru en 1923, a été édité en allemand en 1924 à Munich et Leipzig, sous le titre *Ein Traktat über Währungsreform*.

Le suivant ouvrage de Keynes, *A Treatise on Money* (Traité sur la monnaie), est paru en 1930 à Londres, en deux volumes. Il a été traduit et publié en allemand à Munich et à Leipzig en 1932, sous le titre *Vom Gelde*.

Dans son édition allemande, le livre a connu une large diffusion dans les cercles académiques. Des chapitres entiers et des extraits du livre allaient paraître dans la presse économique : Robert Friedländer-Precht, l'éditeur de « *Wirtschafts-Wende* », a reproduit la partie sur les économies et les investissements, tandis que le traducteur du livre, Carl Krämer, éditorialiste de « *Wirtschaftsdienst* », a recensé les principaux chapitres du livre.

Les économistes libéraux manifestaient de la méfiance vis-à-vis des solutions proposées par Keynes. F.A. von Hayek, A. Weber, H. Maier et d'autres ont publié des recensions dans lesquelles ils rejetaient tant les prémisses que les solutions de Keynes. Les commentaires critiques du journaliste économique Alfred Lansburgh, éditeur de la revue « *Die Bank* », ont été très appréciés. Ils offraient une perspective critique du livre de Keynes en général et de l'adoption d'une politique de crédit expansive en particulier. En échange, les néo-historiens ont accueilli la démarche de Keynes avec intérêt, même avec sympathie parfois. Edgar Salin considérait cet ouvrage comme étant le meilleur de Keynes, tandis que K. Brinkmann le recommandait chaleureusement pour l'étude dans les universités allemandes.³

L'édition princeps de l'ouvrage célèbre de Keynes, *The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money* (Théorie générale sur l'emploi, l'intérêt et la monnaie), est parue à Londres en 1936. La variante allemande, traduite par l'économiste Fritz Waeger, a été publiée en octobre 1936 sous le titre *Allgemeine Theorie der Beschäftigung, des Zinses und des Geldes*. Le livre a été réédité jusqu'à présent en neuf éditions allemandes, parues à un intervalle moyen de 7-8 ans, ce qui démontre l'intérêt pour la pensée économique keynésienne.⁴

Parue dans les conditions de la prépondérance de l'idéologie nazie dans la pensée économique allemande, l'ouvrage de Keynes a eu un accueil relativement discret. Les économistes d'orientation libérale, tant ceux qui sont restés en Allemagne que ceux exilés, tels que A. Weber, W. Röpke, A. Hahn, W. Gestrich ou les historiens A. Forstmann et K. Peter ont généralement rejeté la démarche keynésienne. Gestrich attirait l'attention sur « le nouveau réformisme », annoncé par la politique économique recommandée par Keynes⁵. Forstmann considérait que l'attention dont réjouissait l'ouvrage de Keynes était exagérée, tandis que Hahn considérait le livre comme une véritable régression tant par rapport aux ouvrages des néo-classiques que par rapport aux ouvrages antérieurs de Keynes⁶.

Quant aux économistes nazis, ils avaient adopté des positions critiques nuancées. H. Moeller notait que l'économiste britannique n'avait connaissance et n'avait pas anticipé les politiques économiques de l'Allemagne, qui, à son avis, avaient déjà résolu les problèmes analysés. Pour discréditer Keynes, A. Pöschl faisait des références critiques à ses collaborateurs scientifiques d'origine juive et considérait toute son œuvre comme le produit

³ H. Janssen, *Nationalökonomie und Nationalsozialismus* (Économie politique et national-socialisme), Marburg, 2000, p. 293-296.

⁴ Les éditions allemandes ont paru en 1936, 1952, 1955, 1966, 1974, 1983, 1994, 2000 et 2002.

⁵ H. Gestrich, *Keynes und die Nationalökonomie* (Keynes et l'économie politique), en *Kredit und Sparen* (Crédit et épargne), 2e édition, Bad Godesberg, 1947, p. 180.

⁶ L.A. Hahn, *Grundirrtümer in Lord Keynes' General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money* (Erreurs fondamentales dans la Théorie générale sur l'emploi, l'intérêt et la monnaie), en « *Ordo* », 2, Bad Godesberg, 1949, p. 190-191.

de l'esprit anglo-judaïque. Enfin, A. Görner et G. von Eynern se proposaient de « récupérer » Keynes en le rattachant de manière forcée à G. Feder, l'un des idéologues du nazisme⁷.

Les seules appréciations venaient de la part des keynésiens W. Lautenbach, K. Föhl, E. Lukas et d'autres économistes de stature scientifique plus modérée. Lautenbach considérait l'ouvrage comme une synthèse annonçant une nouvelle théorie économique. Föhl, qui était engrainé dans une controverse scientifique avec H. Peter sur ce thème, considérait Schumpeter comme le précurseur direct de Keynes et des keynésiens allemands. Lukas – qui élaborait à l'époque une théorie sur la monnaie différente de celle de Keynes – considérait les recommandations de ce dernier comme adaptées pour une économie libérale en crise, sans pourtant contester leur importance⁸.

