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## **SECTION I.** ***Politics and models of economic growth***

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### **REVOLUȚIILE INDUSTRIALE ȘI GLOBALIZAREA - CÂTEVA COORDONATE ȘI DETALII ALE RAPORTULUI CONSTRICȚIE - SEDUCȚIE**

*„Sunt doar neputințele noastre care ne irită”  
Joseph Joubert*

... Atunci când vorbim de globalizare, îi căutăm, trebuie să-i aflăm geneza, „valorile” de-a lungul timpului. Este globalizarea un „proces nou” sau își află ea obârșia în timpuri de mult trecute, evoluând până la formele ei de astăzi?

1. Suntem partizanii celei de a doua ipostaze. Iată, mai mult chiar decât Grecia antică, Imperiul roman. Prin întinderea sa, prin mișcarea liberă, mai bine spus relativ liberă, în cadrul său – având, totuși, în vedere, și restricțiile vremurilor de atunci - a capitalurilor (banilor, în spiritul vremii), a oamenilor, a mărfurilor, având în vedere politici comune, imperiale, față de parteneri, având în vedere promovarea frumoaselor și înțeleptelor perceptive latine de civilizație pe 3 continente (Europa, Asia, Africa) Imperiul roman poate fi privit ca o reușită încercare de globalizare, de mondializare, de ceea ce înțelegem noi, astăzi, prin aceste procese. A fost mai mult o globalizare prin „seducție” și nu prin „constricție”, statutul superior al romanilor fiind afirmat mai mult ca exemplu și nu ca factor de împilare. Imperiul roman a dispărut în timp, dar efectele extinderii sale au rămas, au persistat și persistă, beneficiem și astăzi de ele și, se pare, că vom putea beneficia încă mulți ani de aici înainte ...

Au fost, pe urmă, descoperirile geografice, marile descoperiri – și valorificări – geografice începând cu secolul al XV lea. Cu o acceptare aproape unanimă Europa a fost „punctul de pornire”, iar „punctele de sosire” au fost răsfrate, practic, pe întreg mapamondul. Și în Asia, și în Africa, dar mai ales, ca element parțial inedit – dacă vom da credit teoriei după care vikingii, cu Erik cel Roșu în frunte au fost primii care au călcat pe continentul american, cu ceva decenii înaintea lui Columb –

și în „Americi”, promovându-se aici principiile de civilizație și religioase europene, dezvoltându-se colonii, configurându-se un fel de Europă întinsă peste mări și oceane. „Seduția” a fost aici mai puțin manifestă, „constricția” afirmându-și un cuvânt mult mai greu. Desigur, și bătrânul continent a receptat „noutățile” pe care i le aduceau, cu mințile și fapta, mari descoperitori și exploratori, oamenii lor, din Spania și Portugalia, din Italia, apoi din Franța, Anglia, Germania, etc. Îl putem încadra, aici, - este drept, cu ceva „gretate” - și pe Marco Polo, călător „per pedes” și un navigator. Și chiar pe Spătarul Milescu. Se tindea, într-un anume fel, spre o lume mare și relativ unică, chiar dacă „sfâșiată” de nenumărate „conflicte interne” (războaie), dintre cele mai sângeroase și paradoxale. Se murea masiv, de exemplu, în numele promovării cu forța armelor, a unor „idealuri sfinte”, a „obiectivelor regale” în bună măsură compromise, în spiritul lor divin, prin mirajul, nu de puține ori criminal, al aurului, prin ascuțișul spadelor pline de sânge, prin arma otrăvirilor (vestita „currara” nu a fost nici până acum deslușită), prin intrigi și comploturi, prin alte confruntări de tot felul...

Este drept că, în toate aceste privințe, vorbim mai puțin de economie. Implicit, însă, de multe ori chiar explicit, economia își vădea, totuși locul și rolul, esențiale, marile sale influențe în societate, în lume. Producția și productivitatea se manifestau real, dar în planul teoriei erau mai mult intuite, erau puțin afirmate în măsură să influențeze decisiv – în speță conceptele respective, definite cu incertitudini și timiditate – mersul economic al omenirii. Școala mercantilistă, școală „frumoasă”, cu judecăți interesante, cu cele 2 etape ale sale, mercantilismul timpuriu și mercantilismul dezvoltat, „vedea” chiar crearea plusprodusului doar în circulație, domeniu care, de fapt, îl sublima ca atare, în cea mai mare parte plusprodusul realizându-se în producție. Distingii și rafinații fiziocrați, primii teoreticieni al libertății economice și primii econometrii ai lumii (celebrul „Tablou Economic” al lui Francois Quesnay), înțeleg oricum mai bine lucrurile, mersul ca atare al dezvoltării. Se pare, însă, că nu suficient pentru a imprima adânc Europei și lumii crezul, implacabil pentru progres, al creșterii productivității și al producției astfel. Este drept, că și mercantilismul, și fiziocrația au contribuit, în măsură însemnată, prin țintele lor economice, la expansiunea sistemului colonial, după părerea noastră un avans relativ, dar avans, pe drumul globalizării...

Ceva pași înainte, față de cei amintiți, a realizat, din același punct de vedere, marele Adam Smith. În cartea sa „Avuția națiunilor. Cercetare asupra naturii și a cauzelor ei”, publicată, în premieră, la Londra, în 1776

și republicată masiv după acea dată, astăzi în mai toate țările lumii, în sute și sute de mii de ediții, Smith demonstrează mai judicios primatul economic al productivității. El se referă la amplificarea binelui uman, ca o condiție *sine qua non*, prin amplificarea ca atare a producției. Procesele economice erau surprinse, deci, în cărți. Într-un fel sau altul, mai mult sau mai puțin mulțumitor din perspectiva gândului nostru de astăzi, dar erau surprinse. Nu întâmplător Smith, denumit, poate, prea grăbit, de către Marx, „economistul perioadei manufacturiere”, a scris esențial nu pentru manufacturi, ci pentru capitalismul industrial ce a urmat, depășindu-și, astfel, prin viziunea sa prospectivă, epoca...

Viața economică, practica economică, nu prea țineau, deci, pasul. Se intuiau, totuși, necesitatea, realizarea unei veritabile revoluții în producție, în activități, o revoluție care avea să modifice lumea economică, și, de asemenea, lumea socială, cea politică, cea culturală, etc. O revoluție care va prinde mai greu contur și va mai trece ceva timp până va fi înțeleasă ca atare. Este vorba de ceea ce numim „Revoluția industrială”, (practic, mai multe „Revoluții”, sau mai multe etape ale aceleiași „Revoluții” privită în desfășurarea sa continuă, în continuitatea sa). Este vorba, de fapt, de cel mai important timp, prin efectele sale, pentru globalizare, pentru chiar globalizarea noastră de astăzi, mai ales în ceea ce ea are bun. Este vorba de timpul care a modificat și va modifica, de atunci, esențial, configurația și structura economică a lumii, atunci, acum și în viitor. Este vorba de etapa care va face apel și la muncă brută, dar și la inteligențe, tehnice și economice, la inteligența umană în general, împletită, de aici înainte, în mod fundamental, cu munca așa cum fusese ea, în bună măsură, considerată până atunci, în bună măsură muncă brută. La aceste lucruri ne vom referi pe mai departe. Mai este vorba și de evoluția raportului „seducție” – „constricție” cu amplificarea general dezirabilă a ponderii „seducției” și dezvoltarea, mai ales, a unei „constricții” general seducătoare în timp, urmată de unele efecte pozitive palpabile. Deoarece „constricție” – doar „constricție” ca atare nu prea se mai poate...

2. Așadar, „Revoluția industrială” ca temelie trainică a globalizării moderne. Cum sesizam în cursul meu de „Istorie economică – Istoria economiei naționale”, „Revoluția industrială” reprezintă procesul trecerii la mașinism și la dezvoltarea mării producții mecanizate, înlocuindu-se munca manuală prin mașini – unelte. Revoluția industrială va genera schimbări profunde în structura economică a lumii”. Desigur, avem de-a face cu o evoluție deosebit de complexă, dinamică, puternic ascendentă, desfășurată în mai multe etape – definiția în speță referindu-

se la o primă etapă -, sau putem sesiza prezența mai multor „Revoluții industriale”.

În prima ipostază, „Revoluția industrială”, în general, ar putea fi definită drept progresul amplu și conti. Ar putea fi definită drept realizarea unor modificări ample în susținerea energetică și logistică a dezvoltării industriale, desigur că și a dezvoltării în general. Ceea ce a făcut și face, din ce în ce mai mult, ca lumea economică „să vorbească”, în tot mai mare măsură, aceeași limbă – un aspect cadru fundamental al globalizării. Ca lumea economică să aibă aceleași obiective, să urmărească relativ unitar, omogen, și nu discrepant, aceleași finalități de ansamblu. Este natural, logic, ca o astfel de chestiune să fi evoluat de la simplu la din ce în ce mai complex, pe o direcție de la sectorul primar la cel secundar, la cel terțiar, la cel cuaternar și ce o mai urma mai apoi. „Era informaticii” nu a căzut din cer ci are la bază acumulări succesive în domeniul producției și productivității, al tehnicilor, al energiei, al infra și suprastructurilor industriale, mutații importante în desfășurarea procesului de învățare, etc., în structura socială, în structura societății ca atare, toate acestea interferându-se și potențându-se reciproc unele cu altele.

În a doua ipostază, care nu diferă de prima decât în formă, în ce privește „aranjarea” cunoscutelor și necunoscutelor din „ecuația dezvoltării”, o primă „Revoluție industrială” ar fi cea a trecerii de la manufacturi la mașinism și la dezvoltarea marii producții mecanizate. O a doua „Revoluție” ca atare s-a desfășurat aproape paralel și amplu interferată în plan energetic și al unor susțineri industriale esențiale, în speță, trecerea de la lemn la cărbune și metal”. O a treia „Revoluție industrială” va fi cea „a electricității”, iar în planul infrastructurilor industriale, cea „a căii ferate”, „a automobilului”. Pe urmă am putea consemna „era țigăului”, cu terminalile ei, din păcate, încă și astăzi în plină expansiune și explozie, „era aviației”, „era nucleară”, ș.a. Fără a putea face delimitări foarte nete, relevant, deopotrivă, „era informaticii”, cu crearea acelor infra și suprastructuri industriale și economice în general, având de-a face, cu precădere, cu economii industrializate într-un grad mai mult sau mai puțin reprezentativ, oricum cu un potențial însemnat de industrializare, era „post industrială”, deloc desprinsă, ci din contră, de informatică, ș. a. m. d.

Cum spuneam, este vorba, până la urmă de un proces complex, fie abordat etapizat, fie abordat segmental, fiecare segment purtând definitoriu, ca titlu, o trăsătură esențială a sa. Globalizarea ca atare „s-a așternut” firesc, treptat, și din ce în ce în mai mare măsură, ca

un numitor comun, de tipul cauză – efect și efect – cauză, al tuturor acestor transformări. Chestiunea, întârziată temporal, este rezibilă foarte distinct – desigur, cu împletirea unor elemente politice însemnate -, pentru estul și centrul european, deși în această frământată parte a „Bătrânului continent”, comparativ cu „Vestul”, de la un moment dat unele evoluții au fost mai confuze, mai puțin line, au existat mai multe reculuri, poticneli, ș.a. Pentru a ajunge, însă, mai limpezi la acest timp și pentru a-l putea „vedea”, înțelege mai bine, să examinăm mai îndeaproape procesul primar, procesul „în nuce” al „Revoluției industriale” și efectele sale însemnate în planul globalizării. Pe o astfel de bază de examinare a trecutului, vom putea desluși mai bine ceea ce se petrece în prezent și ce prefigurează viitorul. Și, ca întotdeauna în istoria socială, cu siguranță că vom putea releva o linie generală de continuitate, desigur, nu lipsită de anumite rupturi, care, însă, nu au fost esențiale, nu au fost covârșitoare.

3. Anglia, deci, prima jumătate a secolului al XVIII-lea. „Revoluția industrială” va începe în domeniul industriei prelucrării bumbacului. Dar de ce Anglia și de ce acest sector? Încă de pe atunci Anglia avea o industrie manufacturieră dezvoltată, ale cărei produse erau consistent cerute atât pe piața internă cât și în afară, un rol important astfel avându-l sistemul de colonii al Angliei, în formare. Deopotrivă, Anglia avea constituit un învățământ de foarte bună calitate, în continuu progres și cu tradiții dintre cele mai frumoase. Universitățile de la Oxford, Glasgow, Cambridge, ș.a. vădeau nu doar străpungeri teoretice de seamă, ci activitățile relevau și o veritabilă propensiune către real, către practic, către aplicații ale științelor tehnice și exacte. Tot în Anglia, existau specialiști de foarte bună calitate, pasionați de munca lor, devotați menirii lor. Aici, în Anglia se aduceau mai ales din colonii – un sistem în plină dezvoltare –, materii prime, materiale la prețuri foarte scăzute pentru producții cu solicitări importante – ne referim cu precădere la industria ușoară, la textile, „aproape de consum”, cu potențial, cu oportunități de dezvoltare, de progres, foarte însemnate. Cei cu pretenții, bărbați sau femei, doreau haine din stoffe fine, croite larg, cu falduri și „cute” rafinat proiectate. Producție mai multă. Era o modă care prinsese și care se extindea, dobânda tot mai mulți adepți, în Anglia, în Europa, în Americi...

... Era doar nevoia. Rapid se vor constitui și instrumentele de îndeplinirea ei. În 1733, John Kay va inventa suveica zburătoare. Mașina de tors va fi concepută de John Hargreaves, circa treizeci de ani mai târziu, în 1765. Doar după câțiva ani, în 1869, R. Arkwright



va concepe mașina mecanică de filat. În sfârșit, în 1804, va fi conceput de către Cartwright și va intra în funcțiune războiul mecanic de țesut. Descoperiri, invenții care, cumulate, au făcut posibilă folosirea unei mari cantități de fire, respectiv satisfacerea mării foame de țesături. Un mare pas înainte pentru a trece de la manufacturi la mașinism fusese făcut. Îi vor urma rapid alții. Erau, acum, necesare mașini pentru producerea mașinilor, mașini din fier apte să utilizeze energii pretențioase, cu puteri mai mari, pe potriva capacităților create. Nici transporturile tractate animal, relativ puține și de mic tiraj nu mai puteau satisface cererea respectivă. Apar concentrații urbane, centre miniere și centre industriale importante. Or, cum ai fi putut, oare, transporta minereul de fier, cărbunele (care va înlocui lemnul ca sursă de energie), acestea în cantități industriale, cu căruța? Sau cu „spatele”? Răspunsurile la aceste întrebări vor fi și ele pe potrivă.

Așadar, structurile și infrastructurile. Franța, 1680. Un rege – Ludovic al XIV –lea, autoritar și care a făcut multe lucruri bune pentru țara sa. În planul tehnicii și al construcțiilor, numeroase poduri, viaducte, conducte, canale, pe urmă laboratoare cu bune rezultate, ș.a. Era un rege, era o societate care prețuia inteligența. O lungă domnie ce se apropia de capăt. Un remarcabil fizician, mecanic deopotrivă, Denis Papin (1647 – 1714), devine, în anul 1680, inventatorul „cazanului cu abur”, numit la vremea respectivă „oala lui Papin”. Inventează și pompa centrifugă și descrie, cu multă aplicație, „ciclu termodinamic al motorului cu abur”. Începutul era făcut... Englezul James Watt (1736 – 1819) va perfecționa construcția, înzestrând-o, chestiune esențială, cu o „cameră de condensare” menținută la temperatura ambiantă. Practic, Franța și Anglia, mână în mână, deschid zori noi dezvoltării industriale, progresului în general al lumii. Va fi furnizată o nouă forță motrice în dezvoltarea producției industriale, se vor amplifica puternic producția și productivitatea muncii.

Începe construcția mașinilor cu ajutorul mașinilor, cu alte cuvinte o veritabilă revoluționare a industriei ușoare și propagarea revoluției tehnice în industria grea. Cum „utilizarea forței aburului va pretinde mașini de fier capabile să reziste unor presiuni mai mari, metalurgia va dobândi noi dimensiuni. Separarea minereului de fier începe să se facă cu huilă transformată în cocs și, nu ca până atunci, cu cărbuni de lemn. Procedul fabricării cocsului fusese descoperit de Abraham Darby, tot acum fiind descoperite și procedeele care permiteau fabricarea mai ieftină a oțelului – pudlajul, ce permitea transformarea fontei, rigide și casante, în fier pur și maleabil.” În câteva zeci de ani se realizase, în Europa, un imens progres, care va continua...

4. ... Oțelul devine esențial. În 1856, Henry Bessemer inventează convertizorul, ce i-a permis obținerea de oțel în stare lichidă și în mari cantități. Însă abia în 1878, Thomas Gilchrist descoperă posibilitatea de a folosi minereul cu fosfor, înlăturând, „scoțând” fosforul prin căptușirea convertizorului cu magneziu. Efectele descoperirii asupra industriei extractive sunt impresionante. Câteva cifre: în Anglia, cantitatea de cărbune extras crește de la 5 milioane tone în 1750, la 10 milioane, în 1800 și la 16 milioane tone în 1829. Iar extracția de minereu de fier va ajunge, în 1890, la 15 milioane tone, necesarul fiind asigurat și printr-un import de 3 – 4 milioane tone minereu de fier. Odată cu industria, cine contribuise oare la înregistrarea unor astfel de dinamici uluitoare? Am amintit deja, transportul pe „drumul de fier”. Acest tip de transport devenise, a devenit factorul decisiv în dezvoltarea economică a Angliei și nu numai. Transportul tractat animal nu mai era fezabil în nici un fel. În 1830, are loc inaugurarea liniei de cale ferată Liverpool – Manchester. Un mare eveniment, surprins admirabil de presa și literatura timpului. „Rezistențele”, atâtea câte fuseseră, erau definitiv înlăturate.

În fapt, utilizarea aburului solicita mult cărbune: el exista, era pus la „dispoziție”, „acoperea necesarul”. Cerea, totodată, utilizarea aburului, și cerea din abundență, fier, oțel, pentru a putea fi fabricate motoarele și platformele. Existau și acestea, „acopereau necesarul”. De altfel, în Anglia, prețul tonei de fontă scade de la 17 lire în 1728, la 6 lire, în 1802. Erau necesare utilaje pentru prelucrat metalul, mașini, piese, dar și acestea se vedeau tot mai mult la momentul potrivit, revoluționându-se tehnologiile într-o manieră de neconceput atâtea vreme cât principala materie primă de lucru fusese lemnul. „Apar” astfel bormașina (în 1774), raboteza (în 1776), mașina de fabricat cuie (1790), mașina de fabricat cabluri (1792), fierăstrăul circular (1780), presa hidraulică (1795), strungul cu micrometru și mașina de filetat cu cărucior, ambele realizate de inginerul Henry Maudslay între 1797 – 1800, etc. „Revoluția”, „Revoluțiile industriale” în plină desfășurare...

În asemenea condiții, și interconționat, producția de fier a Angliei va crește de la 700 mii tone în 1830, la peste 2,2 milioane tone în 1835, dinamicile fiind și mai abrupte ulterior. De altfel, transportul pe calea ferată va cunoaște o „veritabilă explozie”, și în Anglia și în lume. În 1850, în lume deja fuseseră construiți 35 mii km de cale ferată, din care Anglia deținea 10 mii km. În 1914, însă, rețeaua mondială de transport pe cale ferată, rețea extinsă și amplu dezvoltată în timp și în alte state europene, în Statele Unite, în Canada, în țări din America de Sud, în Rusia asiatică, în alte țări (încă colonii) din Asia (India de exemplu),

în Africa, etc. – va atinge 1 milion de km de cale ferată din care Anglia ca atare, însă extinsă, relativ, și la dimensiunile Marii Britanii, deținea numai 38 de mii de km. Am amintit mai ales – și în unele privințe – de Anglia, dar toate acestea „se întâmplau” peste tot.

... Oricum, limbajul industrial, caracteristic capitalismului modern în plină afirmare, devenise comun pentru mai toate statele cu aspirații și veleități în acest sens: minereu, cocs, furnale, transport, locomotive, vagoane, substanță utilă pentru minereuri, energie, eficiență, profit brut și net, tehnologii, forță de muncă, organizare, conducere, etc. Ne îndreptăm spre zări eminentamente noi, care, însă, se erodau rapid, „noul” ca atare fiind mereu și tot mai repede întruchipat de altceva. De fapt, bazele „globalismului”, ale „mondializării”, ale „internaționalizării” dezvoltării economice, fuseseră, evident, puse. (va urma)

**5. Așadar, spre 1800, în condițiile „Revoluțiilor industriale”,** Anglia, Franța, Germania, Statele Unite, Japonia, Rusia, etc. vorbeau cam aceeași „limbă economică”, dezvoltând, fiecare dintre ele în raport cu celelalte, în foarte mare măsură, interese generale de același tip și ținte generale de același tip, procese generale de același tip. Producția, productivitatea, profitul, structuri economice, alături de cele deja arătate, deveniseră și ele cuvinte de ordine. Având un „numitor relativ comun”, deși „numărătorul” era diferit, este neîndoielnic că s-au făcut pași mari înainte spre ceea ce astăzi numim „globalizare”. În Franța, mașinile unelte se răspândesc între 1815 – 1870 în industria textilă, apoi, rapid, în metalurgie, producția de mașini, industria zahărului, a hârtiei, a imprimeriei, - ce splendidă industrie, ș.a. În 1839 erau folosite 2.450 de mașini cu aburi cu o putere de 33 mii C.P., iar în 1870 erau utilizate 27 mii asemenea mașini, cu o putere 330 mii C.P. Coeficientul de amplificare este grăitor, Cărbunele era, însă, atunci, puțin și se calitate inferioară. Chiar și în 1913, în Franța se exploatau numai 41 milioane tone cărbune (puțin, foarte puțin în comparație cu Anglia, cu 279 milioane tone cărbune), în general de calitate inferioară. Faptul obliga ca aproape 60% din producția de cărbune franceză să fie utilizată în mici furnale ce foloseau și cărbune de lemn, cocsul devenind uzual, cu precădere, după 1860.

Pentru extracția minereului de fier, progresele se vedeau nu prea rapide, aferent siderurgiei Franța urmând să reprezinte doar ceva mai târziu o forță în acest domeniu. De exemplu, spre 1890, Franța obține doar 500 mii tone oțel, în vreme ce Anglia reușea 3,5 milioane tone, SUA – 3 milioane tone, Germania 1,9 milioane tone, ș.a. Toată această producție franceză era marcată, esențial, de progresul susținut al rețelei

de cale ferată din Franța... Din perspectiva industrializării Franței, a dezvoltării puternice și calitative a industriei în țara cocoșului galic, se impun amintite cel puțin 2 nume: a) marele Napoleon, un spirit deschis și foarte stimulat față de inteligențe, acele inteligențe vădit, însă, nu doar cu prilejul „Blocadei Continentale” de la finele secolului al XVIII-lea și de mai apoi; b) nepotul lui Bonaparte, împăratul Napoleon al III-lea, care a dus o politică susținută de construcție, de sprijin, de protecție, de stimulare a dezvoltării și creșterii industriei moderne franceze. Deopotrivă, la fel ca și pentru Anglia, respectiv Imperiul Britanic, imperiul colonial francez, al doilea din lume după cel britanic, prezintă și el importanța sa, facilitând procurarea de materii prime și materiale la prețuri scăzute și consolidarea unor puternice debușee pentru produsele prelucrate din metropolă. Și, ca o paranteză, și Franța, dar mai ales Anglia, respectiv Imperiul Britanic, în perioada în care au urmărit dezvoltarea, consolidarea, înflorirea, afirmarea puternică a industriei naționale, au formulat și aplicat, cu argumente dintre cele mai judicioase, irefutabile, politici protecționiste. Au schimbat însă rapid „macazul” și au devenit „liberaliste” atunci când produsele lor prelucrate aveau nevoie de intrări facile pe piețele altor state. Tocmai de aceea, un istoric francez de talia lui André Maurois, scria în celebra sa carte „Istoria Angliei”, că „principiul politicii engleze este acela de a nu avea principii”. Și acesta este un principiu: să nu ai principii. Nu ar mai fi nimic de comentat...

Germania, impulsionată în dezvoltarea sa economică de Zollvereinul (Uniunea Vamală) lui Friederich List, inițiat în 1819 și finalizat în 1836, printre altele își dezvoltă puternic industria metalurgică, semnificative pentru amploare și dinamică fiind astfel întreprinderile Krupp din Essen. Producția de cărbune a Germaniei va crește de la 3 milioane de tone în 1840, la 26 milioane de tone în 1870 și la 270 milioane în 1913. Pe firmamentul economiei lumii apărea o stea...

Economia Statelor Unite cunoaște evoluții asemănătoare. Fondul politic, generat de cerințe și comandamente economice esențiale, stimula în această direcție. În 1782, Tratatul de la Versailles consfințește existența Statelor Unite. Dar în statele din sud, precum Virginia, Carolina de Sud, Carolina de Nord, Georgia, se produceau – mai ales, pe plantații, cu sclavi aduși, într-un trecut relativ apropiat, din Africa, cu „corăbiile negre” – tutun, bumbac, lână, indigo, se extrăgeau cupru, fier, se exploata lemn pentru construcții navale, se tăbăceau blănuri. Iar în statele din nord, precum Pennsylvania, New – York, New – Jersey, Connecticut, Massachusetts, „averile” se obțineau, cu precădere, din

comerț, investiții în manufacturi textile, activități constructoare de mașini legate de dezvoltarea industriei, pielărie, cherestea, topitorii de fier, șantiere navale, ș.a. Cu o nevoie mare de forță de muncă liberă și de plasamente de capital, „Nordul” se va impune, va câștiga partida, sclavia va fi abolită, industria modernă și de mare performanță, în mod pronunțat protejată, va avea „porțile deschise”. Este semnificativ că în 1900, în Statele Unite lungimea căilor ferate era de 263 mii km, jumătate din rețeaua mondială. Se dezvoltă, deopotrivă, construcția de drumuri, canale navigabile, se vădesc, în mod deosebit luminoși, zorii industriei de automobile...

Un factor important, vital chiar în impulsionarea desfășurării „Revoluțiilor industriale” și al industrializării în SUA îl va reprezenta imigrația. De exemplu, între 1847 – 1852 a imigrat în Statele Unite a 7 – a parte din populația Irlandei, în 1854 numărul germanilor imigranți ajungea la 127 mii, etc. Mai este de relevat că după primul război mondial și SUA „schimbă macazul”, nu se mai tem de concurență, diminuează, în aparență, protecționismul și vor în mod deschis libertate, dar mai ales pentru pătrunderea produselor, a mărfurilor americane pe alte piețe...

Japonia, cu tradiții izolaționiste dar cu „zidul” față de Vest „spart” în 1854 de către o escadră americană – opt vase de război, Franța, Anglia și Rusia fiind apoi și ele „agreate”, - va „introduce” și va beneficia de roadele cele mai frumoase ale „Revoluțiilor industriale”. Nu avea materii prime Japonia, avea, cu precădere, „materie cenușie”. Totul se desfășura pe fondul, însăși, al erei Meiji, timp al unor substanțiale modernizări. Dezvoltarea industriei japoneze va beneficia de sprijinul instituției statului, va utiliza mâna de lucru ieftină a țăranilor sărăciți, va beneficia de o strălucită inteligență japoneză aptă, printre altele, să înțeleagă și să aplice, cu mare randament, realizările generale, de ansamblu, ale tehnicii industriale. Prin deceniile 8 – 9 ale secolului al XIX-lea deja se vor constitui în Japonia, mari oligarhii financiare, chiar dacă cu trăsături familiale foarte puternice: Mi – Tsou – Y; Sumi – Moto; Mi – Tsou - Bechi, etc. Se remarcă, în spațiul nipon, industria siderurgică la Yamata, iar după războiul ruso – japonez din 1905, câștigat de Japonia, aici se va dezvolta și o industrie de armament, bazată, în bună măsură, pe fierul și cărbunele din Manciuuria și Coreea. Inteligența, însă din Japonia...

Alte state din Europa vestică, din Europa centrală, Rusia, statele din America Latină, vor urma, în bună măsură, același drum: economie industrială, infrastructuri, pe cât posibil protecție economică, învățământ, școli, universități, urbanizări și urbanism, etc.

Ce efecte pentru globalizare dezvoltă acest proces de desfășurare în Vest, proces al unor ample „Revoluții industriale”? Iată, se dezvoltă sensibil piața mondială, privită ca totalitatea relațiilor de schimb de mărfuri între țări ca urmare a adâncirii diviziunii internaționale a muncii. Este o realitate, se adâncesc decalajele dintre statele din vest și restul țărilor lumii care erau „opace” „Revoluțiilor industriale”, dar acest fapt nu diminuează ci, practic, la etapa respectivă, adâncește schimbul de mărfuri, nu promovează economii autarhice, ci mai degrabă, „economii complementare”. Totodată, relațiile economice promovate astfel, chiar dacă „sub pălăria statelor”, a politicilor economice promovate, se constituie esențial, uneori primordial, între mari trusturi și firme economice, interesele, „legile” lor ale piețelor financiare, ale piețelor de capital începând să predomine, mai mult sau mai puțin esențial, comparativ cu nivelul național al unei țări sau alteia, cu unele interese naționale, etc. Superioritatea pe piața mondială se vedește, în tot mai mare măsură, dependentă puternic de superioritatea în dezvoltarea industriei. Statele Unite abolesc definitiv „sclavia”, în 1862, dând, prin aceasta, un puternic impuls spre libertate și altor state, și altor oameni. Chiar dacă se modifică raportul de forțe – în totalul producției industriale mondiale Anglia va coborî de la circa 32% în 1870 la 14% în 1913, dar SUA vor urca, în aceeași perioadă, de la 23% la circa 36%, Germania de la 13% la 16%, Rusia de la 3,7% la 5,5%, etc. – legitățile ca atare ale dezvoltării industriale se vădesc tot mai puternice, punctul lor central, de gravitație, reprezentându-l „creșterea productivității muncii” și, desigur, esențial, „profitul”. Unde se vădea aceasta, era progres, unde nu, nu. Urbanismul, în sensul lui modern, este cu precădere legat de dezvoltarea industrială...

Cu alte cuvinte, pe baza „Revoluțiilor industriale” se relevă importante repere de globalizare, în sensul ei de astăzi, chiar la zonă de interferență dintre „libera concurență” și „dezvoltarea modernă”. Lumea devine tot mai mică: am urmărit calea ferată. Dar sunt reprezentative și marile canale de navigație ale lumii, care sunt inaugurate în acest timp de mari mutații: Canalul de Suez (1869), Canalul Corint (1893), Canalul Kiel (1895), Canalul Panama (1914), etc. Cu greu s-ar fi putut gândi cineva la ele dacă industria nu ar fi furnizat mijloacele, elementele necesare astfel, dacă nu ar fi fost acumulări financiare, obținute tot astfel, în acest sens. Se vădesc, mai mult sau mai puțin în germene, uneori chiar în expresii avansate, elemente vitale și generale ale dezvoltării moderne: automobilul, avionul, navigația specializată (cargouri frigorifice, petroliere, submarine), telegrafia fără fir, telefonia,

pe urmă, sectorul terțiar și el să se afirme puternic, ș.a. Toate acestea sprijină, vor sprijini globalizarea în sensurile ei benefice. Era „vizibil” astfel, mai ales pentru spațiul din Europa de Vest, cel aferent SUA, Japonia, etc. Dar în Europa de Est, acolo ce se petrecea?

6. În centrul și estul european lucrurile sunt, în mod relativ, diferite. Pe de o parte, există cercetătorii care au „trasat” și „trasează”, încă, o frontieră foarte pronunțată între „est” și „vest”. Cu precădere pentru perioada de după al II-lea război mondial, dar și de mai înainte. Ca și cum ar fi vorba de rase diferite, de continente diferite, de capacități intelectuale inferioare în est, de o spiritualitate inferioară aici, de esență consistent diferită față de cea din vest. Ca și cum „Estul” ar fi fundamental și exclusiv vinovat pentru traseele sale istorice concepute, totuși, în bună măsură, de alții.

Toate acestea constituie, firește, exagerări, de o amplitudine mai mare sau mai mică. Consider, însă, că sunt reale o serie de evoluții diferite, funcție de așezări și împrejurări istorice, de eforturi diferite. Au contat desigur și religiile. Sunt evoluții care, cu precădere după secolul al XVIII-lea și mai ales după ce vestul european a îmbrățișat și finalizat „Revoluțiile industriale”, au generat decalaje economice în dezvoltare în est față de dinamica accentuată a vestului, forme mai puțin evaluate de economie comparativ cu ceea ce era în vest, unele atitudini și comportamente specifice unor întârzieri și mai puțin acomodate cu decolările esențiale ale vestului spre performanță, spre productivitate, spre cerințele unor piețe mature. Oricum, lucrurile sunt ceva mai complicate, însă astfel de trăsături pot fi punctate.

Desigur, centrul european – cu Cehia, cu Moravia, cu Slovacia, Polonia, Ungaria, ș.a - a fost mai aproape de vest, ceea ce a făcut și face ca, în unele privințe, diferențele față de acesta să fie mai puțin pregnante. Dar și estul veritabil – cu Grecia, România, Bulgaria, Turcia, mai multe din statele fostei Yugoslavii, ș.a – inteligent și priceput, iscusit, pus, adeseori, în fața unor confruntări și împrejurări dificile, a urmărit să lupte, „oțelindu-se” în anumite privințe. Ceea ce, firește, că în competiția mondială a devenit și devine finalmente un avantaj.

Referindu-ne, concret, la problemele „Revoluțiilor industriale”, putem afirma că procesele amintite, de dezvoltarea în estul european, au demarat și mai târziu, și mai greoi, și cu mai puțină forță. Un mare economist român, P.S.Aurelian, fost prim – ministru și președinte al Academiei Române, deși era un om de acțiune și un antifatalist convins, afirma, pe la 1870 – 1880, că erau reale pentru estul european și lipsa capitalurilor, a unor resurse financiare importante necesare demarării



unei dezvoltări industriale de calitate, și lipsa unei forțe de muncă calificate, și lipsa unor atitudini naționale și individuale mai ofensive pe o piață internațională unde un cuvânt hotărâtor îl aveau „cei puternici economicește”. În pofida unor împrejurări, de multe ori, potrivit, se constituie „curentul industrialist”, al unei burghezii emergente și educate economic. Se înscriu, în acest cadru, în România, desigur, P.S.Aurelian dar și Dionisie Pop Marțian, Al.D.Xenopol, George Barițiu, Lazlo Kövary, Mihail Kogălniceanu, etc. Cu toții susțineau necesitatea dezvoltării industriale, posibilitățile astfel, explicau și promovau – uneori prin forța propriului exemplu -, modalitățile concrete de realizare a unui astfel de obiectiv. Curentul industrialist se vedește cu valențe esențiale și în alte state est – europene. Oricum, „curentul industrialist” se dezvoltă general – susținut, are aplicații practice remarcabile și aduce pentru est nu puține din efectele pozitive ale „Revoluțiilor industriale” care se vedeau pentru vest. Mașinile devin prezente în industria alimentară, în morărit, în industria hârtiei, în industria ușoară, în metalurgie, în minerit, în industria extractivă. Transporturile pe cale ferată cunosc o puternică efervescentă, etc. Se vădesc puncte de vedere judicioase în ce privește raporturile dintre capitalul național și cel străin, posibilitatea ca resursele naturale dintr-o țară sau alta să fie exploatare și de către capitalul autohton și nu doar de către capitalul străin, structura producției industriale și celebra chestiune a „foarfecelui prețurilor” în relațiile de comerț exterior sunt bine așezate în ecuație, iar unele rezolvări politice răspund nemijlocit intereselor naționale specifice.

Primul război mondial, mai mult un „război civil european”, „rupe” mai multe din „șesăturile” globalizante evidente ale „Revoluțiilor industriale”. Este, de fapt, un serios pas înapoi. Lupta de interese potrivit este dusă la apogeu. Se vedește, însă, în acest sens, al luptei de interese, un mare economist român, profesorul Mihai Manoilescu. Specialistul care susține cu argumente irefutabile necesitatea dezvoltării industriale a tuturor statelor lumii, industriile naționale în statele mai slab dezvoltate fiind inițial protejate, iar, apoi, desigur, expuse rigorilor pieței internaționale, calitatea eforturilor și a managementului fiind cea care va genera, de acum, câștigul individual și social ca atare. Nu toate, însă, se desfășurau cum trebuie. Acel „apogeu” de confruntări perdante din primul război mondial a fost, din păcate, lesne întrecut de confruntările, de mai multe tipuri, din cel de-al doilea război mondial, confruntări deosebit de sângeroase și care s-au finalizat prin împărțirea lumii în „două sisteme paralele și opuse”, prin „războiul rece”, prin consecințe economice deosebit de nefaste, etc. Aproape totul era astfel împotriva globalizării.



În „formatul său mare”, de globalizare ca atare precum și ca „teren” al desfășurării pozitive a „Revoluțiilor industriale”, a început să se discute mai evident după ce au izbândit „Revoluțiile izbăvitoare” de la sfârșitul anilor '80 din statele Europei centrale și de est. Revoluții ce au respins sistemele dictatoriale, împilatoare, dar care au reclamat și instituții, reglementări menite să acomodeze statele respective în contextura globalizantă europeană, nord – atlantică, internațională. Pornind de aici se vădesc elemente relativ cunoscute și vom insista mai puțin în această direcție.

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Așadar, „Revoluțiile industriale” au generat, au determinat, au dezvoltat, au consolidat terenul pentru globalizare. Practic, pentru o lume economică care „a trăit”, „trăiește”, se desfășoară potrivit a numeroase reguli, reglementări comune, cu piețe economice internaționale, potrivit unor obiective comune, legate cu precădere de gestionarea resurselor, a fenomenelor de supraîncălzire a Terrei. Desigur că, în acest cadru, se vădesc, se afirmă instituții de „gestiune planetară” cu atribuții cuprinzătoare și care să aibe „putere de decizie” și „recunoaștere” internațională, globală, sunt funcțiuni și atribuții programative, stimulative sau restrictive ce trebuie recunoscute.

O „lume nouă”, dar, și sub aceste aspecte. O lume care asociază reglementări, autoreglementări de piață reglementărilor instituționale însușite de toți agenții economici, respectate, îndeplinite ca atare. Se conturează, din ce în ce mai mult un statut de „cetățean al Terrei”, un statut economic și politic, cu drepturi și obligații generale și în mod deosebit economice concrete, o anume acomodare, pe căi variate, a diferitelor interese specifice ale marilor și mai micilor firme, ale marilor puteri între ele, ale unor mari puteri cu celelalte state, ale statelor ca atare între ele. Socialul, religiile află, vor afla noi căi de comunicare, de înțelegere. Nu intuiesc, în afara acestei „noi lumi” în curs de constituire, o altă lume care să presupună forța înțelepciunii și a dreptului mai mare decât „dreptul forței”. Nu intuiesc o altă cale, alte căi de supraviețuire și progres pentru Planeta noastră.

Procesul nu este ușor, este chiar deosebit de dificil, presupune nu doar armonii, ci și – poate, mai ales – unele dezarmonii, confruntări, negocieri, cedări reciproce, înțelegeri și, în mod sigur, prelevanța termenului lung asupra celui scurt. Poate că aici se află „formula sacră”: viitorul Planetei noastre abordat pe termen lung și nu neapărat din

perspectiva „suficiențelor” caracteristice, deseori, termenului scurt. Iată, dece, în cercetarea economică, nu doar echipe de economiști, ci echipe multi, inter și transdisciplinare – economiști, dar și biologi, tehnicieni, ingineri, fizicieni, chimiști geografi, medici, juriști, sociologi, etc. Cred că doar astfel de formațiuni se pot ocupa eficient de problemele complexe de tipul celor arătate. În această spargere a unui „turn de fildeș” de o anume esență se poate vădi succesul nostru.

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## **ИННОВАЦИОННОЕ РАЗВИТИЕ КАК УСЛОВИЕ СНИЖЕНИЯ УРОВНЯ БЕДНОСТИ**

Экономика Республики Таджикистан вступила на новый, сложный и противоречивый период развития, где большее значение приобретают новые тенденции социально-экономических преобразований. В этих условиях объективно встала проблема проведения глубокой структурной перестройки экономики страны в целом. Прежде всего, это относится к развитию и модернизации промышленности с целью устранения зависимости от импорта, особенно поступления энергии извне.

Ход социально-экономических преобразований говорит о том, что наша страна не имеет права оставаться в стороне от глобальных тенденций развития современного мира. Но также следует указать, что Таджикистан не может слепо копировать социально-экономическую стратегию развитых стран. Таджикистан имеет иные масштабы, особое географическое положение, уникальную историю, традиции и особое наследие, доставшего ему от Советского Союза. Экономика Таджикистана весьма специфична и для нее жизненно важно, чтобы одним из основных направлений долгосрочной социально-экономической стратегии страны стал поиск путей минимизации издержек и максимизации эффекта от ее включения в глобальные процессы.

По мере развития процесса глобализации наша страна все более сталкивается с проблемами преодоления бедности, которая оказывает значительное воздействие на экономический рост в целом. Вопросы бедности представляют собой глобальный вызов международному сообществу и требуют комплексного подхода к их решению с учетом долгосрочных последствий принимаемых решений.

В настоящее время рыночные реформы направлены на решение возможностей достижения устойчивого экономического роста и сокращения бедности в стране. Для реализации Документа Стратегии Снижения Бедности в стране важное место должно отводиться созданию благоприятной предпринимательской среды на

основе использования инновационного потенциала национальной экономики.

В долгосрочной перспективе Таджикистан должен иметь стратегию социально-экономического развития, соответствующую решению следующих главных задач:

1) повышение геоэкономической роли страны в будущее мира;

2) достижение рационального использования сырьевого, трудового инвестиционного, топливно- энергического, инновационного и рекреационного потенциалов страны;

3) обеспечение процесса производства конечных продуктов перед производством сырья и материалов, полуфабрикатов;

4) обеспечение хорошего образования населения страны, вхождение в мировую образовательную, инновационную и информационную среду.

5) определение приоритетов государственной инновационной политики, согласованных с задачами обеспечения экономической безопасности страны;

6) создание благоприятных условий развития финансово- кредитных институтов инновационной деятельности, совершенствование законодательного и нормативно- правового регулирования инновационной деятельности в научно- технической сфере.

В современной экономике ключевую роль играют такие активы, как информация и знания, поэтому хорошее образование- это фундаментальная ценность и важной фактор конкурентоспособности. А экономическая мощь страны и богатство нации определяются, прежде всего развитием ее производительных сил и уровнем их знаний. В последние годы, ученые разделяя страны на богатые и бедные вне зависимости от социально- экономического устройства, подчеркивают прежде всего роль инновационного прогресса в определении уровня развития экономики. Этот момент присутствует в теоретических положениях исторической школы. Как известно, основоположник исторической школы Ф. Лист еще в середине XIX века благополучие нации и государства определял не количеством богатства, а степенью развития производительных сил, создающих это богатство. Он в своей основной работе «Национальная система политической экономики» писал: «Способность создавать богатство бесконечно важнее самого богатства». Поэтому главную задачу экономики Ф. Лист видел в создании условий для развития науки и техники. Нововведения,

как внутренний источник и фактор развития экономики, все более становятся характеристикой национальной экономики.<sup>1</sup>

Поэтому мы считаем, что именно во внутренней структуре и логике развития инновационного предпринимательства заключен источник функционирования и движения социально-экономической системы. Признание инновационных отношений, как основы развития инновационного предпринимательства, заставляет нас сделать вывод, что в конечном итоге это единственная исходная и непрерывно изменяющаяся субстанция, которая и может обеспечить развитие экономики и научно-технический прогресс.