Dans la pensée économique allemande de la première partie des années 1930, on a formulé des constations et des solutions reflétant une perspective sur l'économie semblable à celle de Keynes. Et ce fût même avant et puis en parallèle avec l'assimilation des idées keynésiennes originales. Les promoteurs de cette vision, nommés à l'époque des *réformistes*, provenaient surtout des rangs des historiens récents, des corporatistes et des socialistes religieux. Tout en préservant leur identité doctrinaire et les instruments conceptuels et méthodologiques propres, ils ont élaboré en commun plusieurs documents placés dans l'aire de la troisième voie économique, proposant des solutions aux crises et aux dysfonctionnements de l'économie de marché.

Les réformistes ont été ultérieurement appelés *pré-keynésiens*, terme introduit dans la littérature allemande de spécialité par Jorg Ohl en 1952⁹. Ohl constatait le parallélisme évident entre la théorie de l'emploi de Keynes et celle allemande des années 1930. Afin de documenter l'existence de ce parallélisme et d'une vision keynésienne chez les économistes allemands réformistes en général, on a publié une collection de textes commentés sous le titre générique *Der Keynesianismus* (Le Keynésianisme), avec un titre secondaire pour chacun des quatre tomes. Parmi ces tomes, le second et le troisième reproduisent des textes du débat public concernant l'emploi et la monnaie¹⁰.

Le déclenchement de la crise économique en 1929 et, par conséquence, la baisse du volume de la production, l'augmentation du taux du chômage en Allemagne ont déterminé les autorités à créer la Commission Brauns pour débattre le problème du chômage. Les membres de cette commission étaient, entre autres, les économistes E. Heimann, W. Röpke et W. Lautenbach. La seconde partie du rapport de la commission, intitulé *Bekämpfung der Arbeitslosigkeit durch Arbeitsbeschaffung* (Combattre le chômage par la création d'emplois), considérait le chômage apparu pendant la crise comme l'effet d'une offre excédentaire de force de travail dans le secteur des biens d'investissement enregistrée pendant la période de développement économique qui avait précédé la crise. L'expansion du crédit apparaissait comme une condition indispensable, mais insuffisante, pour améliorer la conjoncture

⁷ H. Janssen, *op.cit.*, p. 295-301.

⁸ W. Lautenbach, *Der Streit um J.M. Keynes Theorie*, cité d'après H. Janssen, *op. cit.*, p. 299.

⁹ J. Ohl, *Keynesianismus ohne Keynes* (Keynésianisme sans Keynes), Tübingen, 1952, p. 16 et suivantes.

¹⁰ *Der Keynesianismus II. Die beschäftigungspolitische Diskussion von Keynes in Deutschland. Dokumente und Kommentare* hg. v. Gottfried Bombach, Hans-Jürgen Ramser, Manfred Timmermann, Walter Wittman (Le Keynésianisme II. Discussion sur la politique de l'emploi en Allemagne avant Keynes, édité par Gottfried Bombach, Hans-Jürgen Ramser, Manfred Timmermann, Walter Wittman), Berlin, New York, 1976 et *Der Keynesianismus III. Die geld- und beschäftigungstheoretische Diskussion in Deutschland zur Zeit von Keynes* hg. v. Gottfried Bombach, Karl-Bernhard Netzband, Hans-Jürgen Ramser, Manfred Timmermann (Le Keynésianisme III. Discussion théorique sur la politique de l'emploi et l'argent en Allemagne pendant Keynes, édité par Gottfried Bombach, Karl-Bernhard Netzband, Hans-Jürgen Ramser, Manfred Timmermann), Berlin, Heidelberg, New York, 1981.

économique. À propos de cette idée, les auteurs faisaient référence au *Treatise on Money*, disponible à l'époque seulement dans sa version en anglais.

Dans la période suivante, pour renforcer leur démarche, les réformistes se sont rapprochés des coryphées de la pensée économique historique récente – W. Sombart, E. Wagemann, O. von Zwiedineck-Südenhorst et d'autres. Afin d'avoir un forum permanent de débats, ils ont constitué vers la fin de l'année 1931 *Studiengesellschaft für Geld- und Kreditwirtschaft* (La société d'études sur la monnaie et le crédit). Lors de ces discussions, est ressorti le besoin d'un changement profond du système économique et non seulement la mise en place de plans sectoriels.

L'ouvrage le plus important inspiré par les débats dans le cadre de la Société d'études serait le Programme de réforme monétaire et du crédit, présenté par E. Wagemann en janvier 1932. La crise économique se manifestait par une crise du crédit, donc il fallait la combattre par des mesures radicales. En essence, le plan Wagemann proposait d'extraire la somme de 3 milliards de Deutsch marks, appelée *Konsumentengeld* (Argent des consommateurs), de la réserve obligatoire correspondant à l'émission monétaire de la Banque Nationale et de la remplacer par des titres d'endettement. La somme devenue disponible de cette manière allait être utilisée pour financer des travaux publics, visant surtout la création d'emplois. S'adressant au grand public, le Plan Wagemann a été très populaire, étant soumis pour adoption par le gouvernement et discuté dans les milieux universitaires et dans la presse. Néanmoins, les autorités l'ont rejeté par peur d'une réaction hostile de la part des créanciers externes.

Le plan a été mal reçu par un grand nombre d'économistes du milieu académique. Fait sans précédent, le « *Kölnische Zeitung* » publiait le 9 mai 1932 un appel public contre le plan, signé par 32 professeurs des universités provenant de toutes les générations et ayant des orientations idéologiques diverses (historiens, marxistes, libéraux), parmi lesquels A. Gerloff, W. Prion, F. Eulenburg, K. Landauer, G. Stolper et A. Hahn. La revue « *Deutscher Volkswirt* » (L'économiste allemand) a publié une série d'articles contre le plan Wagemann. Ultérieurement, un supplément de la publication a été édité, contenant des articles de G. Stolper, K. Landauer et A. Hahn.

Après l'instauration du régime nazi, certains économistes pré-keynésiens ont été persécutés, ainsi ils ont choisi l'exile (E. Grotkopp, E. Schneider, R. Dalberg) ou ont accepté d'être marginalisés. Parmi ceux qui ont poursuivi leur activité en Allemagne, la plupart ont dû faire des compromissions face à l'idéologie nazie (H. Dräger, W. Grävell, O. Donner, C. Föhl).

La relation entre le keynésianisme et la pensée économique nazie est controversée dans la littérature allemande de spécialité. Selon certaines opinions, les économistes nazis avaient accepté des recommandations d'inspiration keynésienne à propos du combat contre le chômage, la manœuvre du taux d'intérêt, l'initiation de travaux publics d'inspiration keynésienne, sans toutefois l'admettre de manière explicite. Selon d'autres opinions, toutes les doctrines économiques interventionnistes (tels le keynésianisme et la doctrine économique nazie) ont des éléments communs en ce qui concerne le rôle de l'État dans l'économie. Enfin, on peut constater des différences sensibles entre les recommandations de politique économique faites par les représentants des deux doctrines.

ROMANIAN ECONOMIC INSTITUTE - ORGANIZATION AND CONCERNS

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Abstract: The Romanian Economic Institute (IER) has worked in Bucharest in the period 1921 to 1946. Its activity has three components: documentation, scientific and publishing. Among his collaborators, there are the most prestigious economists of the period between the wars. This book represents a first attempt to present the concerns and results of the work of the IER

Keywords: The Romanian Economic Institute, Virgil Magearu

L'Institut Economique Roumain (I.E.R.) a fonctionné à Bucarest dans la période de 1921 à 1946. Parmi ses collaborateurs, on peut compter les plus prestigieux économistes de la période d'entre les deux guerres. Malgré tout cela, le nom de l'I.E.R. est pratiquement inconnu, non seulement pour le grand public, mais aussi pour les spécialistes de nos jours. Le présent ouvrage représente un premier essai de présentation des préoccupations et des résultats de l'activité de l'I.E.R.

Sa création s'est passée dans le contexte interne et international de la période immédiatement consécutive à la fin de la première guerre mondiale : l'union des territoires habités par le peuple roumain dans un Etat national unitaire, au cours de l'année 1918 et l'ouverture d'une perspective de développement économiques plus fort de la Roumanie dans la période suivante.

La nouvelle institution se proposait de combler un écart dans la relation entre le milieu d'affaires, les analystes du phénomène économique (chercheurs et journalistes) et le public concerné au niveau national et international. Ses préoccupations suivaient trois axes majeures : documentation – publication – diffusion, axes que nous explorerons ci-après.

Le contexte qui a accéléré le processus de création de l'I.E.R. est lié au besoin du public roumain de mieux connaître le potentiel économique des entreprises situées dans les nouvelles régions du pays unifié. D'autres facteurs en ont été l'augmentation de la complexité de la vie économique pendant et après la première guerre mondiale, ainsi que l'existence d'instituts similaires dans d'autres pays.

Les causes immédiates de sa création se retrouvent dans l'augmentation de la complexité de la vie économique après la première guerre mondiale, d'une part, et dans les perspectives d'un développement plus fort de la Roumanie dans la période suivante, de l'autre part.