Анализ инновационных процессов позволяет понять первоочередные задачи государственной политики в социально-экономической сфере. Это является развитие национальных производительных сил общества, формирование ресурсов, повышение научно-технического уровня производства, адекватные требованиям рынка. Нам представляется, что задача любого государства в экономической сфере не заключается простым наполнением внутреннего рынка товарами, а в большей степени является совершенствование национальных производительных сил, способных обеспечить инновационное развитие. Это тем более важно, что в современных условиях главным мотивом лидерства передовых стран является развитие инновационной мощи производственного потенциала. Например, Р. Солоу при анализе долговременных рядов динамики капитала, нормы накопления и выпуска продукции США пришел к выводу о том, что 87% роста производительности труда обеспечивалось применением технологического процесса, и только 13% новыми инвестициями.<sup>2</sup> Другие исследования показывают, что на современном этапе не менее с прироста ВВП обеспечивается за счет новейших технологий.<sup>3</sup>

В условиях глобализации для всех стран, независимо от их социально-политического устройства, определяющую роль начинают играть общие тенденции инновационного прогресса. Мировая экономика становится результатом непрерывно углубляющегося разделения труда, специализации интернационализации производства. Вхождение в мировое хозяйство невозможно без усвоения национальными экономиками научно-технических, организационно-экономических нововведений. Таким образом, развитие любой страны предполагает использование научно-технических нововведений. В условиях рыночной экономики решающее место отводится освоению нововведений, стимулирование собственно инновационной деятельности.

При выборе стратегии экономического развития нельзя сбрасывать счетов и складывающуюся ситуацию в инновационной сфере страны ожидаемые тенденции ее изменения. Общее качественное состояние научно-технического потенциала, ориентированного преимущественно на консервативную научно-техническую политику, не позволяют пока в экономике Таджикистана рассчитывать на массовое появление нововведений. Следовательно, требуется создание единого организационно-экономического пространства и благоприятных условий для инновационного прорыва и создание развитого машиностроительного, жилищного, строительного и других комплексов. В свете этого усиливается необходимость включения инновационного потенциала страны в реальные процессы глобализации экономики. При этом следует отметить, что повышение инновационного потенциала означает, в частности, что далеко не все виды нововведений, необходимые для удовлетворения инновационной потребности национальной экономики, целесообразно создавать на месте. Здесь надо иметь в виду, что какие то виды нововведений можно получать через внешнеэкономические каналы посредством кооперирования в рамках международного разделения труда. Поэтому, приоритетной задачей для нашей страны на данном этапе развития должно быть создание видов нововведений, которые расширили бы выход местных производителей на внешние рынки. Как справедливо отмечает Д. Паккарда новая продукция это та, «при производстве которой сделан реальный вклад в технологию, а не та, что просто копируют другие».<sup>4</sup> А это главная задача инновационности и развития инновационного предпринимательства.

Как показала практика последнего десятилетия XX века, реформирование стран переходной экономики не имеет достаточно стройной и логичной концепции перспективной стратегии развития. Так как первостепенной задачей явилась стабилизация экономики, что заслоняло долговременные аспекты развития предпринимательства, в том числе и инновационного предпринимательства. Таким образом, к настоящему времени стратегия развития инновационного предпринимательства только зарождается и по тому носит еще фрагментарный характер. Все это актуализирует настоятельную необходимость определения основных условий и направлений становления и развития инновационного предпринимательства. Мы осознаем, что сам по себе процесс становления

эффективного инновационного предпринимательства является достаточно сложным и, по видимому, длительным, требующим решения комплекса организационно- правовых и социально- экономических задач.

Становление инновационного предпринимательства не должно быть плодом какой- то импровизации, а результатом реализации продуманной стратегии инновационного и перспективного развития страны. А пока к сожалению, современные подходы к выработке и реализации основ становления инновационного предпринимательства не адекватны требованиям инновационного типа экономического развития. Развитие инновационного предпринимательства может быть эффективными только в тех случаях, когда та или иная страна располагает инновационными ресурсами и потенциальными возможностями их использования на данном этапе экономического развития. Главное же в понимании основ инновационного предпринимательства заключается в том, что они придают национальной экономике определенную динамичность, позволяющую максимально эффективно использовать имеющийся инновационный потенциал. В конечном итоге развитие инновационного предпринимательства приводит к повышению конкурентоспособности и экспортного потенциала страны.

Без создания условий развития инновационного предпринимательства невозможно преодоление структурно- технологической отсталости страны, и возникающих сложностей в создании материальных предпосылок для эффективного проведения социально- экономических преобразований. Поэтому одним из ведущих направлений деятельности в области формирования рыночной экономики и снижения уровня бедности в стране должно стать подключение инновационного фактора к достижению экономических и политических целей государства.

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## **EFICIENȚA UTILIZĂRII RESURSELOR NATURALE ÎN ECONOMIA DE PIAȚĂ**

*In this paper are being analyzed the following important issues: the necessity to elaborate a Document for natural resources management, fluctuation and changes registered in the natural resources market, political instruments of efficient exploitation and utilization of resources.*

### **1. Preliminarii privind necesitatea elaborării și aprobării unui Document de Management a Resurselor Naturale**

Mediul înconjurător în România reprezintă o parte importantă a infrastructurii de viață a populației țării. Comunitatea de ansamblu are menirea de a impune menținerea unei situații echilibrate între 1) nevoi (cerințe) de resurse naturale și 2) păstrarea mediului în formula sa intrinsecă, accentuând pe caracteristica sa de „valoare pentru viitor”.

De altfel, este recunoscut faptul că bunurile și serviciile din resurse naturale nu cuprind adecvat în prețurile lor expresia costurilor de afectare a mediului. Mecanismul formării prețurilor bunurilor și serviciilor din resurse naturale nu este articulat corespunzător, - pentru evidențierea realității- cu funcționarea pieței.

Se deduce că piața vehiculează resurse naturale, care în sine nu sunt purtătoare de prețuri ce pot dovedi eficiența reală, profundă a exploatării și valorificării bunurilor și serviciilor aferente.[1]

*Internalizarea costurilor externe* se dovedește a fi propunerea originală în prezenta lucrare spre a determina luarea în considerare a parametrului „protecția mediului”.

În România, aproape 40% din teritoriu (sol) este afectat de acțiunea umană, tehnico-economică prin:

- creșterea contaminării apelor curgătoare sau stătătoare;
- intensificarea activităților (acțiunilor) de natură biologică în ape și asupra solului;
- creșterea suprafețelor de sol supuse eroziunii;
- defrișări reconcentrări artificiale de floră și faună;
- afectări ale habitatului prin modificări produse în ecosistemul zonal, regional și național.



Pentru reglementarea, respectiv organizarea și conducerea activităților de exploatare și valorificare a resurselor naturale pe plan internațional, în numeroase țări (Australia, Noua Zeelandă, S.U.A., țările dezvoltate ale U.E. ș.a) se avansează propunerea de elaborare și însușire a unui *Document privind Managementul Resurselor*. Acesta, s-ar putea dovedi un important instrument de formulare a strategiei și tacticilor în sfera exploatării și valorificării resurselor naturale.

Degradarea mediului trebuie percepută ca o problemă preponderent economică.

## 2. Oscilațiile și modificările înregistrate în piața resurselor naturale

Piața are rolul de a realiza alocația, respectiv distribuția de resurse naturale în raport cu cererile pentru consum. Piața ca sistem, poate determina modul cum să fie maximizată eficiența utilizării resurselor naturale. (fig. 1)

Controlul guvernamental asupra modului de alocare a resurselor în situația manifestării piețelor libere se regăsește în 1) permisivitatea largă pentru manifestarea liberă a piețelor; 2) întărirea dreptului de proprietate. Entitatea statală mai poate interveni prin crearea de „cvasi-piețe” ce pot avea rol de raționalizare a distribuției (alocației) de resurse naturale în economia națională sau regională. În unele cazuri, Guvernul poate decide singular asupra alocării directe a unor resurse către anumiți consumatori.

Pentru bunurile publice (cazul general al resurselor naturale) sunt necesare în procesul distribuirii politici și strategii adecvate.

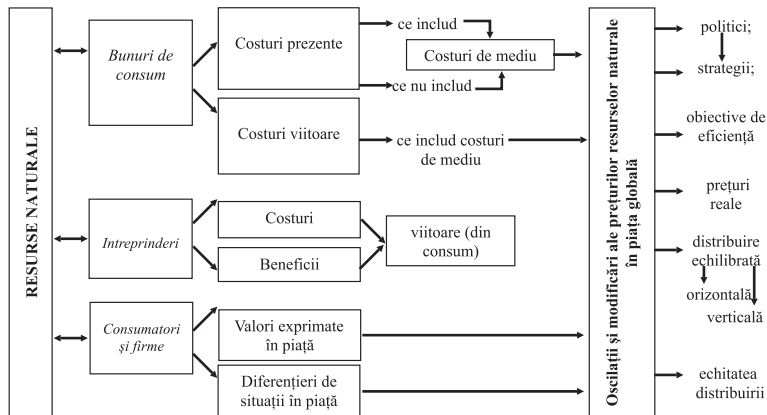


Fig. 1 - Maximizarea eficienței utilizării resurselor naturale în economia de piață

### ***3. Instrumente ce aparțin politicilor de exploatare și utilizare eficientă a resurselor***

Clasificarea instrumentelor într-o politică sau strategie este încă nedefinită, urmare a gamei deosebit de largi de posibilități, de adăugare sau reformulare a acestora.

Într-o viziune actualizată, pentru România instrumentele de politici pentru resurse naturale se pot grupa în următoarele categorii:

- ▶▶ dreptul la proprietate, care oferă prioritate și îndreptățește cu privire la decizia de exploatare și valorificare a resurselor naturale aferente proprietății;
- ▶▶ educația cu privire la felul de utilizare a resurselor naturale;
- ▶▶ capacitatea, respectiv disponibilitatea de a negocia în privința exploatării și valorificării eficiente și optime a resurselor;
- ▶▶ sistemul de reglementări, obligații și impuneri legislative în domeniu;
- ▶▶ sarcini oficiale (cerințe, impuneri) și taxe referitoare la mediu;
- ▶▶ gradul de permisibilitate sau restricționare a activităților comerciale cu resurse naturale;
- ▶▶ subvenții și efectele lor;
- ▶▶ alte mijloace și instrumente de modelare a politicilor și tacticilor pentru înfăptuirea strategiei convențional acceptată.

În continuare, se prezintă succint caracteristicile definitorii ale mulțimii de instrumente menționate mai sus, în perspectiva integrării originale a acestora într-un model instrumental, parametric care să servească formalizării realiste a unei strategii practice pentru România în domeniul exploatării și utilizării eficiente a resurselor naturale.

#### *a) Dreptul la proprietate și activitățile cu resurse naturale ce decurg din acesta*

În România este necesară imperios clarificarea situației titlurilor de proprietate asupra terenurilor care, implicit, sunt cele ce cantonează resursele naturale.

Definirea dreptului de proprietate asupra resurselor naturale rezidă din expresia clară asupra dreptului de deținere pe termen nelimitat sau limitat a suprafețelor ce au acumulări de rezerve/resurse utile.

Consecințele negative asupra mediului, destructurarea cantitativă și calitativă a biodiversității, pierderile de resurse ș.a provin din incoerența dreptului de proprietate.

Un drept de proprietate inconsistent elimină voluntarismul pozitiv al proprietarului în privința echilibrului acțional ce ar trebui instaurat în exploatarea și utilizarea eficientă și rațională a resurselor.

Pierderea voluntarismului pozitiv este însoțită de decizii la fel de voluntare de exploatare intensivă, nerațională a acumulărilor de resurse utile.

În completare, dreptul la proprietate poate fi însoțit de reguli și norme de manifestare a acestuia care induc proprietarului comportamentul neafectant asupra mediului în plan național, zonal și global.

Acțiunile non-guvernamentale asupra deținătorilor de drept a proprietăților cu resurse naturale fac parte din voluntariatul decizional specific societății civile care, modelează prin cerințe voluntare atitudinile față de resurse și mediu.

#### *b) Educația și negocierile privind utilizarea resurselor naturale*

O cât mai semnificativă diseminare a informațiilor despre politicile și strategiile din domeniul resurselor naturale conduce la conștientizarea acțională, *printr-o nouă cunoaștere* în domeniu.

Reducerea degradării mediului, limitarea atitudinilor egocentrice asupra resurselor derivate din dreptul de proprietate precum și înfățișarea realistă a costurilor care să închidă ciclul protectiv. Pentru resursele naturale servesc educațional și în procesul negocierilor spre a lua decizii coerente legate de managementul utilizării acestor resurse.

Cunoașterea geologică, tehnologică și economică, regăsită în *cunoașterea naturală fundamentală* contribuie la ridicarea nivelului educațional generator de atitudini față de resursele naturale.

Birocrația și limitările (restricțiile), extrapolarea consecințelor acțiunilor hazardate, empirice în imaginea complexă a posibilelor consecințe negative ce se pot ivi în domeniul resurselor naturale, la care se adaugă cunoașterea legislativă și înțelegerea sensurilor evoluțiilor globale în domeniu reprezintă parametrii instrumentali în practica exploatarei și utilizării resurselor naturale.

#### *c) Instrumentul intervențiilor reglementative*

În unele țări, guvernele intervin definitiv sau temporar în procesul complex de exploatare și utilizare a resurselor naturale.

Reglementările emise în regim guvernamental sunt însoțite după caz, de măsuri punitive.

În context, sunt posibile: controlul economic al prețurilor, contingentări de volume de producție, impuneri de rate de recuperare

a investițiilor, limitări sau fluidizări ale intrărilor sau ieșirilor de resurse naturale pe piețe.

Problemele de afectare a sănătății, dereglări sociale sau practici productive ori economice neadecvate pot sta în atenția organului executiv, prin inițiative legislative, reglementări administrative, liberalizări, prohibiții și limitări sau ordine executive pentru circulația și utilizarea resurselor naturale.

*Reglementările în domeniu* sunt considerate instrumente *ex ante* pentru anticiparea situațională și prevenția apariției problemelor convențional neacceptate.

*Răspunderile în domeniu* sunt considerate instrumente *ex post*, care devin acționale atunci când problemele deja au apărut sau se manifestă.

De exemplu, modul de folosire a terenurilor, afectarea rezervelor subterane sau de suprafață a apelor, ocuparea suprafețelor cu deșeuri, permisiunea de acces și operații la coastele (țărmurile) marine ș.a reprezintă tot atâtea obiecte de potențială acțiune reglementativă.

Monitorizarea companiilor ce exploatează și utilizează resurse naturale intră, circumstanțial, în sarcinile guvernamentale ce vizează eficiența și raționalitatea în domeniu.

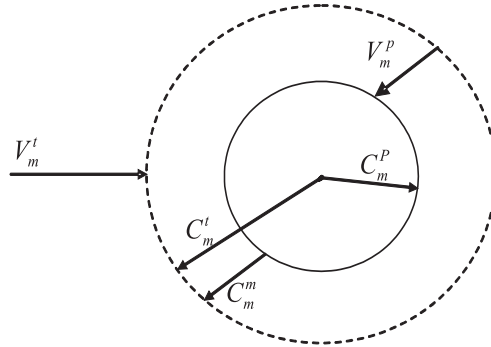
Comportamentul managerial inadecvat în domeniul resurselor naturale este supus restricționării și penalizărilor.

#### *d) Taxele în domeniul resurselor naturale*

Pentru activitatea umană, biologică și de mediu se identifică întotdeauna un *cost marginal estimat* care poate fi acceptat pentru așa numita „creștere zero”, respectiv pentru funcționarea obișnuită *cu venit marginal* a sistemelor în auto-reproducția lor fără surplus de valoare adăugată. (fig.2)

Uzual, tendința operațională independentă de executanți este ca veniturile să se manifeste rezistent la creștere iar costurile să expandeze.

Managementul resurselor naturale determină inversarea tendințelor de mai sus, prin organizarea și conducerea spre eficiență, care este măsură a veniturilor în raport cu cheltuielile efectuate, respectiv mărirea costurilor.



$C_m^P$  = cost marginal de producție;  $C_m$  = cost marginal total;  
 $C_m^m$  = cost marginal de mediu;  
 $V_m^P$  = venit marginal de producție;  $V_m^t$  = venit marginal total

**Fig.2 Expresia tendințelor costurilor și veniturilor marginale la exploatarea și utilizarea resurselor naturale cu afectarea mediului**

Aceste costuri pot fi afectate (în sensul convențional negativ, al creșterii lor) de lipsa măsurilor productive raționale și optimizate. De aceea minimizarea costurilor este legată de maximizarea efectelor măsurilor productive ( $M_p$ ) precum cele ce vizează creșterea productivității, inovația, progresul tehnic și tehnologic, ș.a.

Afectarea mediului prin exploatarea și folosirea resurselor naturale implică apariția de costuri pentru a) remediere sau b) menținerea neafectării. Măsurile de neafectare a mediului ( $M_m$ ) la rândul lor trebuie să aibă efectele maximizate pentru a obține minimizarea costurilor aferente.

Sintetic, tendințele au următoarea exprimare complexă:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
 (C_m^P \longrightarrow \max) \xrightarrow{\{(\Sigma M_p) \rightarrow \max\}} \min \\
 (V_m^P \longrightarrow \min) \xrightarrow{\hspace{10em}} \max \\
 (C_m^t \longrightarrow \max) \xrightarrow{\{(\Sigma M_p) \rightarrow \max\} * \{(\Sigma M_m) \rightarrow \min\}} \min \\
 (C_m^m \longrightarrow \max) \xrightarrow{\{(\Sigma M_m) \rightarrow \min\}} \min \\
 (V_m^t \longrightarrow \min) \xrightarrow{\hspace{10em}} \max
 \end{array} \right. \quad (1)$$

Expresia parametrului ( $C_m^t$ ) poate fi asimilată cu *costul marginal extern*, iar expresia lui ( $C_m^p$ ) cu *costul marginal intern*.

Eliminarea costului de mediu și a limitei sale marginale ( $C_m^m$ ) se poate realiza pe mai multe căi:

- prin propria decizie a operatorului care preferă să nu înregistreze costuri suplimentare față de costurile uzuale de producție. În acest caz, exploatarea și utilizarea resurselor naturale urmează un algoritm operațional față de mediu.

- prin cuprinderea valorii costurilor de mediu în costurile de producție, intrând sub incidența minimizării generale a elementelor de cost.

- prin alocarea de cheltuieli suplimentare pentru costurile de mediu a căror sursă este din venituri proprii sau subvenții.

- prin taxe impuse de administrația statală, care întregesc bugetul ce urmează a fi realocat refacerii sau menținerii mediului.

### **5. Libertăți de comercializare a resurselor naturale**

Acceptarea diferitelor mărimi de costuri marginale pentru același produs (aceeași resursă naturală) regăsită în locații diferite este legată de *influența agregată* a exploatării și valorificării asupra mediului și intereselor de piață. [7]

Unui agent economic  $i$  se permite un anumit cost marginal, iar altuia nu  $i$  se creează câmp de acțiune.

În esență, este afectată libertatea de operație, chiar cea comercială, înțelegând prin acest tip de atitudini efortul de *instaurare a echilibrului acțional*.

Agenții economici frecvent încearcă să transforme, respectiv să redistribuie anumite mărimi din elementele de cost total spre a atinge un cost marginal permisibil.

Totodată, acei agenți economici care înregistrează ne-permisibilitățile amintite procedează frecvent la redistribuirea resurselor (încredințarea lor) intermediară către cei ce întrunesc condițiile de permisibilitate. Operația este purtătoare de comision, respectiv de reducere a profitului total final. În acest caz se urmărește înregistrarea unor *costuri minimale de transfer*.

Permisivitatea exploatării și valorificării resurselor poate fi afectată și de situația juridică, în fapt constatată, prin instituirea a două concepții de diferențiere: 1) „*proprietarul plătește*” pentru afectările de mediu ori piață; sau 2) *poluatorul (cel ce „deranjează”)* plătește consecințele acțiunilor sale.

Formularea unui sistem cu elemente cheie de generare și susținere a avantajelor, practicând *costuri minimale de tranzacții* rămâne în sarcina elaboratorilor de politici și strategii în domeniul resurselor naturale.

De altfel, oficialitățile oricărei țări, au menirea de a identifica și impune sisteme de libertate operațională productiv-economică care sunt purtătoare de permisivități de dezvoltare.

### **6. Influența acțiunilor de subvenționare**

Încurajarea unei direcții sau alta pentru acțiuni în domeniul resurselor naturale înseamnă, succesiv, evaluarea potențialului de acțiune reală a operatorilor spre a îndeplini cerințe productiv-economică.

Asimetriile operaționale, în contextul impunerii atingerii unor obiective sau a unui orizont de dezvoltare sunt eliminate cu ajutorul instituțiilor oficiale (guvern, bugetul de stat, bănci de dezvoltare) care suportă diferențele de cost provenite din exploatarea și valorificarea unor resurse naturale ce se dovedesc la rândul lor de „importanță strategică”.

Subvenționarea poate fi 1) *definitivă* sau 2) *temporară* (cu recuperarea valorii de sprijin).

Imperfecțiunile pieței, preferințe endogene necontrolabile, riscurile, standardele limitative sau nevoia de a atinge în mod obligatoriu anumite nivele de standard a produselor și serviciilor din resurse naturale ș.a. pot fi contracarate prin operaționalizarea subvenției.

### **7. Concluzii și contribuții proprii**

Internalizarea costurilor externe reprezintă o contribuție proprie a autorului în prezenta lucrare. Este avansată propunerea de elaborare pentru România a unui *Document privind Managementul Resurselor* (cu particularizarea exploatării și valorificării resurselor naturale).

Piața - ca sistem - reprezintă arealul ce poate determina modul cum să fie maximizată eficiența utilizării resurselor naturale.

Într-o viziune originală a autorului, actualizată, pentru România instrumentele aferente politicilor ce vizează resursele naturale sunt grupate având în vedere faptul că încă este nedefinită pe plan mai larg, internațional o clasificare posibilă de generalizat.

Se avansează propunerea că este necesară elaborarea unui *model instrumental al politicilor și strategiilor în domeniul resurselor naturale*.

Pe măsura adăugării de noi instrumente la mulțimea finită, aflată în continuă extindere a procedurilor de operaționalizare a exploataării resurselor naturale, în fapt se construiește o clasificare care poate dobândi relevanță din ce în ce mai ridicată.

Cunoașterea naturală fundamentală contribuie la ridicarea nivelului educațional (a culturii organizaționale) generatoare de atitudini față de resursele naturale.

În lucrare este redată în mod original expresia tendințelor costurilor și veniturilor marginale la exploatarea și utilizarea resurselor naturale ce afectează mediul.

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## **IMITATIONAL MODELS OF THE INNOVATION DEVELOPMENT OF A COUNTRY IN CONDITIONS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE ECONOMY**

*The article reveals the characteristics and differences of the innovation process in the countries-leaders and countries-outsiders in innovations. Also the contents of the innovation process of the leaders in innovations are displayed here. In the end there are proposals for using the most perspective models of the innovation development for the Republic of Moldova.*

*Imitational modeling* allows the forming of a conditional model of the innovation process in countries – leaders in innovations, which can be then used for the countries – innovation outsiders, including the Republic of Moldova.

The basis of the imitational modeling is the creation of the effective system for monitoring the global transformations of the World Economy, national Research and Development (R&D) progress and changes in the global innovation sphere.

Nowadays the imitation of the innovation process should be primarily based upon the qualitative estimation due to high variety of countries and conditional character of the comparison of quantitative parameters.

**Goals** of the imitational modeling of the innovation process are the following:

1. Definition of attributes and features of the innovation process of countries – innovation leaders with the highest reliability;
2. Selection of universal and characteristic trends of the innovation process of countries – leaders in innovations;
3. Development of the algorithm of using the macro indicators in the imitational model;
4. Definition of the input and output parameters of the innovation process and its imitation;
5. Creation of the set of parameters for estimation of attributes, features, etc.

The imitational model should **reflect the quantitative and qualitative sides of the national innovation process; include the mechanism of adapting to certain socio-economic conditions of a country – innovation outsider.**

1. Thus the following **stages of the imitational modeling** can be displayed:
2. Structural analysis of the process and estimation of the roles of its elements;
3. Collection of information and definition of the basis and moment of modeling;
4. Classification and systematization of the modeling factors and conditions;
5. Selection of criteria and indicators and forming their interrelations;
6. Comparison of the trends in changing of the indicators on the global scale, in countries – leaders and outsiders in innovation;
7. Definition of the common and different trends, attributes and characteristics of the innovation process;
8. Description and creation of the model;
9. Interpretation of the model;
10. Modification of the model, prediction of changes and elaboration of methods of realization of the imitational model.

The imitational modeling can be represented in the following consecutive circuit:

1. Setting goals and objectives of the imitational modeling;
2. Collection of information;
3. Definition of factors, conditions and attributes of the innovation process in the countries – leaders;
4. Organization and classification of factors and conditions;
5. Characteristic of the interrelations of factors and conditions as a single item;
6. Selection of criteria and indicators that characterize the innovation process in countries – leaders;
7. Creation of the quantitative and qualitative components of the imitational model and its modification according to the conditions in the country.

Imitational modeling of the national innovation process is related to modeling of complex systems consisting of a great number of interconnected elements. The condition of optimization – the effective functioning of the innovation sphere and the development of the innovation process – is introduced in this case. The presence of the management of the innovation process, its structure and hierarchy create the possibility of its imitation. Multiple possible conditions and characteristics of the studied phenomenon are investigated and modeled according to the scope of functioning – intensification of the innovation development of a country. [3, p. 230]

The imitational model being created should be included in the analytical kind of models. In other words, it is a set of functional parities and logic conditions describing links between the elements and functioning of the process.

The **criteria of the imitational modeling** are the following:

1) **Economic criterion** – It estimates the functioning of the innovation process as an economic system, economic results of the innovation process and includes the economic indicators and parameters (volume of manufacture and export in R&D products, R&D expenses, investment efficiency, share in the global volume of innovations, etc.);

2) **Socio-economic criterion** – It considers the socio-economic aspects of the innovation process; may include the ecological and cultural elements; is represented by the indicators characterizing the social sphere of R&D (number of researchers, the share of researchers engaged in the national innovation process in their total number, etc.);

3) **Criterion of stability and balance of development** – It estimates qualitative elements (indicators) of the socio-economic development on the basis of intensification of the innovation process (economic system, culture, education, public health services, ecology) with concentrating on the social parameters of development;

4) **Institutional criterion** – It works with the indicators of the institutional maintenance of the innovation process (intellectual property protection, effectiveness of legislation, presence of institutions of the innovation infrastructure, etc.);

5) **Functional criterion** – It estimates the indicators and attributes of realization of the innovation process and interrelations among its elements, and also interaction of the state and the private sector; includes

various indicators reflecting the qualitative side of the innovation process (partnership between the state and corporate structures, aspects of organization and management, development of the innovation market, motivation and adaptation of the economy to innovations, etc.).

The characteristic features and differences of the innovation process in countries – leaders and outsiders in innovations are represented in the Table 1 below.

**Table 1 – The characteristic features and differences of the innovation process in countries – leaders and outsiders in innovations.**

<b>Main Attributes</b>	<b>Countries – leaders</b>	<b>Countries – outsiders</b>
<b>Management of scientific and technological development.</b>	Realization of the systematic policy on science and technology on the basis of the strategy of scientific, technological and innovation development.	The policy on science and technology is not realized in the systematic manner. The strategy of the innovation development is implemented relatively weak.
<b>Economic characteristics of the innovation process.</b>	Innovation process has high profitability and socio-economic effectiveness, along with the growth in resource expenditures.	Innovation process has high profitability, but the socio-economic effectiveness is not so significant.
<b>Social aspect of the innovation process.</b>	The intellectualization of the population, preparation and mobilization of high quality stuff are stressed here. The immigration is stimulated.	Level of the population's intellectualization is falling. Preparation of high quality stuff is not progressing. Labour force mobilization is low. There is an outflow of the labour force.
<b>Main sources of innovations.</b>	They are the states and large corporations, all elements of the scientific innovation system, and the high-tech complex.	The state sector and large corporate entities are characterized by low innovation activity. The R&D elements are weakly integrated and function mostly apart from each other.

<p><b>Financing of the innovation process.</b></p>	<p>The sources are diversified, but the dominating one is the private financing. State financing is realized both in direct and indirect forms. Amount of financing from the major sources is quite large.</p>	<p>The diversification of the sources is not significant. The main sources are the states and large corporate entities from the traditional branches. The amount of their financing is relatively small.</p>
<p><b>Development of the innovation structure and mechanisms of R&amp;D integration.</b></p>	<p>Institutions of the innovation infrastructure are characterized by the high level of functional effectiveness. Various mechanisms of integration of the R&amp;D elements are realized (administrative, market, etc.).</p>	<p>The number of institutions of the innovation infrastructure is small, and they are characterized by low level of functional effectiveness. Mostly the administrative mechanisms of the R&amp;D integration are realized, which do not provide close interrelations between the elements.</p>
<p><b>Distribution and implementation of innovations.</b></p>	<p>Distribution of innovations takes place through the innovation market and by the channels of large corporations and clusters with the state's participation. Implementation of innovations is intensified and has a systematic character.</p>	<p>Distribution of innovations is done by the channels of the state sector and large corporate structures with the state's participation. Implementation of innovations is not systematic.</p>
<p><b>Role of the state in the innovation process.</b></p>	<p>Active creation of various conditions for supporting the innovation process. Regulating on the basis of a large number of instruments and mechanisms.</p>	<p>Active creation of conditions is limited. Regulating and supporting the innovation process is not very efficient. The number of mechanisms is limited.</p>
<p><b>Functioning of the state sector.</b></p>	<p>Developed scientific and innovation spheres are actively engaged in the innovation process in various forms (as the source of innovations, participant of cooperation, resource basis). The education system is paid a lot of attention and is used as the instrument of the state control.</p>	<p>Development of the state sector is limited. The present institutes are not actively involved in the innovation process. The education system is developed slowly and weakly engaged in the state control.</p>

<b>Interrelations between the state and the private sector.</b>	Close partnership in all spheres and on different levels is realized. The volumes are expedient in certain moments. The market mechanisms are dominating.	Is characterized by speculative aspects. Is registered on certain stages. Can be realized in contradiction to the market mechanisms.
<b>Economic activity of the state in the innovation sphere.</b>	Has a complex, effective and systematic character. The state mechanisms are effective and are realized in different forms (state order, technology transfer, partial participation).	Do not have a complex and systematic character. The effectiveness of the mechanisms is limited. Small number of reforms is implemented.
<b>Regional policy on the micro and macro levels.</b>	The innovation orientation is focused both on the micro and meso levels. Economic development and competitiveness are determined by the innovation activity.	The innovation orientation is the main one neither on the micro nor on the meso levels. Economic development and competitiveness are determined by the resource and labour force capacity.
<b>Character of interrelations between R&amp;D and the global innovation and economic environment.</b>	Active participation in the global competitive environment, international programs of scientific and technological development, and international cooperation.	Weak participation in the global competitive environment, as well as the involvement in the international programs and the cooperation system in the innovation sphere.
<b>Impact of innovations on economic development.</b>	The expenditures and effects from innovations are in constant growth. The innovations of economic growth are dominating. High correlation dependence among the indicators of innovation and economic development is realized.	The innovations of redistribution are dominating, which leads to economic decline. The correlation dependence among the indicators of innovation and economic development is very vague.

The macro indicators used in the imitation of implementation and distribution in the innovation modeling can be conditionally divided on several groups: *socio-economic, financial and economic, and situational and economic indicators*. They comprise numerical characteristics of the major attributes of the countries – leaders in innovations.

### 1) **Socio-economic indicators:**

- ☒ Specific weight of the number of researchers in the world indicator;
- ☒ Grade of involvement of high quality stuff into the innovation process;
- ☒ Quantity and rate of changing of personnel involved in the scientific, innovation and manufacturing domains;
- ☒ Volume and quality of the intellectual resources of activity.

### 2) **Financial and economic indicators:**

- ☒ Share of the R&D expenditures in the GDP in the absolute amount (capacity of science in the economy) and in calculation per capita of the population;
- ☒ Share of the national R&D expenditures in the national amount of financing the innovation progress;
- ☒ Effectiveness of investments in R&D.

### 3) **Situational and economic indicators** (structural, conjectural):

- ☒ Number of the registered patents in general, abroad, state, and cooperative ones;
- ☒ Share of innovations and high-tech products on the global market;
- ☒ Quantity of the manufactured and realized innovations and high-tech products;
- ☒ Volume of export of innovations and high-tech products;
- ☒ Number of companies and enterprises active in innovations;
- ☒ Quantity and effectiveness of institutes of the innovation infrastructure;
- ☒ Self-provision with innovations;
- ☒ Number of publications per 1 million of the country's population;
- ☒ Development of small and medium business (quantity, division by types);
- ☒ Number of the realized state programs.

While creating the imitational model of the innovation process, the most important thing that should be considered is the evaluation of the situation and trends of the socio-economic development of the country – leader in innovations and of the country, which the model is used for.

Current conditions require that the imitation of the innovation process must be primarily based on the qualitative criteria evaluation, which is conditioned by significant differences of the states, difficulty of the analyzed phenomenon and conditional character of comparing the quantitative parameters.

Nowadays in Economics three main types of models of the innovation development of the industrially developed countries are defined:

1) *Orientation on the reserves in science* and realization of large-scale projects comprising all stages of the scientific and manufacturing cycle (France, the United Kingdom, the USA);

2) *Orientation on the spreading of innovations*, creation of the favourable innovation sphere and rationalization of the economic structure (Germany, Sweden, Switzerland);

3) *Orientation by the development of the innovation infrastructure*, ensuring of the receptivity of the R&D achievements and coordination of different sectors in the sphere of science and technology (Japan, South Korea).

### **Conclusions and proposals:**

In conclusion, we consider the most perspective models of the innovation development for the Republic of Moldova are the following:

1) **Model of the centralized management of the investment activity in the innovation sphere.** The model is aimed on the usage of the best technologies for manufacturing cheaper and in the same time more qualitative products. The main responsibility of the local authorities in the development of this model will be the contribution to increasing the scientific and technical potential of the country and its adapting to the amount that can be compared to the developed countries.

2) **Model of the regional priorities of the innovation development.** Before the development of the regional innovation programs there should be the definition of the regional innovation priorities that would not contradict the state ones and consider the regional peculiarities of the industrial, resourceful and scientific potential. Thus the concretization of the structure and expected results of the implemented programs should be done by including in the programs the projects with concrete executors on the competitive basis.



3) **Model of the effective usage of concentration of the innovation development.** The model considers that the innovation development in the Republic of Moldova begins not from the zero level. Certain industries are characterized by significant concentration of the scientific, manufacturing, financial potential.

4) **Model of the international cooperation in the innovation sphere.** The concept of the model is its orientation on the Moldova's active participation in the international scientific and technical cooperation and wide exchange of scientific results and modern technologies.

5) **Model of the single innovation space of the CSI.** It is based on the scientific and technical cooperation among the states, manufacturers and organizations within the CSI on common programs and orders.

However, considering the specific situation and development trends of the innovation potential of Moldova nowadays it is advisable to implement the **Model of the international cooperation in the innovation sphere together with the Model of the single innovation space of the CSI.**

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## **SECTION II.**

### ***Financial support for sustainable growth***

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#### **INVESTMENT BANKING**

*The economic, financial and monetary changes had serious consequences not only on the level of providing the finance necessary for the development process but also on the level of providing the finance required for importing the basic food needs and rendering necessary production inputs.*

*All these problems show the importance of “Banks” generally and “Investment Banks” particularly in the emerging and underdeveloped countries. Banks as financial institution or intermediary mobilize either national or foreign savings through accepting deposits and then use these mobilized savings in financing or funding any kind of economic activities, whatever they are production activities of goods or productive services or social and private services.*

*Theoretically, and practically as well, some type of Investment Banks may effectively participate in pushing the wheel of development in order to overcome the difficult circumstances that these countries are going through. This effective participation might shown in providing an encouraging investment climate necessary for creating a powerful private sector that is capable to actively participate in establishing an agricultural, industrial and productive base as well as a service base of a new economic structure that contributes to facing the economic crisis and in the same time relieving the huge burdens shouldered by the governments of those countries.*

*In fact, the Investment Banks can play a vital role in the development processes if they execute their main functions by providing finance to the private sector as well as expertise and knowhow in the field of economic feasibility studies, international contracting and market studies, as it will be presented in this paper.*

*But whatever the differences and variations between Investment Banks themselves or between the economies all over the world, the Investment Banks practicing three principal functions; developing, financing and controlling functions. And the performance of the Investment Banks for these functions is affected by some factors and determents related to the banks’ policies and managements, and to the positions of the national economy; its applied regime, its operating and administrating systems and the nature of its witnessed growth stage, as well as the economical and financial climate through which said banks perform.*

### ***1. Investment Banking***

The importance of “*Investment Banks*” appeared through its effectively participation in pushing the wheel of development by arranging stable medium and long-term sources of funds to finance investment project and providing an encouraging investment climate necessary for creating a powerful private sector that is capable to actively participate in establishing an agricultural, industrial and productive base as well as a service base of a new economic structure that contributes to facing the economic and social development’s requirements.

Investment banks play an important role by providing finance to the private sector as well as expertise and know-how in the field of economic consultations, market studies, marketing surveys, and international contracting, in addition to providing various services necessary for projects evaluation and management. Taking into consideration that these types of banks are financial institutions that have several comprehensive functions which any investment project could lack, being a premature sector that still making its way up towards progress and prosperity.

The implementation of investment projects needs providing the medium or long term finance whether in form of capital or loans for acquiring their fixed assets such as lands, buildings, machineries and equipments. Basically, the financial market provides such finance to the projects which their volume, legal nature, financial, economic and technical feasibility enabling them to receive the necessary finance from this market through issuing stocks, bonds and loans.

Since it has been obvious that the short term deposits received by the commercial banks do not enable these banks to grant it in form of medium or long term loans -except within certain limits- because of liquidity, reserves, saving and consumption functions, inflation and economic cycle considerations [7], it became necessary for the banking systems, in light of the increasing need for the medium and long term finance to meet requirements of continues economic growth, to seek the proper way to coincide between said considerations as follows [5]:

1- Establishing institutions specialized in extending the medium and long term finance. Said institutions must enjoy stable resources received from its capital and through issuing bonds, borrowing for long periods and/or allowing banks which extend a short term credit to issue such bonds with the purpose of receiving financial resources with proper terms to be used in the medium and long term finance.

2- Supporting the monetary and financial markets' potentials and facilitating operations of discounts and trading of different cash assets.

During the second half of the 19th Century, many banks were incorporated to work in the field of investment. Some of said banks specialized in financing industry, agriculture or the real estate projects while others have financed different sectors without specialization under the name of investment banks. The investment banks come on top of the financial sectors which help in the development processes as they participate in discovering and implementing the investment opportunities and financing projects in addition to its role in mobilizing savings and developing experiences for the sake of establishing the productive investments.

The 20th Century witnessed very important developments in the banking systems structures as expansion in establishing the central banks which came after the First World War. The great depression at the end of 1929 has led to many banks' bankruptcy which followed by issuance of many banking legislations aiming at organizing operations of the commercial and specialized banks especially in concerning extending different types of credit and participating in the projects share capitals thus guaranteeing protection of depositors and directing credit to fulfill needs of the national economies [4].

However, the Investment Banks had clearly appeared in a number of underdeveloped countries after the Second World War aiming at accelerating the processes of economic growth, but their success was different from one country to another due to many reasons; such as:

- weakness of initiatives of the society to search for investment opportunities and to buildup projects;
- lack of benefiting of the foreign technological experience;
- unavailability of enough savings for achieving the targeted growth rate;
- shortage of available channels to transfer savings into fields of productive investments;
- the absence of developed capital markets interpreted into weak knowledge of the progressive means of financing investments and attracting external funds.

The Investment Banks did not adopt the same name in different countries as some have called them the "***Investment Corporations***" and "***Development Banks***" and sometimes they were called "***Development Finance Institutions***" or "***Industrial Development Banks***".

Regardless of the names or targets, the basic role of said banks was the participation in financing and managing investments in order to achieve the economic development.

Nomination of the **“Investment Banks”** is derived from their basic function in practicing the investment operation while their nomination as the **“Development Banks”** comes from the target of practicing such function to realize development. The State or the Public Sector participates in the ownership or management of the **“Development Banks”** as such banks introduce the finance according to certain facilitated conditions and interest rates on the contrary to the **“Investment Banks”** which work according to commercial bases.

It is worthily mentioned that some of the United Nations’ studies [3] have defined the **“Development Bank”** as *“Any institution focuses, as its first priority, on introducing the long term loans”*, while the **“Development Corporation”** *focuses basically on participating in the share capitals of projects, their development and management and introducing support to them.*

This distinguish is useless practically; as some of the development banks and corporations which were established to practice the two types of investment have directed to focus on one of them while some others which were established to practice a certain type have extended their activity to the other type according to various circumstances and policies.

But it is necessary to distinguish between the Investment Banks and some corporations concerned with the governmental investments which appeared in some countries to implement the programs for the government and work as transferring channels from the investment provisions in the State budget to the governmental projects, which was the case in the former Soviet Union and number of socialist and underdeveloped countries [7].

In this regard, it is worthily mentioned that some of the investment and development banks have started their activities as agents for the governments in implementing investments to avert faults of the governmental management, but in other cases they failed to perform their duties due to interference of the governmental bodies in their work.

## **2. Functions of Investment Banks**

Many of the Investment Banks were incorporated during the second half of the 20th Century, especially in the underdeveloped countries to achieve different targets, whereas each of them were incorporated

according to certain needs and in the frame of social and economic climate differed from a country to another.

Number of said banks devoted efforts to serve the governmental projects and some others introduced services to both the public and private sectors. While the role of some banks was restricted to lending, some others combined between lending and participating in the share capital of investment projects.

In some cases, according to a set policy, a number of Investment Banks focused their activities on financing medium and large industries, while some other specialized in supporting and developing the small industrial projects. Also, a number of investment banks concerned about all the national economy's sectors, while other investment banks concentrated on tending specific sectors or certain areas.

On other hand, some of Investment Banks played a key role in searching for investment opportunities and proving their feasibility and then promoting said opportunities among businessmen and investors, while other banks have established and managed the projects as a preliminary step towards marketing when available.

Some of said banks give due attention to develop the financial market and to seriously expand the base of productive property through selling their portfolio investments and pledging to cover issuance of securities.

There are cases in which the Investment Bank becomes responsible for financing and following up some programs in the State's public plan. Thus, it plays an important role in expressing recommendations and executing the necessary procedures for facing problems happen during implementation and operation, in order to settle said problems and accomplish the targets.

The role of Investment Banks may extend, under certain conditions, to introduce the technical, financial and administrative consultation for the projects they finance and may exceed this to sell such consultancy services to the projects they do not finance through subordinated advisory enterprises which the investment bank participated in their establishment and management.

However, differences in roles and purposes of investment banks confirms the nonexistence of a unified model suitable for all countries or even a little number of them where the matter is related to the needs, the economic conditions and social circumstances of the country.

But whatever the differences and variations between investment banks themselves or between the economies all over the world, the

investment banks practicing three principal functions; developing, financing and controlling functions. And the performance of the Investment Banks for these functions is affected by some factors and deterrents related to the banks' policies and managements, and to the positions of the national economy; its applied regime, its operating and administrating systems and the nature of its witnessed growth stage, as well as the economical and financial climate through which said banks perform.

### *2.1. Developing Function*

#### **Concepts**

The Investment Banks play an important role to develop the national economy through attracting investors and organizers aiming at reaching the projects which prove the technical integrity, realize positive results and enjoy potentials of sound implementation.

The decision of finance is based on the evaluation of the financial, economic and technical feasibility of the project according to the standards applied in this regard. The Investment Banks put, for themselves, policies and regulations in the field of selecting the projects offered for finance.

Depending on their developmental role, the Investment Banks establish and promote the projects in order to complete the capital structure as their participation in a project encourages others to cover the required share capital and accelerate its implementation.

The Investment Banks practice a key role for the sake of improving the investment climate through:

- studying the financial and economic positions, laws and regulations related to planning and investment;
- introducing proposals aiming at encourage investment and develop savings;
- supporting the money and capital markets and elaborating foreign trade;
- increasing technology usage, production enhancement and productivity rising;
- expanding markets capacities and eliminating obstacles facing investors in dealing with the different state bodies.