L'initiative proprement dite appartient à la Banque Nationale de la Roumanie (B.N.R.), qui a bénéficié du concours du secteur privé, représenté par 50 entreprises industrielles bancaires et commerciales roumaines¹¹. En qualité de sponsor principal, la

¹¹ Parmi celles-ci, on peut compter, dans l'ordre décroissant de leur contribution matérielle, les entreprises suivantes: Le Crédit National Industriel de Bucarest ; Les Usines à Fer et les Domaines de Reșița, Bucarest ; La Banque Roumaine de Bucarest ; Petroșani S.A de Bucarest ; Astra Wagons, Bucarest-Arad ; La maison d'édition Cartea Românească, Bucarest ; Albina, Sibiu ; La société du Bâtiment Roumain, Bucarest ; Letea – la première société roumaine de fabrication du papier, Bucarest ; L'Institut National de la Coopération, Bucarest ; La Banque Commerciale Italienne et Roumaine, Bucarest ; La Banque Urbaine, Bucarest ; Leonida & Co, Bucarest ; La Société Nationale d'Assurances S.A, Bucarest ; La Banque Commerciale Roumaine, Bucarest ; Mărășești S.A.R., Bucarest ; La Société Agricole Foncière, Bucarest ; La Banque Commerciale, Turnu Severin ;

B.N.R. versait au compte de l'I.E.R. une subvention annuelle, qui a augmenté progressivement de 500.000 lei en 1922 à 1 million lei en 1928 et les années suivants, jusqu'à 3 millions lei en 1945. De même, la B.N.R. payait la cotisation de membre de l'I.E.R. de 25.000 lei et supportait des frais permanents ou occasionnels de celui-ci (loyers¹², différentes dotations¹³ et autres).

L'Etat roumain a contribué au soutien de l'activité de l'I.E.R. par une subvention annuelle, qui représentait une reconnaissance publique de son utilité et de son importance pour la culture économique. La subvention a été de 200.000 lei entre 1924 – 1928, puis elle a été réduite à 100.000 lei en 1929 et ensuite suspendue en 1932, dû aux « grandes difficultés auxquelles se confrontait le budget d'Etat »¹⁴. L'institut n'a jamais compté sur des sources publiques de financement et a reçu avec compréhension la nouvelle de suspension de la subvention d'Etat.

Après discussions préliminaires pendant l'année 1920, ont été convenus les principaux aspects concernant la constitution de l'I.E.R. L'acte de société pour sa création a été signé par les initiateurs le 4 janvier 1921. L'I.E.R. a été enregistré au Registre des Firmes Sociales du Tribunal Commercial Ilfov le 16 janvier 1921. Les actes constitutifs (l'acte de société et les statuts) ont été publiés au Journal Officiel le 9 mars 1921, date qui marque le moment de début de son activité.

La nouvelle institution a été hébergée provisoirement, entre 1921 et 1923, au siège central de la B.N.R. de la rue Doamnei, dans la salle de bibliothèque au rez-de-chaussée. Ensuite, au fur et à mesure qu'il s'est développé, l'I.E.R. a occupé d'autres espaces dans le même bâtiment. Entre 1930 et 1933, l'Institut a fonctionné dans l'immeuble B.N.R. situé au no 8, rue Doamnei. Ensuite, la direction de la B.N.R. a loué d'autres espaces au 11 Bd. Brătianu (entre 1933-1935) et au no 1 rue G.G. Assan, pendant les dernières années d'activité.

L'activité de l'I.E.R. a été influencée de manière négative par cette incapacité de trouver une solution pour le siège (l'I.E.R. a déménagé six fois pendant deux décennies et demi). Chaque déménagement impliquait une interruption de l'activité de minimum 2-3 mois et la détérioration partielle du matériel documentaire, spécialement des publications périodiques et des fiches de bibliothèque.

L'Institut a fonctionné sous la forme juridique d'une firme sociale à intérêt public. Ses structures de direction et de contrôle étaient le Conseil d'Administration, la Direction et le Comité de Censeurs.

L'industrie Roumaine du Pétrole, Bucarest ; La société Bancaire Roumaine, Bucarest ; La Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie, Bucarest ; La Caisse Générale des Dépôts, Braşov ; Le Crédit Foncier Urbain, Bucarest ; Le Crédit Minier, Bucarest ; La Banque du Marché, Bucarest ; La S.A.R. pour la fabrication et le commerce du papier, Scăeni ; La Banque de Piteşti, Piteşti ; La Banque du Commerce et de l'Industrie, Arad ; La Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie, Brăila ; Le Carton Roumain, Commune Vama – Câmpulung ; Le Crédit pour les Entreprises Electriques, Bucarest ; La Société Anonyme d'Electricité, Arad ; Les Chemins de fer Electriques, Arad ; Aluta S.A., Slatina ; Andreescu & Fils Industrie Céramique, Craiova ; La Banque d'Escompte de la Roumanie, Bucarest ; Bancotescu & Nicolau, Bucarest ; Les Entreprises Erhard Wolff, Bucarest ; *L'Institut Economique Roumain, Rapport du Conseil d'Administration et de Censeurs à l'Assemblée Générale ordinaire des membres au 12 octobre 1941*, Bucarest, 1941, p. 33.

¹² Archives B.N.R., *Fonds du Conseil d'Administration de la B.N.R.*, dossier 226/1931, séance du Conseil d'Administration de 16.03.1931. Approuve l'exonération du paiement du loyer par l'I.E.R. pour l'ancien Institut « Zaharia », où il siégeait.

¹³ Archives B.N.R., *Fonds du Conseil d'Administration de la B.N.R.*, dossier 220/1930, séance du Conseil d'Administration de 23.12.1930. Approuve la prise en charge par la B.N.R. de la valeur de deux supports de séparation pour la salle de lecture, évalués à 26.056,60 lei.

¹⁴ *L'Institut Economique Roumain, Rapport du Conseil d'Administration et de Censeurs à l'Assemblée Générale ordinaire des membres au 12 octobre 1941*, Bucarest, 1941, p. 32-33.

Le long des années, le Conseil d'Administration a compté parmi ses membres des personnalités reconnues de la vie scientifique et publique de la période d'entre les deux guerres, telles que : Constantin Băicoianu, Leonida Colescu, Mitiță Constantinescu, Victor Slăvescu, Victor Bădulescu, Gheorghe Cipăianu, Ion Lepedatu, Costin Stoicescu, Constant Georgescu, Cornel Casassovici. La fonction de directeur de l'Institut a été occupée par le professeur et le juriste Gheron Netta. Parmi les censeurs, on rencontre les noms d'économistes en cours de consécration, parmi lesquels on mentionne Lazăr Ionescu, Dimitrie P. Pascu, Caius Bardoși, Gheorghe Ianăș et beaucoup d'autres.

Les membres de l'I.E.R. étaient, pour la plupart, de jeunes intellectuels (docteurs, diplômés ou étudiants) économistes, ingénieurs, sociologues, juristes, historiens et d'autres. En moyenne, l'Institut a enregistré entre 500 et 800 membres.

Voyant les noms énumérés ci-dessus, la direction de l'I.E.R. était assurée par de nombreux dignitaires ou militants du Parti National-Libéral, ce qui place l'Institut parmi les institutions situées dans la sphère d'influence de ce parti. Par ailleurs, pendant l'époque, on considérait que la création ultérieure de l'Institut Roumain d'Etude de la Conjoncture Economique par l'économiste V. Madgearu, l'un des leaders du Parti National Paysan, a eu pour but la création d'un contre-poids à l'influence de l'I.E.R. sur les jeunes économistes qui n'étaient pas engagés politiquement.

L'activité de documentation découlait de la stipulation statutaire concernant la collecte et la coordination de tous les ouvrages nécessaires « pour être toujours au courant avec le mouvement économique et financier »¹⁵. Les instruments pour accomplir cet objectif ont été la bibliothèque, l'archive documentaire et le service des informations économiques.

La bibliothèque était structurée en deux sections : livres et revues scientifiques.

Le fonds de livres a été collecté principalement par acquisition de fonds propres et, dans une moindre mesure, par des donations. Les livres abordaient prioritairement des thèmes concernant la vie économique roumaine et/ou étrangère, qui présentaient un intérêt pour les économistes roumains. Le fonds de livres a augmenté de manière significative pendant toute la durée de l'activité de l'Institut, jusqu'à environ 30.000 volumes en 1944.

Le fonds de revues scientifiques a été collecté surtout par des échanges interne et international de publications et, de manière isolée, par acquisitions. Parmi les revues, il y avait tant des publications destinées au milieu académique, que des publications s'adressant aux cercles d'affaires et au grand public. En 1940, les publications scientifiques comptaient 63 revues roumaines et 245 revues étrangères.

Afin de faciliter la consultation du fonds de la bibliothèque, une cartothèque bibliographique a été organisée et perfectionnée le long des années. Elle contenait cinq grands fichiers, qui inventoriaient le fonds de livres et de revues par auteurs et par thèmes.

Pour la mise à jour de la documentation bibliographique, l'Institut gardait des relations permanentes avec l'Institut Bibliographique de Bruxelles, avec les éditeurs des bibliographies générales d'Allemagne, de France et d'Italie, ainsi qu'avec l'éditeur de la bibliographie économique d'Allemagne.

La recherche du fonds documentaire se déroulait soit dans la salle de lecture de l'I.E.R. (la moyenne de la période 1931 – 1940 a été de 5500 lecteurs, qui ont consulté environ 20.000 publications), soit par des emprunts.

La diffusion du matériel documentaire au sein de la masse de lecteurs a été facilitée par l'édition de la « Bibliographie économique roumaine », un répertoire bibliographique des ouvrages à caractère économique (livres, revues, brochures, etc.) publiées en Roumanie. Elle

¹⁵ I.E.R., *op.cit.*, p. 6.

apparaissait depuis 1921 sous la forme d'un annuaire dont chaque volume avait entre 90 et 280 pages.

L'archive documentaire comprenait la presse quotidienne, dépouillée et inventoriée. En pratique, cela signifie que les articles qui présentaient un intérêt concernant la problématique économique étaient découpées, transformées en fiches et archivées chronologiquement par thèmes. Les opérations de fichage et d'archivage visaient 20 divisions et 332 sous-divisions¹⁶.

Après environ deux décennies et demi d'accumulation permanente, l'archive documentaire de l'I.E.R. est arrivé à plus de 1,3 millions d'articles inventoriés, classés par thèmes, au total 1500 boîtes. À part ce fonds, l'archive contenait des références de presse concernant la vie et l'activité d'environ 1000 personnalités de la vie publique nationale et internationale.