#### **Determinants**

The role of the Investment Banks in directing their developing function is affected by the nature and structure of the national economy

and by the stage of economic growth according to the applied economic regime. Increasing the importance of the Investment

Banks' developing function is reflected on their financing role. Hence, success of the banks in establishing, developing and participating in the investment projects lead to increase the volume of finance extended to them in form of medium and long term loans, taking into account that the financial structure of any project includes loans in addition to the share capital to accomplish its financial needs, since the entire volume of investment costs is usually not financed only through the share capital.

The German banking experiment clarifies the tight relation between the stage of economic development and the developing function of banks; as the desire in accelerating development of the German economy while a relatively expanded capital market didn't exist, which led the German banks to introduce their strong support, encouraged by the state, to establish and finance industries and provide them with consultations, technical and administrative services. These banks were looking for investment ideas and opportunities, preparing the feasibility studies and directing all procedures needed to establish, finance and supervise the investment projects, in addition of participating in their share capitals. Thus, German bankers have related to industries as they were the planners, organizers, financiers and managers of most important investment projects. Said relations proved positive results in developing the German economy.

In the emerging and underdeveloped countries, incorporation of a large number of Investment Banks following the Second World War coincided with the increase of governments' interference in the economic activity through setting and implementing the developments plans, owning and managing some major industrial projects. Functions of said banks differed from a country to another as some of them were responsible for developing the public projects while others held the tasks of developing the private sector, searching for investment opportunities, expanding the capital market and studying problems facing the industry. However, some of said banks played an important role in developing both the public and private sectors at the same time. Thus, reflects the relation between the developing function of Investment Banks and the national economy operating system. Hence, the transformation from the absolute liberal economic to the stage of directed economy in order to accelerate the economic development, the importance of the role of Investment Banks had started to appear clearly and the need for the aid



introduced from the international financial institutions to said banks in the underdeveloped countries had raised in order to support their potentials in developing the national economies and paving the proper investment climate.

It is worthily mentioned that the developing function of Investment Banks in the emerging economies is related to the methods used to operate the general productive enterprises as for their flexibility in organizing affairs and procuring the investment resources through the financial market, and is affected by the status and position of the private sector in the society, in addition to the important role in developing and supporting the private sector especially in the field of small and medium industries to reach the optimum economic volume which realize the economic and administrative abundances.

The Investment Bank also plays an effective role in participating in the establishment of the joint venture projects and supporting the syndication of their financial needs from domestic, regional and global markets, and benefiting from the technology available at the advanced industrial institutions through various formulas of partnership and/or technical cooperation which the bank participates in their arrangements and adoptions.

## *2.2. Financing Function*

### **Concepts**

The Investment Banks extend finance to the projects reposing on a base of financial resources; mainly their share capital, medium and long terms loans received, deposits attracted in different currencies from both local and foreign markets and issuance of bonds offered for public subscription and covered by the commercial banks and other financial institutions.

The financing function is the most important functions of the Investment Banks whereas they extend finance to different purposes thus enabling projects to obtain the fixed assets elements including buildings, machineries, and equipments, and also the necessary working capital represented in raw materials, operating requirements and forming the full-manufactured warehoused.

Finance may take a direct form or indirect one through either the guarantees introduced by the bank to another financial institute extending the loan for the project or to the suppliers of machineries, equipments and contractors. Said indirect finance is related to the bank's issuance of documentary credits and acceptance of bills, cheques and other securities.

The financing role extends to the granting of credit facilities against discounting bills, purchasing debts, financial leasing, financing foreign trades and providing the temporary needs of liquidity for covering deficits that may arise sometimes in the project's cash position.

#### Determinants

Two basic methodologies appeared in the progressed capitalist communities about medium and long term banking finance;

- **The first methodology** represented the British banks concepts by which the commercial banks activities were restricted at extending the short term loans as the main portion of their resources formed by current and saving deposits which banks must not hazard in the investment fields averting interest rate fluctuations effects that may happen on the long run, since increasing interest rates leads to decrease the securities values if their return is less than such an interest rate, and vice versa; decreasing interest rates leads to increase the securities values if their return is more than the interest rate [7]. Also, banks' investments in stocks of industrial projects connect destiny of said investments to the performance and success of said projects as well as the conditions of the industry, where if such industry witnessed a crisis, the financial assets acquired by investing part of depositors' funds would be regressed.

- **The second methodology** adopted generally by the majority of the European banks, which allowed banks to participate in financing the long-term investments on the contrary to the British banks, hence it is attributed to difference of stage of economic growth. In Britain, even though the industry was established earlier than other European countries, volumes of projects were developed slowly, thus enabled these projects to receive the long term financing requirements easily based on their self-resources and the available reserves and accumulated profits. It also helped the existence of a banking system extended projects with the working capital needed to finance their increasing activities. Hence, the need for medium & long terms lending specialized institutions did not appear except at the end of 19th Century, when the volume of industrial units enlarged and transferred from the individual institutions into the joint stock ones. This development was followed by appearance of the Investment Banks and Issuance Incorporations to extend the funds necessary for the investment purposes to the investment projects through issuing stocks and bonds.

On the difference of the economic development stage and its relation to the role of banking finance; in Germany, France and Belgium, the industrial growth came after Britain, and the matter was clearly reflected on the financing role of their banks as compared to the British

banks role. The European Banks did not comply with the banking system in Britain as for restriction of the commercial banks' short-term finance, but they expanded their roles in extending the medium and long-term finance to the growing industries.

In Germany, which developed its growing industry through applying the custom protection as seemed a suitable arrangement for developing the German national economy, the explanation of the difference of the economic development stage appeared throughout the German banks rushed to support the industrial units in order to finance constructions and expansions to accelerate the development process.

As for the tight linkage between the financing role of Investment Banks within liberal market economy and methods of its operation, it is noted that at the primary stages of capitalism developments, allowed the economic units to practice its activities and compete without direct interference of the government. This was the general policy of the British economy during the 19th Century until the First World War, which reflected upon banks activities which went into competitions to attract deposits and required highly keenness on the liquidity factor and further concentration on the quick-liquidated short term lending.

As the British capitalism had developed from liberty capitalism to a restricted one under influences of the economic crisis, the governmental interference increased and methods of operating the British economy was changed. The change was reflected on the banks' investment policies as from considering the "loan liquidity" its ability of self-liquidation, to the possibility of transferring such a loan to the Central Bank or any other financial institution. Hence, the relative importance of long term lending increased for the British Banks as a result of said notions, which dominated the financial market and allowed realization of assets liquidity upon needed.

On the other hand, it is remarkable that the crisis witnessed by the European Banks reflected the relation between their financing role and method of operating the national economy. Cases of insolvency faced by some banks were not only attributed to expansion in extending credits but also to lack of support by the central banks and absence of active economic policies. Therefore, the great depression was followed by transformation of the free capitalism into a restricted one when the government interfered in the economic activities. This role extended to the financing role of the European banks activities as legislations were issued to organize their participations in the long term investments. A large number of specialized and investment banks were incorporated and practiced their activities in the field of medium and long term lending.

### 2.3. *Controlling Function*

#### **Concepts**

This function is to be practiced through following up projects within the implementation stage on both the financial and material levels, in order to confirm that project implementation is applied according to the set timetable, planned standards, and within financial credits limits mentioned in the studies prepared about the project.

Said control aims at discovering any problems may face the project during its implementation stage in order to suggest means of settlement which eliminate barriers without causing any harmful effects on the project. The following up process also aims at confirming safety of implementing agreements of loans and reducing risks of the credit extended to the project. Moreover, the project's follow up continues during the stage of operation to assure its capability to fulfill its obligations easily.

Also comes under the controlling function; settlement of the problems that may expose the project to failure or destruction if not solved, through providing the sound management and proper liquidity. This support shaped in different dimensions and methods, topped by supporting the management, rescheduling debts, alleviating burdens of interest and introducing the financial, technical and administrative cooperation to protect it against insolvency.

#### **Determinants**

The controlling function of Investment Bank under the free market economy regime is deeply related to the philosophy and operating methods of said regime, since the governing behaviors of all private establishments as well as banks aim at realizing the maximum available profit rate in addition to assuring its funds safety. Accordingly, the long term loans extended according to the factor of commercial profitability, after confirming the economical, technical and financial feasibility of the project required to be financed as well as its ability to fulfill its obligations. The controlling role of the Investment Bank is to follow up the extended finance till repayment is finalized.

In addition to confirming the financed project ability to face repayment of loans installments and interests, performance of the follow up process aims also at doing consequent evaluation to the project to avert aggravation of accidental problems and to control these problems. The controlling function of Investment Bank on the extended finance requires the continued assure of the project's commitment to the drawn bases, use of resources according to set purposes and that the financial

results are satisfactory and reasonable, in addition to discovering any shortage in implementation or operation and looking for the corrective procedures.

Thus, targets of practicing the controlling function at the bank level under the free market system did not go beyond protection of its economic interest, the matter which coincided with the philosophy governing behaviors of establishments in this regard.

The controlling function of the Investment Bank in the socialist system related to the method of planning and operating the economic regime. The general plans were divided into material and financial detailed plans and the economic productive units were committed to their implementation. Thus, the Investment Bank, under such regime, had practiced its controlling function on performance of the projects to which it extends finance as for its share of the general financing plan, in addition to its planned financing function, which varied according to method of operating the socialist regime. If the applied system was the competitive socialism, participation of each bank in implementing the financing plan is subordinated to the non-centralized method, while if the applied method was the ruling socialism, a financial plane should be presented for each project to commit to its implementation under control of the bank which extends on its basis the required finance. Hence, the bank became responsible for the direct control over performance of the project with the purpose of assuring targets realization of the material plan at the due times.

Coinciding with the method of non-centralization in realizing the total targets of the financial and economic plans, control of the banking finance aiming at achieving the national economy came through affecting the volume of credit extended by other banks to the projects. The Central Bank obtained its ability in direct influence on the total credit offered from its distinguished lending position. Bank's control over the projects dealing with it, was limited and practiced through concentrating dealings of the project with the bank which followed up the use of credit in its purposes in order to know and to overcome any difficulties.

Success and efficiency of banks, as well as the financial market in general, depend on many other factors rather than an efficient banking system and active financial sector; such as:

- the existence of proper level of savers who are able to lend the various types of saving channels against the proper return of funds they are collecting;

- the availability of suitable investment climate, including efficiency of the national economy infrastructure and the adequacy of investment legislations;
- the existence of security and safety necessary for encouraging organizers to invest within clear targets required to be achieved from the new investments;
- the availability of scaled employment and sufficient experience;
- the sufficient level of the demand of the new products.

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## **FINANȚAREA ÎNVĂȚĂMÂNTULUI – O STRATEGIE IMPORTANTĂ A STATULUI**

*In this article the author examines the problem of financing of public education. Several factors are indicated here, such as the demographic, economic, political and social factors, which lead to the drawth of the public expences for education. There can be identified the soures af financing of the public education: financing from the state's budget and from the local budgets, and from other sources as well. The money spent on education are considered to be intelectual investments. This article treats the problem of calculation, the efficiency of spending money in the field of education.*

Instituțiile de învățământ general sunt baza sistemului învățământului public al țării. Ele pun fundamentul cunoștințelor, care servește drept bază pentru ridicarea de mai departe a nivelului de cunoaștere și a măiestriei profesionale a tineretului în instituțiile superioare de învățământ și în școlile profesional-tehnice. De la calitatea învățământului general depinde nu numai succesul învățământului în școala superioară și medie de specialitate, dar și utilizarea eficientă a investițiilor bugetare în sfera învățământului. De aceea sfera învățământului public este un domeniu prioritar al statului care este cointerestat să crească o generație cultă, înalt calificată care ar fi capabilă să se includă în viața social-economică.

Dezvoltarea învățământului se realizează în concordanță cu cerințele diferitelor etape de evoluție economico-socială și cu accesul egal la instruirea tuturor membrilor societății. Învățământul este chemat să contribuie într-o măsură din ce în ce mai mare la progresul de ansamblu al societății.

Creșterea cheltuielilor publice pentru învățământ se datorează acțiunii a mai multor factori: demografici, economici, sociali, politici.

Factorii demografici conduc la creșterea populației a antrenat în mod firesc sporirea populației școlare.

Dezvoltarea economică, sporirea și diversificarea capitalului fix și circulant, ca urmare a modernizării și perfecționării proceselor tehnologice, au reclamat o forță de muncă înalt calificată. Aceasta se poate obține în baza unui spor de volum de cheltuieli pentru învățământ, orientate către perfecționarea forței de muncă. Creșterea economică

oferă posibilități mai mari de finanțare a învățământului. Factorii sociali și politici sunt și ei o forță influentă asupra sporirii finanțării învățământului.

Instituțiile învățământului public aparțin instituțiilor bugetare. Ele, de regulă, nu au venituri proprii și toate mijloacele bănești necesare pentru acoperirea cheltuielilor sunt finanțate din buget, care este principala sursă de finanțare a învățământului public general: învățământ preșcolar, primar, școli de cultură generală, licee, gimnazii.

Dezvoltarea economiei ca urmare a modernizării și perfecționării proceselor tehnologice, reclamă forță de muncă calificată, care cere pregătire complexă. În condițiile actuale se cer tot mai multe investiții în capitalul uman.

Finanțarea învățământului se efectuează în funcție de structura lui. În conformitate cu „Clasificația funcțională a cheltuielilor bugetare” sistemul învățământului în Republica Moldova are următoarea structură:

<b>Grupa principală</b>	<b>Grupa</b>	<b>Învățământul</b>
6	01	Învățământ preșcolar
6	02	Învățământ primar
6	03	Învățământ secundar
6	04	Învățământ superior
6	05	Învățământ postuniversitar
6	06	Cursuri și instituții de perfecționare a cadrelor
6	07	Instituții și servicii în domeniul învățământului neatribuite la alte grupuri
6	08	Învățământ mediu de specialitate
6	10	Organe administrative

Potrivit clasificăției UNESCO, diferitele niveluri și tipuri de învățământ se grupează astfel: preșcolar, primar, secundar superior și alte tipuri de învățământ. La rândul său învățământul secundar cuprinde: învățământ secundar general (gimnazii, licee), învățământ secundar tehnic, profesional, pedagogic, postliceal. În afara finanțării diferitelor unități și grade de învățământ, în cadrul acestor cheltuieli se cuprind și unele acțiuni pe linia educației de învățământ, cum ar fi:



doctoratul, acțiuni pe linia educației permanente, concursuri, tabere școlare și excursii ș.a.

Finanțarea cheltuielilor pentru învățământ se realizează din diferite **surse** și anume: bugetul statului, taxele școlare, împrumuturile, donațiile, subvențiile din partea unor societăți comerciale, veniturile provenite din exploatarea proprietăților aparținând instituțiilor de învățământ sau din activități prestate de terți.

**Resursele publice** pentru învățământ pot fi alocate atât din bugetul statului, cât și din bugetele locale, în funcție de organizarea centralizată sau descentralizată a învățământului și de subordonarea instituțiilor de învățământ.

În România, cheltuielile pentru învățământ se finanțează din bugetul administrației centrale de stat, de regulă prin intermediul Ministerului Educației, Cercetării și Tineretului și din bugetele locale prin intermediul consiliilor județene, precum și a primăriei generale a municipiului București, primăriilor municipale, orașenești și comunale.

S-au experimentat opinii potrivit cărora întreprinderile, ca beneficiare ale cadrelor pregătite în școli, să participe cu un anumit impozit la formarea fondurilor destinate finanțării învățământului de către autoritatea publică. Dar indiferent de subiecții participanți la finanțarea învățământului, statul trebuie să-și asume rolul de organizator al învățământului, dar și să preia asupra sa sarcina acoperirii cheltuielilor de învățământ necesare. În aceste condiții, instituțiile de învățământ private ar putea beneficia de subvenții de la buget și s-ar afla sub controlul nemijlocit al statului. Cercetările din România au înregistrat și soluții de mijloc, conform cărora cheltuielile pentru învățământul elementar să fie suportate integral din resurse publice, iar cele pentru învățământul secundar și superior, precum și pentru alte forme de pregătire a cadrelor să fie suportate într-o anumită proporție de sectorul particular prin intermediul unui impozit cu afectare specială, care va fi dimensionat în funcție de numărul personalului, gradul de calificare al acestuia și rolul economic al întreprinderii.

În prezent, bugetul statului reprezintă principala sursă de finanțare a învățământului în Republica Moldova, ca de altfel în toate țările lumii, ceea ce reflectă importanța deosebită acordată acestui domeniu al vieții sociale.

E de menționat, că în economia de piață există două tipuri de unități de învățământ: **publice**, finanțate de la bugetul de stat și bugetele locale, precum și instituții de învățământ **particulare** sau **private**, care pot fi independente sau parțial subvenționate de către stat.

În Republica Moldova, în perioada tranziției la economia de piață, pe lângă învățământul public a luat amploare învățământul privat, în special la nivelul învățământului superior.

***Astfel, în Republica Moldova, în anul de studii 2006/2007 au activat 31 de instituții de învățământ superior, inclusiv publice – 17 și private – 12, trei fiind de altă natură ( cu finanțare mixtă).***

Populația participă la finanțarea învățământului în mod direct, prin intermediul taxelor școlare, dar mai efectuează și alte cheltuieli pentru întreținerea extrașcolară a elevilor, studenților, respectiv pentru transport, chirii ș.a.

Întreprinderile efectuează cheltuieli pentru învățământ atunci când organizează cursuri de pregătire profesională, de calificare a salariaților sau viitorilor angajați.

***De fapt, politica statului în învățământ trebuie să țină cont de faptul că cadrele pregătite se pot angaja în întreprinderile private, de aceea un impozit de școlarizare pus asupra veniturii întreprinderilor trebuie să existe. Statului îi rămas să decidă asupra cotei de impozitare.***

Cheltuielile pentru învățământ mai pot fi finanțate prin donații sau alte forme de ajutor ce pot fi primite de unitățile de învățământ din partea unor întreprinderi, firme, fundații, societăți de binefacere. Ajutorul extern în domeniul finanțării învățământului deține o oarecare pondere din totalul surselor de finanțare. Aceasta îmbracă forma subvențiilor directe, avem în vedere burse pentru cei care vor pleca să învețe în alte state, a împrumuturilor, a finanțărilor sau se referă la trimeri de experți, cadre didactice, tehnicieni, ori chiar unele resurse materiale necesare învățământului.

***O altă sursă de finanțare a învățământului poate fi obținută prin Cooperarea internațională, care a*** luat în perioada contemporană o mare amploare. **Organizațiile** internaționale și principalele state dezvoltate consacră o mare parte din bugetul lor asistenței tehnice. În ciuda acestui efort, rezultatele sunt totuși limitate, exact ca și în domeniul economic. Cooperarea poate fi multilaterală, organizată de o instituție internațională sau bilaterală, de la țară la țară. Sursa fondurilor este în general guvernamentală, deoarece instituțiile internaționale sunt finanțate prin contribuțiile statelor membre.

În Republica Moldova, cheltuielile pentru învățământ ca pondere în PIB au evaluat după cum urmează:

În 2004 – 10,2 % din PIB;  
 În 2005 - 11,5 % din PIB;  
 În 2006 - 11,7 % din PIB;  
 În 2007 - 12,8 % din PIB;  
 În 2008 - 13,0 % din PIB;  
 În 2009 - 13,1 % din PIB;  
 În 2010 - 13,5 % din PIB.

Dacă ne referim la total cheltuieli socio-culturale în PIB ele alcătuiesc corespunzător: 2004-22%; 2005-24%; 2006- 25,8%; 2007 - 27,5%; 2008 – 27,9%; 2009 – 27,9 %; 2010 - 28,0%.<sup>1</sup>

În România, în perioada de tranziție, cheltuielile pentru învățământ dețin circa 25% în cadrul cheltuielilor pentru acțiuni social-culturale, lucru ce reflectă locul învățământului în cadrul acestor acțiuni.

Datorită necesităților actuale de reorganizare a învățământului din statul nostru, pe lângă cheltuielile finanțate prin bugetul Ministerului Educației și Tineretului, se recomandă a crea fonduri bănești speciale anuale pentru învățământ, alimentate din venituri ale instituțiilor de învățământ: taxe de admitere, regie de cămin și cantină, taxe de școlarizare de la cetățenii străini, venituri din activitatea învățământului, cu cercetarea științifică, producția și prestarea de servicii etc. În România aceste fonduri sunt create începând cu anul 1993.

În concluzie, învățământul fiind un serviciu de interes public, este finanțat pe seama încasărilor generale ale statului, în special pe seama impozitelor și mai puțin pe seama împrumuturilor.

***Nivelul resurselor alocate învățământului depinde de mai mulți factori:*** nivelul de dezvoltare a țării, urgența altor nevoi economice și sociale etc. În cadrul unui buget dat, creșterea cheltuielilor pentru învățământ poate avea loc numai în detrimentul altor sectoare, cum sunt: sănătatea, servicii sociale ș.a., care sunt de asemenea importante.

Unii autori au propus ca în alocarea resurselor pentru învățământ să aplice criteriul obișnuit al investiției intelectuale, și anume, rata rentabilității. Investiția în învățământ se face în maniera de a maximiza raportul dintre beneficii și costuri pe termen lung, în așa fel încât acest raport să fie superior altor investiții economice și sociale. Evaluarea costurilor ridică probleme puține în raport cu evaluarea beneficiilor, iar din punct de vedere practic, statisticile nu oferă date despre aceste evaluări, ceea ce le face inutilizabile.

Alți autori sugerează a fi reținut drept criteriu în alocarea resurselor pentru învățământ, un anumit procent din produsul intern brut. Ideea

este că, țările situate la un anumit nivel de dezvoltare pot să facă un efort mai mare pentru dezvoltarea învățământului; limita minimă a acestui efort, recomandată pe plan internațional, este de 4%.

***Cheltuielile de educație în raport cu PIB în Republica Moldova în anul 2006 constituie 8,10%. În Țările Europei de Sud Est – 3,80%; În Țările Europei Centrale și Țările Baltice – 5,580%.<sup>2</sup>***

Comparațiile internaționale sunt foarte dificile din cauza eterogenității statisticilor. Între problemele care intervin în acest sens se numără și faptul că nivelul cheltuielilor pentru educație nu este cunoscut cu precizie, ignorându-se în general suma investițiilor în învățământul privat. De asemenea, definirea cheltuielilor publice este ea însăși incertă. În general, nu se ține seama decât de bugetul Ministerului Educației și Tineretului, dar acesta nu reprezintă singurul buget pentru învățământ. Alte ministere au responsabilitatea școlilor sau centrelor de formare speciale, cum sunt Ministerul Sănătății, Ministerul Muncii și Protecției Sociale, Ministerul Agriculturii și Alimentației Publice, Ministerul Apărării Naționale etc. În plus, bugetul Ministerului Educației și Tineretului nu cuprinde aceleași posturi în toate țările.

O altă dificultate a comparațiilor internaționale o reprezintă ajutorul extern. Existența acestuia, permite (teoretic) unei țări, să aloce mai puține resurse pentru educație; de fapt, țările în cauză efectuează cheltuieli anexe care pot fi la fel de importante precum: contribuția la cheltuielile de asistență tehnică, cheltuielile de funcționare a universităților. În unele țări, ajutorul extern este înglobat în bugetul național, iar uneori nu se cunoaște suma exactă a acestor cheltuieli din diverse rațiuni. Comparația este deformată dacă o țară indică suma totală a cheltuielilor naționale pentru învățământ, iar alta numai ajutorul extern primit.

Dificultățile nu sunt mai puține atunci când se raportează produsul intern brut și ponderea pe care o au cheltuielile pentru învățământ în acesta. Modelele de calcul diferă, de mai multe ori, de la o țară la alta, în modul de determinare a produsului intern brut.

Având în vedere toate aceste considerente, putem afirma că, la ora actuală nu există un criteriu general pentru a determina proporția optimă din PIB destinată învățământului. Procentul de 4% pe care l-au indicat conferințele internaționale ale UNESCO nu semnifică absolut nimic. În același timp, nu putem să afirmăm că sunt inutile comparațiile internaționale. Ele semnifică totuși posibilitățile fiecărui stat în parte. Fiecare stat trebuie să-și fixeze în funcție de condițiile sale proprii, limitele financiare ale bugetului său și repartitia dorită între efortul public și efortul privat.

**Cheltuielile pentru învățământ reprezintă de fapt, investiții intelectuale.** Investiția intelectuală derivă din existența capitalului intelectual. Capitalul intelectual nu se realizează prin procurarea de mijloace de producție, ci prin acțiuni de învățământ care dau individului posibilitatea să-i valorifice în condiții mai bune moștenirea sa genetică, aptitudinile, capacitatea de muncă. Perioada de obținere a efectelor în cazul investițiilor intelectuale coincide cu viața activă a omului (35-40 ani), pe când investițiile materiale durează mai puțin de 10 ani. În prezent, în Republica Moldova, ca și în România, în afara pregătirii realizate la nivel național, prin școală, foarte puține întreprinderi acordă importanța cuvenită formării profesionale la locul de muncă.

**Privite ca investiții, cheltuielile pentru învățământ, fac necesitatea calculării eficienței lor.** Pentru aceasta, este necesar să cunoaștem elementele care o determină: **efortul și efectele, respectiv costul și beneficiile.**

Costurile conțin resursele alocate învățământului din buget sau alte fonduri, cheltuielile indirecte, lipsa de câștig, cheltuielile familiilor ș.a.

Beneficiile aduse de învățământ (evaluate cu ajutorul metodei profilul vîrstă-câștig, conform căreia se consideră că pe măsura creșterii gradului de instruire și calificare, a numărului de ani de școală, cresc și câștigurile realizate), sunt echivalente cu suma veniturilor suplimentare datorate învățământului, calculate pe toată perioada vieții active. Cu alte cuvinte, eforturile sunt identificate cu cheltuielile de investiții care includ atât cheltuielile propriu-zise de învățământ, cât și cheltuielile pentru întreținerea și funcționarea unităților de învățământ (cheltuieli curente) alături de eforturile făcute de agenți economici, de organizații sau de populație pentru învățământ.

Dimensionarea cheltuielilor pentru învățământ se face în funcție de o serie de elemente specifice referitoare la contingentele școlare (copiii, elevii, studenții cuprinși în sistemul de învățământ al anului respectiv), costul unitar pe forme și unități de învățământ, norme, normative și alte instrumente financiare cu ajutorul cărora se fundamentează anumite categorii de cheltuieli (burse, salarii, contribuții). Cu caracter orientativ se folosește și execuția cheltuielilor pentru învățământ din perioada precedentă, în scopul evidențierii elementelor și situațiilor noi, specifice perioadei prezente. În Republica Moldova la planificare bugetară se utilizează Cadrul de Cheltuieli pe Termen Mediu (planificarea cheltuielilor bugetare pe trei ani consecutivi, ultimii doi ani fiind de prognoză).

Expresia cea mai sintetică a eficienței economice a cheltuielilor pentru învățământ o reprezintă contribuția acestora la creșterea economică. Celelalte efecte sociale, culturale, politice, umane sunt

practic incomensurabile. Aceste efecte vizează judecata și poziția oamenilor față de fenomenele politice și economice.

Eficiența economică a cheltuielilor pentru învățământ se determină atât la nivel macroeconomic cât și la nivel microeconomic.

Pentru determinarea unui *coeficient al eficienței economice* a cheltuielilor pentru învățământ, cât mai corect și real, trebuie ca în calcule să se țină seama de concordanța între sfera efectelor și a eforturilor, de respectarea decalajului în timp care există între perioada efectuării cheltuielilor pentru învățământ și perioada obținerii sporului de PIB ca efect al acestor cheltuieli. Acest coeficient poate avea un nivel subunitar (caz în care indică efectuarea unor cheltuieli mai mari decât rezultatele obținute) sau supraunitar, arătând că la o unitate monetară cheltuită pentru învățământ s-a obținut un PIB mai mare. Creșterea eficienței economice se poate constata comparând astfel, coeficienții calculați la diferite intervale de timp.

Un alt indicator de eficiență îl reprezintă și” **termenul de recuperare al cheltuielilor de învățământ**”.

Termenul de recuperare arată perioada de timp (ani,luni), în care cheltuielile efectuate pentru pregătirea cadrelor sunt reconstituite din sporul de venit național obținut. Calculul acestui indicator, respectând condițiile arătate conduce la obținerea unui nivel redus al perioadei de recuperare a cheltuielilor pentru învățământ, comparativ cu cel al investițiilor materiale.

Eficiența cheltuielilor pentru învățământ poate fi urmărită cu bune rezultate și la nivelul microeconomic, în acest caz indicatorii fiind reprezentați *de cheltuielile medii pe indicator specific*.

Calculul și analiza acestor indicatori pe feluri de învățământ și la diferite unități de învățământ de același fel, conduce la unele concluzii care să direcționeze activitatea de planificare a cheltuielilor.

În activitatea de stabilire a nivelului cheltuielilor pentru învățământ, organele Ministerului Finanțelor utilizează astfel de cheltuieli medii pe indicator, mai ales în faza de analiză a propunerilor prezentate de unitatea de învățământ. Folosirea acestui indicator permite identificarea acelor cheltuieli care au un nivel exagerat, ceea ce dovedește și o planificare națională și neeconomicoasă a lor.

Finanțarea învățământului în Republica Moldova ca și în România în perioada contemporana, dezvoltarea sa ridică probleme cum ar fi: resursele alocate învățământului trebuie să fie mai bine utilizate iar creșterea lor nu e singurul mod de a realiza obiectivele economice și sociale ale politicii naționale.

Învățământul nu e o industrie care speră, după un termen mai lung sau mai scurt, să reentre în posesia fondurilor de pe urma vânzării produselor sale. **În învățământ, cheltuielile au un caracter definitiv, iar investiția intelectuală are o viață mult mai lungă decât investiția materială.** Beneficiile obținute de pe urma investiției intelectuale aduc avantaje colectivității, dacă nu mai mult, cel puțin la fel ca și individului.

Concret, finanțarea învățământului se face pe grade de învățământ, potrivit structurii învățământului.

În Republica Moldova fondurile bugetare sunt îndreptate cu precădere către învățământul primar și secundar.

Deși costul este mai ridicat în învățământul superior, el este finanțat în proporție mai mică, deoarece sunt introduse taxe școlare. Această practică este utilizată de majoritatea țărilor lumii la etapa contemporană. Totodată, în multe state sunt înființate universități particulare, care se întrețin exclusiv cu taxe plătite de studenți, astfel că instruirea superioară și specializarea profesională sunt tot mai mult condiționate de venituri proprii ale familiilor. De regulă, resursele publice sunt destinate pentru acoperirea integrală sau în parte a cheltuielilor curente ale instituțiilor de învățământ. Împrumuturile sunt folosite, în general, pentru finanțarea investițiilor de învățământ.<sup>3</sup>

### ***Cheltuielile pentru învățământ în Republica Moldova***

*Situația recentă a finanțării învățământului în Republica Moldova este redată în tabelele de mai jos.*

În baza informației din tabelul 1 constatăm că cheltuielile pentru serviciile publice ca pondere în PIB sunt în creștere, în general, pe toate tipurile. E de menționat că ponderea cea mai mare în PIB o dețin cheltuielile pentru învățământ, alcătuind de la 4,7% în 1999 la 8,44% în anul bugetar 2006. Aceeași tendință este menționată și la creșterea ponderii cheltuielilor pentru sănătate de la 2,9% în anul 1999 la 3,84% în anul bugetar 2006. Această tendință se observă și la alte servicii publice (vezi tabelul 1).

Cheltuielile bugetului consolidat pentru asigurări sociale și securitate socială în anul 1999 au alcătuit 3,8% din PIB. În anii următori se observă o scădere, ajungând la 2,8% în 2004, ca mai apoi să se înregistreze o creștere substanțială până la 3,46% în anul bugetar 2006.

Analiza cheltuielilor publice după categoria economică (ca % în PIB) ne demonstrează că cheltuielile Bugetului Asigurărilor Sociale de Stat reprezintă cea mai mare contribuție la cheltuielile în acest sector, ajungând la 8,25% din PIB în 2007 (vezi tabelul 3).

## Cheltuielile Bugetului de Stat și Bugetului UAT (anuale) pentru servicii (ca % din PIB)

Tabelul 1.

Nr.	Indicatori	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (estimată)	2008 (progn.)	2009 (progn.)	2010 (progn.)
1.	Servicii publice	1,8	1,9	1,8	1,9	1,8	1,9	2,44	2,38	2,36	x	x	x
2.	Apărare	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,41	0,49	0,45	x	x	x
3.	Ordine publică și securitate	1,7	1,6	1,6	2,1	1,9	1,7	2,02	2,28	2,30	x	x	x
4.	Educație	4,7	4,5	4,8	5,5	5,4	6,8	7,28	8,44	7,84	8,4	7,9	7,7
5.	Sănătate	2,9	2,9	2,8	3,5	3,4	4,2	3,48	3,84	3,60	5,8	6,1	6,0
6.	Asigurare socială și securitate socială	3,8	3,8	2,6	2,9	2,7	2,8	3,44	3,46	3,55	x	x	x
7.	Cultură, artă, sport, și tineret	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,6	0,7	0,84	1,16	0,87	x	x	x
8.	Agricultură, silvicultură și ape	1,1	1,0	0,3	0,5	0,4	0,5	1,85	1,58	1,63	x	x	x
9.	Protecția mediului și Hidrometeorologia	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,14	0,25	0,24	x	x	x
10.	Transport, drumuri, comunicații și informatică	0,6	0,6	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,58	1,36	0,93	x	x	x

Sursa: Ministerul Finanțelor (După: Evaluarea Cheltuielilor Publice și Responsabilității Financiare: Raport asupra Performanței Managementului Financiar Public. Iunie 2006, pag.9).

Pentru anii 2005, 2006 și 2007 calculele sunt efectuate de autor în baza informației de la Ministerul Finanțelor al Republicii Moldova.



Aceeași tendință de creștere este și la Cheltuielile Fondului Asigurărilor Obligatorii de Asistență Medicală, reprezentând 2,9% din PIB în 2004, iar în anii următori având tendință de creștere, ajungând către anul bugetar 2006 la 3,44 % (vezi tabelul 2.)

### BASS și FAOAM în Republica Moldova ca pondere în PIB

*Tabelul 2*

Indicatori	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (estimat)
<u>Venituri:</u>								
BASS	6,3	6,8	7,3	7,2	7,8	9,86	9,99	9,91
FAOAM	x	x	x	n.a.	1,0	3,42	3,58	3,87
<u>Cheltuieli</u>								
BASS	8,3	7,2	8,4	7,9	8,6	10,58	10,06	10,15
FAOAM	x	x	x	n.a.	2,9	2,95	3,44	3,87

Sursa: Ministerul Finanțelor (După: Evaluarea Cheltuielilor Publice și Responsabilității Financiare: Raport asupra Performanței Managementului Financiar Public. Iunie 2006, pag.9).

Notă: Pentru anii 2005-2007, calculele, sunt efectuate de autor în baza BASS și FAOAM, la veniturile și cheltuielile pentru anii respectivi.

Din datele tabelul 2 constatăm că veniturile BASS nu pot acoperi cheltuielile, care sunt mai mari decât veniturile. Astfel, ponderea veniturilor BASS în PIB în anul bugetar 2000 au alcătuit 6,3%, iar a cheltuielilor – 8,3%, fiind cu două puncte procentuale mai mari decât veniturile. Deși ponderea veniturilor și a cheltuielilor ca pondere în PIB este în creștere, totuși discrepanța dintre acești doi indicatori există în dinamica anilor 2000-2007, fiind, totuși, mai mică. Astfel ponderea veniturilor BASS în PIB în anul bugetar 2006 au alcătuit 9,99%, iar a cheltuielilor – 10,06%. Veniturile și cheltuielile FAOAM sunt aproape echilibrate.

Sursa principală a veniturile în BASS și în FAOAM sunt din contribuțiile plătite de angajați și angajatori (patroni) și din transferuri din partea Bugetului de Stat, având menirea pentru acoperirea cheltuielilor care nu sunt acoperite din Fondurile respective.

### Cheltuielile Publice în Republica Moldova după conținutul lor economic ca pondere în PIB, %

Tabelul 3.

Indicatori	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (estimat)	2008 (progn.)	2009 (progn.)	2010 (progn.)
Plăți salariale (%)	7,7	8,1	9,5	9,6	7,8	8,0	9,5	9,5	9,7	9,6	9,6
Bunuri și servicii (%)	6,0	6,1	6,9	6,2	7,8	7,7	8,2	10,3	10,3	10,6	10,5
Subvenții întreprinderilor (%)	2,1	1,4	1,4	1,6	2,0	2,6	2,4	2,1	1,7	1,6	1,7
Transferuri persoanelor (%)	8,7	7,9	9,1	8,8	9,7	10,7	11,1	12,2	12,3	12,5	12,9
Din contribuții de asigurări sociale (%)	8,1	7,0	8,1	7,6	8,4	7,82	8,72	8,25	x	x	x
Altele (%)	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,5	0,6	0,7	0,8	0,7	0,6	0,6	0,6
Capital (%)	5,0	3,5	5,0	4,6	5,0	6,2	8,0	6,2	5,8	5,0	4,4

Sursa: Ministerul Finanțelor (După: Evaluarea Cheltuielilor Publice și Responsabilității Financiare. Raport asupra Performanței Managementului Financiar Public. Iunie 2006, pag.9). Calculele pentru anii bugetari 2005,2006,2007 au fost efectuate de autor în baza datelor din BASS pentru anii respectivi.

Un interes deosebit prezintă analiza cheltuielilor publice din punct de vedere al conținutului lor economic, efectuată în baza tabelului 3.

E de menționat, că plățile pentru salarii au crescut anual din 2000 ca cotă în PIB la fel ca și cheltuielile pentru bunuri și servicii. Transferurile către persoanele fizice (în cadrul asigurărilor sociale) constituie a doua categorie după mărime (cu excepția anului 2000 când a fost cea mai mare). În tabelul 3 prezentăm în dinamică tendința acestor plăți.

Din datele tabelului constatăm că plățile salariale ca pondere în PIB sunt în creștere de la 7,7 % în anul 2000 la 9,5 % în 2006. Menționăm o creștere ponderată și a cheltuielilor pentru bunuri și servicii de la 6,0% în anul 2000 la 8,2% în 2006, planificându-se o creștere pentru perioadele următoare. La fel sunt în creștere și transferurile către persoane de la 8,7 % în 2000 la 11,1% în 2006, cu o creștere lentă în perioadele următoare.

O analiza detaliata a finanțării învățământului public pe nivele de instituții prezentăm mai jos în baza informației din sectorul Botanica mun. Chișinău în dinamica anilor 2003-2007.

#### **Analiza tabelului 4**

În instituții preșcolare (grupa funcțională de cheltuieli § 051 din sector. Botanica mun. Chișinău) cheltuielile pentru Retribuirea muncii la art. 111.00, 112, 116.01 au alcătuit ca pondere în totalul cheltuielilor reale/ pentru un copil pentru perioadele analizate după cum urmează în tabelul 4.

Din datele tabelului constatăm că cheltuielile pentru Retribuirea Muncii (art. 111) și contribuțiile în BASS (art. 112) și primele de asigurare obligatorie de asistență medicală (art. 116.01) alcătuiesc ponderea cea mai mare în totalul cheltuielilor reale anual pentru un copil, având o tendință de creștere de la 43% în 2003 la 48% în 2006.

Pe locul doi ca pondere sunt cheltuielile pentru plata mărfurilor și serviciilor (art. 113 și aliniatele corespunzătoare din clasificatia economică a cheltuielilor bugetare), care au alcătuit în anul 2003 36% în cheltuielile totale reale,

Cheltuielile totale reale ce revin la un copil, având apoi tendințe de scădere substanțială, ajungând în anul 2006 la 19%. Spre anul 2007 s-a planificat o creștere de până la 28%.

O altă grupă de cheltuieli în instituțiile preșcolare sunt cele ce țin de procurarea de rechizite de birou, materiale și obiecte de uz gospodăresc (art. 113.03) manuale materiale didactice etc. (art. 113.05) cărți și ediții periodice (art. 113.06), reparații curente (art. 113.17); procurarea și instalarea contoarelor (art. 113.27), procurarea mijloacelor fixe (art. 242). Aceste cheltuielile echilibrează între 3% și 4% pe parcursul perioadei analizate.

**Dinamica cheltuielilor ponderate în Instituțiile preșcolare  
Din sec. Botanica, mun. Chișinău.**

*Tabelul 4*

Grupele cheltuielilor funcționale	Anii					
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (estimat)	
§ 051 „Instituții preșcolare”, total cheltuieli reale ce revin la un copil.	2847,72	3625,97	4238,91	5023,31	5882,26	
Inclusiv: Salariul: art. 111, 112, 116, 01 (% în total ) cheltuieli reale pentru un copil	43%	43%	47%	48%	46%	
Servicii comunale: art. 113.01; 113.04; 113.34; 113.35. (%)	36%	28%	26%	19%	28%	
Procurări: art. 113.03; 113.05; 113.06; 113.17; 113.27; 242. (%)	3%	2%	3%	4%	4%	
Alimentația: art. 113.09, (%)	11%	17%	19%	22%	20%	

*Sursa: Pretura sec Botanica, Departamentul Învățământ și Tineret.*

**Dinamica cheltuielilor ponderate în școlile primare  
din sec. Botanica, min. Chișinău(anii 2003-2007)**

**Tabelul 5**

Grupa cheltuielilor funcționale	A N I I					
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (estimat)	
§ 052 „Școlile primare”, total cheltuieli reale <sup>4</sup> , lei	1794,28	1891,92	2801,44	3819,95	4109,82	
La un elev Inclusiv: Salariul: art. 111; 112; 116.01	52%	62%	74%	71%	64%	
Servicii comunale: art. 113.01; 113.04; 113.11; 113.34; 113.35.	20%	20%	10%	9%	19%	
Procurări: art. 113.03; 113.05; 113.06; 113.17; 113.27; 242	6%	3%	1%	4%	4%	
Alimentația, art. 113.09.	9%	10%	10%	13%	13%	

Sursa: Pretura sec Botanica, Departamentul Învățământ și Tineret.

Un compartiment important de cheltuieli este „Alimentația” (art. 113.09).

Cheltuieli la acest articol cresc de la 11% în 2003 la 22% în 2006, cu o reducere lentă către anul 2007 (vezi tabelul Nr. 4).

Pentru a asigura organizarea alimentației copiilor din instituțiile preșcolare pentru anul bugetar 2007 conform normei zilnice luate în calcul de Ministerul Finanțelor, precum și pentru asigurarea respectării acesteia de către fiecare UAT, cheltuielile pentru acest scop au fost suplimentate cu mijloace pentru acoperirea insuficienței acestora în anul 2006. Insuficiența de mijloace sa estimat ca diferența dintre cheltuielile calculate pornind de la numărul copiilor incluși în bugetul pe anul 2006 (an precedent de elaborare a bugetului) a fiecărei UAT, numărul unic de zile de alimentație pentru fiecare UAT (165 zile), norma de alimentație pe zi de 6 lei și cheltuieli aprobate în buget în acest scop.

#### **Analiza tabelului 5.**

În școlile primare (grupa funcțională de cheltuieli § 052 din sector. Botanica mun. Chișinău) cheltuielile pentru Retribuirea muncii la art. 111.00, 112, 116.01 au alcătuit ca pondere în totalul cheltuielilor reale/ pentru un copil pentru perioadele analizate după cum urmează în tabelul 5.

Din datele tabelului constatăm că cheltuielile pentru Retribuirea Muncii (art. 111) și contribuțiile în BASS (art. 112) și primele de asigurare obligatorie de asistență medicală (art. 116.01) alcătuiesc ponderea cea mai mare în totalul cheltuielilor reale anual pentru un copil, având o tendință de creștere de la 52% în 2003 la 71% în 2006.

Pe locul doi ca pondere sunt cheltuielile pentru plata mărfurilor și serviciilor (art. 113 și aliniatele corespunzătoare din clasificatia economică a cheltuielilor bugetare), care au alcătuit în anul 2003 20% în cheltuielile totale reale,

Cheltuielile totale reale ce revin la un copil, având apoi tendințe de scădere substanțială, ajungând în anul 2006 la 9%. Spre anul 2007 s-a planificat o creștere de până la 19%.

O altă grupă de cheltuieli în școlile primare sunt cele ce țin de procurarea de rechizite de birou, materiale și obiecte de uz gospodăresc (art. 113.03) manuale, materiale didactice etc. (art. 113.05) cărți și ediții periodice (art. 113.06), reparații curente (art. 113.17); procurarea și instalarea contoarelor (art. 113.27), procurarea mijloacelor fixe (art. 242). Aceste cheltuielile au alcătuit 6% în 2003, scăzând drastic până la 1% în 2005 și apoi iarăși menționând o creștere de până la 4% în

2006 și fiind planificat tot atât pentru anul bugetar 2007.

Un compartiment important de cheltuieli este „Alimentația” (art. 113.09).

Cheltuieli la acest articol cresc de la 9% în 2003 la 13% în 2006.

### **Analiza tabelului 6.**

Datele prezentate și analizate demonstrează că ponderea cea mai mare în total cheltuieli reale prevăzute pentru un elev în dețin cheltuielile pentru art. 111 „Retribuirea muncii” inclusiv și pentru art. 112 „Contribuții de asigurări sociale de stat obligatorii ” și art. 116.01 „Primele de asigurare obligatorie de asistență medicală”, ele fiind în creștere de la 68% în anul 2003 la 75% în anul 2006 reducându-se lent pentru anul 2007 (72%).

Locul doi după pondere ocupă cheltuielile pentru servicii comunale. Aceste cheltuieli după conținutul lor economic se referă la art. 113 „Plata mărfurilor și serviciilor” și corespunzător aliniatele:

113.01 – Energia electrică;

113.04 – Energia termică;

113.11 – Servicii de telecomunicație și de poștă;

113.34 – Apă și canalizarea;

113.35 – Salubritatea.

Aceste cheltuieli s-au redus lent ca pondere în total cheltuieli reale de la 19% în 2003 la 11% în 2006, iar în 2007 se prevede o creștere a lor până la 19%.

Instituțiile școlare au nevoie și de cheltuieli pentru procurări de obiecte necesare pentru funcționarea normală procesului de învățământ. Este vorba despre procurări la art. 113 aliniatele corespunzătoare:

113.03 – Rechizite de birou, materiale și obiecte de uz gospodăresc;

113.05 – Manuale, materiale didactice, practica de științifică și metodică;

113.06 – Cărți și ediții periodice;

113.017 – Reparații curente ale clădirilor și încăperilor;

113.27 – Procurarea și instalarea contoarelor;

242 – Procurarea mijloacelor fixe.

Aceste cheltuieli ca pondere în totalul cheltuielilor reale pentru un elev constituie 3% pentru fiecare an bugetar analizat, abatere face anul 2005, înregistrând o diminuare până la 2%.

**Dinamica cheltuielilor ponderate în  
școlile medii de cultură generală(sec. Botanica, mun. Chișinău)**

**Tabelul 6**

Grupa cheltuielilor funcționale	A N I I					
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (estimat)	
§ 053 Școli medii de cultură generală, total cheltuieli ce revin la un elev, - lei	1254,20	1510,24	2011,30	2710,12	2987,25	
<b>Inclusiv:</b> Salariu: art. 111.00; 112; 116.01. (Ponderea în total cheltuieli reale pentru un copil, %)	68%	68%	71%	75%	72%	
Servicii comunale: art. 113.01; 113.04;0113.11;113.34; 113.35; (%)	19%	18%	16%	11%	19%	
Procurări: art. 113.03; 113.05; 113.06; 113.17; 113.27;242. (%)	3%	3%	2%	3%	3%	
Alimentația: art. 113.09, (%)	4%	3%	4%	6%	5%	

Sursa: sec. Botanica, mun. Chișinău, DET (Direcția Educație și Tineret).



O cheltuială foarte importantă pentru școli este „Alimentația”, care conform categoriei economice de cheltuieli se referă la art. 113, aliniatul 09. Ponderea acestei cheltuieli variază între 4% și 5%, cu unele devieri de descreștere și de creștere față de anul 2003 (4%).

Astfel, alături de nevoile cetățenilor cu caracter individual și care sunt satisfăcute pe seama bunurilor private procurate prin mecanismul pieței, există o serie de nevoi sociale cum ar fi sănătatea, învățământul, protecția socială și altele care sunt satisfăcute cu ajutorul anumitor instituții publice, cum sunt, școlile, spitalele, policlinicile etc.).

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7. Ilie Dogaru. Formula de finanțare a învățământului preuniversitar din România (Studii și proiecte). – București, 2002.

### References:

<sup>1</sup>Cadrul de Cheltuieli pe Termen Mediu (2008-2010), pag 28.

<sup>2</sup>Cadrul de Cheltuieli pe Termen Mediu (2008-2010), pag 28. (Datele sunt enunțate în baza informației MF și Anuarului statistic al finanțelor guvernamentale al FMI, 2005).

<sup>3</sup>Această judecată privind finanțarea învățământului este un rezultat al utilizării cercetărilor efectuate de savanții români, și în special de dnul Ilie Dogaru. Formula de finanțare a învățământului preuniversitar din România (Studii și proiecte). – București, 2002..

<sup>4</sup>Cheltuielile reale pentru un copil spre deosebire de normativul pentru un copil sunt mai mari deoarece ele cheltuielile efectuate din venituri suplimentare provenite din mijloace special, fonduri și plăți de la BSMF pentru hrană caldă pentru copii, elevi care nu sunt incluse în normativ.

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## **FOREIGN EXCHANGE RISK MITIGATION TECHNIQUES IN MICROFINANCE INDUSTRY**

*Many borrowing microfinance institutions (MFIs) are not adequately managing their exposure to foreign exchange rate risk. The microfinance industry has increased its awareness and understanding of foreign exchange risk, however, there has not been any significant actions taken at the industry level. The best solution for an MFI is to avoid foreign exchange risk altogether and fund itself in local currency. There a number of strategies to accomplish this: Borrow from your local bank; Negotiate local currency loans from international lenders; Access local capital markets; Establish Policies on Foreign Exchange Management and Exposure; Use guarantees to increase local currency financing; Define foreign exchange risk tolerance levels; Negotiate back-to-back loans; Measure and monitor foreign exchange exposure; Index local currency lending.*

The financial sector plays a primordial role in providing opportunities for a more vigorous economic growth in the Republic of Moldova. As the main creditor of the national economy, the traditional banking sector should decentralize the lending process. One of the solutions in this sense is the development of a non-banking financial system through creating microfinance institutions, whose strengthening and growth would generate a range of possibilities for financing a greater number of micro enterprises. The development of the microfinance industry is very important as it offers opportunities for the SMEs to access the necessary financial resources, which prove to be of major importance in the development of SMEs. In terms of the perspective integration into the UE, the two most crucial things would be:

1. raising awareness about the functional and development peculiarities of the microfinance institutions;
2. working out recommendations for a continuing improvement of the microfinance system in the Republic of Moldova.

The importance of field of microfinance both abroad as well as in the Republic of Moldova is determined by a major role financing

the national economy and direct influence on the development of the country's economic outlook in the context of integration of Moldova in the European Union. The development of microfinance and the integration of the traditional banking system in many countries in Europe and Central Asia, argues its contribution to increasing economic and social indicators and the importance of microfinance institutions non-bank sectors of the economy in recovery by financing micro and small enterprises, irradiation and increasing poverty quality of life of the population.

The modern microfinance movement dates back to the 1970s when experimental programs in Bangladesh, Brazil, and a few other countries began to extend tiny loans to groups of poor women to invest in micro-enterprises. By lending to groups of women where every member of the group guaranteed the repayment of all members, these microcredit programs challenged the prevailing conventional wisdom and proved that poor people without collateral could be "creditworthy". When offered the opportunity, they would repay loans with interest, at extraordinary rates of repayment.

As a result, the microfinance institutions providing the services were able to develop business models that were sustainable, no longer needing subsidy. These institutions showed that the poor were "bankable".

Since then, the range of products - credit, savings, money transfers, micro-insurance - has increased as we have come to recognize that poor people need a range services to meet different needs. And in recent years, microfinance has attracted the attention of commercial banks, investors, and a host of new service providers. So today microfinance is, quite simply, retail banking for poor people. Microfinance clients are often described according to their poverty level - vulnerable non-poor, upper poor, and poor, very poor. This can obscure the fact that microfinance clients are a diverse group of people – and require diverse products. While women clients make up a majority of clients - and in some instances comprise 100 percent of an MFI's clientele, 33 percent of all microfinance clients are men.

These clients operate small businesses, work on small farms, or work for themselves or others in a variety of businesses – fishing, carpentry, vegetable selling, small shops, transportation, and much more. Some of these microfinance clients are truly entrepreneurs – they enjoy creating and running their own businesses. Others become entrepreneurs by necessity when there are few jobs available in the formal sector.

Meanwhile, small business offers real opportunities to implement creative skills of the developer, capacity and leadership - qualities necessary for development perspective with its business. On the other hand, SMEs in the Republic of Moldova is facing various problems in carrying out daily activities, among which we mention an important insufficient of financial resources in the short term, and long-term and limited access to means of financial resources. Although the commercial banks in Moldova are the main financiers of the national economy, they remain, often reluctant to grant loans to SMEs.

Therefore until the present one of the most serious problems of small business subjects continues to be difficulty in access of financial resources. A proof is that the share of loans targeted to small business sector does not exceed 15% of total loans, and most of them are granted to the enterprises from Chisinau. Access to financing, especially for the new companies and micro enterprises is difficult. And this happens because small business owners do not have credit history or have assets that can be guarantees.

As a result, they have no access to traditional bank financial system. The required credits in most cases are too small for banks, and the costs of their management and monitoring are dull for them.

Most people recognize that microfinance alone is not a magic bullet to get people out of poverty. It is only one of many factors that can contribute to poverty alleviation.

Today, many MFIs subscribe to a mix of goals, including sustainability, outreach to poor households, and poverty reduction. A continuing challenge they face is how to deepen and maintain outreach to poor households on a sustainable basis. An important step in meeting this challenge is to look carefully at who MFIs do and do not reach along the poverty continuum.

A microfinance institution is an organization that offers financial services to low income populations. Almost all of these offer microcredit and only take back small amounts of savings from their own borrowers, not from the general public. Within the microfinance industry, the term microfinance institution has come to refer to a wide range of organizations dedicated to providing these services: NGOs, credit unions, cooperatives, private commercial banks and non-bank financial institutions (some that have transformed from NGOs into regulated institutions) and parts of state-owned banks, for example.

The image most of us have when we refer to MFIs is of a “financial NGO”, an NGO that is fully and virtually exclusively dedicated to

offering financial services; in most cases microloan NGOs are not allowed to capture savings deposits from the general public. This group of a few hundred NGOs have led the development of microloan, and subsequently microfinance, the world over. Most of these constitute a group that is commonly referred to as “best practice” organizations, ones that employ the newest lending techniques to generate efficient outreach that permit them to reach down far into poor sectors of the economy on a sustainable basis.

A great many NGOs that offer microloan, perhaps even a majority, do many other non-financial development activities and would bristle at the suggestion that they are essentially financial institutions. Yet, from an industry perspective, since they are engaged in supplying financial services to the poor, we call them MFIs. The same sort of situation exists with a small number of commercial banks that offer microfinance services. For our purposes, we refer to them as MFIs, even though only a small portion of their assets may actually be tied up in financial services for the poor. In both cases, when people in the industry refer to MFIs, they are referring only to that part of the institution that offers microfinance.

There are other institutions, however, that consider themselves to be in the business of microfinance and that will certainly play a role in a reshaped and deepened financial sector. These are community-based financial intermediaries. Some are membership based such as credit unions and cooperative housing societies. Others are owned and managed by local entrepreneurs or municipalities. These institutions tend to have a broader client base than the financial NGOs and already consider themselves to be part of the formal financial sector. It varies from country to country, but many poor people do have some access to these types of institutions, although they tend not to reach down market as far as the financial NGOs.

The emergence and development of microfinance institutions in Moldova started since 1997 and have been a positive impact on the unique financing of entrepreneurship in rural areas and urban areas round the country. The passage of the Republic of Moldova from the centralized economy system competitive economy has demonstrated the difficulty and importance of drafting stage efficient mechanism of financial instruments, social, economic, political, allowing development of market economy. In this context it is important to continue improving the financial system by developing microfinance industry, development strategies, and financial management sector.

Microfinance is experiencing an unprecedented investment boom. The past five years have seen remarkable increases in the volume of global microfinance investments. The entry of private investors is the most notable change in the microfinance investment marketplace. New players arrive on the scene every month. Forty specialized microfinance investment funds have been established in the past three years alone. Individuals and institutional investors – including international retail banks, investment banks, pension funds, and private equity funds – are all looking for ways to channel capital into microfinance, and investment banking techniques are being introduced to create investment vehicle alternatives that appeal to an increasingly broad range of investors.

The microfinance industry continues to grow at a rate of more than 30 percent a year, and the supply of funds for growth is only one – fifth of total demand.<sup>1</sup> To meet this demand there has been an increase in international investors in microfinance institutions (MFIs). It is estimated that the value of international foreign investment available to MFIs will soon top US \$1.2 billion, of which \$750 million is debt capital. At least 92 percent of this debt capital is in hard currency (primarily US dollars or euros).<sup>2</sup> As a result, foreign exchange risk for MFIs is on the rise.

Foreign exchange risk is defined as the possibility of a loss or a gain from the variations in exchange rates between currencies. This risk is acute for businesses, such as MFIs, that operate in countries with volatile local currencies and carry both local currency and hard currency on their balance sheet. While it is difficult to fully eliminate foreign exchange risk, it can readily be identified, measured, managed, and mitigated. This paper highlights strategies to minimize foreign exchange risk, provides examples of actions taken by MFIs, and suggests actions that MFIs, donors, and international lenders can take to offset this growing risk in the in the microfinance industry.

The microfinance industry has increased its awareness and understanding of foreign exchange risk, however, there has not been any significant actions taken at the industry level. It is true that there have not been sizeable publicized losses to date, and the level of most MFIs' hard currency debt, at present, is considered to be reasonable. However, MFIs' losses are rarely made public and many international microfinance funds have disbursed only a small portion of their overall hard currency funds. The industry seems to have adopted a free market approach of letting the MFIs and international microfinance funds figure out how to resolve this risk on their own on a case-by-case basis.

Unfortunately, most MFIs have limited access to information on how to measure and minimize foreign exchange risk and even less experience negotiating with international investors. As more hard currency funds enter the industry, donors, development agencies, multilaterals and international banks should consider how they can help MFIs and international microfinance funds mitigate foreign exchange risk.

Below are five ways that MFIs can deal with the foreign exchange risk (table A).

*Table A*

**Five Recommendations for Managing Foreign Exchange Risk**

	<b>Recommendations</b>	<b>Complexity</b>	<b>Cost</b>
1.	Avoid it: Pursue local currency loans first	Low	Low-Moderate
2.	Establish policies on foreign exchange management and exposure	Moderate	Low
3.	Convert hard currency loans to local currency risk	Moderate	Moderate-High
4.	Explore local hedging instruments	High	Moderate-High
5.	Other alternatives (but often less ideal....)	Low	Moderate-High

The best solution for an MFI is to avoid foreign exchange risk altogether and fund itself in local currency. There a number of strategies to accomplish this.

Hard currency loans constitute an important source of financing for the loan capital needs of microfinance institutions (MFIs). Although such loans may, in certain circumstances, appear to be a relatively cost-effective and easy source of funding, they also have the significant disadvantage of creating foreign exchange risk for those MFIs whose principal assets are microloans denominated in the local currency of the MFI's country of operation.

Despite this, recent surveys indicate that few MFIs exposed to foreign exchange risk take effective steps to reduce that risk. Foreign exchange risk largely arises in microfinance when an MFI incurs debt in a foreign currency, usually U.S. dollars or euros, and then lends



those funds in domestic currency. The MFI can suffer substantial losses if the value of the domestic currency depreciates (or loses value) in relation to the foreign currency, meaning that the value of the MFI's assets drops relative to its liabilities. This is known as devaluation, or depreciation, risk.

Like any other institution that has a cross-border obligation denominated in hard currency, MFIs also can be affected by convertibility and transfer risks. In both cases, the MFI may have the financial capacity to make its hard currency payments, but cannot do so because of national government restrictions or prohibitions on making foreign currency available for sale or transferring hard currency outside the country. These risks are known respectively as convertibility risk and as transfer (or remittance) risk.

Organizations exposed to foreign exchange risk have three options. First, they can choose to do nothing about their exposure and accept the consequences of variations in currency values or the possibility that their government may impose restrictions on the availability or transfer of foreign currency. This is not a recommended path. Second, they can "hedge" against their exposure. For example, they can purchase a financial instrument that will protect the organization against the consequences of those adverse movements in foreign exchange rates. Finally, they can partially hedge against the risks, or limit their hard currency exposure to set levels.

These conventional instruments may be the most appealing and efficient way to hedge against foreign exchange risk. However, many of the capital markets in the countries in which MFIs operate do not support these instruments, and the costs to MFIs of using these instruments may be prohibitive. Furthermore, creditworthiness issues may make it difficult for MFIs to purchase these derivative instruments.

Many borrowing microfinance institutions (MFIs) are not adequately managing their exposure to foreign exchange rate risk. There are at least three components of foreign exchange rate risk: (1) devaluation or depreciation risk, (2) convertibility risk, and (3) transfer risk.

Devaluation or depreciation risk typically arises in microfinance when an MFI acquires debt in a foreign currency, usually U.S. dollars (USD) or euros, and then lends those funds in domestic currency (DC). The MFI then possesses a liability in a hard currency and assets in a DC (in which case, an MFI's balance sheet is said to contain a "currency mismatch"). Fluctuations in the relative values of these two currencies can adversely affect the financial viability of the organization.



Convertibility risk is another possible component of foreign exchange risk. For the purposes of this note, convertibility risk refers to the risk that the national government will not sell foreign currency to borrowers or others with obligations denominated in hard currency. Transfer risk refers to the risk that the national government will not allow foreign currency to leave the country regardless of its source.

A variety of conventional capital market instruments can be used to hedge against foreign exchange risk:

- ▶▶ forward contracts and futures (agreements made to exchange or sell foreign currency
- ▶▶ at a certain price in the future);
- ▶▶ swaps (agreements to simultaneously exchange or sell an amount of foreign currency
- ▶▶ now and resell or repurchase that currency in the future);
- ▶▶ options (instruments that provide the option, but not the obligation, to buy or sell foreign currency in the future once the value of that currency reaches a certain, previously agreed, price)

#### **Advantages**

- ▶▶ Using conventional hedging instruments eliminates an MFI's exposure to capital losses as a result of DC depreciation.
- ▶▶ Using these instruments provides access to capital that might not be available locally or to capital with more generous and flexible terms than are available locally.
- ▶▶ Using these instruments provides the means to eliminate convertibility or transfer risk through swap arrangements.

#### **Disadvantages**

- ▶▶ Many of the financial markets in the countries in which most MFIs operate do not support these instruments; however, there is evidence that use of these instruments is starting to emerge in some developing countries.
- ▶▶ The costs of using these instruments may be prohibitive because of the small size of foreign exchange transactions typically made by MFIs. Also, the duration of foreign loans often exceeds that of the hedging products available in thinner, local financial markets.
- ▶▶ Creditworthiness issues may make it difficult for MFIs to purchase these derivative instruments.

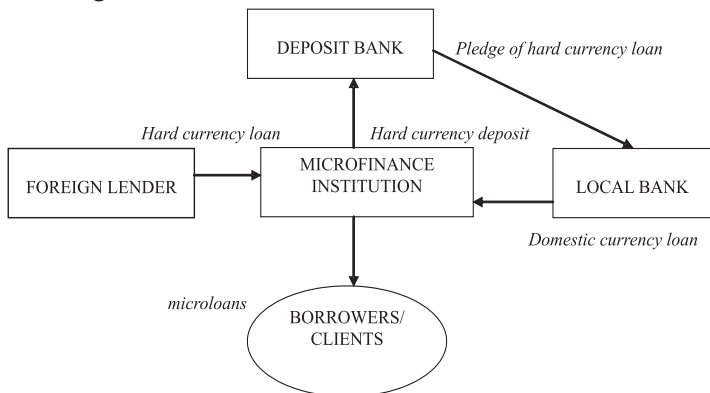
Currently, the most common effective ways for MFIs to hedge against foreign exchange risk are back-to-back loans and letters of credit.

Back-to-back lending is the method most commonly used by the microfinance sector to hedge against devaluation or depreciation risk. However, the back-to-back loan mechanism can expose the MFI to the local bank's credit risk to the extent that a foreign currency deposit is placed with that local bank to entice it to make a local currency denominated loan to the MFI. Moreover, most back-to-back loans are structured in such a way that they do nothing to protect the MFI from convertibility and transfer risks.

Certain features of this structure contribute to mitigate the risks the MFI would face by simply converting the hard currency loan to local currency to fund its local lending activities. First, a back-to-back loan structure avoids convertibility risk. If the MFI were to convert the hard currency loan into local currency and the local government subsequently imposed restrictions on converting local currency into hard currency, the MFI may be incapable of converting the local currency back to hard currency to repay the hard currency loan. By retaining the hard currency in an account at the deposit bank, the MFI sidesteps this regulatory risk.

More important, retaining a hard currency deposit mitigates depreciation and devaluation risk. As long as the MFI does not default on the local currency loan, the hard currency deposit will be available at maturity to repay the principal of the hard currency loan.

See Figure 1 for an illustration of this structure.



**See Figure 1. Back-to-Back Loan Structure**

#### **Advantages**

- ▶▶ Is not exposed to capital loss if the DC depreciates.
- ▶▶ Provides access to capital that might not be available locally and can mobilize local funds.

- ▶ Provides access to capital that has potential for more generous and flexible terms than are available locally.

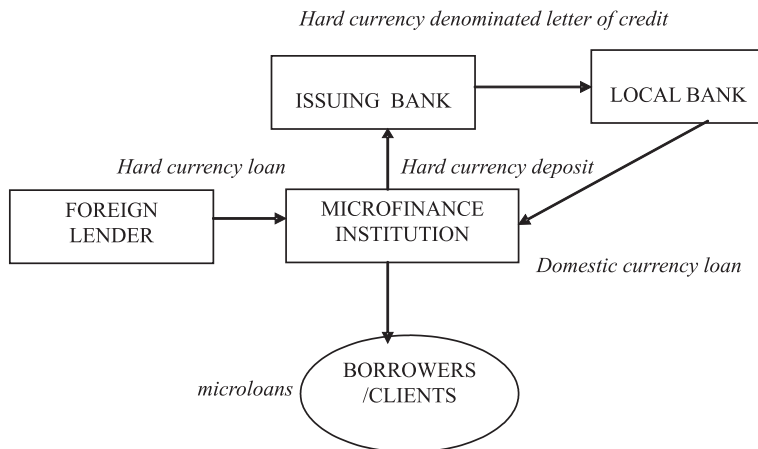
#### **Disadvantages**

- ▶ Is still exposed to increase in debt-servicing costs if DC depreciates.
- ▶ Must pay interest on domestic loan and the difference between the interest charged by the hard-currency lender and the interest earned on the hard-currency deposit.
- ▶ Is exposed to convertibility and transfer risks that could limit access to foreign currency or prohibit transfers of foreign currency outside the country, thereby making it impossible for an otherwise creditworthy MFI to repay its hard-currency loan. This makes it unlikely that an investor will lend.
- ▶ Is exposed to credit risk on the hard-currency deposit if domestic bank fails.

In a letter-of-credit structure, the MFI enters into a hard currency loan with a foreign lender and deposits the hard currency proceeds of this loan in an account maintained at a bank as collateral to secure the issuance by such bank of a letter of credit to a local bank located in the MFI's jurisdiction. To achieve the full benefits of this structure, the bank issuing the letter of credit (the "issuing bank") typically is not located in the MFI's jurisdiction. The local bank, in turn, agrees to extend a local currency loan to the MFI to finance its lending activities.

The letter of credit is an irrevocable obligation of the issuing bank to pay the local bank a certain amount in hard currency (normally up to the amount of the hard currency deposit placed by the MFI with the issuing bank) if the local bank presents a document to the issuing bank stating that the conditions specified in the letter of credit have been met. In the MFI context, the most common condition that can trigger presentation of the letter of credit for payment is that the MFI has defaulted on the local currency loan. Therefore, if the MFI defaults on the local currency loan, the local bank will be entitled to present a statement to that effect to the issuing bank and to be repaid by the issuing bank the hard currency equivalent of the local currency owed by the MFI.<sup>2</sup> Assuming that the MFI does not default on the local currency loan and repays the principal on the local loan when due, the letter of credit will expire without any payment being made by the issuing bank.

See Figure 2 for an illustration.



**See Figure 2. Letter of Credit Structure**

**Advantages**

- ▶▶ Is not exposed to capital loss if DC depreciates (protects against devaluation or depreciation risk).
- ▶▶ May leverage cash deposit and Letter of Credit to provide a larger domestic loan.
- ▶▶ Provides access to capital that might not be available locally and can mobilize local funds.
- ▶▶ Is not exposed to the credit risk of the local bank because no hard-currency deposit is placed with the local bank.
- ▶▶ Is not at risk for convertibility or transfer risk because no hard currency needs to cross borders.

**Disadvantages**

- ▶▶ Is still exposed to increases in debt-servicing costs if DC depreciates.
- ▶▶ Is more difficult to obtain than back-to-back lending.
- ▶▶ Some local banks are not willing to accept a Letter of Credit in lieu of other forms of collateral. These banks may require some “extra” credit enhancements in the form of cash collateral, pledge of loan portfolio, etc. Also, Letter of-Credit fees add another cost to the transaction.

As conclusion, a significant portion of MFIs that have hard-currency liabilities either do not understand the level of risk these liabilities create, or are not managing that risk as effectively as they could. Foreign exchange rate risk can be complicated and difficult to understand, and the instruments typically used to manage this risk are not always available to MFIs. The industry needs to pay more attention

to foreign exchange risk and learn more about techniques to manage it – including avoiding it by using local funding sources where possible. Broad recommendations for players in the microfinance sector are discussed next.

If MFIs must obtain foreign currency debt, they should adopt positions to limit their exposure to foreign exchange risk. There is a range of instruments available to MFIs to counter the effects of the unpredictable and potentially devastating nature of exchange rate fluctuations. MFIs need to analyze and then adopt suitable methods to mitigate their exposure to this risk:

1. A lack of cost-effective FX hedging options constrain international commercial investment; a key to sustainable and accelerated growth in microfinance.

2. FX risk cannot be hedged 100%, but must be managed.

3. Significant outside support is needed to add liquidity in the industry and catalyze market-based financing structures for microfinance organizations.

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## **BANKING INNOVATIONS RISK – PROFITABILITY RELATIONSHIP IN THE BANKING SYSTEM OF THE REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA**

*The level of information technologies development in modern banks represents an essential factor in maintenance and consolidation of the position on the market. In this respect all Moldovan banks develop risk management policies with regard to banking IT's and e-products and services, which they consider as the main part of banking innovations at the moment.*

*The purpose of this article is to analyze each innovation (Information Security Services, Business Systems Controls, Business Continuity Management, IT Outsourcing, Information Systems Governance, IT Performance, Project Risk Management, IT Internal Audit) in terms of risks and benefits when these risks are managed properly.*

By analyzing the innovations Moldovan banks have implemented in the last 10 years, like ATMs, different types of banking cards, international transfer systems, performing banking software, e-services and many other, we may confidently state that no matter how much risk they inherit, banks still consider them the road to profitability and leadership.

Nowadays, the level of information technologies development in modern banks represents an essential factor in maintenance and consolidation of the position on the market. The volume of information exchange and current requirements for the speed of transactions has made implementation and development of high information technologies a primary necessity. In this respect all Moldovan banks develop risk management policies with regard to banking IT's and e-products and services, which they consider as the main part of banking innovations at the moment.

The errors of conception or fulfillment, slow implementation process of technologies, poor new systems management represent more and more important risks that have a direct influence upon the banking services' quality and profitability. The Moldovan banks usually deal

with the following risk aspects regarding new software, new products and services, innovations:

—The first aspect comprises the category of risks related to the IT knowledge. It represents the possibility of some errors in computing the banking programs and it is also called the risk of logical security. The exposure to this aspect of risk can be huge and difficult to measure. It can be calculated only in the terms of new IT development cost in order to derive an efficient system or it can be estimated indirectly as the losses due to an inadequate services and products management.

—The second one is related to the difficulty of systems' applications functioning. It is also called system risk and affects both, the traditional data base management and information actualization. The potential loss equals to funds' decreases or medium instead of maximum attained profitability.

—The third aspect regards telecommunications. It is concerning to the probability of sending information over the phone, telex, mail that contains mistakes, losses or misleading parts. An error in destination, a wrong interpretation of the information received from the client, as well as illegal use of a banking channel may lead to important losses for the bank that can not be calculated in fix terms as the up mentioned risk aspects, too.

One another major problem represent the personnel knowledge with regard to new software or a new product/ service characteristics. Usually the banking personnel are familiarized earlier with the new banking system; the bank organizes special trainings. Moldovan banks very often meet a holdup in this case, because trainings encompass additional costs. Sometimes by saving on personnel trainings, Moldovan banks experience higher costs in comparison with the initial ones. More than that, when a new soft is implemented, the old one is not removed immediately. The employees must perform the operations in 2 systems concomitantly for a period till the old one is replaced. This takes additional effort, time and diminishes the efficiency and productivity of services provided.

Banks can exposure themselves to a major risk if they develop an inadequate strategy. Some of them take up costly projects without having a real capacity of financing them. A new product/ service imply a marketing strategy, which comprises design, launch and implementation stages. Thus it is very important to choose for each stage the best time.

When we talk about managing the bank risks is critical to understand that one risk derives another one, that is why banks should be aware that innovations bring up new aspects most of the times unknown and unpredictable for the bank that raise new risks. Even if a bank survives major losses due to a wrong strategy, the bank's credibility is affected directly, fact that will result in a weaker authority among other financial institutions, which will take a negative effect on the cost of the capital the bank will attract in the future.

With banks constantly extending their use of technology into new areas to derive and provide strategic benefits, the world is getting increasingly interconnected. Information is now centralized and we see Moldovan banks, too pushed to the edge of the networks. In order to race to the market, security for and controls over such critical information tends to get overlooked. This translates into issues related to confidentiality, integrity and availability of information - key controls in the information economy. Effective information risk management therefore assumes critical importance and provides competitive advantage.

Use of information technology by banks is fraught with risk. By applying a multi-disciplinary approach to projects and formulate a more comprehensive and effective strategy, Moldovan banks should pay attention to: ***Information Security Services, Business Systems Controls, Business Continuity Management, IT Outsourcing, Information Systems Governance, IT Performance, Project Risk Management, IT Internal Audit.***

The purpose of this article is to analyze each of them in terms of risks and benefits when these risks are managed properly.

### ***Information security services***

Security failures can cost dearly, either directly through lost business, loss of goods or services and costs of recovery or indirectly through damage to reputation. Significant risk accompanies the opportunities that e-businesses offer. Information and information systems are exposed to theft and attack anywhere. To retain competitive advantage and meet basic business requirements, banks must: enhance integrity and reliability of the information held on their computer systems; preserve both privacy of customer information and confidentiality of data; enhance availability of their information systems.

However, technology is only one element of any security solution. An effective approach needs to involve people to make them work and processes to foster consistent and effective operations:



- Security assessment through risk analysis including: information threat and impact analysis, identification of vulnerabilities, security architecture assessment, evaluation of controls and gap analysis to identify areas where risks outweigh controls.
- Design of the bank security architecture to address the gap identified during the assessment phase.
- Implementation of security strategies and its integration within the business
- Monitoring of incidents, measurement of security key performance, and periodic audit to enhance the effectiveness of the security strategies.

*Bank's benefits:*

- increasing revenue by securely harnessing the commercial potential of information technology;
- reducing overall cost by getting information security right the first time;
- reducing the number of costly incidents to recover from;
- lowering the risk of damage to reputation.

### ***Banks systems controls***

In an era of e-commerce and the Internet, organizations face issues of internal systems and development of efficient, automated controls and processes. Competition has left many of our banks with a combination of several IT systems to support their business processes. Downsizing and outsourcing have broken down traditional business controls.

Business System Controls covers the audit, risk, control and security aspects of any IT system supporting a bank's business processes.

Generic tools:

- Business Process Analysis - risk-based approach to evaluation and design of systematic controls over business processes.
- Systems Integration Controls - addresses the full implementation lifecycle for controls from review and evaluation through design, implementation and on-going monitoring.

*Bank's benefits:*

- efficient control procedures, which cost less to operate and reduce the costs of error correction;
- reduced risk of value destruction through control failure;
- increased benefit in integrated systems;
- systems and processes to enable information technology opportunities.

### ***Business continuity management***

Banks and business partners must provide fault-free, instantaneous service 100 per cent of the time. These more exacting customer requirements have firmly positioned high availability as a critical success factor for any business. It is a key competitive benchmark for all banks and other financial organizations with an online channel to market, or with high dependence on information technology. This is creating a widening gap between banks' business and market requirements, reducing the ability of traditional approaches to deliver these new requirements. Assuring high levels of information and service availability must become a key design objective for any bank of the Moldovan system.

#### *Bank's benefits:*

- reduced overall cost of downtime;
- improved business continuance environment;
- enhanced service level management;
- effective disaster recovery and crisis management programs;
- protected profits, revenues, and shareholder value.

### ***It outsourcing***

Competition and increasing pressure from shareholders focus on core business issues improve customer satisfaction and reduce information costs driving many banks to re-evaluate sourcing options. Emphasizing on core competencies while leveraging increasingly, commoditized services such as call centers, systems development and IT operations can also increase the focus and sharpen the competitive edge of the bank.

Moldovan banks should evaluate their sourcing approach, establish sourcing strategies with controls over implementation and management to facilitate selection between the numerous sourcing alternatives and increase the benefits that can be realized from shared services, outsourcing and multi vendor arrangements.

We provide four broad categories of services depending on the bank's needs:

- Sourcing Advisory: provides assistance with sourcing approach, vendor evaluation, negotiation and transition management, for potential sourcing service partners.
- Sourcing Assessment: helps clients review and assess current sourcing arrangements - includes: requirements reviews and due diligence and controls assessment.

- Sourcing Financial Management: provides cost analysis and billing practice reviews and analysis to help clients realize the benefits of sourcing arrangements.

- Sourcing Performance Management: assists clients with contract compliance and service level management reviews to help determine whether the planned value is being delivered.

*Bank's benefits:*

—identification and elimination of inadequacies in agreements with external service providers, therefore enabling the benefits of outsourcing to be better realized. These may include: improving customer service; reducing management effort; improved flexibility to meet current and future business needs; avoiding lock-in to inadequate agreements on renewal of contracts; compliance with regulatory requirements.

### ***Information systems (is) governance***

Effective IS Governance helps ensure business systems deliver value to banks. It also assists in managing the unique risks inherent in technology through appropriate corporate governance. IS Governance also facilitates use of technology to support organizations meet their compliance obligations.

### ***Reviewing alignment of it and business strategies***

Moldovan banks must focus on review and re-development of their IT strategies. The recommendations are to align the IT strategic plans to the business by clearly demonstrating the role of IT in meeting business objectives, including:

*'Where are you now?'* - An overview of the current IT environment examined against the strategic direction in order to bridge the gap.

*'Where are you going?'* - Confirmation of the strategic direction of the organizations and the link to IT strategy.

*'How do you get there?'* - Strategies to bridge the gap including a portfolio of prioritized projects, indicative budget for projects, benefits, timeframes and risk management.

Understanding the potential value of IT is contributing to bank's effectiveness, in the implementation of IT strategies that enhance shareholder value and government in a better use of the bank's funds.

*Bank's benefits:*

- helping clients ensure that IT is delivering value;
- ensuring that IT is able to support business strategies;
- strengthening internal IT controls to support overall corporate governance frameworks.

### *Electronic business risk management services*

E-business continues to change “the shape of bank, the speed of action, the nature of leadership”, along with the risks and opportunities banks face. As a result, every organization needs to ensure effective business controls to sustain a profitable position.

Moldovan banks develop a comprehensive suite of methodologies designed specifically to provide an end-to-end risk management framework to businesses on the Internet in the following ways:

- helping e-businesses in evaluating and strengthening the controls established in identifying and managing the risks during the strategic decision making process

- assessing the robustness of business processes in handling ever-increasing loads in a consistent manner, with assured end results

- evaluating the consistence of web presence with the organizational image and providing good practices to enhance visibility

- enhancing reliability, availability, and consistency of systems performance in meeting the business requirements and improve the customer’s experience

- providing an ongoing service to secure the web presence against ever increasing and innovating external and internal elements of threat

An Electronic Business Risk Management Review identifies the capabilities developed by an e-business is developing a controls framework and the progress achieved in implementing them.

### *It performance*

Successful professionals need to focus on bottom-line results by maximizing business performance, minimizing operational risk, and gaining control over IT systems and processes. Optimizing the effectiveness and efficiency of people, processes, and technologies is critical for the survival and success of the bank.

Moldovan banks systematically strive for excellence by benchmarking themselves against established ‘good practices’. They align their strategies from top to bottom, view their IT infrastructure as a mission critical business enabler, consider their IT group as a business partner, and satisfy their customers.

#### *Bank benefits:*

- improved overall business performance

- efficient business systems and processes

- better understanding of the underlying controls
- reduced risks associated with IT
- effective utilization of organizational assets

### ***Project risk management***

Technological advances fuel the speed at which the Moldovan banking system environment transitions and develops. To survive and prosper, an organization must seize new technology opportunities that benefit the business. These include, among others, developing new routes to market, improving customer information or streamlining key business processes. However, the risks associated with such projects are complex and difficult to manage; and the cost of failure huge.

Banks take appropriate and timely project action to avoid expensive delays and failure. Their goals are aimed at reviewing the progress, organization and management of projects, selecting packaged software and improving data integrity.

#### *Bank benefits:*

- objective assessment of the effectiveness of project management controls providing assurance to senior management and/ or external parties
- proactive advice on enhancing processes and controls to mitigate project risks, increase the likelihood of the project meeting its objectives and reducing costs to the business (these include —unquantifiable costs such as a tarnished image, frustration, poor staff morale and wasted time)
- independent and objective assessment of the process for selecting packaged software
- experience to analyze and clean data as well as advice on the controls required, if management is to place reliance on data

### ***It internal audit***

Technology is not just a tool to support bank's functions: instead it is creating new needs, products, organizational structures and even business models. Banks that excel in exploiting IT and Internet technology gain significant competitive advantage.

These advances present a huge challenge to the Internal Audit function in providing effective assurance and advice over the risks and controls in this rapidly changing environment.

IT Internal Audit can be provided as part of a full internal audit co-sourcing or outsourcing arrangement, or as a stand-alone service.

Our banks tend to highly experienced staff and a range of professionals having in depth knowledge of Internet security, business application controls, project risk, and business continuity.

*Bank's benefits:*

—updated technical knowledge and the business experience required for this function

—strengthened IT internal controls environment and thus, a stronger overall corporate governance framework

—identification and management of financial and operational risks embedded in business systems

As an example of how Moldovan banks manage these types of risks we bring into discussion the Moldova Agroindbank's risk management policy. In order to minimize them, the bank administrates the risks related to the environment of data e-processing: the risk of information confidentiality, the risk of information integrity, the risk of continuity functionality of the basic components, the risk of security of the functioning environment.

The banking IT's risk management is performed through:

—Elaboration, systematical actualization and practical application of the bank's Continuity Business Plan;

—Periodically analysis of the IT risks with the application of the accepted international methodologies;

—Systematic control of the information security with regard to the bank's employees and third parts that perform to the bank IT outsourcing services;

—Identification of the intern information sources with regard to the operational losses events, thus to be included in the data base for the measurement and monitoring risks facilitation;

—Use of licensed antivirus programs, limited access to the information both, at technical and program levels, use of more levels of protection;

—Passing in real terms of the bank's management to the International Standards of Information Security BS 7799/ISO177;

Also the bank develops and applies the necessary procedures and mechanisms, including reserves and measures of recovery in cases of disasters; systematical modernization and accessibility and reliability insurance of the bank's IT; implementation of specific processes in accordance to the International Standards like COBIT, for example (Control Objectives Information Technology).

In conclusion, we may say that a sound risk management in which concerns innovations provides a higher efficiency and productivity, increased number of customers, thus better services/ products, an improved image on the financial market and consequently the leadership position.

Moldovan banks must develop their own strategy with regard to banking innovations in accordance with their needs and future expectations. By having a large experience in the back, the challenge for innovation implementation at present, the future of Moldovan banks can be drawn in bright colors of profitability and success in the picture of innovation.

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## **CAPITAL MARKET UNDER THE IMPACT OF GLOBALIZATION**

*The paper intends to identify elements which nowadays naturally bind the Romanian capital market to external financial circuits and to evaluate the dynamics of these one into a world of multiple conditionings in which the juxtaposition of influences may generate the intensification or disruption of the effects, and their reproduction in different circumstances may lead to results situated beyond anticipations.*

### **GLOBALIZATION OF CAPITAL MARKETS**

The direction of internalization of stock exchanges and development of a global financial market may have negative consequences.

In Felix Rohatyn's opinion "global financial markets are a greater danger today to world's stability even more than atomic weapons".

The succession of financial crises in the '90s starting with Mexico and finishing with South Korea, Russia or Brasilia is an argument used by globalization's opponents. The main factor of financial crises in the last decade is also the factor of globalization of capital markets, which speeded the capital movements.

Unlike previous decades, nowadays national economies integrated in global economical circuit must be prepared anytime in order to face eventual shocks from the exterior. The isolation from the global economy is not a solution in order to escape from the dangers implied. A strong economy with a solid financial compartment, open and transparent may face successfully the provocations brought by changes on the international level.

The reduced degree of regulation of international market enhances the opportunities of speculations<sup>1</sup> and thus may affect the stability of national capital markets.

A globalized financial system where hundreds of milliard dollars may circulate simultaneously as a reaction to the latest news and eventually only on the grounds of some psychological factors, may become an unstable system.

The speculative movements represent a significant perturbant source which attempts to the stability of financial markets. The overwhelming financial power of private investors may create problems even to the most powerful governments.



A familiar example which shows the potential source of instability generated by globalization is the one of Rarings Bank.

Nowadays, on a global market with global investors the international flows of capital may affect the whole system with the risk of being a source of instability. The intercorrelation of national financial markets allows the more rapid transfer of wave shocks and the consequences of a domino effect generalized at global scale are hard to imagine. The technological revolution reduced the autonomy of national markets and increased their volatility.

### ***GLOBALIZATION AND FINANCIAL VOLATILITY***

The financial crises of the second half of the '90s threatened the globalized system of capital markets and brought spectacular reductions of production on a short term. The volatility of capital flows measured as a standard deviation to the mean of admissions –exits of financial resources placed under doubt the capacity of markets to actuate increases on a long term and thus the development of national economies.

In a reciprocal sense one intended the influence of financial globalization to the macro economical volatility – measured as a standard deviation of the consumption and production to the mean.

In spite of the fact that the volatility of capital flows inhibits the development, recent evaluations show the fact that countries learn to manage more and more better their volatility. Thus, the rather harsh process of global financial integration offer – if well-managed – the possibility of some economical growths.

The volatility of capital flows, measured either as a standard deviation to the mean of admissions –exits, or as a deviation to the average proportion between the flows and the internal brute product may be the result of an internal cause as well as of an external one:

- The changes in the internal financial politics, for example, may determine reactions of the capital flows when these kinds of modifications are frequent and unpredictable. In this situation, the volatility is considered a symptom of the deficiencies of politics rather than a risk.

- On the other side there are the opinions according to which the movements of capital flows are almost independent to the fundamental economical balances of the states – the volatility of the flows is thus owed to the state of global liquidities and 'contagious' conduct of investors.

An intermediate vision binds internal weaknesses – especially in the financial sector – to the imperfections of global allocation of capital

flows. The relation affects especially the countries which liberalize their financial sectors in the same time with the opening of the economies to the external capital.

This perspective led to the general accepted importance of consolidation of internal financial sector in the same time with the financial integration with the rest of the world.