En réponse à un objectif important de son activité, l'Institut Economique Roumain a organisé un service d'informations commerciales, qui concernait surtout l'activité des principales entreprises économiques roumaines ou étrangères présentes en Roumanie. Les informations étaient communiquées périodiquement par les entreprises mêmes (actes constitutifs, statuts et leurs modifications, bilans, comptes-rendus, décisions des assemblés générales etc.) ou par les correspondants de l'Institut dans le pays ou à l'étranger ou bien par les entreprises, qui recevaient des questionnaires à remplir.

L'activité de publication concerne l'édition de publications périodiques, de séries thématiques, ainsi que la rédaction d'une bibliographie thématique.

La publication périodique la plus importante a été « Le Bulletin de l'Institut Economique Roumain », qui paraissait en 4 numéros annuellement, totalisant entre 600 et 1000 pages. Editée régulièrement entre 1922 et 1942, cette publication était l'instrument principal de liaison entre l'Institut, ses collaborateurs et le public intéressé.

Dans le cadre de chaque numéro, le matériel était organisé en quatre chapitres distincts : études de spécialité, revue de la presse économique, statistique économique, comptes rendus et recensions.

Les études de spécialité originales couvraient une thématique large de toute la sphère économique. Plus de 500 études ont été publiées dans la revue.

La revue (nommée, d'une manière impropre, l'archive) de la presse économique publiait, in extenso ou en résumé, des ouvrages de spécialité parus dans des publications économiques étrangères.

Les tableaux statistiques présentaient aux lecteurs l'évolution des principaux indicateurs macroéconomiques de la Roumanie et d'autres pays (concernant le commerce extérieur, la balance des paiements extérieurs, la production industrielle, la production et le commerce des produits agricoles, l'occupation de la force de travail et d'autres). Cette démarche, bien que limitée, du Bulletin est méritoire, dans les conditions où il n'y avait pas d'organismes internationaux (exceptant les institutions du système de la Ligue des Nations) chargées de collecter, traiter et publier de telles catégories de données statistiques.

Les comptes rendus et les recensions étaient censés informer le public roumain sur les principaux livres et publications et périodiques à profil économique. Parmi les recenseurs, on compte tant des personnalités importantes des sciences économiques, que de jeunes en

¹⁶ Les divisions de l'archive documentaire étaient: A. Littérature économique et sociale ; B. Actualité à caractère général sur différents pays et territoires ; C. Population ; D. Hygiène sociale ; E. Histoire économique ; F. Politique ; G. Législation ; H. Administration ; I. Finance ; J. Economie politique ; K. Agriculture ; L. Mines ; M. Industrie ; N. Commerce ; O. Transports ; P. Monnaie ; R. Travail ; S. Assurances ; T. Education professionnelle ; U. Divers dossiers spéciaux.

cours d'affirmation. Durant les deux décennies d'existence, presque 9000 recensions et comptes rendus ont été publiés.

La « Bibliographie économique roumaine » mentionnée ci-dessus était publiée en tant que supplément du Bulletin.

A part ces deux périodiques, ont été publiés « Informations économiques » (entre 1921 et 1929) et « l'Economiste Roumain » (entre 1924 et 1929).

Les « Informations économiques », publication hebdomadaire destinée prioritairement aux membres de l'I.E.R., sélectionnait des informations économiques de la presse de spécialité. Le sommaire de cette publication était composé d'un éditorial qui offrait une rétrospective des principaux événements économiques de la semaine passée, suivi par des nouvelles économiques du pays et de l'étranger. Au total, ont été publiés 346 numéros, comptant 1730 pages. Malgré l'utilité évidente, la publication allait arrêter son activité en 1929 suite au manque de subventions.

Publié en langue française, « L'Economiste Roumain » était dédié à l'information des cercles économiques et politiques de l'étranger sur la législation, la politique et la vie économique roumaine en général. La publication, qui paraissait mensuellement et, ultérieurement, bimensuellement, était distribuée gratuitement aux chambres de commerce, aux associations professionnelles, aux municipalités, aux publications de profil et à des personnalités de la vie publique de l'étranger intéressées à connaître et à avoir une réflexion correcte de la situation de la Roumanie. Son activité a cessé en juin 1929, avec la parution du « Bulletin d'études de la Banque Nationale », publication ayant des objectifs similaires.

Les trois séries thématiques publiées sous l'égide et avec le financement de l'I.E.R. ont été intitulées : Etudes économiques et financières, Documentations statistiques, Recherches et matériel documentaire d'histoire économique roumaine.

Dans la série d'Etudes Economiques et financières ont été publiées tant des contributions inédites, destinées à cette série, que des textes publiés antérieurement dans les pages du Bulletin ou présentées lors de conférences publiques organisées par l'Institut. Au total, ont été publiés plus de 200 volumes et brochures de la sphère des sciences économiques.