During the last years the volatility on a long term of capital flows, though even increased or increasing in some countries has recorded deflations in the group of state in development. The signs of reducing of volatility as well as the perception of the fact that some countries got in shape relatively soon from the crises determined the observers to conclude that the countries succeeded to ameliorate the ability to manage the volatility of capital flows by such means as:

- diversification of the structures of production
- introduction of flexible rate of exchange
- preservation of a higher levels of currency stores
- consolidation of the observation of the financial sector
- rating of capital admissions in order to maintain under control the most volatile flows.

### ***REGULATION AND OBSERVATION OF NATIONAL CAPITAL MARKETS***

The national organisms of observation of capital market have as their main mission to ensure the protection of the investors who placed money in value titles, permanent information of the investors, authorization of the creation and observation of the course of activity for the institutions implied in the field and the well functioning of the markets organized in movable values.

They have also the task to examine if there are persons who benefit from privileged or confidential information. One of the antinomy of the exchange: knowing of the reality previous to the 'market' is a source of benefit but the confidential piece of information is, theoretically, unusable.

In more countries one can observe the tendency to unify the whole responsibilities of regulation and observation of national capital market in the hands of a single institution.

The existence in more and more countries of the preoccupation of agglomeration of tasks of observation has the disadvantage of a lack of responsibility.

The tendency to reunite all the responsibilities of regulation and observation of national capital market in the duty of one institution do

not have to be mixed with that of unification of observation for the whole financial market but can represent a first step in this direction.

In the attempt to fulfill their objectives, the role of the ‘peace officer of the exchange’, the organisms of observation of the market are invested with powers of executive and judicial regulation:

- powers of regulation with the view to the possibility to promote regulation, instructions, recommendations, etc;
- executive powers which refer to the activities of notifying of public offers, of observing of the market;
- judicial powers in accordance with the possibilities to proceed to investigations if one observes the break of the laws in the field or of proper regulations, the cases being able to be sent to the law court or being directly executed by penalties or administrative measurement to the society of movable values.

In the future, the problem of a unique authority of observation and regulation for the whole financial market will be one of actuality, one taking into account the tendency of sending to the banks the implication on the capital market.

### ***TENDENCIES OF DEREGULARIZATIONS OF CAPITAL MARKETS***

The concept of deregularization does not imply the renouncement of regularizations. Capital markets continue to remain regularized.

The tendency of deregularization manifested internationally has in view a phenomenon of liberalization of the markets, of opening of national capital markets. In this sense the deregularization must be regarded also related to the phenomenon of accelerate globalization of national capital markets.

### ***THE EMBRYOS OF FINANCIAL CRISES AND GLOBAL FINANCES***

The problem of the imperfections of the market arises when there appear frictions between the capital movements and the fundamental indicators and when the discipline of the market proves to be weak. This is the case, for example, when capital flows refer to countries with unsustainable politics or, on the contrary, when financings on the external capital markets are either unavailable, or too expensive for countries which otherwise have correct politics and perspectives on the capital markets.

“In the battle between nations matters not so much the different divisions or ideologies as the capacity to attract and hold the investors”<sup>2</sup>.

According to the hypothesis of the arbitration between financial politics, the differences in the quality of the management of economical politics represent important determinants of the volume, terms and direction of capital flows. Thus, these flows tend to come from countries with relatively instable economical politics to countries with healthy economical politics and good perspectives.

Any conflict which can appear in this way between the national and international interests refer not so much to the direction of the capital movements, as to their volume. If an economy receives a volume of capitals bigger than its capacity of absorption, the admissions of capital will destabilize the fundamental balances and rise problem to the monetary politics and the one of the rate exchange.

The management of financial crises resides in the arbitrary of the two opponent realities which governs the national markets: the control of capital flows which assumes a certain degree of economical planning on the one hand, and the pressure of group of interests, on the other. The judgments are aggravated by the psychology of the regular intervenient on the capital market.

### ***THE SIMPLE CAUSE OF A FINANCIAL CRISES:***

Inventions – Emergent Markets –Economical Boom

These tendencies are increased by the fact that any economical ‘boom’ is the carrier of a great inflationary potential.

The expansion of the crisis is an attribute of these ones which raises question marks and accentuates the urgency regime of the problematic of financial crises. One notices that the impact of the crises in the decades IX and X to the group of countries OECD was insignificant and that the losses registered in the countries in crises would equal only 2-3 years of economical growth.

Moreover, the innovation and the financial intermediation facilitate the circulation without furrows of some immense capitals – inclusively of the ‘black money’ – with evident effects to national economies<sup>3</sup>.

### ***CONCLUSIONS***

Romanian capital market develops, in its turn, a process of evolution, exceeding the phase of the emergency of system but remaining at the stage of searching and partial and sometimes painful consolidations,

taking its proper rhythms of internal economy and aspiring to the statute of a delicate instrument.

In order to circumscribe the Romanian capital market within the international financial space it is necessary the identification of the broad cadre of the influences of the globalization to the markets and capital flows but especially to the ones of economies in transition with a higher degree of vulnerability.

Regional initiatives and commune plans of action which sustain them determine the profile of many of the transformations which Romanian exchanges and other financial systems operated or have to operate soon. The new European economical geography, the problems of monetary and financial union, internal sectorial bets and even those social of European community seem distant subjects but they actually have the capacity to significantly influence and on a long term the integration of the Romanian market – as well as of some other markets – in the European financial arena.

In the presence of global structural forces which determine the movements of the capitals, the role of internal fiscal ropes becomes crucial. These one avoid the costs associated with different types of politics of sterilization and represent a substitute for the flexibility of the rate of exchange. Nevertheless, few countries have relied so far on the fiscal politics in order to control the admission of the capital due to its inflexible character

Fiscal contraction can play a benefic role as an instrument for the stabilization of the capitals on a short term and the conservative fiscal position should occupy a central role in the control of the countries which are in a phase of growth of the financial integration.

During extensive financial integration the direction and size of the capital flows become very sensitive to the perception of the investors on internal public solvability and limit fiscal flexibility. Moreover, during volatility of capitals the preventive tightening of fiscal politics may help the protection of important capitals of incomes and expenses. Even if the fiscal position has to be consolidate in front of the volatility of the great capital flows, the necessary modifications will be less important if the government has already consolidated the fiscal politics. This will help the govern to avoid the eventual significant adjustments of fiscal programmes.

The conclusion, as well as the way of approaching are certainly perfectible and deserve the effort of a future ample research. In addition, the legislative initiatives and the structural changes for the capital

market in the near future will generate new elements of analysis and will reconfigure dynamically one of the youngest sectors of Romanian economy.

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## INFLATION TARGETING

*Today the central banks of many states face a dilemma: they have to decide what is more important – to fight the inflation or to create conditions for economic growth (including ensuring stability in their financial and bank systems). The economy of the Republic of Moldova can not stay outside these globalization processes.*

The Consumer Price Index in Moldova amounted to 13.1 per cent in 2007, while the estimated figure was of 10 per cent. It must be mentioned that the last year inflation level exceeded the forecasts in other countries too. In the neighboring Ukraine the consumer price index amounted to 16.6 per cent instead of the forecasted 9.6 per cent. The index recorded in Belarus was of 12.1 per cent, to compare with the forecasted 6-8 per cent. The final results of rise in prices in Russia were of 11.9 per cent, while it was estimated that it would be possible to keep the inflation within the limits of 7-8 per cent. The inflation in the European Union increased from 1.9 per cent to 3.1 per cent, i.e. by more than 1.5 times. The inflation in Latvia reached a record level for the EU- 14 per cent; in Estonia and Lithuania this figure amounted to 9.7 per cent and 8.2 per cent correspondingly. Among the neighboring countries, the best index was recorded by Romania- 6.7 per cent. The beginning of 2008 did not bring an ease to the conditions of Moldovan economy, as the inflation rates increased rapidly raising doubts about the possibility of maintaining the consumer price index at the levels recorded last year.

Based on the need to fulfill the main task of the National Bank of Moldova - to ensure and to support the price stability, on November 8, 2007 the Administration Board of the NBM approved the plan of actions for the implementation of the inflation targeting strategy, which provides for development of macroeconomic analyses, inflation modeling and forecasts, improvement of the mechanism of monetary policy transmission as well as development of a population awareness raising policy and implementation of measures aiming at increasing the confidence of the population in the monetary policy applied by the National Bank of Moldova.

The inflation targeting is an economic system originating from the

end of the 80's, which provides for approval and official declaration of the targeted inflation index for one or several periods, as well as for the responsibility of the central bank for the price stability as the basic task of the monetary policy. Using a simple language, the essence of the method is the idea that the inflation is the main enemy and the fight against it takes priority over the economic growth index. Thus, by increasing the interest rates, the regulator manages the cash flow and reduces the inflation pressure.

The principle of inflation targeting has been used by many both developed and developing states, such as Australia, Brazil, Great Britain, Hungary, Israel, Indonesia, Canada, Columbia, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Thailand, Philippines, the Czech Republic, Chile, Sweden and the RSA since the end of the last century. According to this principle, when price increase and the inflation exceed the forecasted levels, the central bank must raise the interest rates. Besides the refinancing rates the Central Bank has a more efficient anti-inflation tool – the mandatory reserve requirements. The banks transfer a certain percentage of the attracted assets to the Mandatory Reserves Fund. These assets are frozen on the accounts of the CB and the crediting organizations can not use them even for the short term replenishment of liquidity.

The experience of the abovementioned countries shows that in the long run the inflation targeting policy can decrease the inflation by twice. It is however a matter of time, a long period of time. The inflation targeting must not be an extreme method of fighting against the prices increase. It is important to make a gradual transition to this system. Besides, there are several important prerequisites for the inflation targeting to become successful. First of all, the credit market must be a high-scale one, so that The Central Bank can manage efficiently the overall crediting system through the interest rates. It is known that such a market does not exist in Moldova. The refinancing rates established by the NBM play a rather indicative role than are a real instrument of monetary mass regulation in the economy. Secondly, the inflation targeting is determined by the floating exchange rate, based on the stable payment balance. If the floating rate is introduced in Moldova today, it will have as short term consequences the quick strengthening of the position of Leu and the loss of competitiveness of the local producers; in the long term it will result in the negative value of the trade balance and the start of decrease of the gold and currency reserves.

Some of the characteristics of inflation targeting system are the



measures for budget expenses reduction, introduction of a strict budget discipline and decrease of trade banks crediting by the CB. These measures result in the lower rates of industry crediting by the banks, decrease of liquidity, reduction of investments and consumer demand, suspension of the increase of population incomes.

According to the NBM, as well as to the experts from the IMF, the main reason of price increases is the growing volume of the monetary mass in circulation, which is not counterbalanced by the equivalent industry growth in the country. The sterilization of the monetary mass through attraction of unallocated bank assets is too expensive for the CB. During the last 18 months (first through the attraction of bank assets to urgent payable deposits and later through the issue of income certificates) the National Bank has diverted from one to two billion lei from the market. These actions were successful to a certain extent at the initial stage. However, starting with the fall 2007 the interest rates increased from 13.27 per cent to 16.82 in April this year. The NM has to find now for the means to pay the interests for the “absorbed money” on the account of its income. This income became insufficient already at the end of 2007.

The possibility to influence the market through the change of the so called “basic rate” exists only theoretically. This is not more than a signal to the bank community and the overall market. The market operators have to decide if they should follow this signal or just ignore it. Therefore, sometimes the National Bank of Moldova has in fact no other solution but increasing the mandatory reserves requirements applied to the attracted deposits.

The increase of the mandatory reserves requirements from 16 per cent to 22 per cent became a certain challenge to the commercial banks. In a quite short period of time they had to collect a significant amount of liquidity- more than 1.55 billion lei. It could be done in the following ways: by closing some of its positions in state securities and NBM certificates, decreasing the volume of crediting and increasing the interest rates for the attractive deposits. The average rate applied to urgent deposits in lei has increased since the beginning of the year by 2.88 per cent amounting to 18.69 per cent and by 3.83 per cent to 10.32 per cent on deposits in foreign currency. It must be acknowledged that the efforts of the banks proved to be useful- in seven months the rate of rise in assets amounted to 20.5 per cent. The banks that engaged in the fight for the attraction of the unused assets of the population and of the economic agents from the very beginning recorded the highest

rates of deposits increase: „MICB” – 23,1%, „Victoriabank” – 19,4%, „MAIB” – 15,4%, „BEM” – 14,2%. Because the resources became more expensive, the banks had to increase the interest rates on credits, as the main indicator of a bank efficiency is its profitability. The average interest rate on credits amounted in July to 21,45% on credits in lei and to 12,27% on credits in foreign currency. The borrowers have to pay now by 2.45% more for credits in lei and by 1.6 % for credits in foreign currency compared to the previous year. It must be mentioned that both the consumers credits and the credits given to economic agents became more expensive (which is, in fact, what NB tried to achieve). And while the demand for even such expensive credits remains relatively high, the volume of crediting increased since the beginning of 2008 only by 15.2 per cent, while in 2007 the banks managed to increase the crediting volume by 6923 lei or 50.1 per cent.

Talking about the decrease of the economy crediting volumes it must be reminded of the EU trade preferential conditions provided to Moldova recently. The Government made huge efforts to be able to benefit of this system of preferences: the system of products certification had been modified, new procedures related to the export of goods had been implemented, etc. Today Moldova uses these preferential conditions at the level of 60 per cent. In order to use the remaining limit of preferences the production volumes must be increased, which at its turn requires available credit resources. However the situation in the bank sector does not help it at all. If Moldova is not able to use the opportunities provided by the European Union, the image of our country can be affected and it will have a negative impact on the further relationships with the European Union.

Thus, the bank system resisted by increasing the mandatory reserves requirements and in general terms it prevented the loss of liquidity (though one quarter of the banks participating in the system recorded a drop in the liquid assets). However the profitability of the banking business decreased significantly. The NB pays for the assets reserved by the banks an average rate of 0.5%. If the banks were able to use these assets, they would receive 18-20 per cent only on state securities, and even more on the credits. Besides, the margin (the difference between the average interest rate on urgent deposits and the average rate on credits) also decreases. It amounted to 2.86 per cent in July, compared to 7.7 per cent recorded last year. The minimal margin was recorded by Investprivatbank- 2.7 per cent, while the highest indicator belongs to Eurocreditbank- 16.3 per cent. The decrease of the interest margin must

challenge the banks to increase the range of non-credit bank operations and services that bring profits generated by the interest rates. In the first 7 months of the current the capital increase due to the overall profit of the banks within the system amounted to over 750 million lei, or 15 %. Due to the professional management, the commercial banks could achieve quite good profit indicators, even if they had to cover an important part of expenses for the reduction of inflation. This is another justification of the increased interest of foreign investors in our bank system.

«The inflation targeting», performed by the NB and which resulted in the increase of mandatory reserves requirements had some other interesting consequences. In order to achieve the new level of reserves in foreign currency the banks had either to take sources from the credit lines or to attract foreign assets. The banks that do not have access to foreign credit lines accepted credit repayments in foreign currency in order to be able to meet the new reserves requirements. Under these circumstances, the banks that are financially supported from abroad have an advantage compared to their competitors, as they can attract the clients of other banks requiring credits in foreign currency. The demand for cheaper credits in foreign currency is growing; the volume of credits granted in foreign currency in July amounted to 113.3 million in USD equivalent (MDL 1111.4 million), which is by USD 19.4 million more than in June. On the contrary, the volume of credits granted in MDL decreased by 97.1 million lei to 1355.5 million lei in July. The urgent need in foreign currency resources makes the Moldovan banks much more flexible in establishing the crediting conditions and even in considering the introduction or extension of foreign investors participation in their share capital. The share of foreign investments in Moldovan bank system increased from 64 per cent to 72 per cent in the last twelve months. Due to the sharp increase of reserves requirements the influence of foreign capital banks will be growing with higher rates.

The banks that do not benefit of sufficient support from the foreign banks will be subject to increased competition from non-bank credit and leasing institutions. The number of the latter is ascending and the recent statistics show a rise in their capital due to foreign investments flow. As the non-banking financial institutions are not subject to the compulsory reserves increase requirements, the loans granted by their foreign partners continue to be the main source of companies financing.

According to the National Bank of Moldova, the correctitude of the applied monetary policy is confirmed by the significant change of the annual inflation trend. Indeed, according to the National Bureau of

Statistics the inflation level decreased from the maximal value of 16.9 % recorded in May 2008 to 13.4 % in July. The prices for the food products decreased by 3.3 per cent (at the end of the summer the prices for vegetables and fruits are decreasing on the markets), at the same time the prices for non-food products and services increased by 0.3 and 0.7 per cent correspondingly. It shows again that the inflation impulses caused by the rise in energy prices as well as by the fall of the US dollar position have an evident global character. The consolidation of monetary methods of inflation combating within the current economic frameworks can not have a decisive impact. Of course, they can also be used within reasonable limits, but the focus must be set on the increase of (both industrial and agricultural) product supply. The monetary policy goals must consist of support of the necessary money supply and liquidity level in the bank system, ensuring the necessary economy growth rather than in the fight against inflation by all means.

The monetarism reflecting the economic conditions of developed countries the economic growth rates of which are quite low- not more than 3-5 per cent, was created in order to solve the problem of increase of their market efficiency that started being affected negatively by the active involvement of the state. However, the economy of developing countries, which in fact are countries retarded in their economic development, requires the inflow of monetary mass necessary for the reviving of the economy, even if it implies a moderate inflation. For these countries, the dogmatic observance of monetarism principles is nothing else but the mechanism of conservation of their current retardation. At the same time, the other extreme - excessive investments in non-efficient projects - should be avoided, as it will certainly lead to inflation. The most reasonable strategy consists in the flexible use of both liberal economy values and a Keynesian approach.

**SECTION III.*****Social policies and labour market***

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**ESTABLISHING THE ACCEPTABLE RISK  
LEVEL CONSIDERING THE FORMAL  
ANALYSIS OF THE FUNCTION RELATED TO  
THE STRUCTURE OF COSTS INVOLVED BY  
OCCUPATIONAL ACCIDENTS AND DISEASES**

*The literature says that the occupational safety is that state of the working system where there is no possibility that occupational accidents and diseases should occur.*

*Considering the specific features of the component elements there are no such full safe working systems for men because there is always a hazard of occupational accidents and diseases.*

*Generally speaking, all the component parts of the system, together with the relations built among them have been conceived, designed and produced so that there is no possible occurrence of occupational accidents and /or diseases; never the less, the carrying out of the working process shall wear out these component parts. In addition, no matter how well the performer may be selected, his behavior cannot be taken into consideration because it depends on the variables of his momentary state of mind.*

**1. Generalis**

Each real system displays a wider or narrower deviation from the ideal state of occupational safety. This deviation shall after in the long run in relation to the status and evolution of the component elements of the system.

Consequently, the optimum shaping of the occupational safety in a working system involves the following targets:

- ☒ A permanent awareness of the deviation magnitude;
- ☒ Establishing the maximum accepted deviation from the ideal state;
- ☒ Correcting the magnitude of the deviation and bringing it to the maximum accepted limit by preventive and protective measures.

Establishing the magnitude of the deviation means an evaluation of the occupational health and safety risk i.e. establishing the real amplitude of this status.

If we take into consideration the overall costs of the occupational safety (made up of the following elements: costs involved by the risk study reports and by the safety gears – a priori costs – and costs related to the results of occupational accidents and diseases – a posteriori costs), we can establish an „economically” reasonable value, by considering the previously evaluated levels of the residual occupational lack of safety and the investment costs and the costs related to the efforts made to rehabilitate the working system that has been damaged.

## ***2. Establishing the background for the occupational risk***

Starting from the idea that there are no absolutely safe working systems, it has to be established the extend to which the occupational safety of the system is acceptable, considering the possible occurrence of occupational accident and diseases.

In order to be able to adopt a decision in this spirit it is necessary to get a means to express occupational safety which should meet two conditions:

- ☐ The highest possible level of impartiality;
- ☐ It should allow comparison among different status of the some system, as well among different working systems.

These two conditions can be observed when there is identified an iterative correlation, irrespective of the specific parameters of real situations, between a quantitative or qualitative dimension and the extent to which there is no probability of occupational diseases or accidents.

As, basically, the absolute quantitative indicators provide a more impartial expression compared to the relative quantitative ones and to the qualitative indicators, the ideal situations is to establish a quantitative dimension („level of occupational risk”) that can be expressed by the same value for all the systems that provide the same safety level. During practice, there has to be considered a minimum occupational risk, i.e., a level of this risk distinct from zero, but sufficiently low to consider the working system as safe, and a maximum limit of occupational risk that should be equal to such a low level of occupational safety so that the operation of the system is no longer allowed.

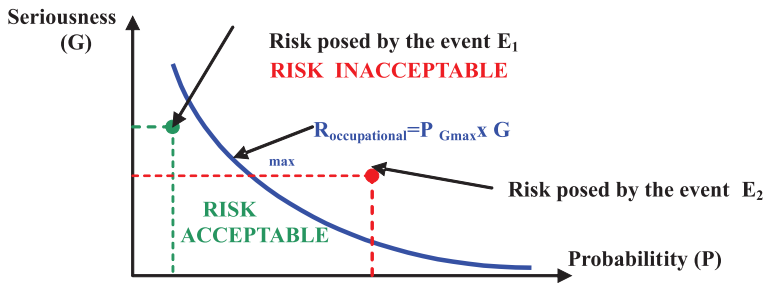
Consequently, in order to establish these limits it is necessary to find a means to quant size the occupational risk and the levels of occupational risks. This operation gives two problems:

- ☐ the manner used to establish the coordinates of the occupational risk (the pair between serious ness probability);
- ☐ what coordinates for the occupational risk are to be selected in order to part the acceptable areas from the unacceptable ones.

According to the literature on occupational health and safety [2, 4, 5], risk is the combination between the probability of occurrence and seriousness of a possible injury or health damage during a hazardous situation and shows the frequency and seriousness of possible consequences which may come up during a working process.

In order to describe risk in relation to seriousness and probability, IEC 812 defines a “curve of acceptability” (Fig.1) which is a decreasing exponential that allows a division between the acceptable risk and the unacceptable risk. In compliance with this idea, the risk of occurrence for an event  $E_1$ , with serious consequences but low frequency, situated under the curve of acceptability is considered as acceptable, while the risk posed by the event  $E_2$ , with less serious consequences, but with a higher probability of occurrence, located above the curve, is considered as unacceptable.

Consequently, we have:



**Fig.1-Risk acceptability curve**

where:

$R_{occupational}$  = occupational risk related to hazards for occupational accidents and diseases;

$P_{Gmax}$  = probability of occurrence for risk of occupational accidents and diseases;

$G_{max}$  = seriousness of the maximum envisaged consequence due to the occurrence of the occupational risk.

The values on the ordinate of the curve are symbolically, but they can be individualized as values expressed in financial losses (money) or human and material damages expressed from a quantitative point of view etc.

The study of the risk acceptability curve gives the relative nature of „acceptability”; consequently, it can be noticed that the unwanted events with a „high seriousness but with a very low probability of occurrence” are accepted the same as the unwanted events with „low

seriousness but high probability of occurrence”, because the values of the former situate under the curve.

- ☞ A risk study can answer to several questions:
- ☞ What might go wrong ?
- ☞ What can happen?
- ☞ How often does it happen?
- ☞ What might the results?
- ☞ What could be done so as to avoid?

As an evaluation assigns real values to hazards on occupational diseases and accidents, it is possible to establish a risk level for the working process which relates to a certain activity; this risk level can be subsequently compared to the acceptable occupational risk but for grounding a decision, it is necessary to define „acceptable”.

Whether the acceptable occupational risk represents a level of risk admitted by a social agreement based on the experience gathered, on occupational safety for a certain type of activity, this notion shall have to comply with the results and benefits.

The mechanism regarding the material and human efforts necessary for providing occupational health and safety depends on the ratio between acceptable and unacceptable and the accuracy for establishing this ratio gives the success of the implemented measures.

As a result, the experts in occupational health and safety work to improve and multiply the methods used to evaluate the occupational risk and to classify the criteria that establish the acceptable occupational risk.

Until now, there have appeared to trends regarding the efforts to establish the acceptability of the occupational risk:

Taking into consideration the cost of human life;

By comparisons to other occupational risks that have already been accepted or which cannot be avoided.

Things get more complicated if the factors that influence the level of acceptance (costs, level of influence, safety level, usefulness etc.) are taken into consideration because these factors have a strong subjective character.

Practice hasn't imposed unanimously recognized models regarding the establishment of the acceptable occupational risk. This operation remains the responsibility of the factor that take the management decision.

Estimation, evaluation and control of the occupational risk represent prerequisites for grounding and for a continues support of



the decision that has been previously taken on occupational safety in a working system; envisaging unwanted events is being determined by the occupational risk and is expressed by the ratio between the possible occurrence of occupational diseases and accidents (which displays a random character) and the total amount of available resources with the view to providing a suitable occupational safety.

### ***3. Graphical presentation of the risk for occupational accidents and diseases***

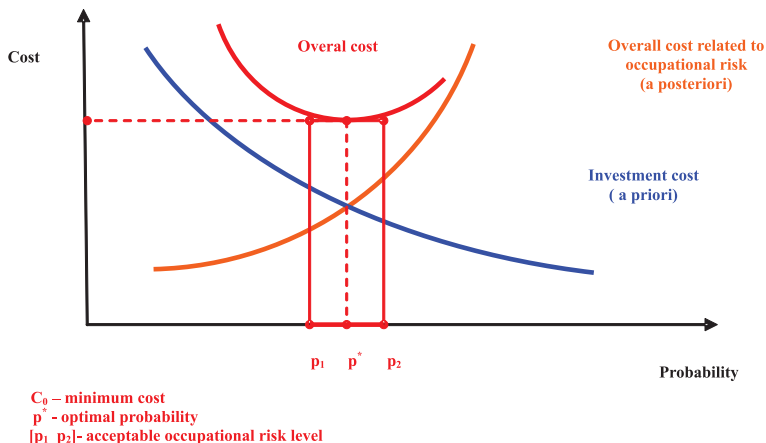
For the case of a working system [1, 3], the acceptable risk is an indicator used to evaluate the level of occupational safety; it represents the results of a decision implemented objectively, by comparing to the known and agreed risks of occupational accidents and diseases. Several domains use the notion of admissible risk or limit risk.

Establishing the acceptable risk means a compromise between the issues agreed by the responsible body from an economic point of view when this one takes a priori in consideration the occurrence of occupational accidents and diseases risk (together with the occupational safety measures that should be implemented) and the expenses that shall have to be recovered a posteriori whether the occupational risk has been ignored, considering the following elements [6].

- ☒ The cost related to the removal of human and material damages;
- ☒ The cost involved by the unavailability of the system;
- ☒ The impact in the mass - media.
- ☒ By taking into consideration the fact that overall costs involved by the occupational safety cover the following elements:
- ☒ The costs of the risk studies and of the safety devices (a priori cost);

The costs related to the consequences of occupational diseases and accidents (a priori cost), it is possible to determine an „economically”, reasonable values, with the consideration of the residual occupational levels of unsafeness that have previously evaluated and of the investment costs and the costs related to the efforts made to rehabilitate the working system after the accident.

Fig. 2, shows the principle for the presentation of the jeans used to establish the economic optimum, by comparing the probability for the occurrence of unwanted events (such as the case of occupational accidents and diseases) to the accepted level of occupational unsafeness.



**Fig.2. –Principle presentation of the acceptable**

***4. Establishing the acceptable level of occupational risk, starting from the criterion of the cost price***

It shall be formally analyzed the function related to the cost price which is being established in relation to the probable occurrence of occupational accidents and diseases; this represents the manner used to establish this function for the condition of minimum[6].

The overall cost price  $C$  (shown in Fig.3) is made of the a priori cost related to investment cost  $C_1$  and the a posteriori cost related to the (occupational and technologic) risk, so that:

$$C=C_1+C_2 \tag{2}$$

$$C_1=C_{1const} + C(p) = C_{1const} + C_1/p \tag{3}$$

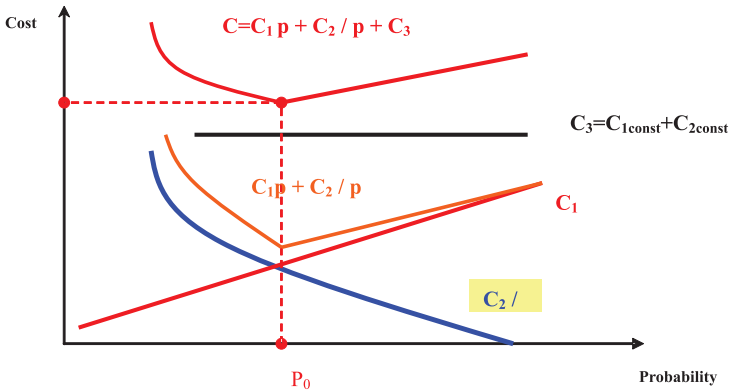
$$C_2=C_{2const} + C_2 p \tag{4}$$

$$C=C_{1const} + C_{2const} + C_1/p + C_2 p \tag{5}$$

$$C=C_3 + C_1/p + C_2 p \tag{6}$$

where  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  are constant values.

Establishing the acceptable occupational risk level in relation to the economic optimum, means to provide a balance between the increment of the risk related expenses concomitant to the diminution of the investment costs, so that the cost price should not increase a lot above the minimum price.



**Fig. 3 –Graphic presentation of the structure of the overall cost price C**

Establishing the acceptable occupational risk level in relation to the economic optimum and the optimal probability regarding the occurrence of an unwanted event (such as occupational accidents and diseases) is performed by deriving the cost function C from the evaluation variable p:

$$dC/dp=0 \Rightarrow C_2-C_1/p_2=0 \tag{7}$$

$$p_0=(C_2/C_1)^{1/2} \tag{8}$$

We introduce (8) in equation (5), by taking into consideration only the costs that depend on probability. Consequently, we get:

$$C_0=C_2p_0+C_1/p_0 \tag{9}$$

$$C_0=2(C_1 C_2)^{1/2} \tag{10}$$

Whether  $\Delta$  deviation of the cost price against the minimum price is considered then it is possible to establish the range inside which the variation of probabilities (with the related risk levels) don't influence with more than  $\Delta$  the minimum calculated cost price. ( $C_0$ )

An analytical equation of the aspects said above shall take the following form:

$$C_0(1+\Delta )=C_1/p +C_2 p \tag{11}$$

By replacing the value of  $C_0$  from (10) in (11) we shall get:

$$2(1+\Delta )(C_1 C_2)^{1/2}=C_1/p +C_2p \tag{12}$$

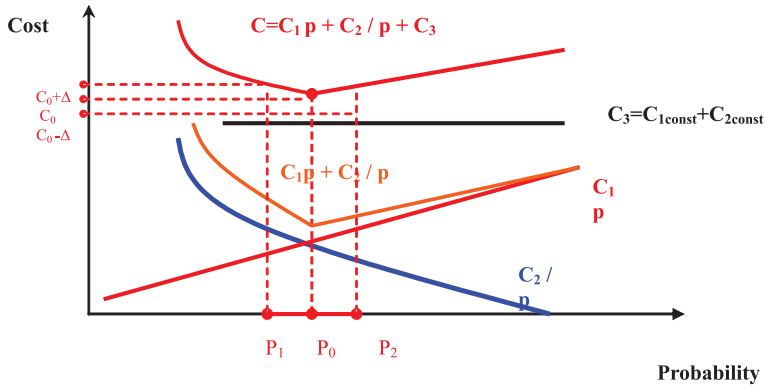
If we arrange the terms of the equation in accordance with  $p$  we shall get:

$$p^2 - 2p(1 + \Delta)(C_1 C_2)^{1/2} + C_1/C_2 = 0 \quad (13)$$

The equation has the following results:

$$p_1 = (1 + \Delta) p_0 - [(2 + \Delta) \Delta]^{1/2} p_0 \quad (14)$$

$$p_2 = (1 + \Delta) p_0 + [(2 + \Delta) \Delta]^{1/2} p_0 \quad (15)$$



**Fig. 5 –Graphical presentation of the acceptable occupational risk level**

Subsequently, it is possible to determine the values of  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ , based on the results gained above, as well the range between these roots which corresponds to the acceptable risk level, when the variations of the probabilities regarding the occurrence of unwanted events don't influence the minimum cost price with more  $\Delta$ .

For example, if a deviation of 5 % from the minimum cost price is admitted ( $\Delta = 0,05$ ) the values of  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  shall be the following ones:

$$p_1 = (1 + 0,05)p_0 - (0,1025)^{1/2} p_0 = 0,7p_0 \quad (16)$$

$$p_2 = (1 + 0,05)p_0 + (0,1025)^{1/2} p_0 = 1,4p_0 \quad (17)$$

It has to be underlined the fact that a variation of 5 % of the cost price against the minimum value gives a rather large range for the optimum domain of the occupational risk level. This allows a comprehensive consideration of the main and secondary occupational accidents and diseases risk factors so as to carrying on the activity in optimum economic conditions, with an acceptable level of occupational safety.

Establishing the acceptable risk level is a compromise between the aspects to which the responsible entity (organization, body, legal entities) agrees to take risk from an economic point of view, whether this entity has considered, a priori, the possible occurrence of risks (together with the safety measures that should be applied) and the expenses that should be recovered a posteriori whether risk has been ignored, by taking into consideration the following elements:

- ☐ costs involved with the removing of material and human damages;
- ☐ costs generated by the unavailability of the system;
- ☐ impact in the media.

### **5. Conclusions**

- ☐ Evaluating the occupational safety means to determine (measure) the extent to which the working systems deviate from the ideal state when there is no possibility for the occurrence of occupational accidents and diseases;
- ☐ Evaluation of occupational accidents and diseases represents an indirect means to assess the occupational safety by assigning values to the indicator called “risk level for occupational accidents and diseases”;
- ☐ The general management of any activity requires an analysis and evaluation of the occupational risk since working process always involves the occupational safety policy;
- ☐ Establishing the acceptable occupational risk level against an economic optimum value requires a balance between the augmentation of expenses related to occupational accidents and diseases risks at the same time with the diminution of expenses for investments so that the cost prices should reach a reasonable amount;

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## **LA POLITIQUE DE L'EMPLOI DE LA ROUMANIE DANS LE CONTEXTE DE L'ADHÉSION À L'UNION EUROPÉENNE**

*Lors du sommet qui s'est tenu à Lisbonne en mars 2000, les dirigeants européens ont présenté une nouvelle stratégie, connue sous le nom de «stratégie de Lisbonne», fondée sur un consensus entre les États membres, pour moderniser l'Europe. La stratégie de Lisbonne a été simplifiée et relancée en 2005. L'Union s'est aujourd'hui fixé un nouvel objectif stratégique pour la décennie à venir : devenir l'économie de la connaissance la plus compétitive et la plus dynamique du monde, capable d'une croissance économique durable accompagnée d'une amélioration quantitative et qualitative de l'emploi et d'une plus grande cohésion sociale.*

Les Etats membres de l'Union Européenne doivent adopter la Stratégie Européenne d'Occupation (conçue dès 1997 – le Procès de Luxembourg), laquelle constitue le principal outil pour assurer la direction et la coordination des politiques d'occupation dans les Etats membres. Lors des réunions du Conseil de l'Europe de Lisbonne (mars 2000), l'Union Européenne s'est fixé de nouvelles cibles stratégiques pour les 10 ans à venir, la Stratégie Européenne d'Occupation ayant été intégrée dans la Stratégie de Lisbonne.

En mars 2005, le Conseil de l'Europe a relancé la Stratégie de Lisbonne moyennant une réorientation vers le *développement et l'occupation* en Europe. Chaque Etat membre élabore des programmes nationaux de réformes conformément aux grandes lignes directrices intégrées pour la croissance économique et l'occupation. La stratégie utilise des indicateurs en vue de l'évaluation des performances des Etats membres dans le domaine des politiques d'occupation. Ces indicateurs assurent, en même temps, la base d'analyse des programmes nationaux de réformes.

Le Fonds Social Européen représente le principal outil pour l'aboutissement de la Stratégie Européenne d'Occupation et pour le renforcement des capacités institutionnelles et administratives.

A présent, la politique d'occupation de l'Union Européenne est soutenue par les Lignes directrices intégrées pour la croissance

économique et l'occupation 2005 – 2008, qui établissent les directions concrètes concernant l'amélioration de la participation et du maintien sur le marché du travail, la promotion de l'adaptabilité des ouvriers et des entreprises, l'augmentation des investissements dans le capital humain par l'éducation et la formation professionnelle.

**Les lignes directrices pour l'occupation**, telles que recommandée par la Commission Européenne :

**1. L'implémentation des politiques d'occupation ayant pour but l'occupation totale, l'amélioration de la qualité et de la productivité du travail, le renforcement de la cohésion sociale et territoriale.** Les politiques se doivent d'œuvrer à l'obtention d'un taux moyen général, sur l'ensemble de l'Union Européenne, de 70%, d'au moins 60% pour les femmes et de 50% pour les travailleurs âgés (55 – 64 ans), ainsi qu'à la diminution du chômage et de l'inactivité. Les Etats membres doivent établir des cibles nationales pour le taux d'occupation pour 2008 – 2009.

**2. La promotion d'une approche du travail tout au long de la vie moyennant :** des politiques d'occupation pour les jeunes et de diminution du taux du chômage parmi les jeunes ; des actions fermes en vue de l'élimination des différences de genre, en ce qui concerne l'occupation, le chômage et les salaires ; des systèmes modernes de retraites et de santé, la prolongation de la vie active et le découragement des départs à la retraite précoces.

**3. Assurer l'insertion sur le marché du travail des demandeurs d'emploi et des groupes démunis moyennant :** des mesures actives et préventives sur le marché du travail, telles que : l'identification précoce des besoins, le conseil pour la recherche d'emploi, l'orientation et la formation professionnelle, les services sociaux nécessaires à l'encouragement de l'insertion sur le marché du travail des groupes démunis, ainsi qu'à la cohésion sociale et territoriale et à l'élimination de la pauvreté.

**4. L'amélioration de la corrélation avec les besoins du marché du travail moyennant :** la modernisation et le renforcement des institutions du marché du travail, tout spécialement dans le domaine des services d'occupation ; une plus grande transparence de l'occupation et des opportunités de formation au niveau national et européen, afin de faciliter la mobilité partout en Europe ; une meilleure anticipation des besoins de formation, un management adéquat de la migration économique.



**5. La promotion de la flexibilité combinée avec la sécurité de l'occupation et la réduction de la segmentation du marché du travail** par l'adaptation de la législation de l'occupation, la reconsidération du niveau de flexibilité offert par les contrats permanents et non permanents ; une meilleure santé et sécurité au lieu de travail, la diversité contractuelle et les accords sur le temps de travail, afin d'améliorer la qualité et la productivité du travail ; des actions fermes pour transformer le travail non déclaré en occupation légale.

**6. Prévoir des stimulants pour l'occupation et autres coûts du travail moyennant** : la stimulation d'un cadre propice au système de négociation des salaires, tout en respectant le rôle des partenaires sociaux, et qui se doit de refléter les différences de productivité et les évolutions du marché du travail au niveau sectoriel et régional.

**7. L'élargissement et l'amélioration des investissements dans le capital humain**, par : l'élaboration de stratégies efficaces pour l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie, conformément aux engagements européens, l'augmentation de l'accès à l'enseignement professionnel initial, secondaire et supérieur, y compris par l'apprentissage et les stages en entreprise.

**8. L'adaptation des systèmes d'éducation et de formation aux nouvelles exigences de compétences**, moyennant : une meilleure identification des besoins occupationnels et des compétences – clés et l'anticipation des besoins de qualification ; l'élargissement des offres d'éducation et de formation professionnelle ; assurer l'attractivité, l'ouverture et les standards de haute qualité pour les systèmes d'éducation et de formation professionnelle.

Les Etats membres doivent établir *des engagements et des cibles* en concordance avec les Lignes Directrices et les Recommandations de l'UE.

La Roumanie s'est alignée à la nouvelle Stratégie Européenne d'Occupation, la politique dans le domaine de l'occupation de la force de travail étant en concordance avec les objectifs et les lignes directrices de cette stratégie. Afin d'établir les priorités de la politique occupationnelle, nous avons comme point de repère les programmes et les documents du Gouvernement roumain, la Stratégie de développement des ressources humaines, élaborée dans le cadre du Plan National de Développement 2004 – 2006, le Programme Economique de Préadhésion 2003, ainsi que les études spécialisées sur les évolutions du marché du travail, réalisées par l'Institut National de Statistique, la Commission Nationale de pronostic, l'Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique dans le domaine du Travail et de la Protection Sociale etc.

En vue de l'adhésion à l'Union Européenne, la Roumanie a réalisé en grande mesure l'harmonisation de la législation interne avec l'acquis communautaire, en ce qui concerne le marché du travail, l'égalité des chances, la formation professionnelle et dans d'autres domaines en rapport avec l'occupation de la force de travail.

Les politiques actives du marché du travail sont principalement subventionnées du budget des assurances pour le chômage, ce qui assure une source de financement constante. Du total des dépenses du budget des assurances pour le chômage, le quota des mesures actives reste toujours à un niveau élevé (25% en 2003, 19% en 2006), ce qui démontre un soutien durable de la politique de lutte contre le chômage, sachant que les mesures actives représentent un objectif stratégique prioritaire, tant à présent, qu'à l'avenir.

Le principal outil législatif d'implémentation de la politique relative au marché du travail est la Loi nr. 76/2002 relative au système des assurances pour le chômage et la stimulation de l'occupation de la force de travail, modifiée et complétée ; cette loi crée les prémisses pour assurer un niveau élevé de l'occupation et de l'adaptabilité de la main d'œuvre aux exigences du marché du travail.

L'aboutissement des objectifs du Service Public Roumain pour l'occupation et la formation professionnelle (ANOFM) se réalise par les **mesures actives** suivantes, lesquelles doivent mener à l'augmentation du taux de la population occupée, en tant qu'objectif stratégique :

- ▶ l'activité d'information et de conseil professionnel effectué par le biais des fournisseurs de services ;
- ▶ des services de médiation du travail – la bourse générale des postes de travail pour toutes les catégories de demandeurs d'emploi ; des bourses à la demande du marché ;
- ▶ des services d'assistance et de consultance pour le démarrage d'une activité indépendante ou pour la création d'entreprise ;
- ▶ accorder des allocations pour les chômeurs qui trouve un emploi avant la fin de la période de chômage ;
- ▶ motiver la mobilité de la main d'œuvre ;
- ▶ subventionner les emplois par l'embauche des ressortissants des établissements scolaire (prime d'embauche), des personnes à handicap, des personnes de plus de 45 ans, ou des parents uniques (familles monoparentales), l'occupation temporaire de la force de travail, l'embauche des chômeurs qui sont à moins de trois ans avant la retraite etc.
- ▶ accorder des crédits avantageux pour la création de nouveaux emplois ;
- ▶ des facilités pour les employeurs.

Dans le contexte des documents stratégiques nationaux, **les priorités futures de la politique d'occupation de la force de travail** sont :

*La promotion de l'adaptabilité de la main d'œuvre, de l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie et de la formation professionnelle continue.* Dans ce sens, jouent un rôle important les programmes de formation professionnelle continue, qui ont pour but la maximisation de l'utilisation des nouvelles technologies de production pour les secteurs économiques à haut potentiel de valeur ajoutée, des programmes de conseil professionnel pour le développement de la carrière, des activités de développement des compétences de management dans le domaine des ressources humaines et la promotion de la culture d'entreprise.

*La lutte contre les effets du chômage structural,* dû au processus de restructuration de l'économie par la mise en pratique d'une série de mesures actives et préventives, principalement destinées aux jeunes, aux chômeurs de longue durée et aux personnes effectuant des activités dans le milieu rural et qui ne réalisent pas de revenus mensuels ou réalisent des revenus sous le niveau de l'indemnité de chômage, l'accent étant mis sur les programmes de formation professionnelle, les programmes de développement de la culture d'entreprise, les facilités offertes pour l'accès aux emprunts destinés au démarrage des affaires individuelles, par la promotion des schémas de microcrédit.

*La promotion de la cohésion et de l'inclusion sociale pour les groupes vulnérables* (tziganes, jeunes quittant le système national de protection de l'enfant, personnes handicapées etc.) moyennant l'amélioration de l'accès aux mesures actives d'intégration sur le marché du travail, l'égalité des chances soutenant le processus de lutte contre toutes formes de discrimination sur le marché du travail des groupes dits vulnérables.

La Roumanie s'est alignée à la Stratégie Européenne pour l'Occupation, révisée, 2005 – 2010. C'est dans ce contexte qu'ont été élaborés les Plans Nationaux d'Actions pour l'Emploi (PNAO)

Le premier PNAO 2002 – 2003 a été élaboré conformément aux Lignes Directrices pour l'Occupation de la main d'œuvre pour 2001 et a concerné des actions que la Roumanie s'était proposé de mettre en pratique à court terme, en vue de l'augmentation de l'occupation des emplois et de la diminution du chômage, l'encouragement de l'apprentissage permanent, l'efficacité et la flexibilité du marché du travail, la lutte contre la discrimination et l'exclusion sociale ;

Le deuxième PNAO 2004 – 2005a été élaboré conformément à la SEO révisée, respectivement aux Lignes Directrices pour l'Occupation

approuvée pour l'an 2003 et a été structuré conformément aux trois objectifs stratégiques interdépendants : *la totale occupation des emplois, la croissance de la qualité et de la productivité du travail, le renforcement de la cohésion et de l'inclusion sociale*, ainsi qu'aux Lignes Directrices.

*Le Plan Nation dans le domaine Occupationnel*, PNAO 2006, a eu pour but l'amélioration de l'occupation professionnelle dans le milieu rural et l'insertion professionnelle des personnes d'ethnie tsigane, l'amélioration des différences zonales et régionale, une utilisation plus efficiente des fonds communautaires, et tout spécialement le Fonds Social Européen, etc.

*Le Programme Opérationnel Sectoriel du Développement des Ressources Humaines* (POS DRU) établit les domaines prioritaires et majeurs d'intervention de la Roumanie dans le domaine des ressources humaines, pour la période de programmation 2007 – 2013.

Par le Programme Opérationnel Sectoriel du Développement des Ressources Humaines (POS DRU) on prévoit d'importantes sommes allouées par le Ministère du Travail, de la Famille et de l'Egalité des Chances, en vue de l'aboutissement de son objectif général, circonscrit à la Stratégie Européenne pour l'Occupation : *le développement du capital humain et la croissance de sa compétitivité, par la connexion de l'éducation et de l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie au marché de la main d'œuvre et la facilitation de grandes opportunités pour une future participation au marché du travail moderne, flexible et inclusif*, qui mène, jusqu'en 2015, à l'intégration durable sur le marché du travail de 900.000 personnes, par une utilisation la plus efficiente possible du Fonds Social Européen.

La nécessité d'assurer des ressources humaines préparées et compétitives sur le marché du travail européen surgit de la prise de conscience du fait que les avantages de la compétitivité déterminant la croissance économique actuelle de la Roumanie ne peuvent assurer un développement durable à long terme, compte tenu des fortes pressions exercées par le processus de globalisation et l'intégration continue des nouvelles technologies. Seule une main d'œuvre flexible et hautement qualifiée pourra réagir aux changements constants enregistrés sur le marché du travail.

L'obtention d'un taux de participation le plus élevé possible sur le marché du travail, comme fondement d'une économie compétitive, suppose *la mise en pratique des politiques d'augmentation*

*de l'adaptabilité et de la flexibilité de la main d'œuvre et des investissements dans les services pour le développement de sa capacité de production.*

Le marché du travail est le marché le plus soumis aux réglementations, ainsi la réglementation du marché du travail a été un processus très actif, qui s'est déroulé surtout pour l'intégration de la Roumanie à l'Union Européenne (le Traité d'Adhésion a été signé en avril 2005 et est entré en vigueur au 01. 01. 2007) ; les réglementations portent sur : les relations de travail individuelles et collectives, la gestion du travail, les activités syndicales, des associations patronales, des organisations tripartites, bipartites et le dialogues social.

S'il s'agit des **tendances du marché du travail** actuel et en perspective, il faut mentionner :

*Les ressources de travail continu doivent être limités* et la population totale en déclin, à moyen terme. La Commission Nationale de pronostic estime que la population occupée de la Roumanie sera en légère baisse chaque année (0,1%) et la population apte pour le travail (15 – 64 ans) augmentera de 0,2% tous les ans.

*Des changements récents dans la structure occupationnelle*, respectivement : la réduction de l'occupation dans l'agriculture (réduction de la population à ne pas réaliser des revenus salariaux provenant de l'agriculture) et dans l'industrie d'extraction ; la hausse de l'occupation dans le secteur du bâtiment et des services, à tendance d'élargissement ; dans le secteur des utilités publiques, le degré d'occupation est resté au même niveau.

*La hausse du nombre des personnes de la tranche d'âge 15 – 59 ans* et la diminution aiguë de la tranche d'âge 1 – 4 ans (suite à la croissance naturelle négative) engendre le vieillissement de la population active (ces dernières années, on a déjà pu remarquer un phénomène pareil), ayant des conséquences sur l'emploi et les politiques d'occupation. Il est possible que la réserve disponible de main d'œuvre commence à diminuer, sinon dans un avenir proche, tout au moins à moyen terme.

*L'évolution de la productivité du travail* a déjà enregistré *une tendance croissante* mais insuffisamment grande (de 27,9% en 2000 à 35,3% en 2004, derrière les pays de l'Union Européenne, pour la majorité des activités). La plupart des entreprises fondent leurs stratégies sur la réduction des coûts, et non sur la hausse de la productivité.

*La réduction de la population active et le vieillissement de la main d'œuvre peuvent avoir comme conséquences des problèmes*

*structuraux sur le marché du travail.* Les tendances démographiques et du marché du travail peuvent réclamer une politique d'encouragement de la population âgée à rester active, cela ne fonctionnera pas si les travailleurs n'ont pas les aptitudes nécessaires conformément aux exigences des entreprises.

**Les pistes d'actions** contenues dans les plans nationaux d'occupation professionnelle, calées sur les Lignes Directrices de la Stratégie Européenne d'occupation portent sur l'accomplissement des objectifs suivants :

- ▶ la diminution du chômage de longue durée ;
- ▶ la diminution du chômage parmi les jeunes ;
- ▶ la diminution du chômage parmi les groupes vulnérables sur le marché du travail (ressortissants des établissements scolaire (prime d'embauche), personnes à handicap, personnes de plus de 45 ans, ou parents uniques (familles monoparentales) ou bien des personnes d'ethnie tsigane) ;
- ▶ le développement de la culture d'entreprise ;
- ▶ assurer de la formation professionnelle pour le plus grand nombre de personnes possible ;
- ▶ des chances égales pour les femmes et les hommes ;
- ▶ l'augmentation des allocations financières pour les mesures actives sur le total des dépenses effectuées ;
- ▶ l'amélioration de la qualité des services offerts par les agences pour l'emploi.

**Conclusions** : Un des principaux objectifs de la politique économique de tout pays est d'**assurer l'emploi total**. Le problème de l'occupation professionnelle représente une préoccupation importante de l'analyse macroéconomique. Or, conformément à l'analyse macroéconomique, par l'emploi total on comprend une situation où le taux du chômage atteint un certain niveau accepté (le taux du chômage considéré normal est d'environ 4%). Voilà pourquoi on estime que le terme d'emploi élevé serait plus approprié, plutôt que le terme « total ». Pour l'aboutissement de ces desiderata, il s'avère essentiel d'améliorer les capacités administratives des institutions publiques centrales, régionales et locales et celles des partenaires sociaux.

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## **SOCIAL POLICIES AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE TENANT'S RENTAL CONTRACTS**

*The present paper analyzes the consensual character of the renting contract in the stage in which the intervention of the state in the relationships between individuals is more often present. It is hereby shown to what extent are the contractual dirigisme and the adhesion contracts present and there is given a short presentation of the correlative stipulations from the French, American and Italian law. In conclusion, it is stated that in the Romanian judicial system, the renting contract is a consensual contract, freely negotiated between the contracting parties. Exceptionally it is an adhesion contract the renting contract that has as an object the apartments belonging to the state rental market, regardless of their type: social, necessity, etc. In order to diminish the negative impact of these contracts on the tenants, the legislator has imposed by the dispositions in force, some contract templates.*

The renting contract is a consensual contract; therefore, it is sealed *solo consensus*, by the mere agreement of will of the parties on the rented object and of the price.

The consent of the parties must be perceived as an element of judicial will<sup>1</sup> and as a result, it is governed by the principle of freedom of the civil judicial papers and of the autonomy of will. Obviously, this freedom is not an absolute one and it should not be mistaken for the arbitrary, but is limited by the requirement to observe the imperative legal norms, the public order and the ethics (Art. 5 Civil code).

The principle of the will autonomy, consecrated legally for the first time by the French Civil Code in 1804, underwent a series of limitations, which determined some authors to speak even of a contract crisis<sup>2</sup>. The limitations that are acutely felt also in the case of renting contract consist mainly in:

a) the development of adhesion contracts and the contractual dirigisme.

a) According to the manner in which the will of parties is expressed when sealing contracts, these are classified into three categories: negotiated contracts, adhesion contracts and compulsory or imposed contracts.



The adhesion contracts<sup>3</sup> are those contracts whose stipulations are entirely or almost entirely established by one of the parties, for the other party being only the option of adhering or not to such a pre-drafted contract. These contracts are signed, as a rule, in the fields in which there is a monopoly of certain labor conscriptions such as providing electricity, but they are also applicable in the case of state apartment rental market and that they are not compulsory contracts<sup>4</sup>, respectively compulsory to be signed and with dispositions determined exclusively by the law (for example the compulsory car insurance for civil responsibility and partially the collective labor contracts). It is true that the law stipulates certain compulsory mentions for the rental contract, and there is even a draft-contract but nobody can neither be obligated to sign the contract nor be sanctioned for not accepting it, as it is the case with the compulsory or imposed contracts. The party has at least the option of contracting or not. In the case of compulsory car insurance for civil responsibility, for example, not signing the contract is considered offence and sanctioned accordingly. The inclusion in the law of a rental draft-contract has as a purpose the protection of the tenant, as a weaker party of a contract, from the possible abuse of the lessor who could otherwise impose unfair dispositions, taking advantage of the need for accommodation of the other party.

It is also discussable if the right to contract renewal, stipulated by the Government Emergency Order no. 40/1999, does not transform this contract in an imposed or compulsory one. In regulating the right to renewal, it was stipulated that, at the end of the rental period, the tenant has the right to contract renewal for the same period, if the parties do not modify by express agreement the duration of rental. The property owner can refuse the renewal only under several circumstance, expressly and limitative stipulated by the law, and if he refuses unjustifiably, the tenant can address to the court of law, which can substitute the property owner's consent by a court decision. Obviously, this "judiciary sanction" could lead us to the idea that we are dealing with a compulsory contract. We believe, nevertheless, that we are not dealing with such a contract, because of the following reasons:

Firstly, the tenant does not have a renewal obligation, but only the right to it, and not signing the new contract due to the tenant's will is not sanctioned.

Secondly, the contract will take over all the dispositions of the previous contract, even the duration, and these were the result of a negotiation between the parties.

Thirdly, the landlord is allowed, under certain circumstances to refuse the renewal, and the fact that it was stipulated the possibility of refusal for the purpose of selling, gives the landlord the right, at least theoretically, to refuse the renewal any time, without being sanctioned.

This type of contracts is in opposition to the type of negotiated contracts (in French, *gré à gré*) which are closed in a traditional manner, by discussing all the dispositions. There are also included in this category the other rental contracts, respectively those having as object accommodation surfaces owned by private or legal persons and those contracts having as an object surfaces with other destination than accommodation.

The contractual dirigisme<sup>5</sup> consists in the state intervention in the private field of the contract law and is obvious in the branch of rental contracts<sup>6</sup>.

Such imperative interventions of the state power in the relations between individuals, referring to rental have consisted in:

- the obligation of renting the apartment not used by the landlord, situated in the urban environment (Law no.5/1973);
- the legal prorogation of certain rental contracts (Law no. 17/1996 and the following laws);
- limiting the rent value for certain tenancy surfaces;
- the right to contract renewal, etc.

The principle of contractual freedom was rethought also in the legislations of other states and even with implications in the accommodations space legislation.

Thus, in the **British law**, this principle called “freedom of contract” has, as in our law system, two meanings.

In a first sense, the expression is used to determine the attitude of law not to restrict the terms under which each can close a contract, supervising especially that the terms of contract should not be too severe for one or the other of the parties.

The second sense of the principle submits the idea that no person can be forced by law to close a certain contract, anyone is free to refuse the contract for any reason seems to be well-grounded in this system known as conservative, many of the principles of contracts have been changed in the past century, previously they functioned in the light of the “*laissez faire*” philosophy, according to which it would be wrong for the state to intervene in the private agreements.

The present trend stresses more the abuses the principle of contractual freedom can give birth to, so that both sides of this were considerably restricted, both by legislation and by judiciary decisions. The legal restrictions occur as exceptions grounded on the public interest and they were also taken in the relationships between the landlords and tenants<sup>7</sup> and in the legislation of sales and credits.

In **the French law**, which created the notion of adhesion contract, it is admitted the intervention of the state against the excess of liberalism, but it is criticized, especially when it aims at executing a contract already closed between the parties.

In these cases, it is said<sup>8</sup>, the principle *pacta sunt servanda* is defied, the respect of the given word, the creditor loses any certitude in executing the contract, especially that what the legislator might create in the future represents a secret for him.

The legislator's intervention is justified by the public order and the social interest, the group interest, the common benefit being considered superior to the selfish interest of the individual. But the appreciation of this interest is delicate, especially that by the legislator, the political concept has precedence over the juridical concept. The legislation meetings, it is said in the French doctrine<sup>9</sup>, have the tendency to protect the interests of those who support these better (and not of the weak), in spite of all the legitimate and respectable interests, but less efficient from the election point of view. A proof in this respect, the French authors assert, is the new regulation of the real estate tenancy contract, which deliberately sacrifices the interests of the lessors in favor of the tenants<sup>10</sup>.

Therefore, they came to a decline of the principle of will autonomy, to which the French Council refused constitutional value (decision from 3 August 1994). Subsequently, the courts of law have the tendency to assume a right of control over the content of the contracts that were not freely negotiated, searching for a balance that should be fair for both parties. By means of legislation, it is also tried to protect the weaker party, especially by standardizing the contracts. Thus, the party imposing on the other a draft-contract, to which the first can adhere or not, is brought in the situation in which has itself imposed on it contract templates, frequently attached to the respective laws<sup>11</sup>.

It is thus clear that there occurs a change of the contract laws, under a flexible control of the judge, more than under a rigid regulation of the law, without affecting the important principle of the freedom of contract in its essence<sup>12</sup>.

In the **Italian law**, the intervention of the state in the private relations is extremely strong felt in the tenancy field, as a result of adopting Law no. 431 from 9 December 1998.

This law regulates four types of contracts, namely the free contract, the joint contract, the transitory contract and the student contract. Although for these types of contracts there are stipulated, by imperative norms, some elements and obligations of the parties, such as the minimum and maximum duration, criteria for establishing the maximum rent value, etc., the real innovation is represented by the introduction of a new contract type, that of the joint contract (*il canale concertato*)<sup>13</sup>. For this type of contract the law stipulates, as opposed to the free contract, the possibility of closing certain tenancy contracts in which the duration, rent value and other conditions are not established by the parties individually, but by the union organizations, representative of a majority, of the tenants and landlords, under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Works and of the mayoralty.

This type of contract is the only one for which the law and local public authorities grant fiscal facilities to the property owners.

The general criteria on which the contract dispositions are based are negotiated in this case within the National Convention, summoned by the Minister of Public Works, to which the unions of property owners and tenants take part, as well as the representatives of the local public administration. The criteria refer to rent, duration and other objective parameters not specified in the law and are redefined every three years in order to be adequate to the objective reality.

The content of the National Convention must be finalized in 90 days from the summoning of the social parties and will be integrated into a decree of the Public Works Minister, endorsed also by the Minister of Finances.

If an agreement cannot be reached, the criteria will be established directly by the Minister of Public Works, taking into consideration the predisposed orientation that results from the discussions of the social parties.

After the General Convention, the social parties close provincial agreements which establish, besides rent value, duration, etc., also the possible fiscal facilitations (besides those granted by the law) from the building tax, that only the mayoralties can grant to the landlords who use the joint channel.

The rules comprised in the territorial agreements are then expressed in a template contract, which allows their actual inclusion in the tenancy

contracts. There can be several template contracts to meet the different requirements of the parties.

This innovation of the Italian law no. 431/1998, called the Zagatti law, after the name of its initiator, is considered to be a progress, because:

- it introduces for the first time in Italy in the accommodation branch the principles of collective contracting between the parties and of the collaboration with the interested institutions;

- it uses the fiscal key factors as instruments of market control and guidance;

- comprises severe standards against tax dodging, which is very much present in this sector;

- institutes a National Fund for guaranteeing the access to accommodation also for less wealthy tenants;

- it comprises several dispositions of tenants protection, among which the possibility to deduct the rent expenses from the tenant's taxable income, a disposition which stimulates the tenant to refuse any illicit contract, defending in this manner a healthy conflict of interests between the parties, capable of eliminating the tax dodging.

This manner of regulating the rental is benefic, we believe, because it does not link the establishing of important contract elements to rigid legislative norms, which are hard to modify, but to mobile principles that can be changed every three years.

Thus, the contract relationships are observed not because they are established by legal norms, but because the joint representatives of the property owners and tenants adopted them. Furthermore, there is a shift from the exclusive individual relation to a modern one between the real estate property and the use of these goods.

We consider that, as long as in our country the real estate property belongs entirely to the private property (and especially the small property owners), it is necessary to constitute in the property sector a culture of all the parties involved, by imposing the tenants' protection, because the accommodation cannot be treated as any other consumer goods, as they represent a vital need of the person, as well as the right to work. The regulation of the joint contract forces the property owners to find new ways of organizing and a better management of their own investments and provides the tenants a series of guarantees by standardizing the property owners' requirements, by the existence of clearer rules and a stronger contractual strength.

Other news of the Italian legislation are the introduction of extra-judiciary conciliation within the National Convention to solve the litigations that can occur on the duration of the contract that brings to a more rapid and cheaper settlement than the one attained by appealing to the civil justice<sup>14</sup>, as well as the quality certificate of the residence issued by the competent mayoralty, which ensures advantages for both parties. In this way, the tenant is ensured that the residence is suitable to the security standards, of energy consumption and other living conditions and the property owner has the possibility of charging a rent according to the real value of the property.

These measures of social protection of the tenants, out of which some are to be found also in our country, (except the suspension of the permanent court decisions of evacuation) prompt out issues that drew also the attention of the European Court of Human Rights.

Therefore, in the case *Lunari versus Italy*<sup>15</sup>, the Court found that there were violated Art.1 of the Protocol no. 1 additional to the European Convention of Human Rights and Art. 6, Paragraph 1 of the same Convention, respectively the complainant was deprived of the property protection and of a fair trial due to the state authorities refuse to cooperate in executing a permanent court decision of evacuation.

The actual situation was as follows:

The complainant, Fulvio Lunari, Italian citizen, owns an apartment that he gave for rent until 1987. In this year, that marks the end of the rental contract term, the complainant obtains an enforceable court decision for evacuating the tenant. The decision establishes as a term for evacuating the apartment the month October of year 1988. The claimant obtains a permanent court decision, in the sense that the tenant cannot benefit from the legal dispositions concerning the suspension of evacuation because he did not pay the rent and the common expenses share.

Between October 1989 – April 1993, the complainant, based on the judiciary executor attempts the evacuation of the tenant more than 20 times, but with no success, as a result of the public force refusal to offer assistance.

Moreover, by means of another court decision, the complainant is forced to pay the share of the common expenses corresponding to his share of property, including that of the tenant.

The apartment was evacuated only in July 1993, due to the action of the judiciary executor, assisted by the public force.

Concerning the first violation, that of the Art. 1 of the Additional Protocol no 1 of the Convention, the Court showed that this gives the right to the property protection and contains basically three rules:

- the right to the respect of the goods (Line 1 Sentence I);
- depriving the person from his property (Line. 2 Sentence II);
- the regulation of using the goods ( Line 2).

The violation claimed by the claimant was classified by the Court in a measure of regulation of using the goods that must be proportional with the legitimate purpose aimed. Art. 1 as a whole requires that, in the case of any unwarrantable interference of the states to be kept a “just balance” between the imperatives of the general interest and the fundamental rights of the individual. When controlling the observance of this balance, the Court admits to the states a greater degree of estimation. Especially if it concerns fields such as the property which occupies a central place in the social and economical policies of the modern societies, the Court respects the decision of the national legislator, except when it is totally lacking a reasonable basis.

Actually, the Court considered that, adopting emergency measures concerning the suspension of evacuations and stipulating certain exceptions in applying them, the Italian legislator<sup>16</sup> could reasonably estimate that the means selected are appropriate for reaching the legitimate purpose.

Nevertheless, in this case, the claimant obtained an enforceable court decision for evacuating the tenant in October 1988, but managed to obtain the assistance the public force for enforcing it only in June 1993 (this under the circumstances in which the tenant was late with paying the rent, so he could have been evacuated during the suspension dictated by the legislator); so the Court estimated that the restriction suffered by the claimant in using his apartment, especially because of the wrong application of exceptions from the suspension of granting assistance on behalf of the competent authorities, represents a special and excessive task, which broke the balance that should have been kept between the protection of the individual's rights to have his goods respected and the exigencies of the general interest.

A second violation found by the Court was that of Art. 6, which stipulates the right to a fair trial.

This violation was noted because, although the complainant had the right to obtain with priority assistance on behalf of the public force, the tenant being late with the rent payment, it took almost 16 month for this priority to be recognized by a judge and almost 4 years until they executed the evacuation decision.

The Court also estimated that the Government did not prove that the suspension of execution took only the necessary time to find a satisfying solution for the public order problems that the Italian authorities were dealing with. In addition, it was shown that the Government did not prove that during the 4 years was searching for a solution for the accommodation problems of the tenant (which was asserted to be a poor person and with a child).

By these delays it is considered to have been violated the claimant's right to a fair trial, and, implicitly to the reasonable duration of the judiciary procedures (that also include forced execution).

In other cases judged against Italy<sup>17, also</sup> having as object the violation of Art. 6 Paragraph 1 due to the delay of evacuating the tenants, the Court examined the duration of the evacuation procedure from a more general point of view, of the right of access to a fair trial. In these cases, the execution of the evacuation decision had been delayed excessively due to the prefect's refusal to grant the assistance of the public force; the Court noted that, because the prefect was the competent authority to establish the date of forced evacuation and, in the absence of an real judiciary control of his decisions, the property owners were deprived of their right to a fair trial in which their appeals should have been judged, as it is stipulated in Art. 6 from the Convention.

In conclusion, we consider that in the Romanian judicial system, the renting contract is a consensual contract, freely negotiated between the contracting parties. Exceptionally it is an adhesion contract the renting contract that has as an object the apartments belonging to the state rental market, regardless of their type: social, necessity, etc. In order to diminish the negative impact of these contracts on the tenants, the legislator has imposed by the dispositions in force, some contract templates.

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<sup>1</sup> Here is also included the purpose or aim of the judicial paper.

<sup>2</sup> J. Carbonnier, *Droit civil*, vol. II, Presses universitaires de France, Paris, 1962, p.313 și urm.

<sup>3</sup> C. Stănescu, C. Bîrsan, *Teoria generală a obligațiilor*, Editura All, București, 1993, p.40.

<sup>4</sup> In the French doctrine it was shown that the imposed rental contracts are those which represent the consequence of a divorce, if one of the spouses is the landlord of the building constituting the family quarters; and those which are the consequence of the right of automatic renewal of the rental of rural stock; or of the right of quasi-automatic renewal of the commercial rental, D. Mainguy, *Contrats spéciaux*, Editura Dalloz, Paris, 2000, p.216.

<sup>5</sup> L. Jossierand, *Les tendances actuelles de la théorie des contrats*, in R.T.D.C. no.1/



1937, p. 1-30. This author is the very creator of the contractual dirigisme term and showed “The contract has ceased being free for being guided: a regulation, control regime followed the reign of individual will autonomy and contractual freedom, and the concepts of protectionism tend to eliminate that of free trade.”

<sup>6</sup> Referring to the limits between which the legislator must intervene, we believe it is interesting to reproduce a fragment of the preliminary discourse given at the presentation of the French Civil Code project in front of the State Council by Portalis, one of the four editors of the project. “We are governing in a bad manner when we are governing too much. A person contracting another person has to be careful and diligent; he must supervise his own interest, to look for the convenient information and not neglect what is useful. The role of law is to protect us against fraud from other people and not to make us reject our own effort of thinking. If it was any other way, the life of people, under the supervision of the law would be only a long and shameful minority and this supervision would degenerate itself in inquisition.”, quote after H. et L. Mazeaud, J. Mazeaud, Fr. Chabas, *Leçons de droit civil, Obligations. Théorie générale*, tome II, première volume, Editions Montchrestien, Paris, 1985, p.38. He also declared, referring to the intervention of law in the contractual field that, if we start from the idea that, by means of the law, it must be blocked everything bad and the abuses, it offers the citizens only a prejudicial protection and the remedy will be worse than the harm itself.

<sup>7</sup> Idem, p.4 (“in the law of landlord and tenant”)

<sup>8</sup> H. and L. Mazeau, J. Mazeaud, Fr. Chabas, *Leçons de droit civil. Obligations. Théorie générale*, tome II, Editions Montchrestien, Paris, 1985, p. 27-28.

<sup>9</sup> Idem, p.29.

<sup>10</sup> Ibidem.

<sup>11</sup> Is the situation in which the Romanian legislation is found. See appendixes of the Law no. 114/1996.

<sup>12</sup> A. Bénabent, *Droit civil. Les obligation*, Editions Montchrestien, Paris, 2001, p.20. The author shows that the spirit of the judicial control is based on the “new principles of contractual equality, of contractual equilibrium and fraternity, the last term of the three determining the skepticism”.

<sup>13</sup> \*\*\*, *La nuova riforma degli affitti*, Maggioli Editore, 2001, p.49

<sup>14</sup> Idem, p.60. In the text it is shown that, by this conciliation it is avoided “la justizia civile, con costi e tempi inacceptabili”.

<sup>15</sup> The European Court of Human Rights decision from 14.12.2000 translated, resumed and commented by C. – L. Popescu, in R.R.D.A. nr.2/2003, p.145-147.

<sup>16</sup> In the same sense, the Romanian Constitutional Court estimated as reasonable and not breaking the just balance between the public and the private interest, the unwarrantable interference of the legislator who ordered the repeated prorogation of some rental contracts, showing even that the regulation of the rental contract has nothing to do with the property right.

<sup>17</sup> The European Court for Human Rights decision from 30.11.2000, Edoardo Palumbo versus Italy.

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## **THE LINK BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND SOCIAL PERFORMANCE**

*The paper, explores the relationship between organizational culture and social performance concepts. Thus, social performance is proposed as a concept that results from the development of high quality relationships at work, and culture as the framework that sustains such relationships. The information presented in this paper suggests that research and theory on the culture and performance link may consider more properly the view of organizational culture that can show and explain the social performance structure.*

The way people in an organization think, feel, value and act are guided by ideas, meanings and beliefs of a cultural nature. Thus, organizational culture is significant as away of understanding organizational dynamics in all its richness and variations. Culture is central to organizational functioning because of the profound importance of shared meanings, taken for granted ideas.

Although this is recognized, the studies on culture and performance are relatively limited in dealing with cultural complexity. On one hand, excessive focus has been given to the increasing of short-term performance from the instrumental cultural design and management of limited symbolic elements. On the other hand, the concept of performance has until recently been mostly conceived in terms of financial and economic outcomes and this vision still dominates. The main purpose of this paper is to examine how organizational culture affects performance and effectiveness from a broader and more nuanced cultural standpoint. Therefore, the notion of social performance is explored as viable alternative to improve our understandings of the organizational culture and performance relationship.

The link between organizational culture and performance has a relatively long tradition in the field of organizational studies. From its emergence in the 1950's, it is only in the 1990's that a relatively large number of survey studies have empirically tested the assumed culture-performance link. Some researchers that studies suggest that this link has been examined in literature through three distinctive approaches at

least. In the most instrumental of these approaches, culture is conceived as a building block to be engineered and designed by management.

From that perspective, probably the most extensive study of the relationship between culture and performance was by Kotter and Heskett (1992), who conducted a number of related studies using 207 firms over a five-year period. Using a simple measure of corporate culture (perceived degree of value consensus), they observed that so-called strong cultures that place a high degree of value on consensus do not necessarily result in excellent performance and can even be destructive unless a focus on adaptation to a changing environment is included among their norms and values. They concluded that firms with cultures that were suited to their market environment performed better than did those who had an equally “strong” culture but possessed a poorer fit with the environment.

The evolution of researches that focus on the issues of organizational culture as a predictor of organizational performance, conclude that evidence exists but is not very convincingly. Due to the operationalizations of the culture variable and especially due to their uncertain validity, these authors sustain that we are able to address very few concluding affirmations concerning the impact of an organization’s culture on performance. Other studies suggest the inexistence of a causal relationship between culture and the short-term performance of organizations. Consequently, values and norms that define corporate culture have a limited direct impact on organizational effectiveness in terms of work behavior and willingness to work.

Another approach linking organizational culture and performance emphasizes the managers’ capacity of framing and defining social reality. This means that leaders exercise more or less far-reaching influence on the way in which employees perceive and understand their tasks and their workplace. Thus, leaders play a symbolic role in the definition, structuring and ordering of situations and experience in meaningful ways. From this perspective, it is clear that being a leader denotes being capable of managing and ordering the meanings that people give to their actions. Management becomes then a symbolic action and culture is seen as mediated in actions, language use and arrangements primarily affecting beliefs and understandings.

A third approach towards organization culture and performance focuses on treating culture as a diagnostic instrument; as an aid in making wise decisions and avoiding traps. From that point of view, culture stresses the deep values and basic assumptions of organizational

life; it is a terrain of possibilities and pitfalls. In this approach, culture is conceived as a stronger force to which managers must adapt, and understanding culture is important for managers' possibilities in navigating in and with the organization.

The concept of culture seems to lend itself to very different uses such as collectively shared forms of ideas and cognition; symbols and meanings; values and ideologies; rules and norms; emotions and expressiveness; the collective unconscious; behavior patterns; and structures and practices. Organizational culture is associated with the importance of symbolism for people.

When organizations are examined from a cultural view point, attention is drawn to aspects of organizational life, such as the ways in which offices are arranged and whether personal items are or are not displayed; the stories and jokes people tell; the relations among people; and so on. Details related to these cultural manifestations may provide an in-depth understanding of the patterns of meanings that link these manifestations together, sometimes in harmony, sometimes in bitter conflicts between groups, and sometimes in webs of ambiguity, paradox, and contradiction. Culture also concerns emotion and feelings. Cultural processes are engaged with multiple channels of human awareness, including the five senses; mental ideas; emotional responses; and aesthetic, moral and intuitive capabilities. Although senses, ideas, and emotions are commonly associated with individuals, sustains that it is the interrelationship of individual experiences across organizational space and time that defines what we label culture. Sharing ideas, beliefs and values implies experiencing them bodily, sensitively and emotionally.

If cultural meaning is socially constructed and guides thinking, feeling and acting, then culture affects the way people organize their attachment to the organization, to their work and to others. Understanding, experiencing and feeling in an organizational context allows people to develop multiple forms of attachment. Throughout these multiple attachments, collaboration, coordination, learning, adaptation, commitment, trust and loyalty take place in organizational daily activities. Organizations depend on these processes to perform in an innovative and coordinated way. Performance is the consequence of the meaning that these social attachments take. Thinking about performance from a social and cultural perspective may avoid an excessive and premature normative and functionalist view of culture. The more popular conceptualization of organizational culture argues

that ‘good’, ‘strong’ or ‘valuable’ cultures are characterized by norms beneficial to the company, to customers, and to mankind. Very often we may find assumptions that “good” and “effective” cultures are characterized by norms and values supportive of excellence, teamwork, honesty, commitment, etc. In contrast with that assumption, we may argue the reverse: these are consequences of cultural patterns in an organization that cannot be forged and designed artificially. On the other hand, performance may be seen as associated with the capability of an organization for developing and sustaining high-quality connections between people at work. Culture is the context in which these connections can make sense and have value. As a vehicle for improving the quality of connections at work, we may relate cultural dynamics with the social dimensions of performance. High-quality connections at work may contribute to the social performance and effectiveness of a company through at least five ways:

- enhancing the capacity of people to cooperate within and across units;
- facilitating effective coordination between interdependent parts of an organization;
- strengthening employees’ attachments to their work organizations;
- facilitating the transmission of “purpose” – a key consideration for organizations that rely on transmission of values as a means to build loyalty and assure competitive success;
- encouraging dialogue and deliberation and therefore facilitating organizational learning;
- improving the capacity for adaptation and change within the company.

The ability to appreciate cultural complexity may improved by being able to think of culture as a fluid, ongoing and open process. It is important, then, to acknowledge that culture is not just something that can be actively mobilized to make people think, feel, value and behave in accordance with managerial or pre-established wants. Sometimes, culture works as a source of employees’ resistance to managerial goals, strategies and control.

Culture and performance may be thought of as interrelated universes. This paper proposed an understanding of organizational culture as a context that accommodates the development of the way people interact and through that interaction gives meaning to their social reality. Shared values, ideas, understandings, and expressiveness

embody and explain the nature of interpersonal connection at work. In that manner, culture plays an important role in the construction and maintenance of high-quality relationships in organizations, and thus in terms of social performance.

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**SECTION IV.*****Economic and social policies for European Integration***

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**THE ROLE OF THE SMALL AND MEDIUM  
-SIZED ENTERPRISES IN THE PROCESS OF  
INTERNATIONALIZATION*****The Role of the SMEs in the Economy***

The role played by the small and medium - sized enterprises (SME) in the economy is very important because of the help that give for the economic development and the job creation. The SMEs, in both advanced market economies and economies in transition and their considerable CONTRIBUTION to employment and economic dynamism in the most industrialized countries suggest that this experience can be used for sustainable development of developing countries. It is clear that a vibrant SME sector can bring great benefits to developing countries.

The role of the SMEs in community development often remains obscured by the informal nature of their actions. However, there is quantifiable evidence exists in a number of studies on small business and the environment, providing a sense of how important this sector is for sustainable development in emerging economies.

SMEs are more likely to have ties of dependence and familiarity to their communities, which will ensure they protect their reputation and relationships among neighbours and customers. The aim is to improve the loyalty of the customers and to have better relations with the community.

In confrontation with market saturation or intense domestic competition, those firms that have the ability to identify and exploit exchange opportunities abroad therefore seek to maximize their profits by entering international markets.

***Small and Medium - sized Enterprises – Definition***

There are two groups of criteria to define the SMEs: **quantitative** and **qualitative**.

From a **quantitative** point of view, the term SME refers to companies in all sectors as long as its size is not too big. There are some indicators used to create the definition of the SMEs: profits, invested capital, balance-sheet total, earnings, total capital, equity, market position, production and sales volume, number of employees and turnover. But the most important quantitative criterias are: the number of the employees and the turnover.

**Qualitative** criteria generally provide information on the nature – the characteristic properties – of SMEs. In order to differentiate between SMEs and large companies, relationships between ‘owner’ and ‘company’ in the framework of ‘personal principle’, and ‘unity of leadership and capital’ are recommended as the qualitative criteria. The ‘personal principle’ means that the company manager performs a central role in the business decision making, he has an overview of fundamentally all technical, administrative and organizational procedures in the company. ‘Unity of leaderships and capital’ means that the company manager and proprietor is one and the same person, the owner-manager is much more self-sufficient and independent than the contracted management of large companies.

The European Union (EU) set the following criteria for defining the SMEs:

1. less than 250 workers;
2. a maximum of 40 million euros annual turnover;
3. a maximum 27 million euros annual balance-sheet total;
4. minimum of 75% of company assets owned by company management;
5. owner 3

### ***Internationalization of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises - Dimensions***

In the present world economy, no market is forever safe from competition and no company can afford to stake its future on the assumption that it ‘owns’ its home market. Therefore, due to increasing competitive pressure and protection they formerly received from their governments, it is particularly necessary for SMEs to internationalize in developing countries.

Because of the increasing competitiveness, the SME sector has become vital for the national economy due to their impact on job creation and increasing scope for success in export markets. Also in the international environment due to the changes and to the necessity



of integration, consistent with other economies (developed, developing, and transition), a strong small and medium-sized sector is necessary for the eradication of poverty, specifically through employment generation, and for the restructuring of the institutional business framework.

Finally, and equally important, the development of new and existing export markets is seen as a powerful tool to promote employment creation. In order to cope with new situations, many enterprises have shifted their activities toward international markets. Such a shift in orientation towards more discerning and demanding export markets has forced the manufacturing sectors to strive for a substantial improvement in their competitiveness through adoption of different policies and strategies.

In the process of internationalization, an important question remains to be settled: why internationalization? What factors lead a firm from little or no involvement to, in some cases, widespread international involvement? Growth is not spontaneous, it is the result of decision; therefore, if we are to understand the processes then we have to explain *why* a company undertakes to become involved in international operations. It is not enough to be a firm with resources and opportunities in the environment; internationalization must be wanted and triggered by an entrepreneur who makes key decisions and carries out the internationalization.

Thus, given the central role of entrepreneurs in internationalization of SMEs, it is important to clarify why entrepreneur undertakes to enter the international market and to identify the driving forces that influence the entrepreneur's perceptions, decisions and actions that consequently lead the firm towards involvement in international markets.

*The process of internationalization of SMEs is an entrepreneurial and opportunity-based process.* In this process, due to the initiating forces and entrepreneurs' alertness, entrepreneurs perceive and subsequently due to their skills and experience realize and take advantage of international opportunities. This is reflected in the receptiveness attitude, entrepreneurial orientation, proactive behaviour of the entrepreneurs and the international orientation of the firm. Therefore, it would appear that entrepreneurs generally have an impact on internationalization of SMEs in two different ways: one impact reflect the mental orientation or "*way of thinking*" and the other impacts indicate the behaviour and "*actionoriented function*" of the entrepreneur resulting in realization of the international market opportunities and internationalization of the SMEs.

Some firms may internationalize early because a top management team with previous international experience may be willing and able to pursue new combinations of key resources across national borders early on in the firm's existence. For instance, they argued that a firm might change gradually the nature of its activities *within* a foreign country, that is, from only export to fully-owned overseas production investments, as well as *across* countries by expanding over time to countries that are more physically and culturally. The team's level of international knowledge and experience has a positive influence on the firm's degree of internationalization.

On the contrary, other firms prefer to learn gradually about the international arena by entering first markets that are perceived to be less risky – that is, being geographically and culturally close to the domestic market – before entering “more risky” distant markets. In short, the behavioural approach towards internationalization focuses on a firm's gradually increasing international involvement through a series of incremental steps.

The internationalization of a firm is not a one-dimensional concept (to be analyzed only through the operation dimension) but a multidimensional concept, we should decide which dimensions of internationalization are of our interest. In comparison with decisions such as type of product, number and quality of personnel, organization structure, and financial issues that are common activities in any growth strategy, “entry mode” and “market selection” are considered as the core components and distinctive features of internationalization and other types of growth strategies. Entry modes are the institutional arrangements such as exporting, licensing, foreign investment, etc. that enable firms to enter a market. Therefore, in addition to the driving forces of the internationalization, we are interested to know *how* SMEs realize their operations (entry mode) and *where* they locate their operations.

The process of foreign investment decision involves “an intricate structure of attitudes and opinion, social relationships both in and outside the firm, and the way such attitudes, opinions and social relations are changing. It contains various elements of individual and organizational behaviour, influenced by the past and the perception of the future as well as by the present. It is composed of a large number of decisions, made by different people at different points in time.” The huge number of variables influence the export behaviour of firms but simple listing of reasons for exporting, export stimuli, etc. is not likely to cause any progress in explaining or predicting the process of internationalization.

A internationalization strategy consist of a combination of exportation, alliances and foreign direct investment strategies.

According to classical international theories, supply and demand opportunities drive the

- ▶ international exchange activities of firms. Taken together, they assume that international
- ▶ exchange opportunities exist, and the internationalization of firms arises largely from industry structure and market conditions rather than individual managerial factors.

The process of the internationalization can be described as a gradual acquisition, integration and use of knowledge about foreign markets and operations that is organized around strategic choices and organizational forms, which are influenced by many other factors as well.

These factors include forces facilitating or inhibiting exporting, information needs and the acquisition of information, foreign market selection and entry (including the effects of cultural distance), expansion, and marketing strategies.

Exportation was the internationalization strategy the most utilized. This is followed by the distribution rights strategy and importation strategy.

The main factors that must be analyzed when someone decides to tackle with the international market are:

### ***1. Exports***

The first obstacle for the SMEs is the lack of knowledge of the foreign market and then the import tariffs in destination countries and the lack of capital.

### ***2. Strategies against increasing competition***

The best way to fight the increasing competition is to improve the quality of the product, to increase working hours and to cut the production.

### ***3. New products and the barriers to innovation***

Innovation is very important for the company because a new product produce much income. But the barriers are: the access to finance, the scarcity of skilled labour, a lack of market demand and the high cost of human resources.

### ***4. Dependency from regional markets***

For a successful international business, the SME doesn't have to be dependent on the regional market

### ***5. Availability of an appropriate workforce***

A primary problem is the availability of an appropriate workforce. Finding and hiring the appropriate workforce is a challenge for many SMEs in the EU.

## 6. *Administrative regulations*

Administrative regulations have a considerable importance for the company because this is one of the main issues that limits the business.

Companies invest abroad in order to lower transaction costs through two effects: the location effect and the ownership effect. The location effect determines where value-adding activities take place and the ownership effect explains who owns and controls the activities.

Investment abroad is motivated also by attempts to guard assets such as information, skills, technology or products, or to obtain control over resources, thereby protecting the firm from uncertainty and reducing transaction costs. The rational ability of the firm to assess the costs and benefits of internal and external transaction costs and to implement decisions is considered implicit in these motives.

There is a certain number of dynamic factors which explain why an important number of enterprises choose to progress gradually in their internationalization process. These factors are:

- ▶ resource availability,
- ▶ the level of foreign market acquaintance,
- ▶ the importance of communication networks,
- ▶ the perceived risks and/or incertitude,
- ▶ the willingness of the manager to enter foreign markets.

Learning about the organization of a company is very important. Organizational learning effort is based on existing knowledge and developing new knowledge. This description of learning effort is consistent with prior research that argued that organizational learning includes two modes, that is, exploitation and exploration.

Exploration involves the search for new knowledge, skills and processes, whereas exploitation involves the incremental improvement of existing knowledge, skills and processes. But many times exploitation by itself may not be sufficient in the long run to maintain a competitive advantage, since the environment in which an organization operates changes over time. Such effort may be aimed at learning inside home country borders (that is, domestic learning effort) or outside these borders (that is, international learning effort).

In order to examine the impact on future internationalization of how much emphasis a firm places on learning activities in general, we also examined the effects of *domestic* learning effort on a firm's internationalization intent. We suggest a positive relationship between

domestic learning effort and the propensity to internationalize further. By emphasizing domestic learning activities, the firm may indirectly become more knowledgeable and confident about how to learn from its current and potential stakeholders (for example, personnel, customers or suppliers) in the domestic market.

As firms acquire knowledge in their domestic market, their knowledge base may expand such that it provides the firm with better in cross-border activities. Some significant factors must be taken in consideration: local competitors, competitive agreements, legislation and business norms that are used.

Uncertainty in foreign markets may be overcome by exchanging information with organizations who are more familiar with the specific local context. Therefore, when a firm *proactively* seeks for additional foreign suppliers, customers, and alliance partners in a given country, a firm may overcome the uncertainty that arises when increasing the intensity of its activities in that market.

The notion of *proactiveness* reflects the firm's propensity to undertake a continuous search for opportunities and reflects the fact that the company monitors environmental changes in a variety of countries on a frequent basis, even if it has not undertaken any formal business transactions in those countries yet or does not intend to do so in the short term.

There are also risks that the company must consider when it decides to internationalize.