En ce qui concerne la série des Documentations statistiques, les collaborateurs de l'I.E.R. se sont proposés de publier des ouvrages statistiques de synthèse concernant l'économie mondiale. La rédaction de ces ouvrages de grande envergure nécessitait un volume appréciable de travail pour le traitement du matériel (ce qui dépassait souvent les capacités réelles des collaborateurs), ainsi que des fonds importants pour publier et distribuer l'ouvrage. Dans ces conditions, un seul volume de la série fût publié : *Statistique économique internationale*, sous la rédaction de G. Miletici et sous la coordination scientifique de L. Colescu, ayant 224 pages grand format, paru à Bucarest, en 1928. L'ouvrage comprenait 131 tableaux statistiques sur la surface des pays du monde, la démographie, la production et les prix, l'organisation du travail, le commerce, la consommation publique et privée. L'ouvrage était rédigé en roumain et en français et a été bien reçu dans les cercles de spécialité du pays et de l'étranger.

La série de Recherches et de matériel documentaire d'histoire économique roumaine était destinée à publier des sources et des monographies concernant l'histoire économique du peuple roumain. Dans cette série, ont été publiés quatre livres jusqu'en 1940. D'autres 10 volumes ont été préparés pour publication dans les dernières années avant l'arrêt de l'activité de l'I.E.R.

L'activité de l'Institut a connu deux périodes d'apogée : la première, dans la période de 1923 au 1929, s'est remarquable par le nombre et la qualité des publications périodiques et l'Institut est devenu connu dans les cercles de spécialité du pays et de l'étranger ; la deuxième, de 1932 à 1938, lorsque l'Institut s'est assuré une base large de documentation,

mise à la disposition des nombreux lecteurs, et a attiré un groupe de collaborateurs permanents parmi les jeunes économistes.

La diminution des subventions, l'apparition de nouvelles institutions à profil semblable (envers lesquelles ont migré une partie des collaborateurs) et, ensuite, la participation de la Roumanie à la deuxième guerre mondiale ont contribué de manière directe à la restriction progressive de l'activité (à partir de 1942, la publication du Bulletin de l'I.E.R. a été également interrompue). Après la nationalisation de la B.N.R. en décembre 1946 et l'abolition des institutions financées de sources privées, l'I.E.R. est disparu discrètement.

THE NEW HOSPITALITY PROJECT – TARGETS AND ACHIEVEMENTS

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Abstract: The NEW HOSPITALITY project intends to be a reference point for the transparency of qualifications and competences in the hospitality sector in the partnership countries and, therefore, for their transferability within the European area. In fact it intends to contribute to the innovation of training processes through the elaboration, sharing, testing and diffusion of a prototype of methodologies and instruments to describe, compare and promote qualifications and competences, in support of their transparency, recognition and transferability in order to foster employment opportunities and the competitiveness of the hotel sector in the European reference area.

Keywords: New Hospitality project, competences, European Area

THE ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT OF A EUROPEAN SYSTEM OF QUALIFICATION AND SKILLS IN THE HOSPITALITY SECTOR FOR TRANSPARENCY AND RECOGNITION WITHOUT BORDERS, THE NEW (NO-BORDERS EUROPEAN WORKERS) HOSPITALITY started out as a reference point for the transparency of qualifications and competences in the hospitality sector in the partnership countries and, therefore, for their transferability within the European area.

Structural, technical and organisational mutations in labour have modified the qualification profiles required of workers in this sector. Possession of specific competences associated with active transversal behaviours such as adaptability, handling uncertainty, taking initiative, willingness to accept responsibility, readiness in decision-making, teamwork, willingness to improve, flexibility, organisational ability, and communications skills, should be fostered, up-dated, validated and made visible, on the one hand to avoid the cognitive obsolescence of workers and, on the other, to foster the “spendibility” of professional qualifications in the labour market and in the training systems, in a European dimension of mobility of persons. Moreover, the changes introduced in the labour and training systems—flexibility, new skills, life long learning, etc. – have highlighted the need for new ways of representing knowledge, to allow the emergence of learning derived from non-formal contexts.

In the light of all this, the NEW HOSPITALITY project proposed a research mechanism which, in its initial phase, calls for an integrated and shared analysis in the partnership nations, from which the emerging professional figures in the hotel sector would be deduced. In the second phase qualifications and professional competences would be described and analysed through a field research. Subsequently, a trans-national repertory of the minimum competences in the hospitality sector of the countries involved in the partnership (of the emerging professional figures) would be compiled (promoting, in this way, abilities and

competences), integrated with the system of training credits, and ECTS credits if applicable, and separated into activities and areas of learning. The final research phase would allow the definition of measures and instruments to foster the continuous adaptation of training curricula to the professional requirements of hotel firms which would give form to the transparency policies adopted by the European Union and improve the quality of and facilitate access to the system of continuous professional training.

The project lasted 25 months, from 1/10/2006 to 31/10/2008 and was financed through the Leonardo da Vinci Program, 2nd phase (EAC/11/04) - 2006, priority n. 1 – pilot project “Development of new measures and instruments to describe, promote and compare qualifications and skills on a European, national and sector level”.