SMEs are considered to be at a greater risk of failure, partially because company directors may have less collective management experience or business expertise than larger companies. Foreign investors often shy away from investing in emerging economy SMEs because of unfavourable investment climates and the uncertainty of sufficient returns. The result is that some SMEs secure financing only by agreeing to a high amount of collateral and shorter pay-back periods while the rest must either rely on their personal networks or high-interest, illegal loans to generate start-up capital.

Also the size is a disadvantage for the SME because it doesn't have enough information and enough financial resources for implementing direct investments.

Firms that engage in radical innovation, undertake bold, aggressive actions, or are willing to assume risks, may be more likely to develop a long-term business abroad, substantial presence in the international countries, compared to firms that are more reactive or conservative.

***The internationalization process in the European Union***

Since 1992, the European Union (EU) has become a reality for European firms. Within this free trade zone, even more steps are being taken to unite the countries, both economically and politically. This transition changes the national and international business environment. For small and medium-sized firms - and for their competitors - it has become easier to broaden the firm's activities internationally. Besides the establishment of the EU, the democratization of Eastern Europe also brings new opportunities as well as threats, because some of these countries are likely to enter the Union.

Several theories and concepts have been suggested to capture the process of internationalization. Among these, the so called stage models receive much attention. These theories assume that the process of internationalization should follow a prescribed path to be successful.

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## **WORLD ECONOMY GLOBALIZATION: INDONESIA'S FENOMENA, ACHIEVEMENT ITS RISK AND PROBLEM SOLVING**

*Today Indonesia suffering huge debt and experience inefficient agriculture, oceanic even industrial product, prone to impediment its economic growth. Unmatch with world high mass and efficient productive industrial countries. Indonesia now is oil importer country, experience unbalance international trade, hamper its economy prosperity. World, US and EU business with Indonesia hopefully under equal mutually benefit. Indonesian democracy continues causing prolonged economic disturbance laws uncertainty results higher social cost driving away investors who should investing their capital to Indonesia. World economic forum have unbalance policy trading with indonesia pressing economy of Indonesia downward hard to compete future Globalization. In this coming future 10 years Indonesia keep uncompetitive facing global business.*

### ***State Debt Increasing Economy Crisis of Indonesia***

Huge amount of state debt of Indonesia increases the Indonesia's economical risks. Indonesia is an underdevelop agricultural and oceanic country not an industrial state, can Indonesia compete with the mass and high efficient heavy industrial state with very efficient productivity in any production; meanwhile Indonesia's oceanic and agarics production is insufficient.

Indonesia is now really having a high serious economical problem, difficult to be advancing its economy facing a real pressure of Globalization economy potentive to state financial failure and Indonesia's economical position in general. Some Global economy pressure as jolts in the capital market condition, high fluctuative money market, rising oil price up to level \$147 per barrel although now it has reduce to \$135 per barrel is still burdening Indonesia's economic conditions (Sri mulyani Indrawati, 2008). The High economical pressure namely the high yield Indonesia should pay to the investors with regard to the State Letter of Debt to foreign investors reaching 13,4 percents up to 13,5 percents there is an increase of 200 base points; so bisnis is

bisnis no friendship and foreign investor countries is keep up taking their benefit from Indonesia regardless Indonesia is still having an economical crises, furthermore ironically foreign countries are taking profit when aver Indonesia is facing its economical crises and they got more profit from Indonesia's worsen economic condition. So Indonesia's international business friendship means the Indonesia's financial and economical burden heavier and more difficult from time to time.

The main cause of high yield of foreign debt is the problem of subprime mortgage. The company business leader in US was down grade; the banking leader got loss due to subprime mortgage problem during media of year 2007. The loss experienced by the US banking has forced foreign investors to be prudence to invest their money and the clear result is the Indonesia's State Debt Letter yield moved higher and experienced burden for Indonesia's greater debt. Another reason Indonesia's State Debt Letter moved up due to general crude oil price jolt up driving investor's tendency to be more prudence to invest their money.

The result is all went wrong for Indonesia, damned if Indonesia have the foreign loan and damned if Indonesia do not have such foreign loans due their economic progress will be hampered. Hence, although the global economy is still fluctuative, nevertheless Indonesia will not change their policy to have foreign debt target and publish its Country Statement of Debt. The foreign loan reaching RP48,1 trillion with the publish of Country Statement of debt in total net Rp117,8 trillion. It is a very difficult economic condition for Indonesia case; its bad when poor Indonesia ned a foreign financial help in return Indonesia become a milch cow benefiting rich country in a fluctuative world economical pressure. That is the globalization real condition for Indonesia case; capitalist business exploiting the poorness of Indonesia.

The regional cooperation countries did not care about membership consideration of the economic cooperation organization. When it comes to an economical benefit then the main thing to do is individual profit making of organization profit or country where the businessmen come from not membership of the economic cooperation organization, hence, regardless of mutual understanding or helping each other in business within specific economic regional cooperation. Factually, when Indonesia is experiencing a financial difficulties as a high economic burden, in just investors implementing a high yield burdening Indonesia's financial condition simultaneously with a rising on higher interest. Actually if they are really have a friendship indeed with indonesia, there should be



no higher yield when Indonesia is experiencing an economical pressure instead of helping Indonesia with lower yield. Hence, helping each other sincerely in business is really impossible international, regional or even global experienced.

### ***Oil Crisis and Deficit Balance of Trade***

Indonesia experiencing balance of trade deficit crises on April 2008, valued of US\$524 million caused by decreasing Indonesia's exports and increasing oil and non oil imports. The export decrease due to greasy, vegetable oil product or crude palm oil export declining. Another fact was the oil trade deficit sharp rocketing for a period of 4 months during 2008. The uncontrollable worsening balance of trade deficit had been experienced for the last five years. In the year 2002 and 2003 deficit experienced only for approximately US\$2 billion. In the year 2004 more than doubled increasing become US\$4,2 billion, and continue to jolt up to averagely US\$8,5 billion during the year 2005 up to 2006. The sky rocketing keep continue along the year 2007 to be US\$10 billion. During Januari-April period the oil deficit had reached US\$5 billion. If the rocketing tendency keep up continuing during 4 more month, then the balance of trade deficit will reach US\$15 billion. It will be a big problem for poor country like Indonesia.

Actually such worsen condition is not necessary to happen. In the unpredictable turbulence business interaction globally, Indonesia should actually able to activate any means to boost Indonesia's economic activities globally. If indonesia was aware the cadangan devisa will not necessary to drop up to approximately US\$2 billion

If the leaders of Indonesia was able to be vigilant with Indonesia's economic condition, actually foreign exchange reserve is not necessary lessening up to US\$2 billion within 2 weeks from US\$58,8 in May 2, 2008 to be US\$56,9 billion in June 2008. This specific lacking of foreign exchange reserve potentive to declining the value of Indonesia's currency Rupiah. The specific declining rupiah value causing potential inflation pressure. The inflation actually can be manage better when the main consumption goods stock and distribution can be well manage by the leader of Indonesia. The high inflation is not merely single caused by the oil rising price, before oil price rising the LPG energy and cerosene had already jolt up driving up inflation automatically. The April 2008 inflation rate 0,57 percent, and three forth cause by household consumption as price of water, electricity, gaseous, and other energy.

The inflation keep up continuing worsened by the foods price sky rocketing. The Indonesia's government negligent is the main cause of core inflation formation compare higher than Indonesia's neighbouring countries.

The government of Indonesia fatal action is the natural resources management as oil which is very lacking today. The government of Indonesia was unable to control oil production capacity, because many decade there were no new kilang minyak exploration and no additional oil production. Such experience is the main cause of declining oi production, hence, Indonesia was unable to boost petrochemical industry and thousand of industry hilir businessmen competitiveness to compete with its competitors which are facing harder economical pressure due to lack of natural resource. Such bad experience pressing manufacture industries down unable to maximize its contribution to Indonesia's economic growth steadiness simultaneously avoiding social pressure.

Moreover the manufacture industry have gotten high pressure continuously from many direction in the contrary. The manufacture industries could only having 4.6 percent growth within the last three years; nevertheless it had even weakening tendency.

The booming of oils era had already over, now Indonesia has no more oil, nevertheless there are another booming commodity namely copra, rubber, chocolate, crude palm oil, porridge of paper and paper, tin, coal, aluminum, nickel, copper, gold.

**Neo Liberalism** The Neoliberalism occurrence is a clear facts in Indonesia significantly worsening Indonesia's economical activity. The high risk State Owned Corporation selling to Foreign Multy National Corporation (MNC) benefit only to global MNC operating in Indonesia. There are 37 BUMN diprivatisasi melalui International Public Offering (IPO) in stock market and strategic sales directly to intended foreign investors (Bisnis Indonesia,5/2/2008). The Indonesia's privatization jolt during the year 2008 is a reflection of Neoliberalism agenda have already set up by capitalist countries, the International Monetary Funds (IMF), the World Bank (WB), Asia Development Bank (ADB) and corporate communities. The government of Indonesia selling all its State Owned Corporation to MNC is the main target. The reasons set behind such intention is country's financial more efficiency and additional profitability. The foreign investor strong hold privatization reflected by the Krakatau Steel company reject to sell such company to foreign investors. The Krakatau Steel company actually never invited

investors to buy its assets, nevertheless such foreign investor keep up insisting to buy such company stated by Fazwar Bujang the Director of Krakatau Steel company (Kompas, 5/2/2008).

Some State Owned Companies had been sold during year 2008 namely: PT Asuransi Jasa Indonesia, PT Krakatau Steel, PT Bank Tabungan Negara, PT Semen Baturaja, PT Sucofindo, PT Surveyor Indonesia, PT Waskita Karya, Bahtera Adiguna, Barata Indonesia, PT Djakarta Lloyd, PT Sarinah, PT Industri Sandang, PT Sarana Karya, PT Dok Kodja Bahari, PT Dok and Perkapalan Surabaya, PT Industri Kereta Api, PT Dirgantara Indonesia, PT Kertas Kraft Aceh, PT INTI, Virama Karya, Semen Kupang, Yodya Karya, Kawasan Industri Medan, Kawasan Industri Makasar, Kawasan Industri Wijaya Kusuma, PT SIER, PT Rekayasa Industri, and Kawasan Berikat Nusantara, PT Garuda Indonesia, Merpati Nusantara, dan Industri Gelas. Such State Owned Company had been sold by sale price similar to year 2002 experience when the government of Indonesia sold 41,94 percent the PT Indosat stock to Singapore at sale price US\$ 608,4 million.

The state selling agenda in accordance to Washington policy package consensus between Indonesia's and the US Government as main menu of IMF structural adjustment program on Indonesia has cornered Indonesia to all went wrong condition. The certain IMF policy namely: 1) the execution of tight money policy, including nullification Government subsidy in many forms, 2) the execution of financial sector liberalization, 3) the execution of trading sector liberalization, and 4) the execution of country's State Owned company down pressure Indonesia's economy that depending majority to foreign debt and other form foreign loan. The privatization in Indonesia undertaken during New Order Government era was for the sake paying huge mounting state foreign debt. In the year 1991 state debt doubled rising to be US\$ 45,725 billion. Total foreign debt continue increasing in the year 1995, amounting US\$ 59,588 billion. The total income due to State Owned Company privatization during the year 1995-1997 was able reducing state total debt to be US\$ 53,865 billion in the year 1997 (Bisnis Indonesia, 5/2/2008).

Ironically, advance democratization of Indonesia is unbalance compare to severe down grading its economic condition. The society's real income per capita keep down pressed, rising up unemployment, and low economic growth. The western countries foreign capital inflow and long term Foreign Direct Investment always directed to China and Vietnam, very slight investment intention to Indonesia, if any, such majority formed in short period portfolio investment.

As of now, Indonesia had experienced very little benefit from the Globalization process today. It is very ironic for Indonesia that has huge potential natural resources, some changing its Government and such Government had invited foreign investors, behave politely to foreign accepting Globalization, and furthermore the Government economical policy leans on foreign country. As a good example compare to Malaysia: Malaysia's former Prime Minister Datuk Mahathir Mohammad stated that Malaysia depending hard on foreign debt during its first phase economic development process, nevertheless gradually Malaysia society had become more welfare shift the role as inhabitant development agent function as the main contributor to its economic development. It is different case to the Indonesia's experience, up to now keep up depending mainly to foreign commercial loan and found very difficult get off from foreign debt huge problems.

Indonesia had wiped off many sectors from foreign investment negative list for foreign investors neglecting local businesspersons, sale prospective economic assets very cheap, and furthermore letting foreign country's consultant involve in National economic policy in many Government Ministries along many years. Meanwhile the real economic sector was not improving at all; the executives of Indonesia were not experience growth due to highly cost bank loan. Ironically common businesspersons in just who in fact pay all their cost with foreign debt and other aids.

The economic policy of Indonesia is liberal compare to China and Vietnam that are not doing so. Both countries seriously tried to rein local economical policy executed by its fellowmen benefit to avoid foreign economical intervention to their country economic policy. The in-depth foreign economic policy intervention had shocked Indonesia's society when John Perkins explain his role as an economic destroyer agent operating in Indonesia for Indonesia's more dependent and rein by foreign using a Government of Indonesia consultant as camouflage (John Perkins, Confession of Economic Hit Man). There is a serious conspiracy among international institution Indonesia belief in its role to help Indonesia overcoming its phenomenal economic problems. The economic destroyer agent used by Global capitalist through it MNC aside to work for their country benefit. Indonesia has experienced massive economical devastating. Today Indonesia suffering sophisticated huge foreign debt, poor inhabitant, depending more to imports far away from the main ideas to be a modern and independent state.

The strategic geographical position, abundant natural resources, and great market potential of Indonesia indeed have interesting foreign countries and arousing to be directly rein by foreign nation as well as colonialism era experienced by Indonesia long time ago or modern economy colonialism today. World business is full with “deceive” and in this Globalization era, some nations nudge inattentive nation by variety of sophisticated means. To have Globalization benefit new mentality is badly needed and reorienting well manner to carry out Indonesia state for the sake of Indonesian society welfare.

Indonesian as well as other nation-experienced colonialism tend to have inferior mentality facing the wealthier western nations; patron-client mode of interaction tendency occurred, the relationship unequal in nature resulting to a party feels should be protected by other party. The party feels protected called “client”, other nation who protecting called “patron”. This relationship not necessary tendency to exploitative nevertheless easily breaks up to it. In some nation relationship mode, the “patron” tends to dictate and to teach the “client” state. Helping “client” state, the “patron” state feel as best philanthropist.

World Globalization lead to a big problem when the state relationship becomes a Patron-Client unequal rights mode because at this point the Globalization becomes exploitation functions. Some empirical facts show some “client” in just enjoying its position as a party who should be help. The ability to pay its debt and other aids considered as an achievement, hence, continually having the huge amount of debt considered as usual and not a weakness, nevertheless in just considered as high achievement. This has happened in a trend to give full foreign concession to exploit variety of mining to foreign state. Indeed maybe the Globalization problems were not merely the “patron” state wants to dominate nevertheless in just the big problem in just occurred due to “client” state enjoying its dependency to foreign “patron”.

The “patron” state difficult unhampered using its advancement to seek for benefits from the “client” state, nevertheless the “client” state can come up from the buried taking apart such patron-client relationship handcuff with developing independency, self confidence, and release certain dependency to the patron state. Such action has done by some success countries as South Korea and Singapore, now both countries are able to stand equal at the same level with western country. The won of Hamas in legislative election in Palestine, Achmadinejad won presidential election in Iran, the oil company confiscation in Bolivia under Evo Morales, and oil company asset in Venezuela under Hugo

Chaves showing the world society's luster protest regarding the "patron-client" state interrelationship.

The inferiority of Indonesian nation have made the destroyer agent be active unimpeded. The lack of nation's self-confidence creating a poor insight situation, lack of initiative and innovation economic development plan; such nasty situation has used by the economic destroyer agent to boost MNC and foreign countries self interest to have control over Indonesia's main State Owned Company Assets.

Supposing Indonesia has certain intelligence managing international business opportunity, it is proper if Indonesia keep up vigilant many international business entity tend to cunning Indonesia's business. Can Indonesia manage avoiding tricky foreign entity conspiracies to win competition? Does Indonesia have its firm national tenacity to self determine manner, control, scheme, time and sort of openness to the world and using every single world action opportunity to improve Indonesia's economy? The Globalization era should be face with strong nationalism spirit as Indonesia did to its colonialist long time ago.

Today nationalism era should be form in crafty actions to realize Globalization opportunity with the spirit to improve society's welfare and dignity. The Globalization has brought World competition international and interstate with its main dimensions as economy, culture and civilization. The nation dignity level, rank and prestige more and more measure by welfare, culture and civilization level achievement.

#### World Economic Forum Pushing Down Economy of Indonesia

As a matter of fact Indonesia possibly enjoying the economic Globalization positive impact by being one of economic driving engine due to western countries global economic share declining to 37 percent during the year 2008 from more than 40 percent in the year 1980, nevertheless Indonesia's economic share is very low interms of leadership, regional and global coordination, in-just very badly needed to improve its role in global economy interaction. Actually Asia or Indonesia are possible avoiding the US and Europe economic crises negative impact that such region potentive to sudden change to be protectionist (Price-waterhouse Coopers report, 2008). The main problem is the world entity as IMF, World Bank, and United Nation were not able to overcome the Global challenge. This is really an opportunity for Indonesia and Asia simultaneously forming a future global business requirement. Asia or Indonesia should have their international economy role to guarantee economic growth continuity due to world international entity lacking role, helping each other and not trapped in self interest or protectionism.

Indonesia has experienced unbalance income and keep up drive inflation. Indonesia predicted to face three main challenge namely: inflation, lack of income among the region member countries, among the inhabitant of Indonesia and lack of infrastucture. The rich will become richer and the poor become poorer (Rajat M. Nag, 2008). High inflation threaten the Indonesia's poor inhabitant, buying capacity driven down due to consumption goods price rising up; The government of Indonesia should bestow foods aid for the poor. World should help each other unhampering foods export.

Indonesia's lack of infrastructure possibly threaten its economic growth continuity. The US and UE protectionism has happening due to their economic declining tendency which has made the US and UE politician support all the more domestic product protection (Lord Levene, 2008) from Asia's including Indonesia product. Actually this is unaccepted move and will cause negative effects. The facts simultaneously a problem US and UE citizen are in favour with such product due to cheaper compare to other goods. The Protectionism have its high risk will end to a tragedy (Ralph R. Paterson, 2008).

#### ***Unfair WTO Summit Conference.***

The Geneva, Swiss, developing countries Economic Ministerial Conference or World Trade Organization (WTO) concluded discussion results unfair to developing countries. Many problems keep occurring burdening developing countries and need revision. The developing countries objection incompatibility needs to notice. Variety of compromise principle needs badly to achieve an agreement (Mari Elka Pangestu, 2008). Some parts of agreement are not reflecting world equal business treatment; even inflict a financial loss for poor countries like Indonesia. The aggravated debate regarding banana import to Europe, poor countries banana producers were leaving such meeting to protest tariff barbering proposed by Latin America. Such draft was decreasing banana tariff from 11 Latin America countries. These certain conditions are bad for traditional economic development of Indonesia trying to business struggle globally. One of the clearest lessons of globalization is that underdeveloped countries actually do not require billions of dollars of aid from wealthier countries to become prosperous. Ironically, most of the countries that provide foreign aid also maintain protectionist restrictions that reduce opportunities for poor countries to raise their incomes through expanded trade (Christopher Lingle, 2005).



### ***Indonesia Uncompetitive During Globalization.***

Predictably Indonesia will be defeated significantly during global competition. Actually, Globalization has some characteristics and process needed to be understood; Globalization is an integration process, mutual dependency internations, a dynamic inter region economic conversion process, nevertheless human nature character that human being always emphasize individual benefit above other, hence, maybe Globalization process could be possibly real threat for Indonesia's economic development. Will Indonesia really have its opportunity facing unbalance economical power struggle in the Globalization process? On the other hand, in just Indonesia will face Globalization threats, the facts previous condition has shown a big threat and it is still a big questions for Indonesia's economical progress facing Globalization today. Maybe for specific condition as in David versus Goliath, the small may win the battle; nevertheless commonly, the big will win the Globalization battle.

Factually, during first Globalization process the Indonesia's economy is severely deteriorating. Indonesia is capable only to import rather than export competitively its product; Indonesia's imports mounting up to US\$8, 7 billion. Previously Indonesia was oil exporter country, nevertheless its oil import is now glowing up 10,69 percent from US\$2.078,7 million become US\$2.300,9 million and non oil export rise up 2,42 percent from US\$6.324 million to be US\$6.477,5 million (Mimin Karmiati, Statistic Bureau of Indonesia, 2008). Ironically, incapable producing oil in the future due to lacking of oil well with the result that Indonesia should leave out OPEC membership.

The oil import development of Indonesia during February 2001 up to February 2006 showing oil import is bigger compare to oil export. The oil import is more than one and a half greater compare to oil export. As an example, import amount of Indonesia from China during the year 2003 was increased 30 percent. Meanwhile China's export to Indonesia during 2003 mounted up to US\$4, 48 billion increasing 30, 79 percent compare to year 2002. Export value of china to Indonesia year 2002 only reaches US\$3, 42 billion. It was a clear example showing the Indonesia's market in China continues to decrease (Trading Attaché of Indonesia in China, February 2004).

Certain facts indicating Indonesia's export capability is weak. How can Indonesia execute US and EU market penetration meanwhile these market region put into effect trade protection from any Asian countries including Indonesia with the result that export values of



Indonesia descend rapidly (Kompas, January 3, 2003). November 2002, export performance of Indonesia drowned 23, 01 percent become US\$4, 10 billion compare to October mounted US\$5, 32 billion. Such decrease triggered by decreasing oil export performance 25,99 percent or US\$4,182 billion to be US\$3,095 billion. Additionally, the sharp lowering due to decreasing machines export from US\$623,1 million become US\$364 million, or lessened US\$259,1 million (Soedarti Surbakti, 2002).

### *Summary*

Today Indonesia suffering huge debt and experience inefficient agriculture, oceanic even industrial product threatening its economic development in the future, these condition prone to impediment its economic growth. Apprehensively can Indonesia match with world high mass and efficient productive industrial countries? Indonesia now is not an oil producer country anymore even import in the contrary, continues experience unbalance of international trade worsening future economy of Indonesia maybe hamper its economy prosperity. Indonesia sacrifice its future economy to Neoliberalism concept executed by corrupt and unconceptual leadership irresponsible Indonesian, emphasize individual self interest unable struggle to achieve economic prosperity compare to international countries and conquered by advance western countries domination economic plan. World, US and EU business with Indonesia should be under equal mutually benefit. The birth of democracy in Indonesia precisely increase economical problem due to low literacy of majority Indonesia, evoke riots occurrence riotous behaviour of Indonesian. Indonesian democracy continues causing prolonged economic disturbance laws uncertainty results higher social cost driving away investors who should investing their capital to Indonesia. Meanwhile the advance countries careless with the economical anguish of Indonesia even hand cuffing Indonesia with high interest mounted foreign debt benefit only for investors. World economic forum pressing economy of Indonesia downward hard to compete future Globalization and even Indonesia's people suffer due to Government repressive social policy; society should be service instead of pressure down pity poor Indonesian inhabitant. In this coming future 10 years Indonesia keep uncompetitive facing global business.

### *Recommendations*

The Government of Indonesia should not do nothing just enough to allow Globalization market mechanism running freely. The Government of Indonesia should actively get involved organize, regulate, put in order the economy of Indonesia for the sake of Indonesia society's welfare; execute industrial policy more progressive with active industrial policy integrated with energy and agricultural policy.

The Government of Indonesia should understand the Indonesian society desire namely: Indonesia state should struggle to achieve national self autonomy through acceleration state assets redemption, completely remove foreign debts, national industrialization, social security, free tuition fee school, no house flatten for the poor, create new employment, equal income redistribution.

To synergy all natural resources to obtain maximum result for the sake of Indonesian society's welfare. Fight harder to be a market leader at least in Asia region. More active perpetrate international business negotiation to boost better expor of Indonesia to possible increasing economic growth of Indonesia.

World business partner of Indonesia executing best equal business activities to help betterment economic condition of indonesia. World businessmen better not only emphasize business individual profitability but helping each other considered as most important in doing mutual understanding international business within region or interregion. By doing such action sincerely the world economic globalization may lead to world society's welfare equally.

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## **THE ROMANIAN REFORM OF PENSIONS SYSTEM VERSUS THE REFORMS OF PENSIONS SYSTEM IN UE COUNTRIES**

*Romania is at the beginning of the pension system implementation. It is very likely that, among all social classes, the reform of the pensions system is addressed less to the pensioners (retired workers). In fact, it is mainly addressed to the generations which are nowadays at the beginning of the career.*

*In this paper I try to make a presentation of adopted reforms in UE and how our country could realize the implementation of the reform, comparative with the others countries which are part of UE.*

Romania is at the beginning of the pension system implementation.

It is very likely that, among all social classes, the reform of the pensions system is addressed less to the pensioners (retired workers). In fact, it is mainly addressed to the generations which are nowadays at the beginning of the career. For those persons, the introduction of the privately administrated pensions and also of the facultative pensions could create important benefits materialized both in a decent income for the retirement age and by the economic growth vitiation of the country, with more visible quick-action effects at the wage scale level and a better employment offer.

The problem of national pension systems is worsening more and more acute, in more and more countries in the world. The pension systems pay-as-you-go (PAYG), based exclusively on the solidarity between generations is confronted to more difficulty negotiable problems.

The origin of those difficulties lies in the demographic evolution and tendencies regarding *the ageing of the people together with the birth rate reduction, the increase of the expectation of life, inflation, in the more and more increased costs necessarily for the post-active period, in early retirement, in the raise of the life quality and, not the least, in the decrease of the dependence rate* (respectively the decrease of the tax payers' number and the increase of the retired persons' number).

Regarding the European Union, the demographic changes will remodel the entire economy and society.

According to the **European Commission's magazine on employment and social affairs, Social Agenda**, An Europe of all Ages, May 2005, the people aged over 65 years will represent in 2050 over 30% of the total population, against the 17% in the present, while the weight of until 24 years people will be reduced, in the same interval of time, from 30% to 23%.

In many countries there are already worryingly financial consequences of the demographical tendencies and is tried to find equitable solutions for all the existing generations at a certain moment in the society, and also for the next generations.

Some of the adopted measures are referring to the *increase of the retirement age, the state benefit reduction and passing onto private administration*. Other solutions which are already present especially in the developed countries are consisting of *phased retirement*, meaning the passage from the active period within a normal program to a gradual retirement, by a flexible program or a reduced program for a certain period of time, to have more working population.

*Encouraging birth rate increase, bigger efforts for professional training, the increase of flexibility of the more flexible labor force and unemployment decrease* represent other allowed measures.

The main purpose of a pension system is to help people to accomplish a more equilibrated allocation of the financial resources along citizens' life. This thing is achieved through the transfer of a part of the resources obtained in the active period to the post-active-period.

It could be mention as some distinguished success regarding the pensions system countries like Holland and the Scandinavian countries, which have had as a basic common element in their strategy a variety of policies based on the maximum reduction of the unemployment, a balanced income distribution and the substantial economic performance along with the raise of the minimum wages.

The consequences of a balanced pension system will be found at macroeconomic and microeconomic level. Here there are only a few of them:

- ◆ the cutting out the pressing over the social insurance budget;
- ◆ the economic growth encouragement through the investment of the treasured up sums in the economy, working up new working places, the unemployment reduction;
- ◆ the people savings help to raise of the capital markets – the mobilized assets increase and support the development of big projects on long term at the macroeconomic level;
- ◆ the pension's reform aids a reform of the labor market.

No matter what is the reform model that has been adopted, it is very important the existence of an adequate fiscal treatment which will allow the sustainability, will create a balanced account on short term –otherwise the most difficult aspect –, the fiscal viability on long term and the paid stimulants to the tax payers. The experts in this domain are considering as the best modality the system where the taxation is done in the period of pension's payment, while the contributions are educible.

In **Belgium** it has been implemented recently some reforms direct targeted to the anticipate retirements, aiming to encourage the participation in the labor market of the aged group between 50 and 60 years persons, thus being achieved also the so called “pact between generations” which has been adopted at the end of the 2005 year. This reform should have an important contribution, meaning the acceptability and the financial sustainability.

In the **Czech Republic** a new pension's reform will be developed after the negotiation of the final report regarding the social insurance system by the European Commission expert team. The proposed measures include the raise of retirement age, the change of the computing methodology and of indexing the social allowances, the revision of the non-contributive periods and, how much it is possible, an emergency fund development, also the raise of the state contribution to the private pension system.

In **Denmark**, a fiscal policy determine a quickly debt contraction has been already previously introduced and all important political parties sustain its follow-up until 2010, while it is expected the public debt substantial diminish. The new regulations introduced in 2004 permit to the people (inclusive to those aged over 65 years old, who already received a retirement pension) to choose either a late retirement pension or remaining or coming back in the labor market in exchange for a greater quantum of the retirement pension, received later on.

In **Germany** the new government has announced his intention to rise the retirement age from 65 to 67 years old (beginning in 2012 and ending in 2035).

In **Greece**, while the recent reforms have been transformed in the active life extension initiatives, there are supplementary measures to raise employment rate, especially for women and aged persons. Also, it could be taken account the gradual equalization process of men and women retirement ages, as well as for the people who has contributed to the social insurance system before 1993.

In **Spain**, the maintain of sustainability may be achieved through the measures proposed by the Government, especially through a closer connection development between the contributory level and pension allowances one, facilitating some more flexible and gradual retirements, as well as carrying on the anticipate pension schemes restructure.

In **Italy** carrying on effective equalization process of the retirement ages foe men and women will aid the reduction of the differences between sexes from the point of view of the retirement allowance level rights and also to promote the raise of employment rate of the aged working people.

In **Holland** there are proposed some important progress aiming to remove the obstacles which obliged people to renounce at an active life after 65 years old; also, nowadays are implemented and it could be further consolidated some measures targeting the diminishing of the anticipate retirement possibility from the labor market (anticipate retirement pension and disabilities schemes).

In **Austria** the retirement age for women will remain lower than for the men during a long time and will be raised from 60 to 65 years old between 2024 and 2033. While the retirement options will be restricted for the persons having a long career, after a transition period, until 2014, it is possible that such long contributed periods to determine a change of the retirement pension system.

In **Poland** due to legal age equalization for men and women will be diminish income differences between sexes, at the same time raising the employment rates. Other majored objectives which still remain to be fulfilled refer the farmer's pensions and the pension for the disability persons, the last one becoming a majored platform to anticipate retirement from the labor market.

In **Portugal** carrying on the retirement pension system harmonization and the measures to promote a long active life would contribute to consolidate the adequacy and sustainability.

In 2005, **Finland** introduced a reform of the gain scheme whose objective is to discourage anticipate retirement and to stimulate aged workers to extend their activity in the labor market. Through this reform, Finland made important progress meaning maintaining of financial sustainability of his own retirement pension system, along with provide some adequate pensions and also this system adjustment depending on social transforming, particularly through a mechanism to change the pensions aiming the raise of the life expectation. On long term, the last reforms will raise retirement age with about 2 to 3 years until 2050.

**Sweden** has succeeded to develop a public pension system which fulfills both adequacy criterion and financial sustainability one, under the conditions when the employees are compensated the programmed decrease of the substitution rate through much later retirement from the labor market.

The reforms represent a difficultly achieved and implemented process, because the main problem is to finance the deficit produced by passing from the PAYG system – based on incomes redistribution – to the new system, based on investment and saving.

World Bank, who proved constant preoccupations to defining a more efficient system, is sustaining a reforming model based on three pillars, where it is combined the responsibility of the three mentioned parts.

**Pillar I** – consists in the pension offered by the Government and is aiming to cover a minimum income level required to life, sometimes irrespective of the level of contribution in the active period; it is a compulsory system;

**Pillar II** – supposes the private administration of a part of the contribution paid by employer and employee (in some countries, this is even an occupational pension system); Pillar II is compulsory;

**Pillar III** – represents a supplementary optional pension, created from the employee contribution and whose aim is raising income after the retirement moment.

**Pillar II and Pillar III** need pension administration in the private system.

As a matter of fact, every country develops and/or adjusts its own pension system, in accordance with the specific situation, regarded under multiple aspects: demographical evolution and perspective, economic and financial situation, fiscal system and other ones.

To succeed it is required a systematical and unitary approach of the entire reforming process.

More than a half of the active population of the Central and East Europe (ECE) are beginning to invest or take into consideration pension investment in the individual private pension, along state pensions, and one from five persons belonging to that zone owns already a complementary product, as it is presented by a recent **study** made by UNICREDIT.

This tendency shows the skepticism about state pension system: on an average only 10% from the active population believes that state pension will be enough to cover the daily expenditures after retired.



The people in the 30-39 years age segment is the most active regarding the investment in a supplementary pension. On the whole, almost 60% of this age category of population has already become to save regarding the retirement period or take account this possibility.

Nowadays yet, in Romania, according to different researches, only 70% of people have an investment product similar with private pension, comparativly to 20% average in the region.

Although, at first sight, this weight seems to be extremely low, it must be analyzed taking account that the private pensions haven't yet begin their activities in our contry.

In Romania "the real start of the private pension system" takes place somehow later comparativly to the countries from this region, the entrance in the European Union and income raise will have as effects a quickly recovery of the lags in this domain. This one especially because the people is already conscious of the utility of the product of the private pension kind.

The need of romanian people for protection products is very high and the degree of these products cover is still low. romania presents a great potential from this point of view, because the products are still very cheap and can satisfy the customers'needs.

The experts estimate that nowadays the difference between romanians financial protection needs and existing ressources in this moment, otherwise speaking the protection deficit, is ammounted up 48 billion EUR.

Pension reform is mainly determined by the too little dimension of the social insurance budget. Under the conditions where the employees' number who are working and paying social contributions (CAS) have dimished in the last 17 years, from the 8,1 milions in 1990 to 4,6 milions last year and tax payers' number which sustain a retire person (dependence report) has dimished from 3,43 in 1990 to 0,8 in 2006, the social insurance budget is too poor to be able to offer decent pensions, so the purchase power of the retired people has decreased more than 50%.

Unfortunately, demografic tendencies and Romanian people migration phenomena towards other labour market are maintaining also in future years. What can be done to diminish the disequilibrium? Mainly:

- raising the retirement age, in this way to avoid to deteriorate the dependence report (until 2015, retirement age will increase to 60 years for women and 65 years for men);

- growing up the collected contributions to the social insurance budget – nowadays, their level is about 46%, from whom 29,5% for pension; the raise of those percentage cotes would put a too big burden on the wage expenditure;

- the collection rate improvement – not all persons who obtain incomes for its they might also pay contributions to the social insurance budget are registered in the system and a large parte of the tax payers are participating with the oficial income lower than the real ones.

Even under succesfully aplly of the up mentioned measures, the disequilibrium could be only reduce, but not eliminated. Consequently, it is imposed the adpotin of a solution to offer supplementary incomes to those furnished by the state social insurance system meaning the private pension introduction.

From the first steps carried out in 1994 in Check Republic and Hungary, along with the begining of the third pillar, the optional private pensions, folowing with the experience of the Polish pension reform in 1999 and the accumulated experience of other ECE states during the period since then until nowadays, we can speak already about a relevant experience in this domain. The contries which covered this way, without missing the difficulties, have adopt sensible nuanced solutions to answer these quetions bring into forth during the reform period. In Romania, being stiiil at the begining of the most awaited stady of the reform, the implementation of the private administrated pensions, it must be still clear up essencial aspects, there are still many options to formulate.

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## **INTEGRAREA ȘI GLOBALIZAREA ECONOMIEI**

*This article emphasizes some aspects regarding integrationist processes in world economy, as well as the phenomenon of globalization. Also, there are mentioned stages of world economy globalization, as well as problems referring to this phenomenon.*

Pe măsură ce devine tot mai mult o realitate contemporană, globalizarea ajunge să fie și cel mai controversat concept în literatura economică și politică internațională. Trăim într-o lume globalizată, și totuși nu există încă un consens cu privire la ceea ce înseamnă globalizare, și respectiv nu există o definiție universală a acestei noțiuni. Globalizarea este termenul modern folosit la descrierea schimbărilor în societăți și în economia mondială care rezultă din comerțul internațional extrem de crescut și din schimburi culturale. Descrie creșterea comerțului și a investițiilor datorită căderii barierelor și interdependenței dintre state. În context economic, este des întâlnită referirea aproape exclusivă la efectele comerțului și în particular la liberalizarea comerțului sau la liberul schimb.

**Globalizarea economică** – patru aspecte se referă la globalizarea economică ce indică patru tipuri de fluxuri peste granițe, și anume fluxuri de bunuri/servicii, de exemplu liber schimb, fluxuri de persoane (migrația), de capital și de tehnologie. O consecință a globalizării economice este îmbunătățirea relațiilor dintre dezvoltatorii aceleiași industrii din diferite părți ale lumii (globalizarea unei industrii), dar și o erodare a suveranității naționale asupra sferei economice. FMI-ul definește globalizarea ca “creșterea interdependenței economice a țărilor din întreaga lume prin creșterea volumului și a varietății tranzacțiilor de bunuri și servicii peste granițe, fluxul de capital internațional mult mai liber și mai rapid, dar și o difuziune mai largă a tehnologiei.” (FMI, World Economic Outlook, mai 1997). Banca Mondială definește globalizarea ca “Libertatea și capacitatea indivizilor și a firmelor de a iniția tranzacții economice voluntare cu rezidenți ai altor țări”. În opinia lui David Held și Antony McGrew, profesori universitari din Marea Britanie „globalizarea poate fi concepută ca un proces (sau mai multe procese) care transformă într-o organizație spațială a relațiilor sociale și a tranzacțiilor, exprimate prin fluxuri transcontinentale

sau inter-regionale și rețele de activități, interacțiuni și putere”, iar președintele firmei multinaționale ABB spune „aș defini globalizarea ca fiind libertate pentru firma mea, de a investi unde vrea, când vrea, pentru a produce ceea ce vrea, aprovizionându-se și vânzând unde vrea, și avînd de suportat cele mai mici constrîngerii posibile în materie de lege a muncii și convențiilor sociale” [3]. Deci, așt oameni de știință cît și opinia publică nu au căzut încă de acord asupra unei singure definiții. Una este cert, că dimensiunea economică a globalizării are, fără nici un dubiu, o foarte mare importanță, ea fiind una dintre cele mai importante cauze și forța motrice pentru procesele de globalizare din celelalte domenii.

Globalizarea ca proces integrațional la nivel mondial nu a apărut concomitent cu termenul „globalizare”, însă s-a constituit lent timp de mai multe secole și în spațiu și timp actualmente poate fi caracterizată ca una din cele mai atrăgătoare, deci, și mai avantajoase. Axându-se în temei pe procesele economice, globalizarea dispune de o istorie și evoluție adecvată perioadelor de constituire și trecerea de la o subformă la alta, fără îndoială, deacum cunoscute: micro-, mezo-, macroeconomie, economie națională, economie regională, monoeconomie. În sensul direct, globalizarea se referă la ultimele trei subforme caracteristice zonelor de dincolo de național iar înțelesul, pe care ni-l transmite noțiunea dată, este cea de tendință care cuprinde tot globul, deci este o tendință de întruchipare a intereselor de ansamblu, desprinse de cele particulare ale statelor.

Primii care au introdus în uz termenul globalizare au fost cercetători americani care în anul 1983 au determinat prin acest termen fenomenul de integrare a piețelor unor mărfuri și produse de către companiile transnaționale mari. Procesul de globalizare are un caracter multilateral și multidimensional. Știința economică actualmente și-a concentrat atenția de bază asupra cinci direcții: *globalizarea financiară, corporațiile transnaționale globale, regionalizarea economică, intensificarea comerțului internațional, tendința spre convergență*.

Unii economiști își accentuează atenția la trăsăturile de bază ale globalizării. Nominalizăm doar câteva procese:

centralizarea financiară crescîndă, cu ajutorul căreia se formează, se eliberează și se utilizează mijloace creditare, în urmă căreia are loc creșterea însemnătății capitalului asupra producției;

- creșterea accelerată a informației;
- lărgirea oligopolurilor;
- creșterea numărului antreprenorilor transnaționali;
- globalizarea puterii naționale de stat;
- dezvoltarea tehnologiilor de vîrf.

Globalizarea poate fi interpretată și ca stadiu superioară a internaționalizării. Sfera de bază a globalizării este sistemul economic mondial, producția globală, schimbul și consumul efectuat de întreprinderi în economiile naționale și pe piața mondială. Rezultatul adâncirii procesului de internaționalizare sunt interdependențele și interacțiunile economiilor naționale. Globalizarea poate fi interpretată și ca integrarea statelor într-o structură apropiată sistemului economic unic internațional.

Profesorul Bakker R.B. de la Institutul de Științe Politice din Paris susține opinia, că deoarece nu există o determinare unică a procesului de globalizare, el menționează trei idei din punct de vedere a științei internaționale:

- globalizarea este un proces istoric, care s-a dezvoltat pe parcursul mai multor secole;
- globalizarea înseamnă unificarea lumii, tendința spre universalizare;
- globalizarea înseamnă recunoașterea interdependenței crescânde, distrugerea suveranității naționale sub acțiunea noilor actori planetari, cum sunt firmele globale, structurile transnaționale, etc.

Pe parcurs, dominant a devenit modelul neoliberal al globalizării, caracteristicile principale ale căruia sunt:

- dezvoltarea gestiunii la nivel statal și interstatal;
- reducerea capacității organelor de stat de a regla și controla economia națională și de a rezolva problemele sociale;
- creșterea puterii politice și economice reprezentărilor economiei globale;
- interdependența „jucătorilor economici globali” de un control democratic;
- comprimarea rolului ONU din cauza creșterii puterii economice a organizațiilor financiare internaționale (Banca Mondială, Fondul Monetar Internațional etc.). În constituirea și extinderea procesului de globalizare un rol deosebit îl joacă Organizația mondială a comerțului (OMC), asupra căreia nu există un control transparent și democratic.

Tendențele noi în procesul globalizării economiei sunt definite în mod diferit:

„economie globală”, „integrare economică globală”, „competiție globală”, „globalizarea pieței mondiale”, „mondializarea economiei”, „interdependența economică internațională”, „trecerea de la raportul

economie națională – economie mondială” la „economie mondială – economia națională” (schimbarea locului priorităților). Însă esența constă în reducerea continuă a importanței factorilor naționali și intensificarea activității întreprinderilor internaționale. Acest proces duce la dispariția diferenței între circuitele interne și externe.

Problemele interne ale fiecărei țări în condițiile globalizării devin și probleme a întregii societăți, una din problemele mondiale, care necesită eforturi comune pentru o soluționare mai eficientă. Combinând factorii potențiali interni și cei externi, este posibil să se găsească soluția cea mai potrivită atât sub aspectul economic, cât și sub cel social.

Istoria evoluției procesului de globalizare, reieșind din termeni folosiți în economie și economia politică este o istorie a creșterii comerțului interstatal bazat pe instituții stabile care autorizează firme din diferite state să schimbe mai ușor bunuri.

Termenul de liberalizare este o combinație între teoria economică a liberului schimb și îndepărtarea barierelor în care se mișcă bunurile. Aceasta a dus la creșterea specializării țărilor în exporturi și la presiuni care să termine o dată pentru totdeauna cu tarifele protecționiste și a altor bariere în fața comerțului. Perioada liberalizării și cea în care aurul definea standardul economic este deseori numită “Prima eră a Globalizării”. Bazată pe Pax Britanica și pe schimbul de bunuri în numerar, această eră a crescut odată cu industrializarea. Baza teoretică a fost munca lui Ricardo în *Avantajul comparativ și Legea generală a echilibrului* a lui Say. Cei doi susțineau că țările vor face comerț eficient și că orice neajunsuri temporare în cerere sau ofertă se vor corecta automat. Instituirea standardului în aur s-a realizat treptat în țările intens industrializate între anii 1850 și 1880.

“Prima eră a Globalizării” se crede că s-ar fi împărțit în etape odată cu primul război mondial și apoi căzând sub criza standardului în aur spre sfârșitul anilor '20 și începutul anilor '30. Țările ce începuseră să îmbrățișeze era globalizării, au fost câteva state de la marginea Europei și câteva din America și Oceania, care la acea etapă prosperau. Inegalitatea dintre acele state dispărea în timp ce bunurile, capitalul și forța de muncă formau în mod excepțional fluxuri libere între state.

Globalizarea în perioada de după cel de-al doilea război mondial a fost condusă prin runde de negocieri în prima fază sub auspiciile GATT, ce a dus la mai multe înțelegeri în îndepărtarea restricțiilor asupra liberului schimb. Runda Uruguay a dus la semnarea unui tratat prin care se creează Organizația Mondială a Comerțului (OMC) cu rolul de a media dispute comerciale. Alte acorduri comerciale bilaterale

inclusiv secțiuni ale Tratatului de la Maastricht și NAFTA au fost de asemenea semnate cu scopul de a reduce tarifele vamale și barierele comerciale.

Dintr-o perspectivă pragmatică, globalizarea actualmente dispune, de câteva premise, care sunt prezente în majoritatea țărilor. *Una din premise*, constă în faptul, că economia mondială se transformă într-un sistem bine chibzuit, integrat și compact, care din ce în ce mai pronunțat ignorează existența frontierelor naționale ca anumite „frâne” locale de dezvoltare, fapt preconizat de mai mulți cercetători încă la începutul sec. XX. Actualmente orice economie națională a devenit mult mai dinamică, mai conformată cerințelor foarte diversificate la scara mondială, economiile naționale ca nici odată se adaptează la necesitățile societății.

*O altă premisă* constă în faptul că, dezvoltarea umană se desfășoară sub aspectul principal a sistemului mondial actual, de care depinde dezvoltarea de mai departe a economiilor naționale. Interpretarea termenului „globalizarea economiei mondiale” ca premisă a dezvoltării activității socio-umane este o prerogativă a timpului, a eforturilor cercetării-dezvoltării ca tendință universală. Anume rezultatele din acest domeniu accelerează procesele de integrare și globalizare, indiferent de gradul de dezvoltare economică a fiecărei țări în parte. Tendințe spre globalizare sunt înregistrate atât printre țările industrializate, cât și printre cele în curs de industrializare: și cu cât gradul este mai scăzut, cu atât tendința este mai pronunțată.

*Încă o premisă* a globalizării constă în faptul recunoașterii de către specialiști a necesității internaționalizării nu numai a culturilor, practicii în diverse domenii, ci, în primul rând, în cel economic, constituindu-se din ce în ce mai mult ca un spațiu unic.

*Una din cele mai importante premise* de dezvoltare a proceselor globalizării, devine volumul cunoștințelor acumulate, care reprezintă factorul decisiv pentru dezvoltarea economiilor naționale în lumea contemporană, și nu zăcămintele naturale și teritoriile uriașe. Cererea globală și cea individuală se schimbă acuma mult mai rapid și imprevizibil decât înainte. Costul investițiilor, care cu fiecă zi devin tot mai mult și mai mult inovaționale, a crescut enorm. Problema răscumpărării lor este de nesoluționat în condițiile unei arii închise, oricât de mare ar fi ea. Toate acestea impun aplicarea unui marketing pe toată suprafața mapamondului. Respectiv, cerința de minimizare a costurilor impune amplasarea întreprinderilor aproape de locurile distribuirii finale a producției. Aceasta este o premisă importantă a globalizării economiei.

Lumea contemporană este lumea telecomunicațiilor și informației. Succesul antreprenorial în prezent nu se măsoară în tone și kilometri, ci în kilobyte. Această tendință continuă și va duce la schimbarea înfățișării societății mondiale. Premisa globalizării a fost revoluția informațională, care a asigurat o bună bază tehnică pentru crearea rețelelor informaționale globale, internaționalizarea capitalului și creșterea concurenței pe piețele mondiale, deficitul resurselor naturale, explozia demografică, creșterea influenței asupra naturii.

Globalizarea influențează în mod specific societățile naționale. La prima vedere pare că efectul ei ar trebui să influențeze distructiv structurile sociale naționale. Însă în realitate ea stabilește în fața societății probleme atât de complicate, încât soluționarea lor cere un efort bine coordonat, care, la rândul său, consolidează societatea.

Economiștii A. Toffler și H. Toffler în lucrarea lor [1] prezintă o idee care dezvăluie foarte bine acest lucru: “Societățile agrare vor să-și completeze industrializarea și nimeresc în capcana delimitării naționale. Fostele republici sovietice, cum ar fi Ucraina, Estonia sau Georgia, insistă la autonomie și cer restaurarea atributelor istorice, drepturilor, armatelor, unităților monetare – care sunt caracteristice pentru etapa industrială anterioară. În lumea contemporană este greu de înțeles și de acceptat motivarea ultranaționalistilor... Pentru naționaliști este de neînchipuit că există țări care permit subiectelor din exterior să se amestece în domeniile independenței lor sfinte. Dar aceasta o cere globalizarea afacerilor și finanțelor... În timp ce poeții și intelectualii regiunilor înapoiate scriu imnuri naționale, poeții și intelectualii contemporaneității ridică în slăvi avantajele lumii fără frontiere”.

Problema economică principală a contemporaneității constă în formarea unui sistem mondial complex. Acest proces se dezvoltă în patru direcții: concentrarea în țările dezvoltate a părții preponderente a potențialului intelectual și inovațional; concentrarea circuitului comercial mondial în limitele țărilor dezvoltate; limitarea ariei de pătrundere a fluxurilor investiționale și blocarea fluxurilor migraționale din țările lumii a treia în cele dezvoltate.

Deși dezvoltarea economiei mondiale, creșterea gradului de interdependență între economiile naționale necesită din ce în ce mai mult integrarea deplină a tuturor țărilor, și în special a celor în tranziție, totuși procesele integraționiste au loc la nivel regional. În acest sens, integrarea economică regională nu trebuie să fragmenteze sistemul economic mondial în blocuri, ci să creeze zone de complementaritate integrate într-un sistem economic deschis, contribuind astfel la globalizarea economiei.



Deci, putem spune că în lumea contemporană, unde permanent au loc procese integraționiste, o importanță crescândă o are anume concurența între corporații transnaționale, și nu concurența între țări.

Creșterea volumului comerțului, apariția tehnologiilor noi, investițiile străine, diversificarea mijloacelor de informație și extinderea Internetului stimulează creșterea economică. Globalizarea duce la stimularea dezvoltării tuturor națiunilor prin mărirea pieței de desfacere, schimbul liber de tehnologii de la o națiune la alta, creșterea calificării forței de muncă. Prin crearea unei concurențe puternice, globalizarea îi stimulează pe producătorii autohtoni să utilizeze ultimele know-how într-un anumit domeniu, materiale ultramoderne și să aibă grija de consumatori. Un alt aspect este concentrarea liberă a capitalului în zone cu avantaje economice sporite, ceea ce duce la stimularea producției și creșterea eficienței utilizării capitalurilor.

Un exemplu elocvent îl constituie țările din Europa Occidentală. Fiecare țară, luată separat, s-a simțit prea slabă în fața concurenței SUA pe piețele mondiale și în fața penetrației extrem de puternice a marilor monopoli. Ulterior, a apărut și concurența japoneză. Numai unindu-se în cadrul Comunității Economice Europene, țările occidentale puteau face față concurenței internaționale. În condițiile în care revoluția tehnico-științifică exercită o influență atât de mare asupra producției, diferite țări pot promova numai în comun cele mai mari cuceriri ale științei și tehnicii moderne și, pe această bază, să învingă în lupta de concurență.

Totuși, trebuie să remarcăm că în prezent cea mai scurtă cale spre globalizare este extinderea piețelor de desfacere – liberalizarea comerțului, a fluxurilor de capital și a informației.

Prin globalizarea piețelor se subînțelege creșterea volumului comerțului internațional și a altor procese în cadrul economiei mondiale, care devine din ce în ce mai integrată, mai consolidată. Astfel, este vorba nu numai de comerțul internațional de mărfuri și servicii, dar și de:

- fluxuri valutare;
- mișcări de capital;
- schimb de tehnologii;
- procese de migrație;
- internaționalizarea vieții sociale;
- procese de informatizare etc.

Globalizarea, în sensul larg al acestui termen, dispune un șir de factori, care s-au manifestat insistent pe parcursul câtorva etape. După părerea mai multor cercetători cu renume mondial și autohtoni, globalizarea parcurge etapele următoare:

a) *liberalizarea comerțului internațional* și alte forme de conlucrare economică, care au limitat politica protecționistă, iar comerțul internațional l-a ridicat la scara cea mai mare. Măsurile de liberalizare au dus la micșorarea tarifelor, taxelor, intensificarea mișcării capitalului și a altor *factori de producție*;

b) *lărgirea sferei de activitate* a întreprinderilor și firmelor, care a fost posibilă atât în rezultatul progresului tehnologic, cât și în urma gestionării în baza noilor surse de telecomunicații. Astfel, multor companii, care se dezvoltau pe piețele locale, li s-a oferit posibilitatea de a ieși pe piețele naționale, multinaționale și internaționale. Aceste companii se pot repede adapta la condițiile existente, devenind companii transnaționale (CTN). Aproape toate din ele dispun de o rețea de filiale, fapt care le acordă o anumită rigiditate pe piață. Prin aceste companii se efectuează în prezent aproximativ o treime din comerțul mondial. Companiile multinaționale și alte organizații atât private, cât și statale, au devenit participanții de bază a cheltuielilor economiei globale;

c) *progresul tehnico-științific*, care a adus la micșorarea cheltuielilor de transport și comunicații, la micșorarea de prelucrare și stocare a informației, la apariția poștei electronice (e-mail), rețelei Internet și alte modalități de utilizare globală;

d) *instituționalizare* ca un rol important în procesul de globalizare a început al juca organizațiile internaționale: ONU, FMI, BM, OMC etc;

e) *socializarea* concomitent cu aspectul economic, începând cu un anumit timp capătă conotații politice, culturale etc. Impunând un nou tip de socializare caracterizat prin integrarea pe orizontală și verticală a mai multor culturi, etnii și popoare. De menționat, că socializarea ca element posterior a globalizării se caracterizează printr-un proces corespunzător la nivel spiritual, cultural, internațional;

f) *atingerea unei gândiri globale unice* în valorificarea economiei de piață și comerțului liber, începutul cărora pentru o parte din țări a fost pus în a. 1978 prin reforma din China, după ce au urmat schimbările radicale și structurale în țările Europei Centrale și de Est, finalizându-se cu destrămarea Uniunii Sovietice;

g) *particularitățile dezvoltării culturale* în cadrul globalizării care au avut un impuls semnificativ în majoritatea țărilor lumii.

Pentru a înțelege necesitatea și importanța integrării în rezolvarea unor sau altor probleme economice naționale sau globale, vom prezenta efectele generale ale fenomenelor integraționiste:

- stimularea accesului produselor autohtone pe piețele țărilor partenere din respectiva grupare de integrare, ceea ce va duce la creșterea pieței de desfacere, mărirea volumului de producție și, în consecință, la reducerea cheltuielilor de producție.
- stimularea fluxului liber de capital face posibilă dezvoltarea proiectelor care sunt foarte scumpe pentru o singură țară. Astfel, țările mici nu pot desfășura, în mod individual, activități în domeniile tehnologic și industrial la nivel național. Ele pot activa efectiv, într-o măsură mai mare sau mai mică, numai dacă formează o grupare regională.
- globalizarea duce la specializarea țărilor de a fabrica acele tipuri de produse care corespund avantajelor competitive ale producătorilor autohtoni. Aceasta duce la creșterea eficienței fabricației și la utilizarea resurselor mondiale limitate.
- creșterea puterii de negociere în raport cu țările terțe sau față de alte grupări regionale. Puterea de negociere a unei țări este influențată de nivelul social-economic respectiv. Astfel, ea se determină pornind de la PNB, PIB, volumul comerțului exterior, capacitatea de finanțare externă etc. Puterea de negociere a unei țări este cu atât mai mare, cu cât mai mari sunt aceste mărimi. O grupare economică însumează potențialele țărilor membre și, astfel, duce la creșterea puterii sale de negociere în comparație cu țările terțe.

Pentru țările în tranziție, la aceste efecte potențial-favorabile am mai putea adăuga:

- crearea condițiilor care impun schimbări instituționale în diferite domenii ale vieții economice a țării. Aceste schimbări vor îmbunătăți atât partea legislativă, cât și cea executivă.
- globalizarea creează condiții necesare pentru elaborarea și aplicarea politicilor economice naționale adecvate concurenței sporite, ceea ce influențează direct eficiența producătorilor naționali.

În sfârșit, procesul de integrare economică oferă o posibilitate de accelerare a dezvoltării economice și un nivel mai ridicat de utilizare a factorilor de producție. De menționat, că globalizarea economiei mondiale a fost favorabilă pentru majoritatea țărilor lumii. Printre cele mai importante elemente favorabile, în viziunea mai multor autori, nominalizăm: creșterea economică sporită; productivitatea mărită; răspândirea tehnologiilor de vîrf; majorarea nivelului de bunăstare, etc.

Relevăm, că avantajele globalizării nu apar doar numai din implementarea tehnologiilor avansate. Ca și alți autori, susținem opinia, că globalizarea economică cuprinde totodată și activitatea financiară, mișcarea liberă a capitalului, poate în măsură și mai mare decât tehnologiile noi, activitatea culturală, ecologică etc. reprezentând destinul incapabil spre care se îndreaptă lumea ca proces inevitabil care nu afectează pe toți în egală măsură și în același mod. Deci, globalizarea permite transferarea capitalului de orice origine în orice țară, care acordă condiții mai favorabile pentru investiții. Mișcarea liberă a capitalului este una din cele mai avantajoase forme și tendințe ale globalizării.

În general, avantajele globalizării permit ameliorarea stării tuturor partenerilor la orice scară, care primesc posibilitatea, măbind producția, de a ridica nivelul salariilor și standardele de viață. Drept rezultat final al globalizării ar trebui să devină ridicarea bunăstării în lume.

Până aici ne-am referit la integrarea economică, în continuare însă, vom analiza alt aspect al integrării – cel informațional.

Apariția tehnologiei numite Internet, au creat posibilități enorme pentru obținerea informațiilor, începând cu prețuri până la noi tehnologii. Pentru difuzarea tehnologiei “radio” au fost necesari 38 de ani, pentru răspândirea calculatoarelor personale - 16 ani, pentru televiziune – 13 ani, iar pentru Internet - numai 4 ani.

Prețurile foarte joase ale comunicării prin Internet fac factorii *distanță* și  *timp* neînsemnate, ceea ce, de fapt, este era rețelelor informaționale globale. Dezvoltarea rapidă a companiilor transnaționale se datorează, în ultimul timp, anume comunicațiilor rapide și ieftine.

În aceste condiții cunoștințele sunt un nou tip de capital, lipsa căruia face imposibile toate eforturile pentru a câștiga lupta concurențială. În contextul integrării și globalizării, dezvoltarea tehnologiilor informaționale are un șir de aspecte pozitive:

- apariția metatehnologiilor, care creează condiții de monopol natural. Aceasta înseamnă că țara-utilizator de aceste tehnologii face un salt calitativ în fabricare.
- informatizarea globală duce la simplificarea accesului la noile tehnologii, know-how în diferite domenii. A apărut posibilitatea de a desfășura conferințe Internet, ceea ce duce la o micșorare simțitoare a costului schimbului de informații între specialiști.
- dezvoltarea accelerată a tehnologiilor informaționale este foarte atractivă pentru speculații de scurtă durată, ce formează o altă sursă semnificativă de investiții.

- viteza cu care se dezvoltă tehnologiile pune pe prim-plan dezvoltarea resurselor umane, ca factor principal în aplicarea acestora în practică.
  - tehnologiile tradiționale, treptat, își pierd importanța.
- Bineînțeles că dezvoltarea tehnologiilor are și laturi negative: creșterea diferențelor dintre țările care folosesc noile tehnologii și acele care nu-și pot permite așa un lux.
- sumele alocate pentru cercetările științifice sunt foarte mari, de aceea nu toate țările le pot suporta. Se creează situația când cercetători care se ocupă de știința ultramodernă “se concentrează” în țările cele mai dezvoltate.
  - întârzierea progresului tehnico-științific într-o țară duce la degradarea ei socială și financiară.

Aceste aspecte negative pot fi înlăturate numai prin globalizarea continuă a economiei mondiale.

La etapa actuală, pentru aprecierea nivelului de globalizare a diferitor economii sunt utilizați așa numiții indici a globalizării, care sunt calculați de către diferite organizații internaționale. În baza acestor indici sunt întocmite diferite clasamente și ierarhii internaționale și naționale, care cuprind fenomenul globalizării, considerat probabil cel mai reprezentativ, pentru lumea de azi.

Astfel, A.T. Kearney Inc. din SUA și Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, care editează prestigioasa Foreign Policy calculează de șapte ani un *indice al globalizării* [2]. Cel pe 2007 ia în considerare 72 de țări, care însumează 97 de procente din Produsul Intern Brut la nivel mondial și 88 de procente din populația lumii. Este de menționat, că conform indecelui globalizării pentru anul 2007, cea mai globalizată țară pe parcursul ultimilor 3 ani se consideră Sengapore, urmată de Honcong, Niderlanda, Suedia și Irlanda. În primele zece țări globalizate s-au numărat și Danemarca, America, Canada și Iordan. Locul zăce a fost ocupat de către Estonia, care se datorează economiei acesteia strins legate de comerțul exterior și nivelului înalt de investiții. În top mai sunt incluse Marea Britanie - locul 11, Germania - locul 22, Franța - locul 25, Japonia - locul 28, Italia - locul 34, România - locul 36, Rusia - locul 62, Turcia - locul 65, China - locul 66, Brazilia - locul 67, India - locul 71.

Din păcate în acest top Republica Moldova nu figurează. Măsurată prin volumul comerțului exterior sau valoarea investițiilor străine, globalizarea Moldovei este foarte modestă la etapa actuală.

Conform, *Indicelui Global al Competitivității Economice*, „Global Competitiveness Index” evaluat pentru anii 2007-2008 de către Forumul Economic Mondial de la Geneva (World Economic Forum) [4], Moldova se situează pe locul 97 din 131 de tari, cu un coeficient de 3,64 de puncte din 7 posibile. Comparativ cu ratingul din 2006-2007, când Moldova urcase trei poziții și se situa pe locul 86 din lume, în actualul a coborât cu 11 poziții.

Potrivit ratingului din 2007-2008, Moldova urmează după Georgia, Serbia, Pakistan, Armenia, Macedonia, Nigeria și Republica Dominicană și devansează Venezuela, Kenia, Senegal, Mongolia.

Indicele Competitivității Globale (GCI) calculat în studiu evaluează 131 de tari ale lumii pe baza unei ample game de factori care afectează mediul de afaceri, grupate în 12 categorii. La categoria „instituii” Moldova s-a plasat pe locul 105 cu 3,3 puncte din 7 posibile; „infrastructură” – locul 107 (2,45 puncte); stabilitatea macroeconomică – locul 92 (4,56 puncte); sănătate și educație primară – locul 85 (5,17 puncte); învățământul superior și instruirea – locul 81 (3,66 puncte); eficiența pieței bunurilor – locul 107 (3,69 puncte); eficiența pieței muncii – locul 68 (4,28 puncte); gradul de dezvoltare a pieței financiare – locul 101 (3,68 puncte); pregătire tehnologică – locul 108 (2,51 puncte); dimensiunea pieței – locul 114 (2,31 puncte); inovațiile – locul 122 (2,87 puncte).

La nivel global, toate economiile din Europa de Sud-Est (ESE), cu excepția Croației și mai ales a Turciei, au devenit mai puțin competitive comparativ cu anul trecut. Astfel, România, a cedat o poziție față de anul trecut și se plasează pe locul 74, Ucraina – pe locul 73 – cu patru poziții mai jos față de anul trecut. Federația Rusă ocupă poziția a 58-a, cu o treaptă mai sus față de anul trecut. Pe primele locuri în ratingul World Economic Forum se află Statele Unite ale Americii, urmate de Elveția, Danemarca, Suedia, Germania, Finlanda, Singapore, Japonia, Marea Britanie și Olanda. Iar cele mai necompetitive economii au țările africane Chad, Burundi, Zimbabwe și Mozambique.

Clasamentul este realizat pe baza datelor economice disponibile, dar și a unui sondaj de opinie anual realizat de World Economic Forum și o serie de institute de cercetări partenere și organizații de afaceri, în statele evaluate în raport.

În acest an, au fost intervievați peste 11 000 de lideri de afaceri, în 131 de economii din întreaga lume. Studiul mai include un top al competitivității afacerilor „Business Competitiveness Index”, în care Moldova se afla pe locul 99 printre 127 de tari. De notat că în

clasamentul „Doing Business 2008” (Mediul de afaceri 2008) al Bancii Mondiale, Moldova a coborât de pe locul 90 pe 92 din 178 de țări.

Sumarizând cele expuse, este de menționat că Moldova, la momentul actual, are multe rezerve la capitolul globalizare și competitivitate a economiei, reieșind din locurile foarte modeste ocupate în ratingurile internaționale.

Pentru R. Moldova, perioada actuală, este mai degrabă o perioadă de preglobalizare care se caracterizează prin faptul, că au fost elaborate și se implementează mecanisme și instrumente de asigurare a creșterii economice, inclusiv:

- instrumente macroeconomice ca majorarea ponderii investițiilor în PIB și a acumulărilor în economie;
- optimizarea structurii consumului final;
- instrumente structurale ca privatizarea, reorganizarea și restructurarea întreprinderilor;
- determinarea structurilor prioritare;
- instrumente locale și regulatorii ca perfecționarea cadrului legal normativ și administrativ;
- instrumente fiscale ca ținerea sub control a deficitului bugetar și realizarea măsurilor necesare de control a cheltuielilor bugetare etc.

Perioada de preglobalizare se caracterizează și prin adoptarea unor măsuri legate de respectarea concordanței documentelor strategice și actelor legislative elaborate de OMC, BCE, OCDE, APC etc., care deschid, pe de o parte, noi posibilități pentru economia R. Moldova, iar pe de alta, impun reglementări dure privind calitatea producției, forței de muncă, ponderii agriculturii, reducerea sărăciei etc. – exigențe nu atât pentru structurile europene, cât pentru creșterea economică în țara noastră.

Aderarea la OMC începând cu a. 2001 reiese din problemele politicii comerciale ale Republicii Moldova, care prefigurează o integrare efectivă a țării în economia mondială și comerțului internațional și include în sine următoarele măsuri:

- adoptarea unor condiții nediscriminatorii de penetrare a produselor și serviciilor autohtone pe piețele străine;
- dezvoltarea posibilităților de export a țării și îmbunătățirea calității produselor și structurii exportului;
- asigurarea protejării producătorilor autohtoni în condițiile economiei deschise pe baza normelor și cerințelor OMC.

Este evident, că R. Moldova pentru a adera la procesul general al globalizării, nu poate ocoli procesele de localizare și regionalizare la nivel european. Inevitabil, ea trebuie să-și construiască calea proprie spre economia mondială ca parte componentă a unei zone geografice

locale, concomitent să-și constituie raporturi durabile și echilibrate în cadrul UE.

Totodată, trebuie să recunoaștem că globalizarea nu are alternative. Ea a devenit o realitate obiectivă a integrării economice a statelor lumii, proces început cu multe decenii în urmă, avînd astăzi ritmuri de creștere mult mai rapide.

Este evident și faptul că globalizarea cuprinde cele mai diverse domenii ale societății umane, devenind o lege universală pentru etapa actuală a procesului de internaționalizare. Totodată, componenta economică a acesteia constituie partea cea mai importantă. Anume transformările de ordin economic produse în ultimele decenii în lume, cum ar fi extinderea firmelor naționale, în căutarea de noi surse de profituri dincolo de granițele statului de origine, devenind astfel transnaționale, creșterea considerabilă a mobilității capitalului și integrarea piețelor financiare, declinul continuu al rolului și importanței economice a granițelor politice naționale, revoluția informațională etc. sunt considerate printre cele mai importante motivații ale globalizării. Indiferent dacă sunt mari sau mici, puternice sau slabe, țările sunt egale în fața noilor reguli ale schimburilor economice internaționale. Implicarea țărilor în tranziție în procesele generate de fenomenul globalizării se complică și prin faptul că integrarea acestora în economia mondială decurge concomitent cu reformarea economiilor sau tranziția acestora la economia de piață.

O variantă ce ar impulsiona procesul globalizării țării, sunt corporațiile transnaționale, care, prin pătrunderea lor pe noi piețe și fondarea filialelor, participă activ la integrarea economică la nivel micro. Trebuie de remarcat că o companie transnațională încearcă să creeze un element de uniformitate la nivelul tehnic și tehnologic al filialelor ei, indiferent în ce parte a lumii se află. Aceasta înseamnă că corporațiile transnaționale sunt un puternic importator de tehnologii noi, ceea ce este foarte atrăgător pentru țările în tranziție. Anume această trăsătură a corporațiilor transnaționale le face să devină obiectul nostru de studiu.

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## **THE DESTRUCTION OF CONVENTIONAL WEAPONS IN ROMANIA – A REQUIREMENT OF THE EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATION**

*At the end of the Cold War, most of the countries from Central and Eastern Europe have undergone profound changes, among which, the most important feature of these change processes being demilitarization. Thus, conversion in the defense sector is complex and multidimensional, including: military expenses, weapon surplus, conversion of the defense industry, conversion of the bases/barracks or demobilization.*

*In the countries not affected by conflicts, the weapon surplus is a permanent issue, due to the reduction of the number of forces or of the equipment modernization, the destruction of this surplus representing a major preoccupation of the entire international community after 1989, at the same time with the improvement of the relationships between the great powers and the transformation of the international security environment<sup>1</sup>.*

*Key words: conversion, restructuring, weapon destruction, weapon surplus, equipment.*

Reorganizing the Romanian Armed Forces and the defense systems in accordance with the requirements of joining NATO and EU has also generated big amounts of unusable weapons<sup>2</sup>. In this respect, the external policy objectives for joining NATO and EU have determined among others also the necessity of Romania's compliance to the standards of the non-proliferation policies of the NATO and EU member countries<sup>3</sup>. The ample reform process was initially stimulated by the necessities of the revolution from 1989 and by the signing of the Treaty concerning the Conventional Armed Forces (CFE) in Europe in 1990, treaty that determined Romania to do downsizing at the level of force structure and of the level of weapons from the endowment of the armed forces.

Between 1992, the date of coming into force of the treaty, and 1995, the date of the end of the final stage of reducing the number of weapons, Romania had the obligation to cut 5,065 weapons and equipment, respectively: 2,423 artillery pieces, 1,591 fight tanks, 973 armored fighting vehicles and 78 fighter planes<sup>4</sup>. According to the security need and objectives of our country, with the standards and criteria imposed by NATO, but also with the allotted resources for this purpose, the role of Romanian Armed Forces has undergone a profound transformation.

Sealing the Treaty concerning the Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE), in 19 November 1990<sup>5</sup>, has represented a real success of the joint efforts of stabilizing the international relationships and the security environment by reducing the level of military forces and weapons. This Treaty was signed by 22 NATO member states<sup>6</sup> or members of the previous Warsaw Treaty<sup>7</sup>, at the Paris summit of the 34 countries participating at the CSCE process, subsequently – as a result of the evolutions of the European security context, among which the unification of Germany, the retreat of the Soviet troops from Eastern Europe, the dissolving of the Warsaw Treaty Organization, the unilateral reduction of forces of the Soviet Union and of the countries from that region and even the dissolution of the Soviet Union – the number of the signatory states being of 30<sup>8</sup>.

The CFE Treaty was imposing legal limits on the key categories of equipment owned individually or collectively, including also provisions for information exchange and arrangements for inspections and verifications. The main categories of equipment covered by these provisions are those constituting offensive military capabilities, respectively: tanks, artillery, armored vehicles, fighter planes and attack helicopters. The limits imposed led to substantial reductions of the conventional armed forces owned by the signatory states of the Treaty.

Concurrently with the reduction of weapons, the signatory states of the CFE Treaty granted a great importance also to the reduction of armed forces, the negotiations in this respect, initiated in November 1990 having as a result the adopting of the Final Act of the Negotiations concerning the Conventional Armed Forces Strength in Europe (CFEIA) on 10 July 1992, which establishes the limits regarding the human military force<sup>9</sup>.

By the Treaty concerning the Conventional Forces in Europe (CFE) from 1990 and because of the final act of the negotiations concerning the strength of conventional armed forces from Europe (CFE-IA) from 1992, the maximum limits for the Romanian army were established as follows<sup>10</sup>:

- Strength: 230 000 military personnel;
- Conventional weapons and equipments:
  - Tanks - maximum 1 370 pieces;
  - Armored fighting vehicles - maximum 2 150 pieces;
    - out of which infantry fighting vehicles and fighting vehicles with heavy weapons - maximum 450 pieces;
    - including fighting vehicles with heavy weapons - maximum 105 pieces;

- Artillery of 100 mm caliber and heavier – maximum 1450 pieces;
  - Fighter planes - maximum 420 aircrafts;
  - Attack helicopters - maximum 110 aircrafts.
- Total heavy weapons and equipments - 5 420 pieces.

The NATO member status has brought along major changes also in the strength of the Romanian armed forces, thus, as compared to Project Force 2003, where there was stipulated a number of 112,000 personnel (28,000 civilian and 84,000 military), presently, by the Objective Force 2007, the Ministry of Defense has a structure of 90,000 personnel (75,000 military and 15,000 civilian). This long process of reorganizing the Romanian armed forces has generated new types of equipment that will come out of use.

Moreover, according to the limits imposed by the CFE Treaty, adapted in 2001, Romania was confronting a deficit regarding the endowment of the army and the number of its armed forces, as follows<sup>11</sup>:

<b>1 January 2001</b>	<b>Tanks</b>	<b>ACV (AIFV and APC)</b>	<b>Artillery</b>	<b>Attack helicopters</b>	<b>Armed forces</b>
<b>CFE limits</b>	1370	2150	1450	110	230000
<b>Endowment</b>	1367	2081	1381	<b>16</b>	158700

**Fig.1-Anthony H. Cordesman, Arleigh A. Burke, *Western Military Balance and Defense Efforts. A Comparative Summary of Military Expenditures, Manpower, Land, Air, Naval and Nuclear Forces, Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS), Washington, January 2002, <http://www.csis.org>.***

Thus, within the process of reducing the number of weapons, between the date of 17 July 1992, when the CFE Treaty came into force and 19 November 1995, the date of finishing the last stage of reducing the number of weapons, Romania had the obligation to cut down 5,065 pieces of weapons and equipment, observing in this way the limit established by the treaty<sup>12</sup>.

Romania has completely accomplished its obligation of reducing the number of weapons, this being put into practice by taking out of use

2417 artillery pieces, 1,589 fight tanks, 971 armored fighting vehicles and 73 fighter planes.

On stages, the reduction process was run as follows:

**Stage 1:** 17 July 1992 -16 November 1993 - there were cut down a number of 1,296 weapons and equipment, summing up 25% of the obligation assumed by Romania by the CFE Treaty, by which it was cutting down:

Period	TANKS	ARMORED VEHICLES	ARTILLERY
1990(G)	2960	3143	3928
1995 (CFE)	1370	2150	1450
DIF 95-90	1585	1043	2453
%DIF/1990	54	33	62
%95/90	46	67	38
2000 (MB)	1253	2050	1276
% 2000/ 90	42.3	65.2	32.5
DIF 1990 -2000	1707	1093	2652
TU-2000	1253	1851	1291
AV -2000			
MM-2000	120	208	201
TOT 2000 CA	1373	2059	1492
2010 TU	560	960	720
2010 AV	-	-	-
2010MM	-	-	-
2010 TOT ROM	560	960	720

397 fight tanks;  
263 armored fighting vehicles;  
612 artillery pieces;  
21 fighter planes.

**Stage 2:** 17 November 1993-16 November 1994 - there were cut down a number of 3,106 weapons and equipment, representing 60% of the obligation, respectively:

950 fight tanks;  
630 armored fighting vehicles;  
1,472 artillery pieces;  
47 fighter planes.

**Stage 3:** 17 November 1994 -16 November 1995 represents accomplishing 100% of the obligations assumed.

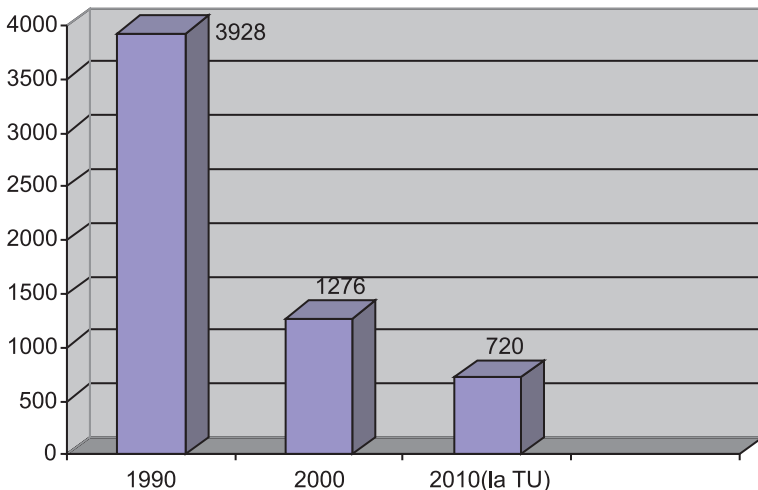
This process of weapon reducing and possession was rigorously checked by inspections run by the teams of several countries or by multinational teams and Romanian control committees.

As a result of the Final Act of the Negotiations concerning the strengths of the conventional armed forces in Europe (CFE-1 A), signed in July 1992, Romania reduces its strength from a number of 244,807 military personnel at the date of signing the treaty, to less than 230,000 military personnel, the limit established by the Treaty.

Further, we will analyze the evolution of reducing the number of weapons from 1990 until the year 2010<sup>13</sup>:

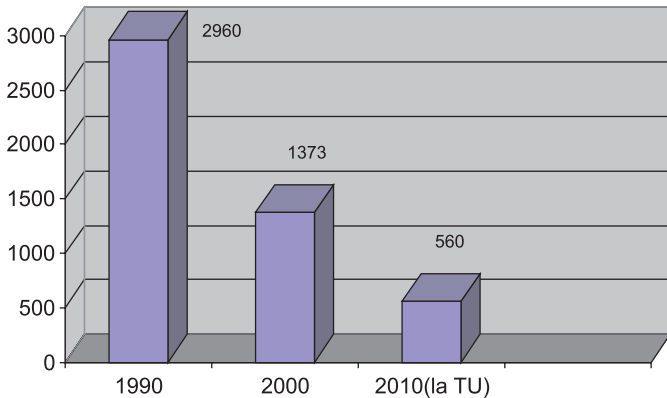
**Fig.2-Source:** *The Military Balance, 1990- 1995, 2001-2002, The International Institute for Strategic Studies, London: Oxford University Press, 2001.*

As far as the field and air defense artillery is concerned, the evolution of reducing the number of weapons from this branch, in the perspective of the year 2010 is represented by the following chart:



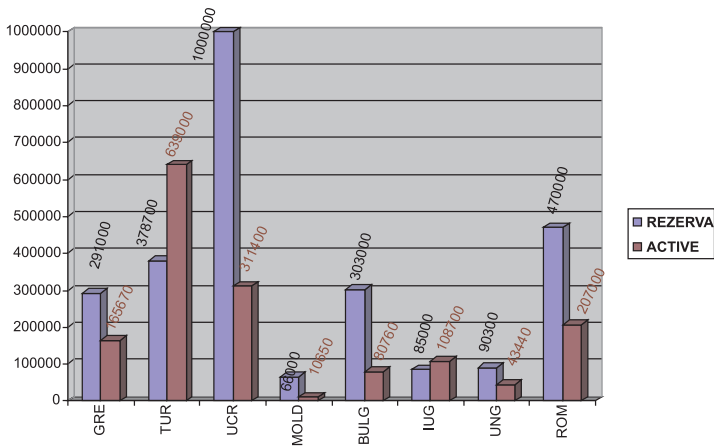
**Fig.3-Source:** *The Military Balance, 1990, 1995, 2001-2002, The International Institute for Strategic Studies, London: Oxford University Press, 2001.*

Reducing the number of tanks in the period 1990-2000 and in the perspective of the year 2010 is synthesized by the following chart:



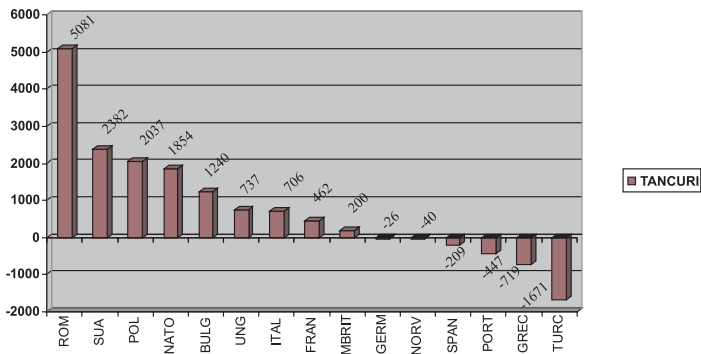
**Fig.4-Source:** *The Military Balance, 1990, 1995, 2001-2002, The International Institute for Strategic Studies, London: Oxford University Press, 2001.*

As compared to other countries in the region, the total of military strength at the level of year 2001 is presented in the following chart:



**Fig.5-Source:** *The Military Balance, 1990, 1995, 2001-2002, The International Institute for Strategic Studies, London: Oxford University Press, 2001.*

As compared to other NATO member countries, the reductions of weapon number in the same period are as follows:



**Fig.5-Source: *The Military Balance, 1990, 1995, 2001-2002, The International Institute for Strategic Studies, London: Oxford University Press, 2001.***

The official documents of the year 2001 were showing that, what concerns the land forces, “the endowment of great units, units and formations is done almost to the level established by the CFE Treaty, at the categories: tanks, armored amphibious carriers, and artillery pieces of 100 mm caliber. The infantry weapons, the antitank guns, machine guns, air defense guns as well as infantry munitions, artillery munitions, ground missiles and ground to air missiles from the endowment are provided according to the established requirements”<sup>14</sup>. In the same way, for the air forces, “the levels of the main categories of weapons are in accordance with the limits established by the CFE Treaty, that Romania is a part of”.

Therefore, at the level of year 2001 Romania was meeting completely the criteria imposed by the Treaty concerning the Conventional Forces in Europe, being a fervent supporter of this document and of accomplishing the obligations assumed by each signatory country.

If, until that moment, the European countries were encouraged to destroy the surplus of light caliber weapons, the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan represented the heaven of weapon traders, who find new markets, shows a study of the Observer<sup>15</sup> for light weapons, cited by AFP. Presently, these states export more and more weapons to Iraq and Afghanistan. Also at the level of 2001, respectively 2003, the start years of the Afghanistan and Iraq wars, Romania sold to the security forces from these countries approximately 750,000 weapons.

Thus, the issue of destroying the surplus of weapons of any type is a difficult one, extremely costly if it is done under inadequate circumstances and especially for a country such as Romania, confronted with major economical and financial difficulties in achieving the reform objectives of the whole security sector. In this context, the external help was necessary, as well financial as professional and technical. Invited by the Romanian government, a team of experts from USA and Norway paid a visit, in February 2002 in order to offer counseling on the administration of the weapon stocks and to determine the feasibility of a program for destroying the surplus of light weapons and munitions. As a result of this visit, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs from Romania, presented a National Program for destroying the surplus of light weapons and munitions, trying to find financial support for its implementation<sup>16</sup>. The National Company ROMARM was appointed contractor for running the surplus destruction program by the Minister of Defense. A number of 195,540 small arms and light weapons, including pistols, automatic rifles, machine guns, grenade launchers and mortars and 36,692,747 ammunitions pieces were destroyed in 2003 with the financial support of the United States and of Norway<sup>17</sup>.

The Ministry of Defense and the Ministry of Administration and Internal Affairs are responsible for defining and storing the surplus of small arms and light weapons. Concerning the Ministry of Defense, the General Staff must identify the surplus of small arms and light weapons by a periodical evaluation of the weapons from the endowment and to verify the state of deposited ammunition. According to the evaluation of the Romanian government from June 2006<sup>18</sup>, in 2006 there were 1,243,879 small arms and light weapons in the depots under the administration of government institutions<sup>19</sup>. For year 2007, the Ministry of Defense and the Ministry of Administration and Internal Affairs did not offer information about the quantity of ammunition and of small arms and light weapons from the depots or about the number of depots.

As a result of the NATO joining process, the Romanian armed forces were reduced progressively, so that in 2007 these were made up of a number of 90,000 personnel (75,000 military and 15,000 civilian)<sup>20</sup>. The reorganization of the armed forces has generated and will continue to generate an important surplus of equipment, including small arms and light weapons. In addition, the reorganization of the Ministry of Administration and Internal Affairs, including here the police, the military police and the border police, had as a result the identification of a surplus of small arms and light weapons, in the year 2003 being reported a number of 12,839 exceeding weapons<sup>21</sup>. This surplus of small arms and light weapons will have to be destroyed most probably and will require



the allotment of important own financial resources or finding alternative financial resources, under the form of an external assistance.

Therefore, the external assistance regarding the issue of weapon reduction and control was materialized mainly by technical assistance offered by the western experts, who are experienced in the issue of reducing weapon number and less under the form of a financial support offered by certain West-European countries.

In the last years, Romania adopted a series of norms and regulations to in line with the regional and international initiative of control of the weapon trade but also of the destruction of the surplus of small arms and light weapons. As part of the Romanian external and security policy, these decisions were also powerfully influenced by the firm option of Euro-Atlantic integration.

## Conclusions

Yearly, in the world there are destroyed approximately 430,000 surplus small arms and light weapons. Out of the 200 million military fire weapons in the world, at least 76 million constitute a surplus.

Romania's policy regarding the arms export control is based on a series of regional and international engagements. Some of these are referring exclusively to small arms and light weapons, whereas others concern the entire range of conventional weapons, including the former ones.

The Ministry of Defense and the Ministry of Administration and Internal Affairs are the only structures responsible for defining and managing the surplus of small arms and light weapons and ammunition. The process of reorganizing the Romanian Army and reducing the compulsory military service led to a surplus of weapons. In collaboration with USA, Norway engaged to offer technical assistance to Romania, by sending several teams of evaluators. This project, financed by the USA and Norway was implemented and successfully finalized in 2002 by the „Program concerning the destruction of the surplus of small arms and light weapons of the Romanian Army”, by means of which there were set aside 195,510 weapons and 64,024,790 different ammunitions, operation that involved costs of 4,870,326 dollars, out of which 1,061,999 dollars were granted by the USA.

Although the MoD did not make any public statement regarding the number of weapons stored as a „strategic reserve”, due to the reduction of the great number of military personnel, it is obvious that these reserves are continuously increasing. Up to now, due to financial constrictions and high costs that are involved in destroying weapons, Romania has not able to destroy all the surplus of small arms and light weapons, preferring to store these into depots. Thus, there are attempts to find new financing sources, Romania participating concurrently at

numerous regional and international initiatives concerning the control of small arms and light weapon, such as OSCE, EU, etc<sup>22</sup>.

In destroying this surplus of small arms and light weapons and ammunitions, the role of external assistance is extremely important for Romania, due to the fact that the won financial resources allotted for this are rather limited.

The safe storing and destruction of the surplus of small arms and light weapons and ammunition from the endowment of the Ministry of Defense and of the Ministry of Administration and Internal Affairs represents a difficult issue for Romania, due to the lack of financial resources necessary for destroying the surplus equipment or for ensuring an adequate storage.

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- <sup>7</sup> *The Bulgarian Republic, the Czech and Slovak Federative Republic, the Hungarian Republic, the Polish Republic, Romania, The Socialist Soviet Republics Union.*
- <sup>8</sup> *Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Island, Italy, Kazakhstan, Luxemburg, Great Britain, Moldavia, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Spain, USA, Turkey, Ukraine and Hungary.*
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- <sup>16</sup> *South Eastern Europe Small Arms and Light Weapons Monitor 2005, "România", p. 132.*
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