The goals of the project called for the realization of research and testing activity aimed at identifying a methodology and instruments for the description, comparison and promotion of qualifications and competences in the hotel/hospitality sector, in support of their transparency, recognition and transferability, in order to foster employment opportunities and the competitiveness of the sector in the European reference area. In particular the project proposed:

- to indicate the evolution of typical professional figures, identifying their competences and picking up variances in contents and in professional dynamics;
- to compare the professional competences found in the individual Partnership nations to reach common, homogeneous definitions;
- to develop a common reference framework to adapt the portfolio of the competences and knowledge of workers to the ever renewing needs of the businesses operating in the sector;
- to promote transparency of the competences, which can be acquired in formal, non-formal and informal ways, through the creation of a concrete device for the description and cataloguing of competences integrated with the Europass instrument.

The outputs of the New Hospitality project include:

- NEW HOSPITALITY RESEARCH KIT - Study and definition of the methodology and parameters of the research
- NEW HOSPITALITY DESK RESEARCH – Study and analysis of the demand and supply in the hospitality sector, of the employment situation of the sector and of the skill and competence certification systems used.
- NEW HOSPITALITY FIELD RESEARCH - Questionnaires exploring professional skill and competence needs will be distributed to entrepreneurs and workers in the sector. The results of the survey were be used to elaborate and test the research instruments.
- NEW HOSPITALITY COMPETENCE UNITS DATABASE - Database of the minimum competence units with reference to the hospitality sector and with detailed descriptions, in correlation with the professional figures, by activities, by area of learning, by training credits, by ECTS credits.
- NEW HOSPITALITY EUROPASS - Software and the related instructions manual which will guide workers in the sector through the preparation of a European curriculum vitae (for the part concerning individual skills/competences), in order to guarantee the legibility of the information contained therein, by following a common protocol which responds to the need

for comprehension, a sharing of language and of a glossary and the focusing of information on the relevant aspects.

The targets of the final products of the New Hospitality projects include as direct targets - hospitality industry workers, for whom the formal recognition and transparency of competencies and knowledge, acquired in various ways, are guaranteed to permit European mobility of professional qualifications and European educators and trainers because the instruments proposed for the analysis of competencies are of interest in planning training interventions and for the dissemination of instruments for the transparency of qualifications; and as indirect targets, which can be identified in the public and private entities operating in the hotel sector: businesses, unions and category associations, political decision-makers who regulate orientation, training and the labour market.

The project was conducted by the Italian Centre for Advanced Studies in Tourism and Tourism Promotion – Assisi, Italy, as lead partner while the rest of the partnership includes: the Bulgarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry – Sofia, Bulgaria, the National Tourism Research Institute – Sofia, Bulgaria, the Institute of Tourism Studies, St. Julians – Malta, the Malta Union of Teacher - Valletta, Malta, Federalberghi – Roma, Italy, Unione Italiana del Lavoro (UIL) – Tu.C.S. – Roma, Italy, the Transnational Association for Training and Vocational Mobility – Bucharest, Romania, Ovidius University of Constanta – the Faculty of Economic Sciences – Constanta, Romania, the Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Shipping and Agriculture – Constanta, Romania, Centre of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training – Ljubljana, Slovenia, Sindikat delavcev gostinstva in turizma Slovenije – Ljubljana, Romania.

The final product of the New Hospitality project, the NEW HOSPITALIY EUROPASS was presented on 10 October 2008 in Gozo (Malta) as an instrument to support hotel industry operators and workers in filling out the Europass Curriculum Vitae. The New Hospitality Europass is a computerized data base containing the minimum competences in the field of tourism, requested in the countries of the partners in the project – Italy, Romania, Malta, Slovenia and Bulgaria), which facilitates the elaboration of the European Curriculum Vitae.

The Europass Curriculum Vitae is one of the devices defined by the single Community framework for the transparency of competences and qualifications (Europass), approved with decision nr. 2241/2004/CE of the European Parliament and by the Council to make the competences acquired in training, on the job and in daily life clearer and more transparent.

From a survey conducted by the partnership, it emerged that, among all the Europass instruments (Europass Curriculum Vitae, Europass Language Passport, Europass Diploma Supplement, Europass Mobility, Europass Certificate Supplement), the Curriculum Vitae is the best known and most frequently used, in confirmation of the enormous application potential and utility of the product presented.

On the 27th of October 2008 on the premises of the Constanta Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Shipping and Agriculture 3 national seminars will take place, within the New Hospitality project, having as central points the presentation and testing of the New

Hospitality Europass. The participants in the seminar will be workers in the hospitality industry, trainers, representatives of tourism associations and local authorities.

Although the outputs of the New Hospitality project were disseminated during the 25 months the project lasted through seminars in each country of the partners, press releases, e-mail messages to interested third parties, a project web page and links from the web pages of the institutions involved in the project, we are sure that the final results of the project are yet to be discovered and exploited as useful tools in the future.

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